AGREEMENT AND VERB STEM ALTERATION IN SENTHANG CHIN

NGUN TIN PAR

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Researcher: Ngun Tin Par
Degree: Master of Arts in Linguistics
Advisor: Larin Adams, Ph.D
Approval Date: 26 May 2016
Institution: Payap University, Chiang Mai, Thailand

The members of the thesis examination committee:

1. ________________________________ Committee Chair
   (Chalermchai Chaichompoo, Ph.D)

2. ________________________________ Committee Member
   (Larin Adams, Ph.D)

3. ________________________________ Committee Member
   (George Bedell, Ph.D.)
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For from him and through him and to him are all things. To him be glory forever. Amen. Romans 11:36 (ESV)

Ngun Tin Par
ABSTRACT

This thesis presents some agreement patterns of Senthang, a central Chin language of the Tibeto-Burman family, and how those patterns interact with verb stem alternation in the language. Most Senthang Chin verbs have two phonologically distinct forms occurring in different types of clauses. This is called verb stem alternation and is a distinguishing feature of Kuki-Chin languages (So-Hartmann 2002, King 2009, Bedell 2012). The choice of verb stem in Senthang interacts with sets of agreement markers which agree with the subject and object of the verb. The research here shows how this interaction between verb stems and agreement sets is governed by clause type. Since nothing about this language has been published, this research directly benefits the language development of the Senthang people, and the study of related languages. Moreover, it presents a new and unique agreement pattern to the world.
ชื่อเรื่อง: ความสอดคล้องทางไวยากรณ์และการแปรของรูปคำศัพท์ กริยาในภาษาเซนทัง-ฉิ่น
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บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยนี้นำเสนอรูปแบบความสอดคล้องทางไวยากรณ์ในภาษาเซนทัง-ฉิ่น ซึ่งเป็นภาษาที่มีเจ้ากลางในตระกูลภาษาทิเบต-พม่า และอีกอย่างรูปแบบต่างกันที่มีปฏิสัมพันธ์อย่างไรกับการแปรรูปของกริยา คำศัพท์ กริยา คำศัพท์ในภาษาเซนทัง-ฉิ่น การระบุความสอดคล้องกับรูปแบบต่าง ๆ ซึ่งปรากฏในการประยุกต์ใช้พื้นฐานที่แตกต่างกัน การแปรรูปของคำศัพท์ กริยา ซึ่งเป็นลักษณะเฉพาะที่พบในกลุ่มภาษาภู-กี-ฉิ่น (So-Hartmann 2002, King 2009, Bedell 2012) ตัวเลือกของรากคำศัพท์ในภาษาเซนทัง ตัวรับความสอดคล้อง ซึ่งสัมพันธ์กับประธานและกรรมของคำศัพท์นั้น ๆ งานวิจัยนี้ยังแสดงให้เห็นถึงความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการระบุความสอดคล้องนั้นขึ้นอยู่กับประเภทของวลี ดังนี้ ภาษาภู-กี-ฉิ่นไม่มีการตัดพิมพ์หรือการรูปแบบใหม่ ๆ มาก่อนงานวิจัยชิ้นนี้จะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อการพัฒนาภาษาของกลุ่มคนเซนทัง และการทำนักศึกษาภาษาอื่น ๆ ที่ศึกษาเกี่ยวกับภาษาภู-กี-ฉิ่น งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้นำเสนอรูปแบบความสอดคล้องที่มีลักษณะเฉพาะ แบบใหม่ให้กับโลก
## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements ........................................................................................................ i
Abstract ......................................................................................................................... iii
บทคัดย่อ ...................................................................................................................... iv

List of Tables ................................................................................................................... viii
List of Figures ................................................................................................................ ix
List of Abbreviations and Symbols ................................................................................ x

Chapter 1 Introduction .................................................................................................... 1
  1.1 Overview of thesis .................................................................................................... 1
  1.2 The Senthang people ............................................................................................ 4
  1.3 The Senthang language and related languages ..................................................... 7
  1.4 Methodology ......................................................................................................... 9

Chapter 2 Literature Review ........................................................................................... 11
  2.1 Overview of the chapter ......................................................................................... 11
  2.2 Other studies on Senthang ................................................................................... 11
  2.3 Descriptions of closely related languages ............................................................ 13
  2.4 Studies on verb alternation and agreement .......................................................... 15
    2.4.1 Lai .................................................................................................................... 15
    2.4.2 Mizo ............................................................................................................... 17
    2.4.3 Falam/Zahou .................................................................................................. 18
    2.4.4 Tiddim and Sizang ......................................................................................... 19
    2.4.5 K’Cho Chin .................................................................................................... 20
    2.4.6 Daai Chin ....................................................................................................... 20
    2.4.7 Others ............................................................................................................ 22
    2.4.8 Conclusion ..................................................................................................... 23
  2.5 General grammatical studies ................................................................................ 24

Chapter 3 Basic Phonology and Grammar of Senthang .................................................... 25
  3.1 Overview of the chapter ......................................................................................... 25
  3.2 Phonology ............................................................................................................. 25
  3.3 Grammar overview ............................................................................................... 28
    3.3.1 Transitive and intransitive clauses ................................................................. 28
    3.3.2 NP structures .............................................................................................. 32
6.12 Variations on agreement patterns 1 and 2 ........................................108
  6.12.1 Causative-inchoative pairs ..................................................108
6.13 Complex predicates (Two-part verbs) ........................................111
  6.13.1 Complex predicate: Attributive intransitive ..........................114
  6.13.2 Complex predicate: Attributive transitive .............................115
  6.13.3 Complex predicate: Action body part .................................118
  6.13.4 Complex predicate: Action non-body part .............................119
  6.13.5 Conclusion of complex predicate ........................................119
6.14 Chapter conclusion ....................................................................120
Chapter 7 Conclusion ........................................................................121
  7.1 Introduction ..............................................................................121
  7.2 Summaries of previous chapters ..............................................121
  7.3 Findings ..................................................................................122
Bibliography .....................................................................................123
Appendix A Selected Examples .......................................................127
Resume ............................................................................................194
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Predicate agreement pattern 1 & 2 ......................................................... 2
Table 2 Predicate agreement pattern 3 ................................................................. 3
Table 3 Predicate agreement pattern 5 ................................................................. 3
Table 4 Subjects of agreement sets 1, 2, 3 ............................................................ 4
Table 5 Consonant chart ...................................................................................... 25
Table 6 Vowel chart ............................................................................................. 26
Table 7 Tones with minimal pairs ....................................................................... 26
Table 8 Orthography to phonology correspondences ........................................ 27
Table 9 Non-negative declarative agreement markers ........................................ 32
Table 10 Features of case, postposition, and relational nouns ......................... 43
Table 11 Postpositions in Senthang ..................................................................... 44
Table 12 Locative nouns in Senthang .................................................................. 46
Table 13 Agreement markers set 1 ....................................................................... 47
Table 14 Agreement markers set 2 ....................................................................... 47
Table 15 Agreement markers set 3 ....................................................................... 47
Table 16 Agreement markers set 4 ....................................................................... 47
Table 17 Senthang pronouns: Informal ................................................................. 48
Table 18 Senthang pronouns: Formal .................................................................. 48
Table 19 Senthang genitive/possessive particles ............................................... 49
Table 20 Agreement forms used in polar interrogative (Set 3) ......................... 52
Table 21 Content interrogative in Senthang ......................................................... 53
Table 22 Agreement forms used with negation (Set 2) .................................... 55
Table 23 Adverbial in Senthang .......................................................................... 68
Table 24 Examples of causative-inchoative verbs in Falam, Lai, Senthang, and Burmese ................................................................. 72
Table 25 Causative-inchoative verbs in Senthang ............................................. 73
Table 26 Some verb stem alternations in Senthang ........................................... 74
Table 27 Types of phonological changes in verb stem alternation ............... 75
Table 28 King (2009) list of stem alternation environments ......................... 76
Table 29 Semantic and syntactic environments for verb stem alternation .... 77
Table 30 Agreement set 1 summary .................................................................... 92
Table 31 Agreement set 2 summary .................................................................... 94
Table 32 Agreement set 3 summary .................................................................... 96
Table 33 Agreement set 4 summary .................................................................... 98
Table 34 Logically possible predication patterns .............................................. 104
Table 35 Causative-inchoative verbs in Senthang ............................................. 111
Table 36 Complex predicates in Senthang ......................................................... 112
Table 37 Agreement marking in an attributive intransitive complex predicate 115
Table 38 Agreement marking in an attributive transitive complex predicate ... 116
Table 39 Agreement in body part action complex predicates with AGT=PT ..... 118
Table 40 Predicate agreement patterns with constructions ......................... 120
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Areas where Senthang people reside: Myanmar (left), Chin State (right) .....5
Figure 2 Senthang Area in Hakha Township, Chin State, Myanmar.........................6
Figure 3 Senthang as Central Chin: Chin Subgroups (Bradley 1997)..........................7
Figure 4 Senthang as Mariac (Main Spoken Languages of Myanmar)......................8
Figure 5 Central Chin lexicostatistic similarity percentages (Mann 2006) (taken from
Craft & Craft 2010:9)........................................................................................................9
Figure 6 Preliminary subgrouping of Chin lagugages (Khoi Lam Thang 2001:28)....12
Figure 7 NP structure in Senthang ..................................................................................33
Figure 8 Postpositional phrase in Daai Chin (from So-Hartman (Daai Chin))...........43
**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<td>*( )</td>
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<td>Relativizer</td>
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<td>-------------</td>
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<td>Vl.asp</td>
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<td>VP</td>
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Chapter 1
Introduction

1.1 Overview of thesis
This thesis investigates the patterns of agreement and verb stem alternation in Senthang, a Kuki-Chin language spoken in Myanmar. There are four different sets of agreement particles in Senthang depending on clause types. The subject agreement markers are different in the four sets but the object markers are the same. These agreement sets are called agreement marker sets 1-4 in this work.

Set 1 agreement markers are found in intransitive declarative sentences taking verb stem I (see examples (1) and (2)). When agreement markers from set 1 occur with stem I verbs, the resulting pattern is called Predicate Agreement Pattern 1.

(1) Ka thw .
   ká ṭʰʷ
   1S.AG.SG  sit.I
   I sat.

(2) Malaipu a chy .
   má.la₁.pú ?à ṭʰ⁹
   man  3S.AG  die.I
   The man died.

Set 1 agreement markers are also found in transitive declarative sentences taking verb stem II (see examples (3) and (4)). When agreement markers from set 1 occur with stem II verbs, the resulting pattern is called Predicate Agreement Pattern 2.

(3) Ka ca den .
   ká tsá ḍᵉⁿ
   1S.AG.SG  2O.AG  beat.up.II
   I beat you up.
(4) **ABawi ka hwmh.**

?əbɔi ká hyr̩?
ABawi 1S.AG.SG see.II
I saw ABawi.

Table 1 summarizes predicate agreement patterns 1 and 2 in Senthang by showing all possible agreement markers and that the verb stem is stem I and II respectively. As is shown in the table, the only difference between the singular and plural of these subject agreement markers is tone. Singular subject markers have high tone while plural ones have low. There is no third person object agreement marker in this agreement set.

**Table 1 Predicate agreement pattern 1 & 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>AG.S</th>
<th>(AG.O)</th>
<th>V\textsubscript{I/II}</th>
<th>(PL)</th>
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<tr>
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<td>ma</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>nà</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>tsa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>?á</td>
<td>?à</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ø</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now consider the negatives in intransitive negative (5) and transitive negative (6).

(5) **ABawi thw veh.**

?əbɔi tʰv veʔ?
ABawi sit.I NEG
ABawi did not sit.

(6) **Ca deng veh ni.**

tsá dəŋ veʔ? ni
2O.AG beat.up.I NEG 1S.AG.SG
I did not beat you up.

Both of these examples take verb stem I, and while the object agreement particles have the same form and position as in those of agreement pattern 1, the subject agreement markers are different in form and position. These agreement markers and their position are referred to as agreement set 2 and form what is here labeled predicate agreement pattern 3.
Another pattern of Senthang agreement occurs in yes/no interrogative clauses. This pattern takes verb stem I (see (7) and (8)). The subject agreement markers are post-verbal, unlike pattern 1 but like pattern 3. An interrogative marker is not used.

(7) ABawi thw i ?
?abói tʰr ᵇi
ABawi sit.I 3S.AG
Did ABawi sit?

(8) Ca deng ni ?
tsá dəŋ ni
2O.AG beat.up.I 1S.AG.SG
Did I beat you up?

The subject agreement markers for first and second persons are the same form as in agreement set 2 but with a different tone (mid). However, there is a third person subject agreement marker ᵇ in agreement set 3. The object agreement markers are the same as in those of clause agreement patterns 1 and 2. Table 3 presents the clause agreement pattern 5 and where the markers occur in relation to the verb.

Table 2 Predicate agreement pattern 3

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<td>ma</td>
<td>ve?</td>
<td>nì pì</td>
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<td>tsa</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>hai</td>
<td>tsì tsì</td>
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<td>ø ø</td>
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Table 3 Predicate agreement pattern 5

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<td>tsì</td>
<td>tsì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ᵇi</td>
<td>ᵇi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 compares the differences between the subject agreement markers of these agreement sets in Senthang. Although set 1 and set 3 have third person agreement markers, set 2 does not have them. In all patterns, first person has singular and plural forms. Second and third persons are less specified. Number in $S_1$ is differentiated by tone but number is not always marked in $S_2$ and $S_3$. However, number is marked by a different marker $hái$ (see Table 1, Table 2, Table 3). $S_2$ and $S_3$ have the same form of first and second person agreement markers except for their tone.

Table 4 Subjects of agreement sets 1, 2, 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>$S_1$</th>
<th>$S_2$</th>
<th>$S_3$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
<td>SG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ká</td>
<td>nì</td>
<td>pì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>nà</td>
<td>tì</td>
<td>tì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>?á</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ø</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To sum up, although Senthang has verb stem alternations like other Chin languages, the choice of verb stems seems to intersect with different set of agreement markers. This thesis attempts to identify all sets of agreement markers and to describe the semantic and syntactic environments in which they occur, especially the verb stem used in those environments. The ultimate goal of this thesis is to uncover all the patterns of interactions between agreement sets and verb stem alternation.

1.2 The Senthang people

Pu Thein Za Lian (2005)\(^1\) states that the earliest the name “Senthang” appeared in print is in Carey & Tuck (1896) in which the Senthang were mentioned as “Southern independent villages”. He proposed that the name existed before 1892, for 1896 is the year they published the book but Carey and Tuck were in Senthang area in 1892. He also states that the name “Senthang” occurred in the ancestors’ lullaby\(^2\) (in Phaipha dialect), though the date or time when the song was composed is unknown.

\(^1\) This article was written for SBA (Senthang Baptist Association) magazine

\(^2\) The lullaby: (1) “Um papu, um papu, umki umkaw su zì hai....tahang sung ei Senthang mihcari nu khaw, ti liamliam mawh, lian pampam maw, tantan dìh vainu khui. (2) Ka nu maw suih tawtaw, ka pu maw suih taw taw, lengbawi sakhi kap hai ee.... Senthang pa peng lao daidin tong” (Pu Thein Za Lain 2005).
The following is the most common oral story, according to Pu Thein Za Lian (2005), of how the name “Senthang” was received. Once upon a time, a man named Pu Tin Thang from Sakta village went on a raid and reached Ro village which is in Mindat province of Southern Chin State. Once they learned the raider was Tin Thang, they referred to everyone from Tin Thang’s area as people from Tin Thang’s village. But they had mistakenly pronounced the name Tin Thang as Senthang.

The estimated population of the Senthang people is 32,000 (Craft & Craft 2010). The majority of the Senthang people reside in the mountainous Chin State, the northwest part of Myanmar, and in Magwe and Sagaing Divisions (see Figure 1). Some people live in cities in Myanmar such as Hakha, Kalaymyo, Mandalay, and Yangon. Many of the younger generation go abroad to work (such as in Malaysia, Singapore or India), or to migrate to more-developed countries such as the USA, Canada, Australia, Denmark, etc in order to have a better life.

![Figure 1 Areas where Senthang people reside: Myanmar (left), Chin State (right)](http://www.baptistworldmission.org/project/disaster-relief-chin-state-myanmar/)

![Figure 1 Areas where Senthang people reside: Myanmar (left), Chin State (right)](http://careysuante.blogspot.com/2010/03/map-of-chin-statezogam.html)
Outsiders call the target language group “Senthang”. The Senthang people refer to themselves as “Senthang” with outsiders, or when they denote the whole Senthang community among themselves. However, when they interact with each other, they would mention themselves as “Phaipha” or “Surkhua” which is basically the name of the village where they are from. It means that the names of the villages are also the names of the dialects. The dialects are mutually intelligible with each other, so that Senthang from different villages can each use their own dialect and still communicate with each other. However, some dialects such as Surkhua, Sakta, and Buanlung are more difficult to understand for those who grew up outside of the Senthang area compared to Phaipha and Khuapi dialects.

Figure 2 Senthang Area in Hakha Township, Chin State, Myanmar

I am grateful to Pu R.HramCeu who let me use this wonderful map of his.
There are 54 Senthang speaking villages in total: 36 villages in Chin State (34 in Hakha Township (see Figure 2) and 2 in Than Tlang Township), 15 villages in Magwe Division, and 3 villages in Sagaing Division. The language of wider communication (LWC) in the Senthang areas of Chin State is Hakha or Than Tlang but it is Burmese elsewhere in Chin State and Myanmar.

1.3 The Senthang language and related languages

Senthang is linguistically one of the Chin languages which are sub-grouped under the Kuki-Chin branch of Tibeto-Burman Languages. Senthang has been grouped under two different families of the Chin language groups: Central Chin or Mariac. Some linguists put Senthang under Central Chin along with Falam, Hakha, Mizo and some others (Bradley 1997, Mann 2006; Craft 2010:9). Figure 3 is an example of Senthang being grouped under Central Chin. The latest Ethnologue, however, shows Senthang in the Maraic, Kuki-Chin, Tibeto-Burman, Sino-Tibetan family (Ethnologue 2015), together with Mara, Lautu, Zyphe, and Zotung (see Figure 4).

![Figure 3 Senthang as Central Chin: Chin Subgroups (Bradley 1997)](image-url)
Figure 4 Senthang as Mariac (Main Spoken Languages of Myanmar)\textsuperscript{6}

Figure 5 shows the percentages of the lexicostatistic similarity of Central Chin by Mann (2006). Among the stated languages, Lautu 1, 2, 3 & 4, Zyphe, Hakha, Thantlang, Falam, ThawrA and Senthang are 80% or more similar to each other. Surprisingly, Lautu 4 has the highest rate of similarity to Senthang: 86%. Moreover, Thantlang (similar to Hakha by 94%) and Senthang show 84% of similarity. It is interesting to note that the similarity rate of Senthang to Falam is higher than to Hakha by 3% although Senthang and Hakha are closer and have more contact with one another.

\textsuperscript{6}The map is taken from Myanmar Information Management Unit 2015. The tree diagram beside is drawn by the researcher.
1.4 Methodology

This research is based on data collected in a dialect spoken in Phaipha village. The researcher hopes that it will have the most profitable impact on the community in the future since the dialect was chosen to use in further language development activities. Besides, the researcher speaks the Phaipha dialect herself as her mother tongue. Growing up with Senthang parents outside of the Senthang area, the researcher speaks Senthang (Phaipha) well and also some other related languages such as Falam (well), Lai, Mizo and Burmese.

The goal of this research is to give an initial grammatical sketch of the Senthang Chin (Chapter 3) and to provide extensive information about the verbal agreement system including how it interacts with verb stem alternation (Chapters 4-6). It does not describe all the grammatical features of the language in detail but focus on those interacting with the verbal agreement system.

The researcher conducted a field trip in 2014 and collected some texts (sequence story, experience story, fairy tales, and some wordlists) from two language resource persons (LRPs) who speak Phaipha as their mother tongue: one from Phaipha village and another from Hakha town. The text and example sentences were then
transcribed and interlinearized by the researcher using a tool called language called Fieldworks language explorer (FLEX). However, most of the example sentences used in this research were formed by the researcher as needed while analyzing the language based on the basic linguistic theory from the authors listed in section 2.5 as well as other related Chin languages with the guidance of the advisor and native speaker intuition.
Chapter 2
Literature Review

2.1 Overview of the chapter
In this chapter, descriptions of Senthang from previous works (2.2), descriptions of closely related languages such as Lai, Falam, Mizo, Tiddim, Daai, and K’Cho Chin (2.3), studies on verb stem alternation and agreement (2.4), and general grammatical studies that provide the descriptive terms for this research (2.5) are discussed.

2.2 Other studies on Senthang
While a number of linguistic articles have been written about Hakha Chin, as well as about some other Chin languages, nothing has yet been published which focuses solely on the Senthang language. This section lists the research studies (published & unpublished) found by the author in the field of linguistics which include Senthang.

The first study is ‘A Phonological Reconstruction of Proto Chin’ by Khoi Lam Thang (2001). The author used 21 Chin languages including Senthang in his lexicostatistical analysis (See Figure 6).

Based on the lexicostatistical analysis result, he made a preliminary subgrouping of Chin languages, dividing the 21 languages into two groups with their sub-groups (A: I, II, III, and B: IV, V), in which Senthang is under group A: II along with Lai, Falam, Thantlang, Mizo, Khualsim, Taisun, Zaniat, and Bualkhua.

He selected Mizo and Hakha to be the representative languages from this group (group A: II), and Tiddim from A: I, Kaang from B: III, Mara from B: IV, and Khumi from B: V for further analysis into a phonological reconstruction of Proto Chin. The result based on the phonological reconstruction suggests that there are two main groups of Chin languages, although there are some differences in the lexicostatistical analysis. It is noted that both Mizo and Hakha, which represent Senthang’s group, are in the same group in both the lexicostatistical analysis and the phonological reconstruction. Thus, the research suggests that Mizo and Hakha are closely related to Senthang. For that reason, works on Mizo and Hakha are correspondingly valuable to the current study.
Figure 6 Preliminary subgrouping of Chin lagugages
(Khoi Lam Thang 2001:28)

The second work is a survey reported by Craft & Craft (2010) titled ‘A Sociolinguistic Survey of Senthang Chin Varieties in Hakha Township, Chin State, and Gangaw Township, Magway Division, Myanmar (2010)’. The survey evaluated language vitality among the Senthang people in order to help decide whether vernacular literature development among the Senthang was viable. Further, if the need for such development was found, then the survey sought to determine the most suitable variety or varieties for language development. The survey results show that language development is viable in Senthang. The central dialect spoken in Phaipha, Khuapi, Bungzung, and Lei-Um was recommended.

The last two papers are the unpublished phonological analysis of Senthang:

1. Bolanio (2013) did her phonology term paper on Senthang Chin. This analysis is based on 215 words taken from MSEA Word List (revised for AL603). Since this paper is based on such a small number of words, the current study does not refer to it.

2. Craft & Craft (2012) also analyzed the Senthang phonology. This is a reliable analysis and the results can be applied to some extent in the current research.
2.3 Descriptions of closely related languages

David Peterson (2003) describes ‘Hakha Lai’, one of the Chin languages by discussing three linguistic features: phonology, inflectional morphophonemics, and syntax. In the phonology section, segmental phonology, suprasegmental phonology, syllable structure and morphophonemics are discussed. The author goes into more detail in the section on morphemes, which includes nominal inflection, verbal inflection, and derivational morphology. He then shows the NP syntax, the clausal syntax, and major sentence types of the language in the last section. The author provides valuable insight into the grammatical functioning of the language in this work. Many observations in the present work on Senthang have come from this work by Peterson.

This article ‘Postpositions and Relational Nouns in Lai’ by Bedell (2000) identifies the lexical categories found in a certain Lai construction. This construction contains a word followed by a postposition (word + postposition), which, when translated, seems to function like a single preposition would in many other languages like English. However, the author claims that combination is actually made up of a relational noun followed by a postposition. He shows this by looking at various examples, all taken from the Lai translation of the gospel according to Matthew, in Lai Baibal Thiang (1999).

The article has two sections. In the first section, the author analyzes and proves that the syntactical use of the two words from the given combination ‘chung’ and ‘ah’ are different. Thus, they belong to different grammatical categories. The author classifies ‘ah’, as a postposition and ‘chung’ as a relational noun, since ‘chung’ has the characteristics of a relational noun. The second part of the article deals with identifying other relational nouns in Lai.

The process used in the article to identify the word classes of ‘chung’ and ‘ah’ is outlined below:

i. chung ah can occur together and behave like a postposition
ii. chung can occur by itself
iii. ah can also occur without chung
iv. facts two and three (chung can occur by itself, and ah can occur by itself) were proved by using deictics
   - chung + deictics
   - ah + deictics-n(suffix)
v. *chung* and *ah* cannot co-occur with genitives in the same way
   -possessive + *chung*
   -possessive + *ah*

vi. Therefore, they do not belong to the same grammatical category
   -*ah/i*, *in*, *nih*, and *he* are the only four postpositions of Lai
   -*chung* and other *chung-like* words belong to relational nouns

vii. *chung-like* words in Lai belong to lexical category of relational nouns because:
   - they have some shared properties with nouns: “heading complement to postpositions, heading modifiers of other nouns, being modified by noun phrases, and being able to be accompanied by possessor agreement particles” (p.10)
   - but there are some properties that they don’t share with nouns: they do not refer to objects but have some relations to objects (e.g. *chung* ‘interior of something’), they do not occur in subject or object positions in a sentence, but in adverbial function and most often accompanied by postpositions.

The discussion in this article helps to justify a description of Senthang as having both relational nouns and postpositions.

In his article *The Syntax of Deixis in Lai*, George Bedell (2001) investigates the syntactic contexts of Lai deictic particles: *hi* ‘this, near me’, *kha* ‘that, near you’, *khi* ‘that, over there (visible)’, and *cu* ‘that, over there (not visible)’. Senthang deixis is similar but more detail on the occurrence and meaning of deictics in Senthang is provided in the current research.

The article ‘Nominal Auxiliaries in Lai’ examines the word ‘*awk*’ in order to determine the grammatical category of the word and the syntactic structures in which it appears. The author makes a conclusion that the word is a noun functioning as an auxiliary predicate.

The author gives some evidence for terming the particle as a noun functioning as an auxiliary predicate. There are three nominal functions of the particle ‘*awk*’:

- it cannot be marked for tense/aspect or agreement which appears on the copula ‘*si*’.
- it can be followed by a postposition (usually ‘*ah*’).
- it allows complex copula agreement.
The author also provides syntactic structures in which the particle ‘awk’ appears. The particle can either be a predicate or head of a predicate phrase, or head of a complement phrase or clause. There is another particle in Lai, ‘ding’, that functions like the particle ‘awk’. However, the particle ‘ding’ can also function as an adverbial particle which is not possible with ‘awk’. These observations on Lai are not central to the current study.

The article *Tone and Syllable Structure in Hakha-Lai* by Larry M. Hyman & Kenneth Vanbik (2002) analyzes the tone system of Hakha-Lai. It examines tone change in the language: “the relation between tone and syllable types, and specifically which syllable structures allow contour tones” (p.15).

According to the article, there are five rules which apply to tone sandhi in Hakha-Lai and are as listed below (they are in order: the first rule precedes the second in applying over tone changes and so on). Falling Simplification Rule (FSR)

1. CVT – R Rule
2. R-R Rule (RRR)
3. Initial Falling Rule (IFR)
4. Rising Simplification Rule (RSR)

Hakha-Lai has three underlying tones: Falling (F), Rising (R), and Level (L), and three syllable structures in general: “smooth” syllable, “checked” syllable, and “reduced” syllable. Any of the underlying tones is allowed in a “smooth” syllable. However, in “checked” syllable, C V V T allows only level (L) tone and there is no contrast tone, while C V T has an underlying tone (R), and there is no underlying contrast but surface contrast (Rising versus Falling). This thesis restricts itself to a basic description of phoneme and tone in Senthang.

### 2.4 Studies on verb alternation and agreement

This section describes studies on verb stem alternation and agreement in some related languages such as Lai Chin, Mizo Chin, Falam/Zahou Chin, Tiddim Chin, K’Cho Chin and Daai Chin.

#### 2.4.1 Lai

In his article *Agreement in Lai*, Bedell (1996) analyzes the pronominal particles in Lai Chin, which he considers to be “a system of agreement marking between the verb and its subject and object” (p.24). The author says that the agreement particles in Lai occur with the verb and differentiate the person (first, second, third) and number
(singular, plural) of the subject or object of the clause in transitive and intransitive declarative sentences as well as imperative sentences.

The agreement particles have a fixed order in a clause and are obligatory. The subject particles precede the verb and the plural subject agreement particles are formed by adding a suffix –$n$ to the singular forms. Singular subject and object agreement particles have the same forms. However, the object particles follow the subject particles and plurality of the objects (and subjects of intransitive verbs) is indicated by the number particle $hna$ which follows the verb. However, in imperative clauses $hna$ indicates the plurality of only third person subjects and objects. First and second person subjects take another number particle, $u$, which follows the verb, too. Imperative in the first and second persons are indicated by mood particles $ning$, $sih$, and $seh$. Bedell’s study shows a pattern of agreement similar to Senthang, but some different forms from Senthang exist.

Verb stem alternation in Daai Chin by So-Hartmann (2002): In this paper, the author talks about Lai verb stem alternation as presented by Lehman (1996:46). The choice of verb stem in Lai correlates to the transitivity of the verb. Verb stem I is used in intransitive verbs except for gerundives and nominalizations. In transitive verbs, stem II can be found only with negatives. However, other linguists who study Lai verb stem alternations have come to realize that verb stem alternation in Lai “seems to be conditioned by an interplay of various constructional distinctions” (So-Hartmann 2009:98).

Tone and Stem2-Formation in Hakha (Lai Chin) by Larry M. Hyman & Kenneth Vanbik (2002a): The article demonstrates the important role of tone and stem 2 formation in Hakha-Lai. Patterns of stem formation are not easily perceived in Senthang and thus are largely ignored in this study.

Structural and Pragmatic Functions of Kuki-Chin Verbal Stem Alternations by King (2009): King categorizes how stem II in Lai is formed by 4 types of sound changes:

1) addition of final oral stop to vowel/diphthong.
2) /ŋ/ ~ /n/.
3) final stop ~ glottal stop.
4) glottalization of final sonorant.

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7 The information provided for related languages is summarized in the relevant sections below, and the conclusion of this study is displayed in section 2.4.7.
King also provides the functions of verb stem in verbal context in the language. Lai uses stem 1 in intransitive and antipassive declarative/subject question/complement clauses, subject relativizations, imperatives, yes/no questions, and in conditional clauses. Stem 2 forms of verbs are found in transitive declarative/subject question/complement clauses, causatives/benefactives, nonsubject questions, nonsubject relativizations, conditional clauses, adverbial clauses, non-finite subordinate clauses, and in nonagentive nominalizations.

2.4.2 Mizo

In the article The Grammar of Simple Clauses in Mizo by Chhangte (1989), the author mainly “describes the basic syntactic structure of modern Mizo using the current linguistic theories” (p.95). Mizo is an SVO word order language. Depending on the focus, OSV (object is focused) and OVS (event is focused) are also possible. Mizo has a partially ergative system which is marked on the NPs. The VP, however, is marked with a nominative/accusative system.

According to Chhangte, Mizo has two forms of pronouns; free and clitic\(^8\) forms. The free pronouns are optional in a sentence, while the clitic forms are obligatory in a VP except in relative clauses, imperatives and in wh-questions without a subject. The clitic forms are also used in NPs to denote the possession of an N. The nominative clitics and the first person accusative clitic are preverbal while the second person accusative clitic is post-verbal. There is no third person accusative clitic in the language. Only ‘deictic motion particles’ (directional) and the reciprocal/reflexive markers can occur between the pronominal clitics and the V.

There are two verbal forms which have the same meaning but differ in their phonological appearances, usually in their tone (there are four tones: mid/low, high, rising, and falling) and final segment of the words. They are called Stem I and Stem II. Stem II seems to have low or falling tone with a final stop or glottalized vowel. However, there is no systematic basis for how Stem I differs from Stem II in this language.

Chhangte proposes that there are not two separate verb classes, but then goes on to list some general areas where the different forms occur. For instance, in wh-questions in Mizo, Stem II is used when the object is unknown while Stem I can be seen only when the object is known but not the subject. She also suggests that there

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\(^8\) In this study, they are called agreement markers and treated as separate words.
is a relationship between tone, information and syntactic construction where Stem II forms bear mostly low tone and used for known information and more passive constructions. She also provides evidence where the stem II form is a noun form, and the Stem I form is verb. Chhangte’s study provides promising areas for research but no conclusions.

2.4.3 Falam/Zahou

In King’s *Structural and Pragmatic Functions of Kuki-Chin Verbal Stem Alternations*, Mizo and Falam are very similar. For that reason, both of them are discussed in this section. King generalizes five ways in which Kuki-Chin languages form stem 2, and these ways are: 1) addition of final oral stop to vowel/diphthong, 2) /ŋ/ ~ /n/, 3) final stop ~ glottal stop, 4) glottalization of final sonorant, and 5) nasal ~ stop. However, only types 1, 3 and 4 occur in Mizo, while types 1-4 can be all found in Falam. Type 5 can only be found in Northern Chin languages.

Stem 1 occurs in declaratives, complement clauses, subject questions, subject relativizations, conditional clauses, contrafactual/circumstantial, and in agentive nominalizations in both Mizo and Falam. Likewise, stem 2 can be found in nonsubject questions, nonsubject relativizations, adverbial clauses, non-finite subordinate clauses, and in nonagentive nominalizations. Only stem 2 occurs with causative *tur* and benefactive *sak* in Mizo while Falam choose different stems, stem 1 with causative *ter* and stem 2 with benefactive *sak*.

Khar Thuan (2008:74-86) uses the terms ‘primary verb stem’ and ‘secondary verb stem’ instead of stem 1 and stem 2 in his work *A Phonological Description of Falam Chin*. He analyzes the phonological patterns of verbal stem alternation in Falam on the following areas: nasal alternation, stop alternation, glottalization, vowel shortening, and vowel coalescence including the tone conditions.

According to Khar Thuan, the primary verb stem in Falam occurs in these circumstances: focus, clause with absolutive, imperative and declarative clause, and clause with yes-no interrogative. The secondary verb stem occurs: non-focus, clause with ergative, causative, associative and benefactive, passive sentence, sentence with indirect object, relative clause, nominalized clause, adverbial clause, and indirect object. The author said some verbs in Falam have a tertiary verb stem and they “occur when there is an indirect object in a subordinate clause” (p.77).
It is interesting to note that in King’s analysis of this language, ergative clauses and benefitactives take stem 1 in Falam, which is contrasted to Khar Thuan’s in which both take the secondary verb stem (stem 2). Moreover, Khar Thuan shows no stem distinction between relative clauses and nominalized clauses whereas King’s showed stem distinction in agent focus versus non-agent focus.

Speaking from personal experience, having lived at Falam town for 14 years, older people who are originally from Zongte, TlauHmun, or SunThla villages seem to use more verb stem alternation in colloquial speech than people who grew up in Falam town. Looking at both King and Khar Thuan’s examples when stem 2 verbs occur, this researcher would use stem 1 instead. Also, for the tertiary verb stem Khar Thuan mentioned, it would be stem 1 plus the benefactive particle.

Here, the agreement system in Falam will be explained from the researcher’s own knowledge. Like other Kuki-Chin languages, Falam has verbal agreements that mark the core arguments of the verb. Falam’s agreement system distinguishes person (first, second, third) and number (singular, plural). The agreements are pre-verbal and obligatory as in Lai except for plural agreement particle hai and uh. The particle hai is similar to Senthang plural marker and corresponds to Lai’s hna, and it marks the plurality of any subject in an intransitive clause (mostly second and third person) and second and third person objects in transitive verbs. The particle uh also resembles u in Lai and uh/luh in Senthang. Falam subject agreements are similar to that of Hakha (Lai) except for their tones: ka ‘first person singular’, na ‘second person singular’, a ‘third person singular’, with the plural form formed by adding suffix -n to the singular forms. The singular forms are also similar to those of one of Senthang’s agreement sets. The second person object is marked with ló for both singular and plural (plural also takes hai). There is no third person singular object agreement marker, but hai marks third person plural object. If the object is a second/third person, the subject agreement markers is required. However, if the object is first person singular or plural, a combined subject and object agreement particle i (sg)/ in (pl) is used, and the subject noun phrase is marked with the ergative case marker nih. Adding any subject agreement marker would be ungrammatical in this case.

2.4.4 Tiddim and Sizang
King (2009) provides some examples of how Tiddim and Sizang verbal stems are formed phonologically: 1) add a final oral stop to a vowel/diphthong, 2) /ŋ/ to /n/, 3) final stop to glottal stop, 4) glottalization of final sonorant, and 5) nasal to stop.
She also examines the functions of verbal stem alternation in these languages. Both Tiddim and Sizang use stem 1 in declarative and in complement clauses while they use stem 2 in conditional clauses, adverbial clauses and non-agentic nominalizations. These languages uses sak as the particle for both causatives and benefactives but stem 1 is used when it has a causative sense while stem 2 appears when it is used as a benefactive. In imperatives, yes/no questions, and some conditional clauses which reflect irrealis mood, Sizang chooses stem 1.

2.4.5 K’Cho Chin

In the work, *A syntactic and pragmatic description of verb stem alternation in K’Cho, a Chin language*, of Kee Shein Mang (2006), the researcher explores the syntactic and pragmatic contexts of the verb-stem alternation (which is a very common feature of Chin languages) in K’cho Chin and makes the conclusion that the two main functions which determine the stem choice in the language are syntactic and pragmatic.

According to Kee Shein Mang, these constructions in K’Cho Chin chose stem I: subject arguments of nominalization and relativization, valence decreasing, complement clauses marked by subordinator ah, switch reference clauses, sentence focus, predicate focus and unmarked narrow focus, and deontic possibility marking, and permission/command. The marked forms (stem II) are found in relation to: non-subject nominalization and relativization, valence increasing, complement clauses without any subordinator, adverbial clauses, narrow focus and contrastive focus, and deontic necessity denoting obligation. The environments of stem alternations in K’cho Chin are different from Senthang but similar environments are explored in the current study.

2.4.6 Daai Chin

So-Hartmann (2002), in her article *Verb stem alternation in Daai Chin*, illustrates the phonological arrangements of verb stem alternation in Daai Chin, which is not a common feature in Daai Chin unlike other Chin languages such as Lai. She also discusses the grammatical context of a clause which makes the verb stem choice different in a particular clause.

SoHartman divides the verbs into four classes. Class I, which contains 927 out of 1116 verbs in So-Hartmann’s data, doesn’t have an alternate form. In Class II, Stem
A⁹, the base form in which the verbs are of open or closed syllables with long or short vowel with either mid-level or high tone, are changed into Stem B by dropping the coda and shortening the vowel, then become phonologically bound morphemes. Stem B forms are the base forms in Verb Class III and IV. The alternate (Stem A) pattern is mostly formed by adding a glottal stop plus vowel shortening in Class III. There are three subgroups under Class IV. The base forms in the three sub-groups tend to have a high tone and also there is no vowel length differentiation. The final coda changes from velar nasal to alveolar nasal in subgroup (a), while there is no change except for tone in subgroup (b), in which both stems can have the nasal codas. Subgoup (c) contains glides on both stems and stem B always has a high tone.

The author then gives the syntactic environments where Stem A and Stem B occur in Daai Chin. Stem A can be found: after the subject agreements, before the particle vai¹⁰, in subordinate clauses with certain conjunctions (such as if, as soon as, when, when/after, while/during, in order/so that, because), and with nominalizations. Stem A also occurs with applicative particles in declarative, imperative and negative clauses. Stem B occurs in imperative, negative, interrogative, permissive, before the conjunction lu in non-finite clauses, and before tense markers¹¹. Relativization of the agent takes Stem B while relativization of both place of action and quality of action take Stem A in Daai Chin. The current study provides a similar but more detailed perspective on Senthang that combines agreement and stem alternation.

So-Hartmann (2009: 71-76, 97-106, 231-246) describes the verbal agreement system and the verbal stem alternation of Daai Chin in her thesis *A Descriptive Grammar of Daai Chin*. She argues that agreement marker in Daai Chin are not clitic but periphrasatic models. Both the subject and object agreement precede the verb denoting the arguments of the verb. Agreement in Daai Chin distinguishes persons (1ˢᵗ, 2ⁿᵈ, 3ʳᵈ) and numbers (singular, dual/plural). There are first, second and third person subject agreements for both singular and dual/plural. Inclusive is only marked for the first person dual/plural agreement. First person singular object agreement is identical to the second person singular subject. The dual/plural of first and third person object are marked the same. There is no third person singular object agreement in Daai Chin. Indirect objects take the same marker as direct objects. However, only one object is marked in Daai Chin, usually the indirect object.

⁹ She uses the terms Stem A and B instead of Stem I and Stem II in which either Stem A or Stem B could be the base form of the verb. Stem A is the base form in Class II Stem A of Class III and IV are the alternate forms.

¹⁰ “This particle marks exhortative and suggestive clauses and frustrated purpose.”

¹¹ =kti marks non-future while =kkhui marks future in Daai Chin.
in ditransitive or transitive verbs with benefactive particle. Apart from preverbal subject agreements, there is a post verbal first person subject enclitic = ngū.

Subject agreements always precede object agreement in Daai Chin. In a simple indicative clause, first and second are obligatory while third person is optional. Subject agreements are also required in interrogative clauses while no subject agreement is allowed in imperative, and negative clauses in which only first person subject is marked with = ngū. There is first person agreement marker in hortative clause which is a subtype of imperative.

So-Hartmann also provides some discussion on how the agreement markers and verb stem alternation interact. The first person subject agreement takes stem A in indicative clause. However, it takes stem B if the focus is on the agent. The first person subject agreement marker is obligatory in both cases. The second person, however, always takes stem B with tense markers = kti and = kkhai, and is also obligatory. The third person subject marker follows the same pattern as of first person; it takes stem A without = kti in indicative clause but it occurs with stem B and the tense marker = kti when the focus is on the agent. However, with stem B, the third person subject agreement marker itself is not allowed.

She points out that focus overrides the default verb stem choice in transitivity. And the “applicatives have the strongest influence and are able to alternate the general pattern in most clause types” (p.112).

So-Hartmann’s stem B resembles Stem 1 of King’s analysis (King 2009) and the current study, and stem A to Stem 2. Although the ‘focus’ that the author discusses in her study is ‘agent’ and relativization of agent takes a different stem from both that of place of action and quality of action in Daai Chin, there is no discussion on agent/subject-focus or nominalization/WH-questions which might take the same stem.

2.4.7 Others

By looking at the phonological pattern and the functions of verbal stems of available data of five Kuki-Chin languages, namely Lai, Mizo, Falam, Tiddim, and Sizang Chin (the first three are Central and the last two are Northern Chin languages), in her article ‘Structural and Pragmatic Functions of Kuki-Chin Verbal Stem Alternations’, King proposes to use the terms agentive voice and nonagentive voice in describing the verb stem alternations of Kuki-Chin languages in the future because the functions of
verb stem alternations in all five languages are distinguishable by agent focus and non-agent focus.

King states that “the nature of stem alternations is rooted in their historical derivation” in the Chin languages. She assumes that stem 2 forms are derived from two distinct processes: a nominalizing -t and a causative/benefactive -ʔ which is a synthesis she draws from Chhang and Matisoff’s analyses.

King generalizes five characteristic ways in which the verbal stem alternations are formed phonologically, and they are: 1) addition of final oral stop to vowel/diphthong, 2) /ŋ/ ~ /n/, 3) final stop ~ glottal stop, 4) glottalization of final sonorant, and 5) nasal ~ stop. She said that the types 1 and 2 are derived from a nominalizing -t while types 3-5 are from causative/benefactive -ʔ.

Dixon (2010a:116-117, 2010b:190) states that some languages have two sets of pronouns: free and bound. The bound pronouns, which are usually clitic or affixal, attach to the verb “as realization of a core argument” in general and are usually obligatory. A clause can be formed with just a verb and bound pronoun. If a language has this system of bound pronoun markers, Dixon says that it is also common for it to use the same set of markers as possessive markers which attach to nouns.

Senthang is in the same category of languages having the two pronoun systems that Dixon talks about. However, Senthang has more than one set of what Dixon calls ‘bound pronouns’. One of the sets not only attaches to the verb but also to the noun to mark its possessor. This study uses the term ‘agreement’ marker/particle following other descriptions of Kuki-Chin languages such as Lai (Bedell 1998, Peterson 2003), and Daai Chin (So-Hartmann 2008).

2.4.8 Conclusion

These Chin languages are similar in having two kinds of pronouns; the optional personal pronouns and the obligatory agreement markers that agree with the subject and object arguments of a verb with a rigid word order. At least one set of obligatory (mostly) preverbal subject agreement markers that mark the core arguments and distinguish its person and number is observed in the languages.

In a similar way, verbs with two formations are observed in these languages. The phonological feature of alternating from the velar nasal coda /ŋ/ to alveolar nasal /n/ and glottalization are widespread among these Kuki-Chin languages. However,
there is no clear rule on what determines the base form. The syntactic environments of stem alternation vary from language to language; stem distinction between subject vs non-subject nominalization and relativization seems to be common across all the stated languages.

There are many studies on the verb stem alternation on this language group especially in syntactic correlation. However, research concerning their interaction with agreement markers has not been done yet.

**2.5 General grammatical studies**

This thesis employs a basic descriptive approach with little theoretical commitment in its description of Senthang grammar. In this same vein, various works dealing with such basic linguistic description were used such as Dixon (2010a, b), Givón (2001), Kroeger (2005), Shopen (2007), and (Payne 1997). Dixon (2010a, b) and Kroeger (2005) were used more than the others and much terminology was taken from them as well.
Chapter 3
Basic Phonology and Grammar of Senthang

3.1 Overview of the chapter
This chapter is divided into two parts. The first provides the fundamental phonological information of the Senthang language and the second its grammar overview.

3.2 Phonology
This phonology statement is very preliminary and based loosely on an unpublished study from Craft & Craft (2012). It puts forward consonant and vowel charts and makes some basic observations on tones.

Table 5 Consonant chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>labio</td>
<td>inter</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stop</td>
<td>VL.asp</td>
<td>pʰ</td>
<td>tʰ</td>
<td>kʰ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VL.</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vd.</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>VL.</td>
<td>(f)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vd.</td>
<td>v</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>γ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>VL.</td>
<td>ȵ</td>
<td>ŋ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vd.</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>ŋ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affricate</td>
<td>VL.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td>VL.</td>
<td></td>
<td>ɾ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vd.</td>
<td></td>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Phoneme /f/ is a marginal segment which seems to come from Hakha Lai Chin. This is found mostly in people’s names especially girls’ as in Ngun Tha Fam, Fa Hnem Tia, and in borrowed words from Lai.

Senthang appears to have eight vowels, with one clear allophone [e]. The [e] occurs after [i] or [j] and /ɛ/ is the underlying phoneme.
Craft & Craft (2012) suggest that:

“Senthang has two vowel diphthongs, /ia/ and /ua/. That these are diphthongs is shown by the fact that they can occur together with a final consonant /m/, /n/, or /ŋ/, in the same way as the pure vowels. Other vowel-like sequences are interpreted as vowel plus final consonant /j/ or /w/: aj, aw, oj, uj, iw, uaj. (written as ai, au, oi, ui, io, and uai) These sequences cannot occur with a final nasal consonant. Therefore, the second (or third, in the case of uaj) member of each sequence can be interpreted as a consonant rather than a vowel.” (p21)

There are three contrasting tones in Senthang shown in Table 7. Craft & Craft (2012: 32) report on tone as follows:

“The tone of a word, particularly verbs, can change to indicate grammatical information. For example, the first syllable of personal pronouns is lower for plural pronouns than for the corresponding singular. This low tone associated with the plural also affects the inflection of some verbs. Tone can differentiate between tenses. Many words have one tone in indicative forms and another in imperative forms. This is probably evidence of verb stem alternation similar to that found in Daai, K’Cho, and many other Chin languages. As in other languages, the quality of the vowel and the syllable coda can also change with verb stem alternation. Tone can also be the only difference between an intransitive and a transitive form of the same verb (perhaps also part of verb stem alternation).”

### Table 6 Vowel chart

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highness</th>
<th>Openness</th>
<th>Font</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>Close</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>u</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>Close-mid</td>
<td>ə</td>
<td>ʊ</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Open-mid</td>
<td>ε [e]</td>
<td></td>
<td>ɔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Open</td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 7 Tones with minimal pairs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tone</th>
<th>Examples in IPA</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High (-)</td>
<td>\textsuperscript{1}{b\textdagger}</td>
<td>blood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid (-)</td>
<td>\textsuperscript{1}{b\textdagger} ə</td>
<td>wind, die</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low (-)</td>
<td>\textsuperscript{1}{b\textdagger} ɔ</td>
<td>slide</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All the consonants appear at the initial position. Only nasal consonants (/m/, /ŋ/, /ŋ/) and glottal stop /ʔ/ are allowed syllable-finally. There is one possible glottalized nasal coda [mʔ]. The segment /ʔ/ appears with every word beginning with any of the vowels of Senthang but there is no phonemic representation for it (no phonemic representation for onset glottal). But in the codas, it is marked (e.g. angky /aŋ.kó/ ‘shirt’ cf. kyh /kóʔ/ ‘hand’) and in the orthography it appears as ‘h’.

Therefore, it is proposed that the syllable structure formula of Senthang is: C V (V) (C) (C) T.

The Senthang orthography was designed in May 2008 using a Latin script based on the language of wider communication, Hakha (also called Lai). Among the different dialects, Phaipha was selected to use as the main dialect to develop the language and it is used in this study.

Table 8 shows the relationship between the orthography and the preliminary phonology proposed here.

**Table 8 Orthography to phonology correspondences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orthography</th>
<th>IPA</th>
<th>Orthography</th>
<th>IPA</th>
<th>Orthography</th>
<th>IPA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>/b/</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>/z/</td>
<td>u</td>
<td>/u/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>/r/</td>
<td>aw</td>
<td>/a/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ph</td>
<td>/pʰ/</td>
<td>hr</td>
<td>/r/</td>
<td>w</td>
<td>/r/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>/d/</td>
<td>h</td>
<td>/n/</td>
<td>y</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>-h</td>
<td>/n/</td>
<td>ai</td>
<td>/a/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>th</td>
<td>/tʰ/</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>/n/</td>
<td>ei</td>
<td>/e/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>/ts/</td>
<td>hn</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>awi</td>
<td>/a/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ch</td>
<td>[tsʰ]~ /tʰ/</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>/m/</td>
<td>ui</td>
<td>/u/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>/l/</td>
<td>hm</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>au</td>
<td>/a'/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hl</td>
<td>/l/</td>
<td>-mh</td>
<td>/mʔ/</td>
<td>eu</td>
<td>/e'/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>ng</td>
<td>/ŋ/</td>
<td>ia</td>
<td>/a/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kh</td>
<td>/kʰ/</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>/a/</td>
<td>ua</td>
<td>/a/'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v</td>
<td>/v/</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>/æ/</td>
<td>uai</td>
<td>/a/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>/f/</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>/i/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>/s/</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>/o/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3 Grammar overview

This section gives an overview of Senthang grammar and then discusses the basic clause structures for transitive and intransitive clauses, the basic word order, and the case marking system (3.3.1). Then NP structures (3.3.2) and non-verbal clauses (3.3.3) are discussed. A description of functional word classes (3.3.4) such as case markers, postpositions, relational nouns, pronouns and agreement markers follows. Finally, various clause types are looked at in (3.3.5).

3.3.1 Transitive and intransitive clauses

Senthang is a verb-final language, so the verb normally comes at the end of the clause, after the subject and object; the default word order is SOV. This is shown in examples (9) and (10). Arguments are case-marked (some are zero-marked) and the system is mostly ergative-absolutive in which the subject of an intransitive verb and the object of a transitive verb are marked the same while the transitive subject is marked differently. The ergative case in Senthang is marked with nɔʔ as in (10) while the absolutive default marking is zero as in (9)12 and (10).

(9) ABawi ø a thw .
    ʔabɔi ø ʔà tʰγ
    ABawi ABS 3S.AG sit.I
    ABawi sat/ ABawi is sitting.

(10) ABawi (nawh) y ø a coh .
    ʔabɔi nɔʔ ʔɔ ø ʔá tsóʔ?
    ABawi ERG dog ABS 3S.AG.SG buy.II
    ABawi bought a dog.

The demonstrative/deictic particles kʰʒ and tsú sometimes occur in the absolutive case position instead of the ‘ø’ zero-marker. They denote old/known information. The subject argument of the verb ‘dance’ is optionally marked with either kʰʒ/ʦú in (11). In the same way, the object argument of the verb ‘beat.up’ is marked optionally with kʰʒ in (12).

12 Many sentences are vague about tense and aspect. Thus (9) could be either a completed past event or an ongoing present event. Unless this distinction is important in the discussion, the past completed free translation will be given for all examples.
(11) **Maliapu** (cu/khaw) a lam.
   má.lai.pú tsú/kho ʔá lam
   ABawi DEM.info 3S.AG dance
   *The man danced/is dancing.*

(12) **ABawi nagh PaSiang (khaw) a den.**
   ʔəbəi nəʔ pá siaŋ kʰə ʔá đɛn
   ABawi ERG PaSiang DEM.info 3S.AG.SG beat.up.II
   **ABawi beat up PaSiang.**

Although both (10) and (12) have the same word order, SOV, the ergative case marking in (12) is obligatory unlike in (10). Similarly, (13,a) is ungrammatical without the ergative case marker. For the most part, when the object argument is non-human, the ergative case is optional as in (10), but when the object argument is human (12, 13) then the subject is marked with the ergative nəʔ. Therefore, human arguments are prominent in Senthang.

(13)

a. *Y ABawi a ko.*
   ʔá ʔəbəi ʔá kò
dog ABawi 3S.AG.SG bite.II
   *The dog bit ABawi.*

b. *Y *(nawh)* ABawi ø a ko.*
   ʔá nəʔ ʔəbəi ø ʔá kò
dog ERG ABawi ABS 3S.AG.SG bite.II
   *The dog bit ABawi.*

c. **ABawi ø y *(nawh) a ko.**
   ʔəbəi ø ʔá nəʔ ʔá kò
   ABawi ABS dog ERG 3S.AG.SG bite.II
   *The dog bit ABawi. (not someone else)*

Examples (13.c) and (14) show that OSV word order is also possible in Senthang clause structure. However, the ergative case marker cannot be omitted in this word order regardless of the ‘human’ status of the object argument.
(14) PaSiang khaw ABawi *(nawh) a den .
Pá.sIan kʰɔ̃ ʔəbɔ̃i nɔʔ ʔá qèn PaSiang DEM.info ABawi ERG 3S.AG.SG beat.up.II
ABawi beat PaSiang up.

With ditransitives, word order among the argument noun phrases is relatively free. Here agent (A), recipient (R), and theme (T) are used to abbreviate the arguments in examples (15) A R T, (16) A T R, (17) T A R, (18) R A T, and (19) R T A. Fronting an NP occurs in order to increase the prominence of the argument semantically or to control the hearer’s (counter)-expectation.

(15) [A R T]
ABawi nawh LungLung (khaw) tangkaw a peih .
ʔəbɔ̃i nɔʔ lùŋ.luŋ kʰɔ̃ tāŋkɔ́ ʔá péʔ?
ABawi ERG LungLung DEM.info money 3S.AG.SG give.II
ABawi gave LungLung money.

(16) [A T R]
ABawi nawh tangkaw (khaw) LungLung a peih .
ʔəbɔ̃i nɔʔ tāŋkɔ́ kʰɔ̃ lùŋ.luŋ ʔá péʔ?
ABawi ERG money DEM.info LungLung 3S.AG.SG give.II
ABawi gave (the) money to LungLung.

(17) [T A R]
Tangkaw khaw ABawi nawh LungLung (khaw) a peih .
tāŋkɔ́ kʰɔ̃ ʔəbɔ̃i nɔʔ lùŋ.luŋ kʰɔ̃ ʔá péʔ?
money DEM.info ABawi ERG LungLung DEM.info 3S.AG.SG give.II
ABawi gave the money to LungLung.

(18) [R A T]
LungLung khaw ABawi nawh tangkaw (khaw) a peih .
lùŋ.luŋ kʰɔ̃ ʔəbɔ̃i nɔʔ tāŋkɔ́ kʰɔ̃ ʔá péʔ?
LungLung DEM.info ABawi ERG money DEM.info 3S.AG.SG give.II
ABawi gave LungLung (the) money. (not to someone else)
Although case-marking and word order interact with grammatical functional marking, the major way of marking grammatical function in Senthang is agreement in the verb complex. Agreement will be the focus of Chapter 5. This discussion briefly gives an overview of how the agreement markers work in both transitive and intransitive non-negative clauses.

Case is marked by an ergative system in this language as has been explained, but agreement is marked by an accusative system. The subject agreement markers of an intransitive verb and those of a transitive verb are the same, while the object agreements markers are different.\textsuperscript{13}

The subjects in both (20) and (21) are first person singular. The subject agreement markers of both transitive (20) and intransitive (21) clauses are the same kā, while the object agreement marker of the transitive clause (20) is marked differently, here tsa.

\textbf{(20) Kamu nawh namu ka ca den .}

\begin{verbatim}
  kā mú nā? nā.mū kā tsā dēn
  1S  ERG  2S  1S.AG.SG  2O.AG  beat.up.II
\end{verbatim}

\textit{I beat you up.}

\textbf{(21) Tawngkhwang paw awh kamu ka thw .}

\begin{verbatim}
  tāŋ.kʰɔŋ pāʔ sā kā mú kā tʰʷ
  chair top  LOC  1S  1S.AG.SG  sit.I
\end{verbatim}

\textit{I sat on the chair.}

Depending on the function of the sentence, the form and the location of the agreement markers will change. For non-negative declarative clauses like (20) and (21) the forms of their agreement markers are shown in Table 9 below. These occur pre-verbally, as in this schema: \([A.G.S A.G.O V]\)\textsubscript{v-complex}.

\textsuperscript{13} In this thesis, agreement markers are treated as independent morphemes. However, they can also be viewed as bound morphemes in the verb complex.
Table 9 Non-negative declarative agreement markers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ká</td>
<td>kà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ná</td>
<td>nà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>?á</td>
<td>?à</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verb stem alternation also occurs in Senthang, and the alternate forms correlate with the semantic/grammatical function of the sentence. Compare the verb, ชั, in (20) with the verb, , in (22); although both have the same semantic meaning ‘to beat someone up’, their phonological forms are not the same. (20) is declarative and thus requires the form (588,520),(624,541) while (22) is interrogative which requires the form (572,542),(603,563).

More detailed discussion on this topic is provided in Chapter 4.

(22) Ca  Deng  ni  ?
    tsà    ❣η  ni
    20.AG  beat.up.II  1S.AG.SG

Did I beat you up?

3.3.2 NP structures

This section discusses the NP structure in Senthang. It includes the internal structure of the NP, some of the NP’s modifiers as well as some different types of NPs.

“A Noun Phrase ... is a phrasal constituent whose head is a noun. ... They can function as subjects, primary or secondary objects, and objects of prepositions” (Kroeger 2005:87). An NP can be a single noun or a noun head accompanied by a variety of modifiers, i.e. determiners, numerals, attributive adjectives, and relative clauses (Dixon Vol. I 2010:106 and Payne 1997:86).

Figure 7 shows the internal structure of an NP in Senthang. The head N can be preceded by a possessive phrase, a relative clause and a demonstrative. It can be followed by a modifier phrase, a number phrase or a quantifier, a demonstrative and by case optionally.
First, an example of a complex NP that contains many of the constituents from Figure 7 is given. Then, a few examples of NPs that show variation in constituent position or other ordering restriction are provided.

Example (23) shows a complex NP in which the head noun lákʰɤ ‘hat’ is preceded by a possessive noun phrase and a demonstrative phrase, and followed by a modifier phrase, number phrase, a demonstrative, and a topic marker.

\[(23)\] 
\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
\text{kʰí} & \text{le}^{1} & \text{ei} & \text{ka} & \text{po} & \text{lwkhw} & \text{a} & \text{sen} & \text{mi} & \text{maw} & \text{thwm} \\
\end{array}
\]
\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
\text{that} & \text{place} & \text{LOC} & \text{1.GEN.PL} & \text{father} & \text{hat} & \text{3S.AG.SG red} & \text{NMLZ} & \text{CLF general three}
\end{array}
\]
\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
\text{hai} & \text{khaw} & \text{cu} \\
\end{array}
\]
\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
\text{há}^{1} & \text{kʰi} & \text{tsú} \\
\end{array}
\]
\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
\text{PL} & \text{DEM} & \text{TOP}
\end{array}
\]

*my father's three red hats over there*

### 3.3.2.1 Head of an NP

In Senthang, common nouns, proper nouns, nominalized verbs, pronouns, possessive NPs, and demonstrative phrases can be the head of an NP. Examples which show some possible NP heads in Sethang are provided below. The words in brackets to the right of each example give the type of NP head for each example.

\[(24)\] 
\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
\text{banhl} & \text{ka} & \text{coh} & . & \text{[common noun]}
\end{array}
\]
\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
\text{bàn.} & \text{lù} & \text{ka} & \text{tsú}\text{"rw}
\end{array}
\]
\[
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
\text{banana} & \text{1S.AG.SG buy.II}
\end{array}
\]

*I bought bananas.*
(25) Namu ka ca peih . [pronoun]
   ná.mú ká tsá pêʔ
   2S 1S.AG.SG 2O.AG give.II
   I gave (it to) you.

(26) Kyhting tan nawh ngai ci ? [nominalized verb]
   ká.ţîŋ tán náʔ jâi tsi
   nail cut NMLZ own.I 2S.AG
   Do you have some nail-clippers?

(27) Khaw lei ei khow ka dw am . [demonstrative phrase]
   kʰʔô le¹ ʔe¹ kʰʔô ká dýʔ am
   DEM place LOC DEM 1S.AG.SG like more
   I prefer that one there.

3.3.2.2 Demonstratives
Demonstratives can occur in two positions: pre-head (28) and post-head (29). In the pre-head position, they occur optionally with the particle le¹⁴ or with the postposition ʔe¹ as in (28). However, if a demonstrative occurs after the head N, as in (29), then it cannot take either le¹ or ʔe¹. For this reason, (30) is ungrammatical. Demonstratives may also occur both before and after the head noun in one sentence as in (31). In (31), the demonstrative phrase comes first, then the relativized verb ʔm‘exist’ with mî follows optionally before the head N ʔîn ‘house’, the demonstrative kʰʔ follows next and then the topic marker tsû.

(28) khi lei ei inn
   kʰʔ le¹ ʔe¹ ʔîn
   that place LOC house
   (that) house there

(29) inn khi
   ʔîn kʰʔ
   house that
   that house

---

14 Lei ei is pronounced ła.ʔe¹. Ei is a locative postposition optionally followed by a relative clause such as a wm mî ‘that exists’. The particle lei which is shortened when the postposition ei followed is a relational noun.
When a demonstrative is after the noun, it can be internal to a postposition as in (32). This pattern is used to emphasize the location of the head noun in some context.

(32) khi lei ei inn law-kha-nawh
    kʰí leⁱ ?eⁱ ʔín lɔ-kʰa-nāʔ
    that place LOC house at-that-Loc
    at that house there

Demonstrative phrases, like those in examples (20), (23) and (24), can be followed by explicit relative clause marking, as in (23) without changing the meaning. Therefore, it is hypothesized that these are relative clauses rather than demonstrative phrases.

3.3.2.3 Modifiers: relative clauses and attributives
Like demonstratives, relative clauses also can occur in two places, before or after the head noun. Example (33) shows a relative clause which occurs before the head noun ʔín ‘house’. The same relative clause in (33) can occur after the head N which is shown in (34). Unlike relative clauses, attributive verbs (state verbs or adjectives) only occur after the head noun as in (33) and (34). If they occur before the head noun without being relativized as in (35), it is unacceptable.

(33) a thaw mi inn sen
    ʔà tʰɔ mi ʔín sen
    3S.AG new REL house red
    a new house that is red
Possession
Possessive NPs can occur inside Senthang NPs. Senthang possessive NPs consists of a genitive marker (which is similar to one of the agreement marker sets in Senthang) and a possessed noun. Sometimes, the possessor possesses the head noun. Other times, the possessive NPs might be embedded inside a relative clause which modifies the head noun or inside a locative noun phrase. Possessive pronouns will be discussed in section 3.3.4.2.

Number – classifier – quantifier
Two modifier phrases which fill the same slot in the constituent of Senthang NPs are number phrases (36) and quantifiers (37). The number phrase and the quantifier cannot co-occur. A number phrase in Senthang consists of a classifier and a number [CLF NUM]. If the classifier is omitted in (36), it will become ungrammatical. Thus, the classifier is obligatory in Senthang. Both the number and a quantifier follow the noun as in the examples given below.

(36) angky *(zun) thwm
    ?aŋ.ko zùn ñ̄rm
    shirt CLF.cloth three
    three shirts

(37) inn tampy
    ?ín ñám.pí
    house many
    many houses
3.3.3 “Non-verbal” clauses
In this section, Senthang non-verbal clauses are discussed. Equative, locative, existential, attributive and possessive clauses are described with examples. The copula ʃi ‘be’ is used in equative clauses, ʔrm ‘be.at/exist’ is used in locative and existential clauses, and ɳd ‘possess’ is used in possessive clauses. Attributive clauses, however, do not take any particular copular verb. Copulas, like other verbs, are clause final unless they are negated or found in interrogative sentences.

3.3.3.1 Equative clause
In Senthang equative clauses, copula ʃi ‘be’ relates the two NPs. The first NP is marked with a topic marker tsú which is one of the demonstrative particles and is “used anaphorically and refer to entities which have already been identified in the preceding discourse context” (So-Hartmann 2008:162). However, the second NP is unmarked. The copula ʃi is accompanied by all relevant person agreement markers just like usual verbs in Senthang. The copular VP occurs at the end of the clause.

The structure of the equative clause in Senthang is schematized below.

\[ S_{\text{EQUATIVE}}: \text{[NP } tsú\text{]} \ [\text{NP}] \ [\ldots \text{ʃi}\ldots \text{VP}] \]

In (38), the predicate NP is definite because núni and ká naː.ṭé have the same referent (Kroeger 2005:175). The copula ʃi links a pronoun and a NP denoting an instance of a set in (39), and two definite NPs in (40). The subject NPs are marked with tsú in all the examples.

(38) Nuni cu ka nautei a si.
\[ \text{núni tsú ká naː.ṭé} \ ?à ʃi \]
Nuni TOP 1.GEN.SG sibling.younger 3S.AG be

Nuni is my younger sibling.

(39) Ani cu sianghawhteī a si.
\[ \text{ʔá.ni tsú siang.híʔ.ṭé} \ ?à ʃi \]
3S TOP student 3S.AG be

She is a student.

15 Other deictic particles such as hi, khaw, and khi can also occur depending on the context.
This flower is ngukaihpaw.

3.3.3.2 Locative clause

A locative clause in Senthang takes the verb ?èm ‘exist’ which can also be used as full verb meaning ‘stay’ or ‘live’. It behaves like a normal verb, occurring clause finally and taking any relevant person agreement markers. The theme NP is marked with either tsú or kʰz which indicates old or known information, and precedes the PP, which identifies the location of the theme. The PP in the locative clause is obligatory. The choice of tsú or kʰz does have some effect on the meaning since kʰz is more anaphoric. The structure of locative clause in Senthang is schematized below.

\[
S_{\text{LOCATIVE}}: [\text{NP} + \text{cu/khaw}] [\text{PP}]_{\text{LOC}} [...]_{\text{VP}}
\]

The theme NP malaipu in (41) is marked with the topic marker cu while the NP poss ná lá.kʰz in (42) is marked with kʰz. The NPs in both (41) and (42) are then followed by locative PPs, and then ?èm ‘exist’.

(41) Malai pu cu ka inn hmai awh a wm .
\[
\text{má.la}.\text{pú} \text{ tsú ká } \hat{\text{f}} \text{máo } \hat{\text{f}} \hat{\text{f}} \text{ ?à } \hat{\text{f}} \text{èm}
\]
man TOP 1.GEN.SG house front LOC 3S.AG exist.1

The man is in front of my house.

(42) Na lwkw kwah ka ham awh a wm .
\[
\text{ná } \text{láo.kʰz kʰz ká hám } \hat{\text{f}} \hat{\text{f}} \text{ ?à } \hat{\text{f}} \text{èm}
\]
2.GEN.SG hat DEM 1.GEN.SG beside LOC 3S.AG exist.1

Your hat is beside me. (Lit. Your hat is at my side.)

3.3.3.3 Existential clause

\[
S_{\text{EXISTENTIAL}}: [\text{PP}_{\text{LOC}}] [\text{NP}] [...]_{\text{VP}}
\]

The structure of the existential clause in Senthang is as the above schema. Like the locative clause, the existential clause in Senthang also takes the verb ?èm which is glossed here as ‘exist’. Unlike locative clauses, however, the theme NP of an existential clause is unmarked and is preceded by an optional locative PP in the existential clauses.
In both (43) and (44), there is a clause-initial locative PP, followed by an NP and the existential ʔm.

(43) A hlan law awh pheiphei le cavomphwp a va wm hai.
    ?á ɬá ɬ.ə ɬə ɬə lè tsə.əəm.pə ɬə ɬə ə ə ʔm əi
    3 GEN SG before at rabbit CONJ bear 3S AG ASP exist I PL
    Before, there were a rabbit and a bear.

(44) Ka in hnw awh tyvu a wm .
    kà ʔin ɭə ʔə tə.ru ə ʔm
    1 GEN PL house behind LOC river 3S AG exist I
    There is a river behind our house.

Unlike in locatives, if an existential clause like (44) is negated as in (45), it does not presuppose the existence of the subject NP. The verb ʔm exceptionally takes stem II form under negation which is not common in Senthang (see Chapter 4).

(45) Ka in hnw awh tyvu wm veh .
    kà ʔin ɭə ʔə tə.ru ʔm veʔ?
    1 GEN PL house behind LOC river exist II NEG
    There is no river behind our house.

### 3.3.3.4 Attributive clause

\[ S_{\text{attributive}}: [ [NP] (cu) ] [VP] ] \]

Unlike the other non-verbal clauses, attributive clauses in Senthang do not have any copular verb. The theme NP is optionally marked with a topic marker tsú.

The predicate complement in example (46) expresses the color of the NP ká ʔag.ko ‘my shirt’ while that in (47) states the size of the NP.

(46) Ka angky ( cu ) a rang .
    kà ʔəŋ.kə tsú ə yaŋ
    1 GEN SG shirt TOP 3S AG white
    My shirt is white.
Most of the attributive verbs in Senthang are composed of two parts and are termed ‘complex predicates’ in this study. Agreement happens internally to the complex predicates. Here, the complex predicate is treated as a whole. More details on its internal structure are discussed in (Section 6.13).

As it is seen in examples (48) and (49), the first ?a in each example is glossed as a genitive marker but the other is glossed as a subject agreement marker. There is a particle va in Senthang which distinguishes the difference between the genetic marker and the subject agreement marker. va corresponds to a completive aspect particle ‘rak’ or a directional particle ‘va’ in Lai (see (50)). No matter what the particular stands for, it only occurs between the subject (or object if the verb is transitive) agreement marker and the verb of a clause. If va occurs in a clause like (48) or (49), it appears after the second ?a as it does in (51). Thus, the first ?a is not an agreement marker, but the internal ?a is.

---

16 Senthang has only one preverbal directional particle, va, which is used to indicate not only both venitive and andative but also to denote the past (43). The particle is phonologically affected by the first person singular object agreement marker pa and second person object agreement marker tsu. (Note that those two particles always conform to the tone of the subject marker in a particular clause.) And the particle also affects the tone of the following verb. However, this area is not investigated in this study.

Example below is the directional particle with the verb se ‘move’ in imperative forms. Note on the change tone of va and the verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>i Va</th>
<th>seih!</th>
<th></th>
<th>i i Va</th>
<th>seih!</th>
<th></th>
<th>iii Ka</th>
<th>va</th>
<th>sei</th>
<th>aw</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>và</td>
<td>sè1</td>
<td>=?</td>
<td>và</td>
<td>sè1</td>
<td>=?</td>
<td>kà</td>
<td>và</td>
<td>sè1</td>
<td>?à</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| DIR.venitive move = IMP | DIR.andative move = IMP | 1.S.AG.SG DIR move F
| Come! | Go! | I will come/go. |
The man came. The man went.

The man was happy. / The man became happy.

3.3.3.5 Possessive clause

$$S_{\text{POSSESSIVE}}: [ [\text{NP nawh}] [\text{NP}] [\ldots \text{ngai} \ldots \text{vp}]]$$

A possessive clause in Senthang is composed of a subject NP (the possessor), an object NP which is possessed, and a copular verb ŋāi ‘possess’. The copular verb also has an agreement marker like any other Senthang verb. The possessor NP takes an ergative case marker but the possessed NP is unmarked as in (52) and (53).

The man had a bike.

Aunt’s family has bananas.

3.3.4 Functional word classes

Functional word classes in Senthang include postpositions and locative nouns, as well as pronouns. These are discussed below, and tables that display the four sets of agreement markers are also provided.
3.3.4.1 Case, postpositions, and locative nouns

It is not easy to tell the difference between case-markers, postpositions and locative nouns. This section does not definitively distinguish between them but suggests that some markers are best considered case markers, other postpositions and others relational (or locative/locator) nouns.

Some diagnostics are taken from So-Hartman (2009) and Bedell (2000) while other are more generally assumed.

Case markers are usually phonologically dependent. They are either clitics, affixes or otherwise phonologically alter the stem with which they combine (e.g. by vowel change or tone change). They have the potential to appear on multiple morphemes in the NP. They typically are semantically light (appearing on a semantically wide range of NPs). Payne (1997) suggests that phonological dependency is not definitive.

Postpositions are often phonologically heavier—with full CVC stems or even being multi-syllabic. Postpositions typically do not accept a case marker, but neither do NPs inside of postpositional phrases take a case marker. A given postpositional form can denote more than one semantic function, but that set of semantic functions is limited and generally inviolable. Postpositions occur phrase finally and usually NP final.

Relational nouns are essentially nouns that function like postpositions including being phonologically heavier. They usually have a clear semantic meaning “on TOP of the table” which needs another nominal as a complement (like a postposition). In some languages (Lai, Daai Chin), they can be possessed/marked with a genitive like any other NP. And in some cases they can be modified by quantifiers or deictics. Usually they appear as a complement inside a postpositional phrase leading to a structure like that in (Figure 8). It seems they also may be even less semantically variant than postpositions.
Figure 8 Postpositional phrase in Daai Chin
(from So-Hartman (Daai Chin))

Table 10 Features of case, postposition, and relational nouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>phonological weight</th>
<th>semantic content</th>
<th>multi-morpheme marking</th>
<th>can be complement of postposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Case</td>
<td>light (CV or less)</td>
<td>light</td>
<td>possible</td>
<td>no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postposition</td>
<td>heavier</td>
<td>heavy</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no (maybe)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational Noun</td>
<td>heavier</td>
<td>heavy (invariant)</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes (usually)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Senthang case-markers, relational nouns and postpositions often occur NP-finally, away from the head. However, relational nouns usually are followed by postpositions, but never case-markers. This leads to a tentative division illustrated by sentence (54). More research in this area is definitely needed.

The example in (54) shows all three forms: case marker, postposition, and relational noun in a single sentence. In a single sentence, the ergative case marker, nòʔ, is phonologically light but unlike most case markers its use is fairly tightly restricted to agents of events where a significant affect occurs. The postposition liʔ ‘LOC’ or ‘at’, is phonologically fairly light but semantically restricted to denoting locations. Also, it cannot be the complement of another postposition (but see the discussion on demonstratives in section (3.3.2.2). The relational noun suŋ ‘inside’ is phonologically heavier (CVC) and denotes a place (of a place) which functions as the complement of the locative postposition.
Did you put salt into the soup?

Postpositions
Below table presented the four postpositions in Senthang. The first column of the table displays the postpositions with their variant forms, the second gives the suitable gloss of each postposition, and the last column gives the numbers of the examples where the corresponding postpositions are used.

Table 11 Postpositions in Senthang

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Postpositions (with variant forms)</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>?e’/le’ ?e’/le’</td>
<td>‘at’; LOC.deictic</td>
<td>(57), (58)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mɔʔ/ lɔmɔʔ</td>
<td>‘from’; Manner; Instrument</td>
<td>(59), (60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hɔ’/ hɔ’ nɔʔ/hɔ’ ?s?</td>
<td>‘with’; Comitative, Instrument</td>
<td>(61), (62)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A postposition lɔʔ in (55) indicates the location where the action of the verb ?ùam took place while that in (56) denotes the time of the action performed.

(55) Inn lawh banhlu ka uam.

-house LOC banana 1S.AG.SG cover fruits to ripen.II

I covered bananas (in order to ripen them) at home.

(56) Ningawni lawh hlu na tho.

-yesterday LOC song 2S.AG.SG sing

You sang (a song) yesterday.

17 lɔ and le’ are included in ‘Relational/Locator Noun’ because they have similar functions with the others although they cannot be preceded by GENITIVE. Usually, lɔ/le’ co-occurs with ?s? (which is also pronounced as nɔʔ) or mɔʔ and together they mean ‘at’ or ‘from’ respectively. Likewise, le’ occurs with ?e’ and are pronounced as lɔ.ʔe’. These combination also means ‘at’. Although they have a different grammatical insight, lɔ/ lɔ’ and le’ tend to function as postpositions.

One of the LRP said that lɔʔ is a combination of lɔ and ?s?. Lai, Mizo, and Falam do not have these patterns.
Example (57) & (58) show the postposition ʔeɪ used to modify a head noun.

(57) Inn eĩ ka uam mi banhlu a hmun caw.
ʔin ʔeĩ kà ʔùam mi bàn.lù ?à ṭun tsì
house LOC 1S.AG.PL cover fruits to ripen.II REL banana 3S.AG ripe PFTV

Bananas which we covered at home have been ripe.

(58) Ningawni eĩ na tho mi hlu khaw ka dw.
ni.ŋɔ.ni ʔeɪ ná tʰɔ tô mì lù kʰá kà dɤ
yesterday LOC 2S.AG.SG sing REL song DEM 1S.AG.SG like

I like the song that you sang yesterday.

Nominals that are complements of lʔ in main clauses become complements of ʔeɪ in relative clauses. In fact, it is difficult to use lʔ in relative clauses which may indicate that lʔ is a case marker. However, in this thesis it is labeled as a postposition.

Example (59) shows the ablative use of (lɔ)mʔ. Example (60) shows mʔ used to denote a manner sentential complement.

(59) Lau lawmawh atw lawng ka va suih.
lá u lɔ.mʔ tʰᵊ lŋ kà và jù?
dry field from now only 1S.AG.SG DIR arrive.I

I just arrived from the field now.

(60) Na dw nawh mawh na tui khaù.
ná dɤ nɔ mʔ ná tȗ kʰa u
2.GEN.SG want NMLZ ADZR 2S.AG.SG do can

You can do as you want/like.

In (61) hɔ.i.nɔʔ is used to denote a comitative ‘with’. In (62) it is used to denote an instrument phrase.

(61) Ka po hawinawh khi ka tawn khemh.
ká pʰu hɔ.i.nɔʔ kʰi kà tûn kʰɛmʔ
1.GEN.SG father with nonce 1S.AG.PL travel.II together

I travel with my father.
Locative/relational nouns

Senthang has a large number of locative nouns based primarily on the diagnostic that they can appear as a complement of the postpositions listed above. Because there are so many, no specific examples are given here. However, links to examples in the text or appendix are provided.

Table 12 Locative nouns in Senthang

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relational Nouns</th>
<th>IPA</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Illustrative examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sung</td>
<td>suŋ</td>
<td>inside</td>
<td>(54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paw</td>
<td>pɔ</td>
<td>top</td>
<td>(21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thung</td>
<td>tʰʊŋ</td>
<td>above</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leng</td>
<td>lŋ</td>
<td>outside</td>
<td>(144)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hmai</td>
<td>mɔi</td>
<td>in front of</td>
<td>(41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hnw</td>
<td>ɲɲ</td>
<td>behind; later</td>
<td>(44), (45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thui</td>
<td>tʰuí</td>
<td>under</td>
<td>(142)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ham</td>
<td>hám</td>
<td>beside</td>
<td>(42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pawng kam</td>
<td>pɔŋ.kam</td>
<td>around</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kam</td>
<td>kam</td>
<td>near</td>
<td>(146)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zung</td>
<td>zúŋ</td>
<td>towards</td>
<td>(196)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>law</td>
<td>lɔ</td>
<td>place</td>
<td>(32), (43)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lei</td>
<td>lei</td>
<td>location</td>
<td>(23), (27), (28), (31),(32)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.4.2 Pronouns and agreement markers

This section lists the agreement and pronoun markers without considering the position in which they occur in a verbal complex. These are covered together because the same forms are used for both.

There are at least four different “sets” of agreement markers in Senthang. In this section the sets are given without much justification. As the nominative markers are the same for transitive and intransitive clauses, there is no need to separately show...
the (in)transitive forms. In the charts given, every co-occurrence of nominative and accusative forms is possible. However, reflexive meanings are not considered.

**Table 13 Agreement markers set 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>AG.S</th>
<th>(AG.O)</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>(PL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ká</td>
<td>kà</td>
<td>pa</td>
<td>má</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ná</td>
<td>nà</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>?á</td>
<td>?à</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 14 Agreement markers set 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>(AG.O)</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>NEG</th>
<th>(PL)</th>
<th>AG.S</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
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<td>SG</td>
<td>PL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>pa</td>
<td>má</td>
<td>ve?</td>
<td>hái</td>
<td>nì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td></td>
<td>tsì</td>
<td>tsì</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td></td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ø</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**Table 15 Agreement markers set 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
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<th>V</th>
<th>(PL)</th>
<th>AG.S</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>pa</td>
<td>má</td>
<td>hái</td>
<td>nì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>tsì</td>
<td>tsì</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>?ì</td>
<td>?ì</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 16 Agreement markers set 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>AG.Obj</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>(NEG)</th>
<th>Obj</th>
<th>Sub</th>
<th>PL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
<td>(PROH)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PL</td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>pa</td>
<td>má</td>
<td>kʰ5ʔ/la¹</td>
<td>nì</td>
<td>pi</td>
<td>lú/?ú</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>kʰ5ʔ</td>
<td>há¹</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>lú/?ú</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>la¹</td>
<td>há¹</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>lú/?ú</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>kʰ5ʔ</td>
<td>há¹</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>sɛʔ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are two sets of personal pronouns and one set of possessive pronouns. The pronouns differentiate between persons (first, second and third) and number (singular and plural) as shown in Table 17 and Table 18. The first syllable of any
plural pronoun bears low tone while that of a singular pronoun bears high tone. The set in Table 17 is less formal than Table 18.

Table 17 Senthang pronouns: Informal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Personal Pronouns</th>
<th>SG</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>PL</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>kó /kání(^{18})</td>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>kání</td>
<td>1PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ní/ náñí</td>
<td>2SG</td>
<td>náñí</td>
<td>2PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>?ání</td>
<td>3SG</td>
<td>?ání</td>
<td>3PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18 Senthang pronouns: Formal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Personal Pronouns</th>
<th>SG</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>PL</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>kámú</td>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>kámú</td>
<td>1PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>námú</td>
<td>2SG</td>
<td>námú</td>
<td>2PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>?ámú</td>
<td>3SG</td>
<td>?ámú</td>
<td>3PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The possessive pronouns in Senthang have the same phonological form as one of the sets of subject agreement markes as in (63). Thus the same six forms are found on both sides of Table 19 below. These six possessive forms make up the first syllable of each corresponding personal pronoun, which can be seen most clearly in the formal pronouns found in Table 18.

In (63) the first person pronoun ká.mú is the subject and the second person ná.mú is the object/recipient and both of them are omittable. The first person possessive ká shows ?añ.kó being possessed by the subject. Both ká and tsá agree with the verb and with person and number of the subject ‘I’ and the object ‘you’ respectively.

(63) (Kamu náw̃h namu khaw ) ka angky ka ca peih .
    ká.mú nò? ná.mú kʰó ká ?añ.kó ká tsá pèʔ?
    1S  ERG  2S  DEM.info  1.GEN.SG  shirt  1S.AG.SG  2O.AG  give.II
    I gave you my shirt.

\(^{18}\) kání ‘I’ is used in Kyarlîn village which is in Kalaymyo province, Sagaing Division instead of ‘kó’. However, I noticed that Phaiphu (specifically speakers in HaKha, and Phaiphu A and Phaiphu B villages) speakers had started using it when I visited in January 2014.
### Table 19 Senthang genitive/possessive particles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Possessive Pronoun</th>
<th>Set 1 Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ká</td>
<td>kà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ná</td>
<td>nà</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>?á</td>
<td>?à</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.3.5 Clause types and subordination constructions

This section has two distinct sections. The first, shorter, section discusses the clause imperatives and interrogatives. Then negation of clause types is discussed. The second section briefly overviews a few common subordination constructions.

These constructions are relevant later when the environments motivating verb stem alternation and agreement forms are discussed.

#### 3.3.5.1 Imperatives

The syntactic structures of cohortative imperative, direct imperatives, and hortative imperative in Senthang are discussed in this section. The related prohibitive patterns are presented in section 3.3.5.3.

The imperative in Senthang is constructed with agreement set 4 (see Table 16) and verb stem I by attaching an imperative enclitic glottal stop “ʔ” at any clause final morpheme. Intensifiers ñ³, which implies the command had not been obeyed, ká”, ŋí, ni, and lò” are found in imperative clauses.

As in declarative and interrogative clauses, object agreement particles precede the verb in imperative clauses. If a directional particle ŋd ‘move.far’ or và ‘move.near’ exists, it occurs between the object agreement and the verb (67).

(64) and (65) illustrate the confirmative cohortative imperative pattern, which is the only imperative type that takes subject agreement markers. In (64), the subject is a plural in which the second person addressee and the first person/the one who gives the command is included. The plural marker ŋá is optional. (65) shows the cohortative pattern in a condition ‘one is talking to oneself’. 

---

49
(64) Zanri o pi (u) h .
   zàn.yì ?oⁿ pì ?ú =?
   dinner eat.1 1S.AG.PL 2.PL = IMP
   Let us eat dinner.

(65) Lau tho leh nih .
   láⁿ tʰoⁿ lê? nì =?
   dry field weed MDL 1S.AG.SG = IMP
   Let me just weed the field.

Direct imperatives typically have the pattern exemplified in (66). The direct imperative takes no subject agreement markers except for plural particles: ḥêⁿ agrees with the object of the clause while lâ modifies the plurality of the subject. (67) shows the direction particle vâ precedes the verb and follows the object argument.

(66) Na wna̞u mawh banhlu o hai lu̞h .
   nà ?r.naⁿ mɔʔ ñàn.lù ?oⁿ há¹ lù =?
   2S.AG.PL sibling POST banana eat.1 PL 2S.PL = IMP
   You siblings eat the bananas.

(67) Ma va dengh .
   m̩ă vâ đɛŋ =?
   1O.AG.PL DIR beat.up.1 = IMP
   Come beat us up.

The morpheme sʔ̡19 is used to indicate the hortative/indirect imperative in Senthang as (68).

---

19 I assumed that the morpheme sʔ̡ in Senthang has at least three grammatical functions: causative, hortative, and reflexive and reciprocal. Examples in Falam Chin (self-knowledge) are provided; morpheme têʔ in (i) is causative, sʔ̡ in (ii) is hortative, and ḥʔ in (iii) is reflexive and reciprocal marker: together with the causative têʔ, the meaning becomes “pretend/act” or “as if”. All of these expressions require the morpheme sʔ̡ in Senthang Chin. In section 3.3.5.1., the hortative form is discussed.

   (i) Ka le̞i têʔ .
      kà lê’ têʔ
      1S.AG.PL buy CAUS
      I made him buy.

   (ii) Lei seh.
      lê’ sʔ̡?
      buy HORT
      Let him buy.

   (iii) Ka lei awk têʔ .
      kà lê’ ḥʔ têʔ
      1S.AG.PL buy REF CAUS
      I pretend like buying./ I pretend as if I am buying.
Let your sister wash the clothes.

In (69), the same morpheme .VALUE is used but with verb stem II with a high tone and the clause has two possible meanings. The morpheme here seems to be ‘causative’ whereas that in (68) is ‘hortative’ (see footnote 19).

Make him beat us up./Allow us to beat him up.

All of the above imperative clauses take verb stem I (except for (69)) which is argued here to be a causative rather than imperative. However, there is an exceptional circumstance in which the verb is stem II. It is when the benefactive particle .VALUE occurs as in (70).

Dad, buy me a bag.

3.3.5.2 Interrogatives

The polar interrogative in Senthang is typically formed by using agreement set 3 from Table 15 and verb stem I. The subject agreement markers are clause final. They mark the person (and number) of the subject and also function as a polar interrogative particle. The first and second subjects of set 3 agreement markers are similar to that of set 2. The only variation is that set 3 contains mid-tone whereas set 2 bears low-tone. However, there is a third person agreement marker in set 3. This interrogative pattern is exemplified in (71)-(73) below.
Table 20 Agreement forms used in polar interrogative (Set 3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>(AG.O)</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>(PL)</th>
<th>AG.S</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
<td>SG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>pa</td>
<td>má</td>
<td>há’</td>
<td>ni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>tsi</td>
<td>tsi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>?i</td>
<td>?i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example (71) shows a subject argument with second person subject agreement marker which is preceded by the aspect marker tsí. Object argument marking is not available because there is no third person object agreement marker in Sethang.

(71) Banhlu o caw ci ?
   bân.lù ?o’’ tsí tsi
   banana eat.I PFTV 2S.AG
   Have you eaten a banana?

The third person subject agreement marker is presented in (72) along with first person plural object agreement marker preceding the verb ‘give’. In (73), pi, first person plural subject marker is preceded by the future marker ?ô.

(72) Banhlu ma pei i ?
   bân.lù má pe’’ ?i
   banana 1O.AG.PL give.I 3S.AG
   Did he give us bananas?

(73) Atw zan hlu tho aw pi ?
   ?â.tâ zân lû t’ô’’ ?ô pi
   now night song sing F 1S.AG.PL
   Are we going to sing tonight?

(74)-(76) examplify interrogative formed by adding question particles mo”, ?ô?, and ?ê?’ at the end of a declarative clause (agreement set 1 & verb stem I/II).

(74) Banhlu a ca peih mo ?
   bân.lù ?á tsá pè’’ mo”
   banana 3S.AG.SG 2O.AG give.II Q.tag
   He gave you a banana?
You are eating banana?

I am going to give you(pl) bananas okay?

We have given you a banana, right?

Table 21 lists the content interrogative pronouns in Senthang. All of the content interrogative pronouns are ended by the question particle ?ї. Usually, a content question takes agreement marker set 1 and verb stem I or II depending on the transitivity of the verb (see section 3.3.1). However, the verb stem choice could also depend on whether the inquired content is a subject of the clause or not. This topic is discussed in section 4.4.2.

Table 21 Content interrogative in Senthang

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interrogative word</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Pattern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>?а.ху</td>
<td>who/whom</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>за.пuí</td>
<td>what</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>зà.kó</td>
<td>why</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>зù.тя?</td>
<td>when</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?ә.ти</td>
<td>where</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>зà.пuí тuí мә?</td>
<td>how</td>
<td>‘what’ + ‘do’ + ‘Adverbializer/postposition’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Examples (78) and (79) show how the content questions ‘who’ and ‘what’ respectively. The verbs sì and tū do not have any alternated form.

(78) Na ming ahu i a sì ?
    ná miŋʔa.łuʔìʔà ʃi
2.GEN.SG name who Q 3S.AG be

What’s your name? (Lit. Who is your name?)

(79) Zapu i na tui ?
    zà.púʔì ná tū’i
what Q 2S.AG.SG do

What are you doing?

In Senthang, the content question ‘how’ is formed by a combination of ‘what do manner’ and the question particle ʔì as below.

(80) Aw su zapu tui mawh i ka khin aw ?
    ?ò jú zà.púʔì’i moʔìʔì kā kʰìn ʔò
chicken meat what do ADZR Q 1S.AG.SG cook.I F

How should I cook the chicken?

(81) shows a content interrogative being negated with the negator veʔ.

(81) Zakaw i banhlu na oh dw veh ?
    zà.kóʔì bân.ʃù ná ʔò’ì d’yì veʔ
why Q banana 2S.AG.SG eat.II like NEG

Why don’t you want to eat banana?

In (82), a final question particle ʔè exists but is optional.

(82) Na po zutyh i a va suih aw (e) ?
    ná pó’u zù.ʃòʔìʔì ʔìʔì vā jù’ìʔ ʔò ʔè
2.GEN.SG father when Q 3S.AG.SG DIR arrive.I F Q

When is your father coming back?

Instead of a question particle ʔì, another question particle me can also take place as below example. me here indicates the emotion/attitude of the speaker of being annoyed because the addressee is still not going to the field. The position of the postposition phrase and the question phrase in the sentence are interchangeable.
3.3.5.3 Negation: declarative, interrogative, and imperative

There are four negation particles in Senthang including the prohibitives \( k\ê\) and \( la'i \). The other two are \( ve'? \) and \( lâu \).

\( ve'? \) is the standard way to negate a declarative statement. The negator \( ve'? \) always occurs after the verb and is followed by its subject agreement particles, unlike in a non-negative declarative sentences where a different set of subject particles would precede the object agreement markers in front of the verb. There is no third person subject agreement marker in a negative sentence. The agreement forms are in Table 22 which repeats Table 14 above. The subject marker forms are unique to negative sentences. It seems possible that the agreement forms could be viewed as a contraction between the normal subject markers and a negative morpheme /-i/. However in slow speech no changes are observed. The table also includes a position for the question marker \( mo'u \) used with “yes-no” questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>AG.O</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>NEG</th>
<th>PL</th>
<th>AG.S</th>
<th>Q.tag</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>pa</td>
<td></td>
<td>ve'?</td>
<td>hâi</td>
<td>ni</td>
<td>mo'u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>pl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tsi</td>
<td>tsi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Example (84) shows the general way of forming negation in declarative clauses. The pattern shown in the example is a statement ‘I give you a banana.’ being negated by negator \( ve'? \).

(84) Banhlu ca pei veh ni .
banhlu tsa pe' ve'? nì
bana 20.AG give.I NEG 1S.AG.SG

I didn’t give you a banana.

Sentences (85), (86), and (87) show interrogatives being negated with \( ve'? \). Again the agreement markers set 2 from Table 14 are used.
(85) Banhlu ca pei veh ni mo ?
ban.lu tsə peʔ veʔ ni mo
banana 2O.AG give.1 NEG 1S.AG.SG Q.tag
I didn't give you a banana?

(86) Banhlu ca pei veh ni ih ?
ban.lu tsə peʔ veʔ ni ?iʔ
banana 2O.AG give.1 NEG 1S.AG.SG Qy/n
I didn't give you a banana? (I am supposed to give it to you.)

(87) Banhlu ca pei veh lai ni si ve ?
ban.lu tsə peʔ veʔ lai ni sə ve
banana 2O.AG give.1 NEG yet 1S.AG.SG be Q.tag
I haven't given you a banana, right?

The negative là" is found in relative clauses with a relativizer mí as in (88) and (89). The negator là" usually takes verb stem I and agreement set 1 (Table 13), which a declarative statement would normally take.

(88) Ka hria lau mi angky ka va phua .
ká xia là" mi ?aŋ.kó ká vá phúə
1S.AG.SG need NEG REL shirt 1S.AG.SG ASP bring
I brought the shirt that I don't need with me.

(89) Ka dw lau mi cu o khau veh ni .
ká drí là" mi tsú ?o kəa" veʔ ni
1S.AG.SG like NEG NMLZ TOP eat.I can NEG 1S.AG.SG
I cannot eat what I do not like.

The negator làu is also used in conditional adverbial clauses like in (90).

(90) Sawh na oh lau cawmacu thang khau aw veh ci .
sáʔ ná ?oʔ là" tsaw.ma.tsú təʔaŋ kəʔa" ?o veʔ tsi
food 2S.AG.SG eat.II NEG if grow can F NEG 2S.AG
If you do not eat food, you will not grow up.

20 When the negator là" precedes the relativizer/nominalizer mí, the tone of mí becomes mi as in the examples (80– 83.a).
For counter-expectation or denying accusations, *tuŋ* is inserted to contradict a previous assertion or belief (91.a-b). Interestingly, both forms of the negative can be used with slightly different meaning.

(91)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bánh..lu̍ ká ?ō̍ tuŋ làu</td>
<td>bánh..lu̍ ?ō̍ tuŋ ve? ni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>banana 1S.AG.SG eat.I NT.EX NEG</td>
<td>banana eat.I NT.EX NEG 1S.AG.SG</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No, I did not eat the banana. I did not even eat the banana.

The prohibitive marker of Senthang is *kʰ5ʔ*. As in the related languages (Lai, Falam, Tiddim, Mizo), the prohibitive follows the main verb of the clause. The prohibitive clause utilizes the same pattern as the imperative clause, which is formed by using verb stem I and agreement marker set 4 (see section 3.3.5.1). (92) shows the negative form of cohortative imperative.

(92) *Atw ni cu banhlu o khawh pih* .

| ?ā.tā ni tsú bánh. lu̍ ?ō̍ kʰ5ʔ pi =ʔ |
| now day TOP banana eat.I PROH 1S.AG. PL =IMP |

Let us not eat bananas today.

When the imperative negative clause has both a subject and an object (especially in third person) plural as in (93), the object plural marker *hā* precedes the subject plural marker *lū*.

(93) *Deng khawh hai luh* .

| ḍēŋ kʰ5ʔ hā lū =ʔ |
| beat.up.I PROH PL 2S.PL =IMP |

Don‘g (you.pl) beat them up.

(94) shows another way of negating an imperative clause which is with a negator *la*'. This is a more polite form of giving a command in Senthang.

(94) *Na nithawng heithu cy lai cih* .

| ná ni.tʰ5ŋ hē,tʰũ̍ tsō laʔ tšɭ =ʔ |
| 2.GEN.SG umbrella forget any.more NEG 2S.AG =IMP |

Don‘t forget your umbrella anymore.
(95) shows the exhortative negative clause type which can also be called an indirect imperative. This type of clause takes the causative morpheme $s\hat{\theta}$ which is preceded by the negator $k\hat{\theta}$.  

\begin{verbatim}
(95) Na nautei khow so sw cy khowh sawh .
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
2.GEN.SG sibling.younger DEM.info clothes wash.1 any.more PROH CAUS
\end{verbatim}

Let your sister not wash the clothes anymore.

$Ts\hat{\theta}21$ found in (94), (95) relates to English ‘anymore’ and only occurs in negative clauses. In a prohibitive clause, it always preceeds $k\hat{\theta}$.

### 3.3.5.4 Complement subordination

Complement clauses of a language in which its direct object is followed by the verb usually precede the predicate as well (Kroeger, 2005:220). Senthang is an SOV language and the direct object consistently precedes the verb. Accordingly, complement clauses in Senthang precede the predicate in general.

Some grammar descriptions recognize a distinction between finite and non-finite complements. Often finiteness, or the representation of time and/or aspect on the verb, is taken to indicate that the event denoted by the complement is less integrated into the event denoted by the main clause (e.g. no shared arguments). Senthang complements are not marked as finite or non-finite, but they can be distinguished by whether or not the main verb influences the form of the embedded clause. When a main verb allows many forms of embedded clause then that complement is unrestricted and closest to a finite complement. When a main verb restricts the form of the embedded clause then that complement is closest to a non-finite complement.

**Unrestricted complements (finite)**

The first type of complement concerns different predicates that take one of complementizers $m\hat{\ell}22$ or $l\hat{\varepsilon}$ or $l\hat{\beta}.m\hat{\ell}$, $l\hat{\beta}.m\hat{\varepsilon}27$. The complementizer connects the complement clause and the main clause in the sentence. There is little semantic integration between the event denoted by the main clause and the event denoted by the embedded clause.

---

21 The morpheme $ts\hat{\theta}$ becomes $ts\hat{\theta}$ (the tone changes from HIGH to LOW) when it is preceeded by any LOW tone bearing word.

22 $/m\hat{\ell}/$ is also a relativizer or a nominalizer.
Complementizer mí or lè(mí)
The verb ṅí 'know' in Senthang takes the complementizers mí or lè or lə.mì as in (88-94). The declarative form of the sentence is schematized as below:

\[ S_{\text{know}} \rightarrow [...]_{5} \text{mì/lè/lə.mì} \ldots \text{ŋí} \]  
\[ \text{ŋí} = '\text{know}' \]

Sentences (96)-(98) are formed with markers from agreement set 1 and use verb stem II, and any of the three complementizers (mí, lè, lə.mì) can occur. It is clear that there is no change inside the complement clause when the main clause is negated, as in (97), or converted into a yes/no interrogative question, as in (98). In the examples (96)-(102), any of agreement sets can occur in the embedded clause or in the dependent clause. However, the complementizer mí may not be used if the embedded clause has a stem I verb that take agreement markers from set 2 or 3 (see (99) to (102)).

(96) Banhlu na coh le/le mi/ka hni .
ban.lù ná tsó"? lè /lə.mì/ká ŋí
banana 2S.AG.SG buy.II COMP 1S.AG.SG know.II
I know that you bought bananas.

(97) Banhlu na coh le/le mi hnih veh ni .
ban.lù ná tsó"? lè /lə.mì ŋí? ve? nì
banana 2S.AG.SG buy.II COMP know.I NEG 1S.AG.SG
I didn’t know that you bought bananas.

(98) Banhlu na coh le/le mi hnih ci ?
ban.lù ná tsó"? lè /lə.mì ŋí? tsi
banana 2S.AG.SG buy.II COMP know.I 2S.AG
Do you know that you bought bananas?

When the complement clause has a stem I verb, the complementizer mí is not permissible as in (99) to (102).

(99) Banhlu co veh le/le mi/*mi ka hni .
ban.lù tsó" ve? lè /lə.mì/*mì ká ŋí
banana buy.I NEG COMP 1S.AG.SG know.II
I know that he didn’t buy bananas.
I didn't know that you didn't buy bananas.

Do you know that I didn't buy bananas?

Do you know if he bought bananas?

(101) and (104) show uses of the negation marker là" which is permitted only with agreement set 1 and verb stem II. In (103), the negator là" is inside the embedded clause with agreement set 1 and verb stem II. No other complementizer but mî is permitted. Contrastingly, in (104), we see the possibility of either là or làmî, but mî by itself is not allowed. We still have the same agreement pattern as (103), but the available complementizers are different.
Complementizer lā. məʔ

The most frequent predicate which takes complementizer lā. məʔ is lè ‘say/do’ in direct speech\(^{23}\) as in (105). The complementizer is optional in colloquial speech.

After the subject NP, the complement clause follows, and then the main verb with its agreement marker follows that. The sentence structure with the complementizer lā. məʔ and the verb lè ‘say/do’ is schematized below:

\[
S_{\text{Direct Speech}}: lè \rightarrow [\text{NP}]_s (ləməʔ)... lè] \quad \text{lè = 'say'}
\]

The noun phrase agrees with the main verb lè ‘say’.

\[(105) \text{ABawi nawh ka} \quad \text{toh ka} \quad \text{hlau (lemawh) a} \quad \text{le} .\]
\[
?əbəi nɔʔ ká tɔʔ? ká lə̈u lə̈.məʔ ?á lè
\]
\[
\text{ABawi} \quad \text{ERG} \quad \text{1S.AG.SG} \quad \text{key} \quad \text{1S.AG.SG} \quad \text{lose.II} \quad \text{COMP} \quad \text{3S.AG.SG} \quad \text{say}
\]

\text{ABawi said, ”I lost my key.”}

If (105) is changed into reported speech, it would turn out as either (106) or (107).

In (106) and (107) the verbal agreement markers are third person. (106) has the same schema as (105) except for the main verb, hə̈u ‘talk’. In (107) a postpositional phrase is used for the speech content.

\[(106) \text{ABawi nawh a} \quad \text{toh a} \quad \text{hlau le/lemi} \quad \text{a} \quad \text{hau} .\]
\[
\]
\[
\text{ABawi} \quad \text{ERG} \quad \text{3S.AG.SG} \quad \text{key} \quad \text{3S.AG.SG} \quad \text{lose.II} \quad \text{COMP} \quad \text{3S.AG.SG} \quad \text{talk}
\]

\text{ABawi said he lost his key.}

\[(107) \text{ABawi nawh a} \quad \text{toh a} \quad \text{hlau nawh kong a} \quad \text{hau} .\]
\[
\]
\[
\text{ABawi} \quad \text{ERG} \quad \text{3S.AG.SG} \quad \text{key} \quad \text{3S.AG.SG} \quad \text{lose.II} \quad \text{REL} \quad \text{about} \quad \text{3S.AG.SG} \quad \text{talk}
\]

\text{ABawi talked about his losing his key.}

(108) and (109) are identical except for their complementizers lā. məʔ and lā. mə respectively. With the complementizer lā. məʔ in (108), the statement ‘ABawi lost his key’ is not entailed. However, with the complementizer lā. mə in (109), the meaning implicates that PaLung has really lost his key.

\(^{23}\) Since the orthography is based on Lai, Senthang direct speech has quotation markers “” in its formal writing. But this study doesn’t use them.
LungLung told my grandmother that ABawi lost his key. (ABawi might not have actually lost his key.)

Verbs such as zým ‘believe’, yúʔ.sàn ‘hope’, yúʔ? ‘think’ also take the complementizer là.mɔʔ as in (110) with the schema as below:

\[
\text{S}_{\text{think}} \rightarrow [[\ldots] \text{là.mɔʔ} \ldots] V = \{ \text{zým ‘believe’}, \text{yúʔ.sàn ‘hope’}, \text{yúʔ? ‘think’}\}
\]

Although there are some restrictions on which complementizers can be used with unrestricted complements, there are no restrictions on the form of the verb or the agreement markers inside these complements.
**Restricted complements (non-finite)**
These predicates restrict some aspects of the embedded clause. They may occur with the complementizers \( \text{vau}.m\text{ʔ} \), \( \text{bʔ} \), or \( \text{sɛ} \). Some occur with no complementizer at all.

**Complementizer \( \text{va".m\text{ʔ}} \)**
The verbs \( \text{kʰu}.\text{kʰàn} \) ‘plan’, \( \text{bì} \) ‘promise’, \( \text{lèm} \) ‘persuade’, \( \text{zaŋnáʔho} \) ‘plead’, \( \text{hèʔ.șàn} \) ‘force’, \( \text{nám.șàn} \) ‘urge’, \( \text{tső.țó} \) ‘threaten’, \( \text{yáŋ tőm} \) ‘hasten’ are complement-taking predicates with the complementizer \( \text{va".m\text{ʔ}} \). There is more semantic integration between the main and complement clauses for these type of predicates and there are some formal constrains including no subject agreement marker in the embedded clause and that the verb stem must be stem II. The schema of (111) is given below:

\[
S \rightarrow \left[ \ldots V \right] \text{va".m\text{ʔ}} \ldots V \]

\( (111) \) **ABawi nawh pacy va coh vaumawh a pa lem .**
\( \text{?əbî} \) nî? pà.tô vá tsôʔ? \( \text{va".m\text{ʔ}} \) ?á pà lêm
ABawi ERG table salt DIR buy.II COMP 3S.AG.SG 1O.AG persuade

\( \text{ABawi persuaded me to go buy salt.} \)

**Zero-complementizer**
Complement-integrating predicates like \( \text{dý} \) ‘want’, \( \text{têm} \) ‘intend’, and \( \text{hàu} \) ‘need’ do not take any complementizers. They also have no agreement marking on the complement and subcategorize for verb stem I. Examples of these complement clauses are in (112) - (115). The complement clauses in the examples can be schematized as: \( S \rightarrow \left[ \ldots V \right] \emptyset \text{ AG V} \).

The complement clause has no agreement markers and the main verb agrees with the subject and object of the complement clause.

As it is shown in the schema, the pattern of the complement clause with zero-complementizer is the same as that with \( \text{vau}.m\text{ʔ} \) except for the lack of complementizer.

\( (112) \) **Banhu lù ka dw .**
\( \text{bàn.ľù} \) ?ôʔ? ká dý
banana eat.II 1S.AG.SG want

\( I \text{ want to eat bananas.} \)}
I intend to get high mark.

It is needed to buy bananas.

You need to buy bananas.

**Complementizer *lɔ̞?***

When an imperative clause is taken as a complement clause of a particular predicate, the complementizer *lɔ̞?* would follow the complement clause as in (116). Again no agreement is marked in the complement clause, but stem I verbs are required. The schema is as below:

\[ S \rightarrow [[..._{IMP}] \ lɔ̞? ...V] \]

I want you to buy bananas.

**Complementizer *sɛ***

To state a wish of a person, predicates like \(dɔ̞\) ‘want’ and \(tʰù\) ‘to be good’ would take an imperative clause as their complement clause with the complementizer *sɛ* as in (117) and (118).

It would be good if it rained.
Like complementizer /ŋ/, /š/ also can take an imperative clause as its complement (119).

(119) *Ka po va suih ni se ka dw.*
    
    ká poi va júʔ ni sē ká ḍy

    1.GEN.SG father PAST arrive.I now COMP 1S.AG.SG like

    *I wish my father was back by now.*

**Other subordinations**

Another environment where complement clauses may appear concerns the use of the causative particle /šʔ/ with certain verbs. In this environment, many languages (i.e. English and Falam), would normally take a complement clause for their object. Senthang, however, does not.

The pattern ‘X makes Y’ is not a complement clause in Senthang. Instead, it takes a verb with stem II and a causative particle /šʔ/ at the end of the sentence as in example (120). It takes agreement markers form set 1.

(120) *Ka notaw nawh banhlu a pa coh sawh.*
    
    kà noʔ[to] nòʔ bân.lù ?á pá tsòʔʔ sšʔ

    1.GEN.PL grandmother ERG banana 3S.AG.SG 1O.AG buy.II CAUS

    *My grandmother made me buy banana.*

**Conclusion**

To conclude, there are many minor variations in complement clauses in Senthang. If there is little semantic integration there is no constraint on the verb stem or agreement marker set used in the complement clause. However, if there is more semantic integration, there may be missing agreement markers and some constraints on the form of the verb stem.
3.3.5.5 Adverbial subordination

An adverbial clause is a subordinate clause that serves/operates as an adjunct of a matrix/another clause (Kroeger, 2005: 219).

Adverbial clauses in Senthang generally precede the main clause. The adverbializers always appear at the end of the subordinate clause in order to connect it to the independent clause. The schema of the adverbial clause in Senthang is as below.

\[ S_{\text{Complex}}: [[S_{\text{Subordinate}}] S_{\text{Main}}] \]

Adverbial clauses are formed with agreement markers from set 1 and Verb stem II. (121)-(130) are some examples of Senthang adverbial clauses.

(121) [when]

Banhḻu na coh ṯy̱h awh na hw̱mh telai .

bān.ū nā tsō⁵⁴ʔ tšʔ. ṉ§ʔ nā ẖy̱mʔ ʔè.la̱

banana 2S.AG.SG buy.II when 2S.AG.SG see.II later

When you buy bananas, you will see it.

(122) [before]

Banhḻu na coh hw̱mh awh tangkaw ka ca peih aw.

bān.ū nā tsō⁵⁴ʔ lān.ṉ§ʔ tāŋkɔ̱ ká tsá pēʔ ʔɔ̱

banana 2S.AG.SG buy.II before money 1S.AG.SG 2O.AG give.II F

Before you buy bananas, I will give you money.

(123) [after]

Banhḻu a coh khau mawh a notaw a vai.

bān.ū ?ā tsō⁵⁴ʔ kʰₐw̱.m̱ɔ̱ʔ ?ā nō̱.tɔ̱ ?ā vā

banana 3S.AG.SG buy.II after 3.GEN.SG grandmother 3S.AG.SG visit.II

After he bought bananas, he visited his grandmother.

(124) [conditional]

Ka tangkaw mawh banhḻu na coh cawmacu ka

kā tāŋkɔ̱ mɔ̱ bān.ū nā tsō⁵⁴ʔ tsaw.m̱a.tsû kā

1.GEN.SG money POST banana 2S.AG.SG buy.II if 1S.AG.SG

c̱a den aw .

tsá dēn ʔɔ̱

2O.AG beat.up.II F

If you buy bananas with my money, I will be angry.
(125) [until]
Na va sei hlan ti ka ca ngaisuaw aw.
ná vá sél lān.ti ká tśá nā.suān ?ɔ
2S.AG.SG DIR go until 1S.AG.SG 2O.AG wait F
I will wait (for) you until you come.

(126) [while]
Banhlut na oh liamaw lawh ka ca hwmh.
bān.lū ná ʔōʔ liā.mɔ lɔ̃ ká tśá hɔ̃m?
banana 2S.AG.SG eat.II PROG LOC 1S.AG.SG 2O.AG see.II
I saw you while you were eating bananas.

(127) [since]
Ka hawhteil law mawh banhlut ka dw ngaitei.
ká hɔ̃.tį̃ liā.mɔ kā dź̃ nā.tį̃
1S.AG.SG young since banana 1S.AG.SG like very
Since I was a child, I have really liked bananas.

(128) [because]
ABawi na den cuteinawh a tamh.
ʔabɔɔi ná dën tsu.têʔ.nɔʔ ʔa tɔm?
ABawi 2S.AG.SG eat.up.II because 3S.AG cry
Because you beat ABawi up, he cried.

(129) [although]
Banhlut ka oh numawh ka ry vu veh.
bān.lū ká ʔōʔ nū.mɔ ká ɣɤ vû vê?
banana 1S.AG.SG eat.II though 1S.AG.SG stomach full.stomach.I NEG
Though I ate bananas, my stomach is not full (I'm not full).

(130) [although]
Banhlut ka oh lau numawh ka ry a vu
bān.lū ká ʔōʔ láʔ nū.mɔ ká ɣɤ ʔa vû
banana 1S.AG.SG eat.II NEG though 1.GEN.SG stomach 3S.AG full.stomach.II
Even though I did not eat bananas, my stomach is full.
Table 23 Adverbial in Senthang

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>English Gloss</th>
<th>ASP</th>
<th>Adverbial Subordinator</th>
<th>How it is used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>when</td>
<td>cyh</td>
<td>awh</td>
<td>cyhnawh/ cyh-awh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>before</td>
<td>hlan</td>
<td>awh</td>
<td>hlanawh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>after</td>
<td>khau</td>
<td>mawh</td>
<td>khaumawh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>till</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>ti</td>
<td>ti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>until</td>
<td>hlan</td>
<td>ti</td>
<td>hlanti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>while</td>
<td>law</td>
<td>awh</td>
<td>lawh/ lawnawh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>since</td>
<td>law</td>
<td>mawh</td>
<td>lawmawh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition</td>
<td>if</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>cawmacu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition</td>
<td>unless</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>lau cawmacu</td>
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<td>in order</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>vau/ vaumawh</td>
</tr>
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<td>that/to</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>so that</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>khau nawh vau (mawh)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason</td>
<td>because</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>awh</td>
<td>cuteinawh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason</td>
<td>since</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>lawmawh</td>
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<td>--</td>
<td>mawh</td>
<td>numawh</td>
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<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>nuteimawh</td>
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<td>awh</td>
<td>lawh</td>
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<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>where</td>
<td>law</td>
<td>awh</td>
<td>law nawh</td>
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<td>--</td>
<td>lawh</td>
<td>ati lei papoh</td>
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<td>law</td>
<td>awh</td>
<td>kengkymh</td>
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<tr>
<td>Place</td>
<td>wherever</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>ati lei papoh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td>how</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>zapu tui mawh i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td>as</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>hu (pu) mawh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manner</td>
<td>like</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.5.6 Nominalization and relativization

There are four nominalizers in Senthang: mî, trî, va², and nî?. Agreement markers occur in nominalized clauses, but they vary depending on where the related argument comes from (see section 4.4.4.3). mî and trî are agent nominalizers (131.b). However, trî is rarely used in colloquial speech. mî is also used to nominalize the object (131.b).
va\textsuperscript{u} is used to nominalize an agent or non-agent (except for place) of a future event as in (132.a & b). va\textsuperscript{u} is corresponds to Lai awk which Bedell (1998) defines as a ‘nominal auxiliary’.

The particle nś? is used to deverbalize a verb as in (133.a, b & c).

Nouns in Senthang can also be formed by compounding a noun and a verb together like:

Senthang relative clauses are formed by using a relativizer mí. The schema of the most common of Senthang relative clause pattern is [S\textsubscript{relg} mi N\textsubscript{HEAD}]. In a relative clause, an NP gap exists where the relativized NP would normally occur, but the agreement marker for the relativized NP still remains next to the verb. Relative clauses in Senthang are exemplified in (135) to (138). (137) shows the rarer example of a relative clause following a head noun.
I saw the man who beat up my dog.

The man whom you beat up beat me up.

Please wash my shirt that is red.

I am going to eat the banana that you didn't put on the table, okay?

### 3.3.6 Conclusion

This chapter has surveyed a number of different elements of Senthang grammar. Frequently mention was made of both agreement sets and verb stem alternations—both of these are covered more systematically in the next two chapters.
Chapter 4
Verb Stem Alternation

4.1 Overview of the chapter
This chapter introduces the phenomena of verb stem alternation. First, it is shown that while there are apparent patterns of regular phonological change between the two forms, there is no way to predict what form Stem II takes based on Stem I.

Second, as has been shown in other studies (Mang, King), stem selection is shown to be predictable based on the semantic and/or syntactic function of the clause in which it appears.

Finally, this chapter introduces the idea that verb stem alternation needs to be looked at as a construction that includes agreement patterns. It is briefly shown that agreement patterns change based on the same semantic/syntactic patterns that affect a verb stem change. Chapter 5 investigates these patterns more fully. In addition, this chapter shows that even for verbs without stem alternation there are still changes in agreement pattern. This supports the idea that the semantic/syntactic constructions that motivate stem alternation also motivate agreement patterns.

4.2 What is verb alternation
“Verbal stem alternations, as they are called, take shape as two distinct variations in the verb stem, formed by the addition or alternation of a single final morpheme. These variations are known as stem 1 and stem 2.” (King 2009:141). A verb stem alternation does not alter the semantic content of the verb.

Verb stem alternation is a distinctive feature of Kuki-Chin languages and is common in this language group. However, different languages have different patterns of how the verbs alternate (So-Hartmann 2002, King 2009, Bedell 2012). Verb alternation is common in Mizo and Lai (Bedell 2012), in K’Cho (Kee Shein Mang 2006), Tiddim, Sizang Chin, and Falam (King 2009), but it is rarely found in Daai Chin which is in the Southern Chin language family (So-Hartmann 2002).
Senthang verbs frequently have alternative forms but transitive verbs are more likely to have Stem II forms (see Table 26). Many verbs do not have a stem II form. In fact, an incomplete analysis of the data used in this thesis suggests that around 50% of the verbs have a stem II form.

A few verbs in Senthang have a causative/resultative alternation that also changes the verb stem form slightly. Causative/inchoative verbs have different forms in many Tibeto-Burman languages. Table 24 is an example of the verb ‘break.stick’ for Falam, Lai, Senthang, and Burmese causative-inchoative. However, no explanation will be given here.

**Table 24 Examples of causative-inchoative verbs in Falam, Lai, Senthang, and Burmese**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Causative</th>
<th>Inchoative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Falam Chin</td>
<td>kʰiaŋ</td>
<td>kiaŋ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lai (Hakha) Chin</td>
<td>kʰiaʔ</td>
<td>kiaŋ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senthang</td>
<td>deʔ.kʰi</td>
<td>kiʔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burmese</td>
<td>tsʰoo</td>
<td>tʃoo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verb pairs in the causative-inchoative in Senthang are not necessary verb stem alternation. There are some phonological differences such as tone change and aspiration which seem similar to related languages.

Table 25 gives a list of Senthang causative-inchoative verbs. The first column lists the causative use of the verbs. The second column presents the inchoative form of the verbs. And the last column states gloss. This alternation is looked at more closely in section (5.6) because it has some unique agreement facts as well as a more complex relationship with the stem forms. However, this alternation is separate from the basic Stem I and Stem II alternation that this study investigates.
Table 25 Causative-inchoative verbs in Senthang

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causative</th>
<th>Inchoative</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ṭuŋ</td>
<td>ṭuŋ</td>
<td>open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bûŋ ′</td>
<td>bû</td>
<td>spill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rôŋ ′</td>
<td>rôŋ ′</td>
<td>destroy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sòŋ</td>
<td>sò</td>
<td>poke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sòŋ.khŋ</td>
<td>sòŋ.khŋ</td>
<td>divide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dèŋ.khŋ</td>
<td>dèŋ.khŋ</td>
<td>action break (plate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dèŋ.khŋ</td>
<td>kò</td>
<td>result break (plate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dèŋ.kh</td>
<td>dèŋ.kh</td>
<td>action break (stick)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dèŋ.kh</td>
<td>kìŋ</td>
<td>result break (stick)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tʰíŋŋ</td>
<td>tʰíŋ</td>
<td>thresh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tʰíŋŋ</td>
<td>tʰíŋ</td>
<td>drop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tʰíŋŋ.tʰaŋ</td>
<td>tʰíŋŋ.tʰaŋ</td>
<td>drop/fell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pín</td>
<td>pín</td>
<td>block</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tʰíʔ</td>
<td>tʰíʔ</td>
<td>clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kò</td>
<td>kò</td>
<td>result crack</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.3 Phonological unpredictability

The phonological pattern of Stem I and Stem II forms is not truly predictable although some have tried with other Kuki-Chin languages. Compare the verbs for ‘know’, ‘buy’, and ‘sleep’, in the table below. For tso ‘buy’ the stem II form adds on a glottal stop and a high tone, but for ṭuŋ ‘know’ it is Stem I that has the glottal stop and high tone. In stem II it loses the glottal stop but not the high tone. Conversely ṭs ‘sleep’ keeps the glottal stop but changes the high tone to low in stem II. There is clearly no overall pattern.
### Table 26 Some verb stem alternations in Senthang

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem I</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Stem II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senthang</td>
<td>Phonetic</td>
<td>Senthang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>co</td>
<td>tso</td>
<td>buy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lu</td>
<td>lu</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sym</td>
<td>sôm</td>
<td>tell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khum</td>
<td>khùm</td>
<td>talk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khei</td>
<td>kʰêi</td>
<td>wash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ding</td>
<td>din</td>
<td>drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pei</td>
<td>pei</td>
<td>give</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>?o</td>
<td>eat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hnih</td>
<td>ní?</td>
<td>know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sw</td>
<td>sër</td>
<td>wash.clothes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yh</td>
<td>?ş?</td>
<td>sleep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deng</td>
<td>dêŋ</td>
<td>beat.up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As mentioned in Chapter 2, stem alternation from final velar nasal /ŋ/ to alveolar nasal /n/ and glottalization are the most common ways to form stem II across Kuki-Chin languages. King’s (2009) five main ways the verb stems are alternated phonologically are repeated here: 1) addition of final oral stop to vowel/dipthong, 2) /ŋ/ ~ /n/, 3) final stop ~ glottal stop, 4) glottalization of final sonorant, and 5) nasal ~ stop. Similar patterns in Senthang are observed as shown in the following table. Column one lists the different patterns of verb stem alternation in Senthang, column two displays the tone change, and column three gives some examples. In Senthang verb stem alternation, both ‘mutation and subtractive morphology’ (Soh-Hartmann 2008: 71) seems to happen. There is no consistency in how the tone changes, although high tone tends to be preserved with a glottal stop.
Table 27 Types of phonological changes in verb stem alternation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern</th>
<th>Tone</th>
<th>Example Senthang</th>
<th>Example Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. CV ~ CV? CV? ~ CV</td>
<td>Mid ~ High</td>
<td>tso ~ tso?</td>
<td>‘buy’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>lu ~ lɔʔ</td>
<td>‘take’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tsʰɔ ~ tsʰɔʔ</td>
<td>‘die’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High ~ High</td>
<td>ŋiʔ ~ ŋiʔ</td>
<td>‘know’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. /u/ ~ /aiʔ/</td>
<td>High ~ High</td>
<td>tʊ ~ tǎiʔ</td>
<td>‘sharpen’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. /u/~ /amʔ/</td>
<td>High ~ High</td>
<td>kʊ~kámʔ</td>
<td>‘shoot’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. /ŋ/ ~ /n/</td>
<td>Mid ~ Low</td>
<td>ðəŋ ~ dən</td>
<td>‘beat-up’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tsəŋ ~ tsən</td>
<td>‘learn’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Tone</td>
<td>High ~ Low</td>
<td>sɛʔ ~ sɛʔ</td>
<td>‘go’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>kʊn ~ kʊn</td>
<td>‘enter’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low ~ High</td>
<td>vəʔ ~ vəʔ</td>
<td>‘visit’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A few verbs in Senthang have three stems as shown below. This is not explored in this thesis.

Example: ‘sleep’

  a) Stem I ʔɔʔ
  b) Stem II ʔʊʔ
  c) Stem III ʔʊ

4.4 Semantic/Syntactic predictability

Research on related languages shows that different semantic/syntactic functions correlate with each verb stem form. The following table adapted from King (2009) illustrates these correlations.
Table 28 King (2009) list of stem alternation environments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Context</th>
<th>Central Chin</th>
<th>Northern Chin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lai</td>
<td>Mizo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent, Indicative</td>
<td>declarative</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>complement clause</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>causative/benefactive</td>
<td></td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>core argument IO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative Cl./WH</td>
<td>subject question</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nonsubject question</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>subject relative</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nonsubject relative</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrealis Mood</td>
<td>imperative</td>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>yes/no question</td>
<td>I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>negation</td>
<td>I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>conditional clause: Type 2</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>contra-factual/ circumstantial</td>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominalization/ Subordination</td>
<td>conditional clause: Type 1</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>adverbiacl subordinate clause</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>non-finite subordinate clause</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>agentive nominalizations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>non-agentive nominalization</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The environments listed in this table clearly affect stem alternation. Since a comparison with other languages is not the primary focus of this study; only the list of environments is given here. Each environment is exemplified for Senthang. Sometimes labels are changed to reflect the description of Senthang provided here.
Table 29 Semantic and syntactic environments for verb stem alternation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Semantic/Syntactic Function</th>
<th>Intrans.</th>
<th>Trans.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Independent, Indicative</td>
<td>declarative</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unrestricted complement clause</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>applicatives</td>
<td></td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>causative/benefactive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative Cl./WH Questions</td>
<td>subject question</td>
<td>I</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nonsubject question</td>
<td></td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>subject relative clause</td>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nonsubject relative clause</td>
<td></td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irrealis Mood</td>
<td>imperative, hortative, jussive</td>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>yes/no question</td>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>negation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>conditional clause</td>
<td></td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>contra-factual</td>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>circumstantial</td>
<td></td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominalization/Subordination</td>
<td>adverbal subordinate clause</td>
<td></td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>non-finite subordinate clause</td>
<td></td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>agentive nominalizations</td>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>non-agentive nominalizations</td>
<td></td>
<td>II</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.1 Independent clauses: Declaratives, unrestricted complements, causatives and benefactives

Each of the examples in this section has a basic clause form. They typically have fully inflected verbs (in this case agreement and temporal marking in the verb complex), and are used to note basic declarative statements.

4.4.1.1 Declaratives

The choice of verb stem in declarative clauses varies according to whether a clause is transitive or intransitive. Although there are some insignificant differences, both transitive and intransitive take the same set of agreement markers, set 1 to be specific. Agreement marking is discussed more in Chapter 5.
**Transitives**
In general, transitive clauses like (139) and (140) take verb stem II. The subject and object agreement markers occur preverbally, the subject agreement marker first, then the object agreement marker following it. There is no object agreement marker in (139) because there is no third person object agreement marker for this set of agreement in Senthang. The plurality of third person is denoted by a different particle ha³.

(139) **Banhu** ka coh.
    ban₉.la ká tsó⁹?
    banana 1S.AG.SG buy.II
    *I bought bananas.*

(140) **LungLung** nawh a pa den.
    lún.juŋ nàʔ á pá ɡèn
    LungLung ERG 3S.AG.SG 1O.AG beat.up.II
    *LungLung beat me up.*

**Intransitives**
Unlike transitive clauses, intransitive clauses like (141) and (142) take verb stem I. The subject agreement marker precedes the verb. In agreement set 1, ʔá usually refers to third person plural subject and ʔá refers to the singular. However, a third person agreement marker in an intransitive clause always bears low tone without differentiating the number of the subject as in (141). Conversely, in (142) the first and second agreement markers have distinctive forms for number by taking different tones (low tone for plural and high for singular).

(141) **A** po a chy.
    á pó⁹ á tʰə
    3S.AG.SG father 3S.AG die.I
    *His father died.*

(142) **Thingkung** thu⁹ lahw ka thw.
    tʰiŋ.kuŋ tʰu³ l５ʔ ká tʰi³
    tree under LOC 1S.AG.PL sit.I
    *We sat under the tree.*
4.4.1.2 (Some) complements

Some subordinate complements have very little connection to the matrix predicate—e.g. the complements of verbs of expression (say) and verbs of thought (think, believe). These types of complement are often “finite” in other languages but the finite/non-finite distinction is not robustly marked in Senthang. This type of complement clauses takes the same stem as in basic declarative clauses.

**Say**

In the following examples, the verb lè ‘say’, which doesn’t have an alternate form, takes a complement clause. If it takes a transitive complement clause, then the verb inside the complement clause is stem II (143). Likewise, if the complement clause is intransitive, then the verb of the complement is stem I (144). The agreement system in the complement clause (set 1) also follows that of declarative clauses (see the section 4.4.1.1).

(143) Banhlù ka coh lemawh ABawi nsworth a le.

bàn.lu ká tsô"? là.mɔ? ?abši nɔ? ?á lè
banana 1S.AG.SG buy.II COMP ABawi ERG 3S.AG.SG say

ABawi said "I bought bananas".

(144) LungLung nsworth inn leng lawh mizoh a thw lemawh a le.

LungLung ERG house outside LOC cat 3S.AG sit.I COMP 3S.AG.SG say

LungLung said "The cat sat outside of the house".

**Believe**

The verb stəm/stəm ‘believe’ also functions like ‘say’. The verb stem of the complement clause is stem II when it is a transitive clause (145) and stem I when the verb is an intransitive (146).

(145) ABawi nsworth LungLung a den lemawh ka stəm .

?abši nɔ? lùŋ.luŋ ?á dën là.mɔ? ká stəm
ABawi ERG LungLung 3S.AG.SG beat.up.II COMP 1S.AG.SG believe.II

I believe that ABawi beat up LungLung.
I believe that Nuni would sit by my father.

4.4.1.3 Causatives and benefactives

This section looks at two types of valence increasing morphemes: the causative ʔsòʔ and the benefactive ʔpìʔ. These morphemes usually follow the verb. The verbs that precede these morphemes are always the alternate forms of the verb (stem II) with both intransitive and transitive verbs in any type of clause (declarative, negative declarative, polar interrogative, imperative). Only declarative clauses are looked at in this section.

**Causatives**

When the causative morpheme ʔsòʔ follows a transitive declarative clause, the verb is stem II as in a normal transitive declarative clause (147). However, for intransitives, the verb stem changes from I to II if the causative particle is added (148).

Agreement markers from set 1 are used in this construction.

(147) **Banhu** ka ca coh²⁴ sawh .

bàn.ù̂ ká tsá tsoʔʔ sòʔ

banana 1S.AG.SG 2O.AG buy.II CAUS

*I made you buy bananas.*

(148) **Mizoh** ka thw thw sawh .

mí.zòʔʔ ká ṯᵗʔʔ sòʔ?

cat 1S.AG.SG sit.II CAUS

*I made the cat sit.*

²⁴ If the verb bears high tone, it usually changes from HIGH to LOW after first person singular object agreement marker and second person object agreement markers. However, it is assumed that this is not grammatical tone change because it doesn’t affect the same to verbs with low tones.
**Benefactives**

Like the causative, both transitive (149) and intransitive indicative verbs (150) take verb stem II when a benefactive particle is added. Again agreement markers from set 1 are used.

(149) **Banlhu ka ca coh pih** .

bàn.ļü  ká  tśá  tsoⁿ?  pí?

banana  1S.AG.SG  2O.AG  **buy.II**  BEN

*I bought you bananas.*

(150) **Mizoh ka thwh pih** .

mí.zøⁿ?  ká  tʰʳⁿ?  pí?

cat  1S.AG.SG  **sit.II**  BEN

*I sat (down) for the cat.*

4.4.2 Relative clauses and wh-questions

Different verb stem forms are used depending on whether the relative constituent is a subject or not in the relative clause. Similarly different verb stems are used depending on whether a subject or non-subject is sought as an answer to a content question. Relative clauses and content questions also take agreement markers from set 1 as in declarative clauses.

4.4.2.1 Subject relative clauses

Relative clauses with transitive (151) and intransitive (152) verbs uniformly choose verb stem I to modify the subject or the action performer head noun. Only third person agreement with no number differentiation (as in intransitive declarative clause (4.4.1.1.2)) is allowed with this type of relative clause. Of course first and second person subject relative clauses are awkward, e.g. “you who like chocolate.”

(151) a chy mí malaipu

ʔà  tʰ⁷  mí  má.la¹.pú

3S.AG  **die.I**  REL  man

*the man that died*
4.4.2.2 Non-subject relative clauses

Relative clauses that modify either an object or a place or an action position consistently take verb stem II no matter if the relativized verb is a transitive (153) or an intransitive (154). Unlike the subject relative clause, any of subject agreement marker set 1 is allowed in non-subject relative clauses.

(153) a chyh mi thongpang

?(á ŋá mì ŋà
3S.AG.SG die.II REL news
the news that he died

(154) na den mi malaipu

ná ñë mì má.la.pú
2S.AG.SG beat.up.II REL man
the man that/whom you beat up

4.4.2.3 Subject content question

Like subject relative clauses, content questions that expect the subject as an answer take verb stem I for both transitive (155) and intransitive clauses (156). Notice that subject content questions in transitive clauses require an ergative case marker ñà as in (156). These all use agreement markers from set 1.

(155) Ahu i a chy ?

?a.á ?í ?á ŋà
who Q 3S.AG die.I
Who died?

(156) Ahu nawh i LungLung a deng ?

?a.á ná ?í láu.lu ñà ñë
who ERG Q LungLung 3S.AG beat.up.I
Who beat up LungLung?
4.4.2.4 Non-subject content question

The non-subject content questions take verb stem II as displayed in the following examples, both intransitive (157) and transitive (158). The agreement system in content questions is the same as that of transitive declarative clauses.

(157) Zucyh i a chyh e ?
       zù.ʈɔ? ʔi ʔâ ʔʰɔʔ ʔè
       when Q 3S.AG.SG die.II Q
       *When did he die?*

(158) Ahu i na den ?
       ʔə.ɬu ʔi nà ɗèn
       who Q 2S.AG.SG beat.up.II
       *Whom did you beat up?*

4.4.3 Irrealis

These forms are characterized by not describing current or past events. Imperatives, yes-no questions, negation, conditional, and contrafactual/circumstantial clauses are exemplified in this section. Unlike in other Chin languages such as Lai, Falam, Mizo, Tiddim and Sizang (King 2009), not all of these clause types take verb stem I.

4.4.3.1 Imperatives

An enclitic imperative =ʔ is attached to any clause final morpheme in order to form an imperative clause in Senthang. Unlike declarative clauses, imperative clauses do not allow any subject agreement marker, except for a morpheme lú/?ú that indicates the plurality of first or second person subject (see section 3.3.5.1 for more on the imperative). The object agreement marker precedes the verb (156). The verb is invariably stem I in both transitive (159) and intransitive (160) clauses.

(159) Thwh  !
       ʔʰɤ =ʔ?
       sit.I =IMP
       Sit!
Let us eat dinner.

4.4.3.2 Yes-no questions

Intransitive (161) or transitive (162) verbs in yes-no questions take verb stem I consistently as in imperative clauses. Yes-no questions in Sengthang take a different subject agreement marker set which occurs post-verbally. This agreement set is called agreement set 3 in this study. The object agreement markers precede the verb. There is a third person subject agreement marker which does not distinguish the number. Plurality of the third person subject is displayed via ḥdʰ.  

(161) Chy ɪ ʔi  
die.I 3S.AG  
*Did he die?*

(162) Ca deng ni ?  
tsà dɛŋ ni  
2O.AG beat.up.I 1S.AG.SG  
*Did I beat you up?*

4.4.3.3 Negation

In general, negation in Sengthang takes verb stem I whether it is an intransitive verb (163) or a transitive verb (164) similar to imperative and yes-no questions. However, a different agreement set from those of declarative and of yes-no questions occur here. This agreement set is called agreement set 2 in this study. Like set 3, these agreements occur post-verbally. However, there is no third person subject or object agreement markers in this set. The subject agreement markers usually follow a negation particle veʔ. If either the subject or second or third person object of a transitive verb is plural, the plural particle ḥdʰ would precede the subject agreement marker.
He did not die.

You did not beat us up?

Although negation takes stem I and agreement set 2 generally, negation is also formed with verb stem II and agreement set 1 with a morpheme *tuŋ* as in (165). (165) would be the response of someone who is being accused of eating bananas (that he is not supposed/allowed to eat). Notice that the negation particle here is different from the previous ones. The negator *lù* can also be found in relative clauses or with nominalized nouns (see section 3.3.5.6).

*I didn't eat the bananas.*

A clause like (166) takes both stem I and verb stem II of the same verb *hým?* 'see' in one clause. However, it is interesting that stem II forms occurs with agreement set 1 and stem I forms with set 2.

*I did not even see the banana.*

4.4.3.4 Conditional clause

Conditional clauses like (167) and (168) takes stem I with agreement set 1. Take note that the verbs of the main predicate can either be stem I or II, still following the rules discussed before (agreement set 1 plus transitive verb stem II (167), agreement set 3 plus stem I (168)). As an SOV language, the conditional particle occurs at the end of the conditional clause.
(167) A pa den cawmacu ka den rawh aw.
?á pá dèn tsaw.ma.tsú ká dèn yɔ? ʔɔ
3S.AG.SG 10.AG beat.up.II if 1S.AG.SG beat.up.II also F
If he beat me up, I will beat him up too.

If he dies, I won't be able to bear it.

4.4.3.5 Contrafactual/circumstantial
Contrafactual subordinate clauses like (169) and (170) take verb stem I. In (169), the only agreement marker is second person object. The construction is very similar to the indirect imperative (Jussive, Hortative) clauses that are formed with particle s? which would occur in the position of a complemetizer sɛ here. Likewise, the subordinate clause in (170) without the deictic tsú is an imperative if formed with an intensifier lɔ?. Therefore, contrafactual clauses in Senthang have similarity with imperative clauses and their subordinate clauses.

(169) Na putaw nawh ca hwm se', a
ná pú.ʔɔ nɔʔ tsá hɔm sɛʔ ?á
2S.AG.SG grand father ERG 2O.AG see.1 COMP 3.GEN.SG
lunglawm toih aw.
luŋ ?å lɔm toʔ? ʔɔ
heart 3S.AG happy very F
If your grandfather had seen you, he would have been very happy.

(170) Banhlu o so lawh cu atw na vaiphu aw veh.
ban.luʔo səʔ lɔʔ tsú ʔɔ.tə nà vái phiʔ? ʔɔ veʔ
banana eat.I ASP COMP TOP now 2.GEN.PL nonce nonce F NEG
If you had eaten a banana, you wouldn't be hungry now.

25 In colloquial speech, there is no ʔɔ in Phaipha dialect. Instead, the vowel of the previous morpheme is a little bit lengthened and LOW tone is also added to that morpheme if the tone is HIGH or MID. If the tone is LOW, then it becomes HIGH and LOW tone is added to it. So, kʰauʔɔ in that case becomes kʰauʔ天气.
Circumstantial subordinate clauses like (171) and (172) in Senthang take verb stem II. In Senthang, circumstantial functions like any other adverbial clause as shown in the next section.

(171) Banhlu ka oh so ei atw ka vaiphu veh .
banana 1S.AG.PL eat.II ASP and now 1.GEN.PL nonce nonce NEG
We had eaten bananas and we are not hungry now.

(172) Thaitho oh lau mawh lau koi ka sei .
breakfast eat.II NEG ADZR dry field toward 1S.AG.PL go.I
We went to the field without eating breakfast.

Since counterfactuals and all types of imperatives pattern the same, they will be grouped together. Similarly, circumstantial appear to function like other subordinate adverbials clauses and will be combined with them.

4.4.4 Adverbials, restricted complement clauses, and nominalizations

In this section, the choice of verb stem in adverbial subordinate clauses, (other) complement clauses and in nominalizations are examplified.

4.4.4.1 Adverbial subordinate clause

Like most of subordinate clauses, adverbial subordinate clauses like (173) and (174) take verb stem II with both transitive and intransitive verbs. The adverbializer occurs at the end of the subordinate clauses. The agreement markers in this type of clause are of set 1.

(173) A pa den cuteinawh ka den rawh .
3S.AG.SG 10.AG beat.up.II because 1S.AG.SG beat.up.II also
I also beat him up because he beat me up.

(174) Pa duva suh lai chweh .
not 10.AG die.II just 3S.AG.SG
He didn't die just now.
Before he died, he left a word for his children.

4.4.4.2 Other restricted complement clauses (Non-finite)

Complement clauses taken by verbs like ‘say’ or ‘believe’ were discussed in section 4.4.1.2 where it was shown that a transitive complement takes stem II while an intransitive verb takes stem I. Here, complement clauses like (175) which take a complementizer va".m3? and (176) which does not take any complementizer are examined. In both cases, verb stem II occurs without any agreement marker of any set.

(175) Phazen coh vaumawh Tio koi ka sei .
    pʰá.zèn tsó"? va".m3? tio kɔi ká sèi
    tomato buy.II COMP Tio toward 1S.AG.SG go.I
    I went to Tio to buy tomatoes.

(176) Phazen coh ka dw .
    pʰá.zèn tsó"? ká dzʰí
    tomato buy.II 1S.AG.SG want
    I want to buy tomatoes.

4.4.4.3 Nominalizations

The functions of verb stem and agreement markers in nominalizations in Senthang are similar to that of relative clauses and content questions. The subject nominalization takes verb stem I while the non-subject takes stem II.

Agentive

Intransitive (177) or transitive (178), agentive nominalization in Senthang also takes verb stem I as in other Chin languages such as Lai, Mizo, Falam, Tiddim, and Sizang.
Again, the agreement marker here does not differentiate the number as in relative clauses.

(177) a  chy  mi
?à  ṭʰɔ  mì
3S.AG  die.I  NMLZ
the one who died

(178) a  deng  mi
?à  ṭèŋ  mì
3S.AG  beat.up.I  NMLZ
the one who beat him up

Non-agentive
Non-agentive nominalization in both intransitive (179) and transitive (180) verbs take verb stem II. With a deverbal nominalizer ɲɔʔ, no agreement marker is required (179). However, a related person and number marker from subject agreement set 1 is taken to nominalize an object/patient (180).

(179) chy  nawh
    ṭʰɔʔ  nɔʔ
die.II  ERG
death

(180) a  den  mi
?à  dɛn  mì
3S.AG.SG  beat.up.II  REL
the one who got beat up/ the one he beat up

4.5 Conclusion
As one of the Kuki-Chin languages, many Senthang verbs have an alternate form (stem II) which vary their phonological form and occur in different grammatical environment from their base form (stem I).

Similar to Lai (King 2009) and Falam (Khar Thuan 2008) Chins, Senthang takes stem I with intransitive verbs and stem II with transitive verbs in non-negative declarative clauses, and in non-restricted complement clauses. Like in Mizo (King 2009) and
K’Cho (Kee Shein Mang 2006) Chins, applicatives (causative/benefactive) in Senthang entail stem II. Thus, applicatives (causative/benefactive) overrides the stem choice in intransitive clauses. Relative clauses, nominalization and content interrogatives have the same semantically based choice; subject/agent has stem I but non-subject II like Mizo (Chhangte 1989). Except for contrafactuals, all the subordinate clauses observed in this study take verb stem II. Only imperatives, yes-no interrogatives, negation and contrafactuals take stem I under the listed categories of irrealis, the other two: conditional clauses and circumstantials take stem II.

In fact, King’s suggestion of agent vs non-agent focus is applicable in Senthang relative clauses, nominalizations and content interrogatives. However, the irrealis does not override the stem choice in Senthang.

A pervasive phenomenon of stem choice based on grammatical function is observed in studying Senthang verb stem alternations. However, it seems to be only part of the picture. In fact, the verbs stem and person and number of the subject may be the same, but different agreement markers will be required for different semantic or grammatical functions (see (181) and (182)). This results in a complex pattern of agreement marking in Senthang which is connected both to verb stem choice and to grammatical function.

(181) Banhlu ka dw .
    bàn.lụ ká dỷ
    banana 1S.AG.SG like

    I like bananas.

(182) Banhlu dw veh ni .
    bàn.lụ dỷ ve? nị
    banana like NEG 1S.AG.SG

    I do not like bananas.

Therefore, the next chapter looks at the agreement markers and their functions, and in the following chapter, the interactions between agreement and verb stem alternation are investigated.
Chapter 5
Agreement

5.1 Overview of the chapter
The four sets of agreement markers in Senthang are listed in Section 3.3.4.2. This section describes and exemplifies each agreement set. The agreement sets are provided to give information about: 1) the form of the agreement markers, 2) the position of the agreement marker relative to the verb and each other, and 3) the position (and form) of the plural marker. In each section, it is also stated that what kind of construction takes a particular agreement set.


“In Tibeto-Burman languages two separate but supposedly related systems of verbal agreement have been found. One system is suffixal and post-nuclear. It seems to be more frequent. The other verbal agreement system is pre-nuclear. It is called ‘prefixal’ or also ‘the clitic series’ (Delancey 1989). Delancey points out that ‘all of the Kuki-Chin languages have a prefixal subject or subject/object (as opposed to ergative) argument pattern, which is quite different from anything found elsewhere in the family... this innovation was derived from a structure which does trace to PTB, but the extant paradigms clearly represent a Kuki-Chin innovation. However, several of the languages of this group retain the older paradigm as well, either as an alternative to or (apparently) in combination with the newer’ (DeLancey 1989: 323)” (So-Hartmann 2009:232).

Senthang clearly has both preverbal and postverbal forms.

It is perhaps extreme to distinguish some sets based upon a single variant marker, but since each group of markers can be uniformly associated with particular constructions, it seems useful to call each group that appears in the same environment a set.
All “sets” of the agreement markers in Sonthang have the same object agreement markers, which are always preverbal. Only the first person has different agreement markers for singular and plural object agreement markers, and these are pa and má respectively. The second person object agreement marker is tsa. The tones of the first person singular object agreement marker pa and second person object marker tsa are affected by the preceding agreement markers. If they occur at clause initial position, they always have low tone. There is no agreement marker for a third person object in Sonthang.

Apart from the plural agreement markers, there are two separate plural markers in Sonthang; há¹ & lú/ʔú. The functions of these plural markers are discussed more in each sub-section below.

5.2 Agreement set 1
Table 30, which is labeled agreement set 1, shows both the subject and object agreement markers before the verb. The plural há¹ follows the verb. The forms of singular and plural subject agreement markers differ only by tone, in which the singular is high, and plural low.

### Table 30 Agreement set 1 summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>AG.S</th>
<th>AG.O</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>(PL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ká</td>
<td>kā</td>
<td>pa</td>
<td>má</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ná</td>
<td>nà</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>?á</td>
<td>?à</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples (183.a-f) illustrate each combination with an intransitive verb t⁴ɤ ‘sit’. The plural maker há¹ denotes any plural subject in indicative intransitive clauses. However, it is optional as each subject agreement marker distinguishes number.

(183)  Example Sentence  Free Translation

a)  ká t⁴ɤ  I sat.
b)  kā t⁴ɤ (há¹)  We sat.
c)  ná t⁴ɤ  You(sg) sat.
d)  nà t⁴ɤ (há¹)  You(pl) sat.
e)  ?á t⁴ɤ  He/she/it sat.
f)  ?à t⁴ɤ (há¹)  They sit.
Example (184.a-ab) illustrate each combination with a transitive verb *đến* ‘beat up’.

Unlike in intransitive indicative clauses, the plural marker *hài* indicates the plurality of second and third person objects (184.b, d, f, h, n, p, z, ab).

(184) Example Sentence Free Translation

- a) kả ô đên I beat him up.
- b) kả ô đên hài I beat them up.
- c) kả ô đên We beat him up.
- d) kả ô đên hài We beat them up.
- e) kả tsá đên I beat you(sg) up.
- f) kả tsá đên hài I beat you(pl) up.
- g) kả tsá đên We beat you(sg) up.
- h) kả tsá đên hài We beat you(pl) up.
- i) nả pác đên You(sg) beat me up.
- j) nả mà đên You(sg) beat us up.
- k) nả pác đên You(pl) beat me up.
- l) nả mà đên you(pl) beat us up.
- m) nả ô đên You(sg) beat him up.
- n) nả ô đên hài You(sg) beat them up.
- o) nả ô đên You(pl) beat him up.
- p) nả ô đên hài You(pl) beat them up.
- q) ?á pác đên He beat me up.
- r) ?á mà đên He beat us up.
- s) ?á pác đên They beat me up.
- t) ?á mà đên They beat us up.
- u) ?á tsá đên He beat you(sg) up.
- v) ?á tsá đên He beat you(pl) up.
- w) ?á tsá đên They beat you(sg) up.
- x) ?á tsá đên They beat you(pl) up.
- y) ?á ô đên He beat him up.
- z) ?á ô đên hài He beat them up.
- aa) ?á ô đên They beat him up.
- ab) ?á ô đên hài They beat them up.

Non-negative declarative transitive and intransitive clauses, causative/benefactive clauses, non-agentive nominalization and relativization, non-agent content interrogative clauses, adverbial clauses, interrogative tag-questions with “*mo*, *ʔʔʔ*, *sá vê, ʔʔʔʔ*, and negated declarative clauses with the negator *lả* take agreement set 1 in their constructions.
5.3 Agreement set 2

The typical agreement set 2 patterns are presented in Table 31. Set 2 agreements are found in negative declarative clauses. Unlike set 1 agreements, subject markers from agreement markers set 2 occurs clause final unless they are turned into an interrogative tag-question by adding the morpheme moⁿ. The negator veʔ follows the verb, then the plural marker ʰdá and the subject agreement markers.

Table 31 Agreement set 2 summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>(AG.O)</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>NEG</th>
<th>(PL)</th>
<th>AG.S</th>
<th>QTag</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>PL</td>
<td></td>
<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>pa</td>
<td>má</td>
<td>veʔ</td>
<td>nì</td>
<td>pì</td>
<td>moⁿ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td></td>
<td>tsì</td>
<td>tsì</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td></td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples (185.a-f) illustrates each combination set 2 with intransitive verb ʰɣ ‘sit’ and (186.a-ab) exemplifies those with transitive clauses, using the verb ʰdɛ ‘beat.up’

(185) Example Sentences  Free Translation
a) ʰɣ veʔ nì           I didn’t sit.
b) ʰɣ veʔ pì           We didn’t sit.
c) ʰɣ veʔ tsì          You(sg) didn’t sit.
d) ʰɣ veʔ há¹ tsì       You(pl) didn’t sit.
e) ʰɣ veʔ ø            He didn’t sit.
f) ʰɣ veʔ há¹ ø         They didn’t sit.

Here with set 2 agreement markers, the plural marker ʰdá signifies the plurality of second and third person subject arguments in intransitive clauses (185.d, f) but third person subject argument of transitive clauses (186.s, t) as well as second (186.f, h, v, x) and third (186.b, d, p, z, ab) person object arguments. The negator veʔ becomes ʰn when any morpheme follows it. It is interesting to note that the tone become high as in (186.k, l, o) whenever the subject argument is first or second person plural.

Since the third person plural subject argument and second or third person object argument takes the same plural marker ʰdá; sentences (186.v, w, and x), and (186.z, aa, and ab) are exactly the same.
(186) Example Sentences  Free Translation

a) ø đen və ní I didn’t beat him up.
b) ø đen və há’ ní I didn’t beat them up.
c) ø đen vò pí We didn’t beat him up.
d) ø đen vò há’ pí We didn’t beat them up.
e) tsà đen və ní I didn’t beat you(sg) up.
f) tsà đen və há’ ní I didn’t beat you(pl) up.
g) tsà đen vò pí We didn’t beat you(sg) up.
h) tsà đen və há’ pí We didn’t beat you(pl) up.
i) pà đen və tsi You(sg) didn’t beat me up.
j) mà đen və tsi You(sg) didn’t beat us up.
k) pà đen vò tsi You(pl) didn’t beat me up.
l) mà đen vò tsi You(pl) didn’t beat us up.
m) ø đen və tsi You(sg) didn’t beat him up.
n) ø đen və tsi You(sg) didn’t beat them up.
o) ø đen vò tsi You(pl) didn’t beat him up.
p) ø đen və há’ tsi You(pl) didn’t beat them up.
q) pà đen ve? ø He didn’t beat me up.
r) mà đen ve? ø He didn’t beat us up.
s) pà đen və há’ ø They didn’t beat me up.
t) mà đen və há’ ø They didn’t beat us up.
u) tsà đen ve? ø He didn’t beat you(sg) up.
v) tsà đen və há’ ø He didn’t beat you(pl) up.
w) tsà đen və há’ ø They didn’t beat you(sg) up.
x) tsà đen və há’ ø They didn’t beat you(pl) up.
y) ø đen ve? ø He didn’t beat him up.
z) ø đen və há’ ø He didn’t beat them up.
aa) ø đen və há’ ø They didn’t beat him up.
ab) ø đen və há’ ø They didn’t beat them up.

Only four circumstances: causative/benefactive clauses, unrestricted complement clauses, interrogative tag-question with “mo”, “ʔʔ, sə vě, ʔʔʔ”, and negated declarative clauses with negator ve? take agreement set 2 in their constructions.

5.4 Agreement set 3

Table 32 which is labeled agreement set 3 shows the object agreement markers before the verb, and the plural há’ follows the verb, then the subject. Set 3
agreements are used to construct yes/no interrogative clauses in Senthang. The forms of the subject agreements are similar to that of set 2 (Table 31) except for their tone. However, there is a third person subject agreement marker in this set.

**Table 32 Agreement set 3 summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>(AG.O)</th>
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<th>(PL)</th>
<th>AG.S</th>
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</thead>
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<td>SG</td>
<td>PL</td>
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<tr>
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<td>ni</td>
<td>pi</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>tsi</td>
<td>tsi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>ø</td>
<td>?i</td>
<td>?i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples (187.a-f) demonstrate each possible combination of set 3 with intransitive *tʰɤ ‘sit’. Again, second and third person subject arguments take the plural marker *há¹*.

(187)  | Example Sentence | Free Translation |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a)</td>
<td><em>tʰɤ ni</em></td>
<td>Did I sit?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td><em>tʰɤ pi</em></td>
<td>Did we sit?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c)</td>
<td><em>tʰɤ tsi</em></td>
<td>Did you(sg) sit?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d)</td>
<td><em>tʰɤ <em>há¹</em> tsi</em></td>
<td>Did you(pl) sit?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e)</td>
<td><em>tʰɤ ?i</em></td>
<td>Did he sit?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f)</td>
<td><em>tʰɤ <em>há¹</em> ?i</em></td>
<td>Did they sit?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples (188.a-ab) illustrate each combination of set 3 with transitive verb *deŋ* ‘beat.up’. Again, the plural markers indicate the plurality of the second (188.f, h, v, x) and third person object (188.b, d, h, p, z, ab) arguments as well as third person subject arguments (188.s, t, w, x, aa, ab). When the subject argument is first and the object argument is second (188.g) or third (188.c) person singular, or the subject is second person plural and the object argument is any number of first person (188.k, l) or third person singular (188.o), the tone of the verb changes from *deŋ³³* to *deŋ³⁵*. This is marked only in this table as *deŋ*.

(188)  | Example Sentence | Free Translation |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a)</td>
<td>ø <em>deŋ ni</em></td>
<td>Did I beat him up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>ø <em>deŋ <em>há¹</em> ni</em></td>
<td>Did I beat them up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c)</td>
<td>ø <em>deŋ pi</em></td>
<td>Did we beat him up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d)</td>
<td>ø <em>deŋ <em>há¹</em> pi</em></td>
<td>Did we beat them up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e)</td>
<td>tsa <em>deŋ ni</em></td>
<td>Did I beat you(sg) up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f)</td>
<td>tsa <em>deŋ <em>há¹</em> ni</em></td>
<td>Did I beat you(pl) up?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

96
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example Sentence</th>
<th>Free Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>g) ᵇa ḝeŋ pi</td>
<td>Did we beat you(sg) up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) ᵇa ḝeŋ ḷa¹ pi</td>
<td>Did we beat you(pl) up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) pᵃ ḝeŋ tsi</td>
<td>Did you(sg) beat me up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) mᵃ ḝeŋ tsi</td>
<td>Did you(sg) beat us up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k) pᵃ ḝeŋ tsi</td>
<td>Did you(pl) beat me up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l) mᵃ ḝeŋ tsi</td>
<td>Did you(pl) beat us up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m) ᵇ o ḝeŋ tsi</td>
<td>Did you(sg) beat him up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n) ᵇ o ḝeŋ ḷa¹ tsi</td>
<td>Did you(sg) beat them up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o) ᵇ o ḝeŋ tsi</td>
<td>Did you(pl) beat him up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p) ᵇ o ḝeŋ ḷa¹ tsi</td>
<td>Did you(pl) beat them up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q) pᵃ ḝeŋ ?i</td>
<td>Did he beat me up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r) mᵃ ḝeŋ ?i</td>
<td>Did he beat us up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s) pᵃ ḝeŋ ḷa¹ ?i</td>
<td>Did they beat me up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t) mᵃ ḝeŋ ḷa¹ ?i</td>
<td>Did they beat us up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u) ᵇa ḝeŋ ?i</td>
<td>Did he beat you(sg) up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v) ᵇa ḝeŋ ḷa¹ ?i</td>
<td>Did he beat you(pl) up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w) ᵇa ḝeŋ ḷa¹ ?i</td>
<td>Did they beat you(sg) up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x) ᵇa ḝeŋ ḷa¹ ?i</td>
<td>Did they beat you(pl) up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>y) ᵇ o ḝeŋ ?i</td>
<td>Did he beat him up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z) ᵇ o ḝeŋ ḷa¹ ?i</td>
<td>Did he beat them up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aa) ᵇ o ḝeŋ ḷa¹ ?i</td>
<td>Did they beat him up?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ab) ᵇ o ḝeŋ ḷa¹ ?i</td>
<td>Did they beat them up?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sentences (188.v, w, and x), and (188.z, aa, and ab) are exactly the same because third person plural subject argument and second or third person object argument takes the same plural marker ḷa¹.

Only four circumstances: causative/benefactive clauses, unrestricted complement clauses, interrogative tag-question with “mo”, ṭʔi, sò ve, ṭʔʔ”, and interrogative polar (yes/no) take agreement set 3 in their constructions.

5.5 Agreement set 4
Set 4 agreement markers are primarily used to construct imperative forms in Senthang usually with verb stem I and imperative enclitic =ʔ (see 3.3.5.1 and 3.3.5.3). Table 33 summarizes the agreement markers of set 4 and their positions; the object precedes the verb which is followed by the prohibitive marker (if it exists)
and precedes ḥá’ that indicates the plurality of object arguments then the subject agreement marker which precedes the subject plural marker lú/?ú.

**Table 33 Agreement set 4 summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>AG. Obj</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>(NEG)</th>
<th>Obj</th>
<th>Sub</th>
<th>PL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(PROH)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>pa</td>
<td>má</td>
<td>kʰşt/la’i</td>
<td>ń</td>
<td>pí</td>
<td>lú/?ú</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>tsa</td>
<td>kʰś?</td>
<td>há’</td>
<td>Ø</td>
<td>Ø</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ø</td>
<td>Ø</td>
<td>kʰś?</td>
<td>há’</td>
<td>sá’</td>
<td>ha’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples (189.a-t) shows set 4 combinations in both confirmative and negative cohortative patterns with intransitive verb tʰɣ ‘sit’ (189.a-d), and with transitive verb deŋ ‘beat.up’ (189.e-t). Since the subject arguments take agreement markers of their own, the plural marker lú is optional. The two negators kʰś? and la’i can occur in the negative cohortative.

(189) Example Sentence | Free Translation
---|---
a) tʰɣ ní = ? | Let me sit.
b) tʰɣ pí (?ú) = ? | Let us sit.
c) tʰɣ kʰś?/la’i ní = ? | Let me not sit.
d) tʰɣ kʰś?/la’i pí (?ú) = ? | Let us not sit.
e) Ø deŋ ní = ? | Let me beat him up.
f) Ø deŋ haf ní = ? | Let me beat them up.
g) Ø deŋ pí (?ú) = ? | Let us beat him up.
h) Ø deŋ haf pí (?ú) = ? | Let us beat them up.
i) tsà deŋ ní = ? | Let me beat you(sg) up.
j) tsà deŋ haf ní = ? | Let me beat you(pl)up.
k) tsà deŋ pí (?ú) = ? | Let us beat you(sg) up.
l) tsà deŋ haf pí (?ú) = ? | Let us beat you(pl)up.
m) Ø deŋ kʰś?/la’i ní = ? | Let me not beat him up.
n) Ø deŋ kʰś?/la’i haf ní = ? | Let me not beat them up.
o) Ø deŋ kʰś?/la’i pí (?ú) = ? | Let us not beat him up.
p) Ø deŋ kʰś?/la’i haf pí (?ú) = ? | Let us not beat them up.
q) tsà deŋ kʰś?/la’i ní = ? | Let me not beat you(sg) up.
r) tsà deŋ kʰś?/la’i haf ní = ? | Let me not beat you(pl)up.
s) tsà deŋ kʰś?/la’i pí (?ú) = ? | Let us not beat you(sg) up.
t) deŋ kʰś?/la’i haf pí (?ú) = ? | Let us not beat you(pl) up.
Each combination of set 4 markers in both intransitive (190.a-d) and transitive (190.e-t) clauses of (direct) imperative and prohibitive with negator $kʰ^5ʔ$ are exemplified below. Apart from the plural marker $lú/ʔu$ that denotes the plurality of the subject argument, the subject argument takes no agreement marker in direct imperative and prohibitive with both intransitive and transitive verbs.

(190) Example Sentence | Free Translation | Imperative
---|---|---
a) $tʰɣ = ?$ | (you.sg) Sit. |
| | | Confirmative
b) $tʰɣ ?ū = ?$ | (you.pl) Sit. |
| | | Negator $kʰ^5ʔ$
c) $tʰɣ kʰ^5ʔ = ?$ | (you.sg) Don’t sit. |
d) $tʰɣ kʰ^5ʔ (ʔu) = ?$ | (you.pl) Don’t sit. |
e) $ʊ \, ḍɛŋ = ?$ | (You.Sg) Beat him up. |
f) $ʊ \, ḍɛŋ hāl = ?$ | (You.Sg) Beat them up. |
g) $ʊ \, ḍɛŋ ?ū = ?$ | (You.Pl) Beat him up. |
h) $ʊ \, ḍɛŋ hāl ?ū = ?$ | (You.Pl) Beat them up. |
i) pǎ ḍɛŋ = ? | (You.Sg) Beat me up. |
j) mā ḍɛŋ = ? | (You.Sg) Beat us up. |
k) pǎ ḍɛŋ ?ū = ? | (You.Pl) Beat me up. |
m) $ʊ \, ḍɛŋ kʰ^5ʔ$ | Don’t beat him up. |
| | | Transitive
n) $ʊ \, ḍɛŋ kʰ^5ʔ hāl = ?$ | Don’t beat them up. |
o) $ʊ \, ḍɛŋ kʰ^5ʔ ?ū = ?$ | (You.Pl) Don’t beat him up. |
p) $ʊ \, ḍɛŋ kʰ^5ʔ hāl ?ū = ?$ | (You.Pl) Don’t beat them up. |
q) pǎ ḍɛŋ kʰ^5ʔ | Don’t beat me up. |
r) mā ḍɛŋ kʰ^5ʔ | Don’t beat us up. |
s) pǎ ḍɛŋ kʰ^5ʔ ?ū = ? | (You.Pl) Don’t beat me up. |
t) mā ḍɛŋ kʰ^5ʔ ?ū = ? | (You.Pl) Don’t beat us up. |

Examples (191.a-j) illustrates each combination of set 4 in both intransitive (191.a&b) and transitive (191.c-j) clauses of (direct) imperative negator $la^i$ are exemplified. Unlike $kʰ^5ʔ$, the negator $la^i$ takes a subject particle, $tsì$. Therefore, the plural marker $lú/ʔu$ is optional here. The tone of the negator $la^i$ changes from $la^{33}$ to $la^{35}$, which is represented here as $la^{i}$, when the subject argument is second person plural and the object is third person singular or any number of first person (191.b, e, i, j).
(191) Example Sentence  Free Translation  Prohibitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>(Negator la)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a)</td>
<td>ṁ_variant la i tsi = ?</td>
<td>(you.sg) Don’t sit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>ṁ_variant lá i tsi = ?</td>
<td>(you.pl) Don’t sit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c)</td>
<td>o ɗeŋ la i tsi = ?</td>
<td>Don’t beat him up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d)</td>
<td>o ɗeŋ la i há i tsi = ?</td>
<td>Don’t beat them up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e)</td>
<td>o ɗeŋ lá i tsi (?ú) = ?</td>
<td>(You.Pl) Don’t beat him up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f)</td>
<td>o ɗeŋ la i há i tsi ?ú = ?</td>
<td>(You.Pl) Don’t beat them up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g)</td>
<td>pà ɗeŋ la i tsi = ?</td>
<td>Don’t beat me up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h)</td>
<td>má ɗeŋ la i tsi = ?</td>
<td>Don’t beat us up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i)</td>
<td>pà ɗeŋ lá i tsi (?ú) = ?</td>
<td>(You.Pl) Don’t beat me up.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j)</td>
<td>má ɗeŋ lá i tsi (?ú) = ?</td>
<td>(You.Pl) Don’t beat us up.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples (192.a-p) illustrate set 4 combinations in confirmative and negative forms of indirect imperative which take a particle sʔ to indicate hortative imperative. Since the subject argument in this type of imperative is only third person, only the plural marker hādi is found here.

(192) Example Sentence  Free Translation  Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Confimative</th>
<th>Intransitive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Transitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a)</td>
<td>ṁ_variant sʔ</td>
<td>Let him sit.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>ṁ_variant haí sʔ</td>
<td>Let them sit.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c)</td>
<td>ṁ_variant kʰʔ sʔ</td>
<td>Let him not sit.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d)</td>
<td>ṁ_variant kʰʔ háʔ sʔ</td>
<td>Let them not sit.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e)</td>
<td>o ɗeŋ sʔ</td>
<td>Let him beat her up.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f)</td>
<td>o ɗeŋ háʔ sʔ</td>
<td>Let them/him beat her up.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g)</td>
<td>o ɗeŋ kʰʔ sʔ</td>
<td>Let him not beat them/her up.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h)</td>
<td>o ɗeŋ kʰʔ háʔ sʔ</td>
<td>Let them/him not beat them/her up.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i)</td>
<td>pà ɗeŋ sʔ</td>
<td>Let him beat me up.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j)</td>
<td>pà ɗeŋ háʔ sʔ</td>
<td>Let them beat me up.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k)</td>
<td>pà ɗeŋ kʰʔ sʔ</td>
<td>Let him not beat me up.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l)</td>
<td>pà ɗeŋ kʰʔ háʔ sʔ</td>
<td>Let them not beat me up.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m)</td>
<td>má ɗeŋ sʔ</td>
<td>Let him beat us up.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n)</td>
<td>má ɗeŋ háʔ sʔ</td>
<td>Let them beat us up.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o)</td>
<td>má ɗeŋ kʰʔ sʔ</td>
<td>Let him not beat us up.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p)</td>
<td>má ɗeŋ kʰʔ háʔ sʔ</td>
<td>Let them not beat us up.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Causative/benefactive clauses, unrestricted complement clauses, imperative, cohortative and hortative clauses, and restricted complement clauses with complementizers ɓɔ? and ɓɛ take agreement set 4 in their constructions.

5.6 Agreement and stem alternation
The next chapter covers many areas of interaction between verb stem alternation and agreement. But one point that is not covered is the general observation that if a verb has no stem II form, then that verb is assumed to use the same form for both stem I and stem II. In examples (193) to (195) both ɗɤ ‘like’ and ʔo ‘eat’ take the same agreement patterns, but only ʔo ‘eat’ shows verb stem alternation.

(193) Banhu ɗo ɗw/oh .
     bàn.ũ ká ɗy/ʔó?
     banana 1S.AG.SG like/eat.II
     I like/eat bananas.

(194) Banhu ɗw/o ɗeh ni .
     bàn.ũ ɗy/ʔ0 ɗeʔ ní
     banana like/eat.I NEG 1S.AG.SG
     I don’t like/eat bananas.

(195) Banhu ɗw/o i ?
     bàn.ũ ɗy/ʔ0 ?i
     banana like/eat.I 3S.AG
     Does he like/eat bananas?
In this research, reflexive and reciprocals pronouns or agreement markers are not presented. However, a brief discussion with examples is provided in a footnote.\footnote{The reflexives (e.g. ’He hit himself’ or ‘They hit themselves’) or reciprocals (e.g. ’They hit one another/each other.’) in Senthang are formed by duplicating only the second set of pronouns (for pronoun sets, see 3.3.4.2). The reflexive form in Senthang is formed by duplicating only the second set of the pronouns (Table 18) and joining the two with the conjunction \( lɛ \) (i). Otherwise, it is ungrammatical (ii).

(i) \textit{kamu} \hspace{1em} \textit{kámù \ lê \ kámù} \\
\hspace{1em} 1S \hspace{1em} and \hspace{1em} 1S \hspace{1em} myself \\

(ii) * \textit{kaw} \hspace{1em} \textit{ká \ lê \ ká} \\
\hspace{1em} 1S \hspace{1em} and \hspace{1em} 1S

However, as these pronouns are optional, agreement markers (see Chapter 5) play a more important role in forming reflexives and reciprocals. In these clause patterns, only set 1 subject agreement markers are allowed. The reflexive form takes any corresponding subject agreement markers for person and number (see (v), (vii), (x), (xii), (xiii)) while the reciprocal form takes only the plural ones (see (iv), (viii), (ix), (xii)). Thus, a sentence like (xii) could be either a reflexive or reciprocal.

If a verb has two stems, then stem 1 is chosen in these types of clauses (see (ix) and (x)). If the verb normally bears high tone, then it becomes low here. The following examples illustrate uses of reflexives and reciprocals in Senthang. More research into these constructions is still needed. (Examples (iii), (vi), and (xi) are not reflexives nor reciprocals.)

(iii) \textit{LungLung ka} \hspace{1em} \textit{dw} . \\
\hspace{1em} lùŋ.lùŋ \ ká \ dv̄ \\
\hspace{1em} LungLung \hspace{1em} 1S.AG.SG \hspace{1em} like LungLung and I like each other.

(iv) \textit{LungLung hoi ka} \hspace{1em} \textit{dw} . \\
\hspace{1em} lùŋ.lùŋ \ h\textsuperscript{i} \ ká \ dv̄ \\
\hspace{1em} LungLung \hspace{1em} with \hspace{1em} 1S.AG.PL \hspace{1em} like

(v) \textit{Kamu le} \hspace{1em} \textit{kamu ka} \hspace{1em} \textit{dw} . \\
\hspace{1em} ká \ mú \ lê \ ká \ mú \ ká \ dv̄ \\
\hspace{1em} 1S \hspace{1em} CONJ \hspace{1em} 1S \hspace{1em} 1S.AG.SG \hspace{1em} like LungLung likes NwPaw.

(vi) \textit{LungLung nawh NwPaw a} \hspace{1em} \textit{dw} . \\
\hspace{1em} lùŋ.lùŋ \ n\textsuperscript{ịa} \ nỳ-po \ ?ā \ dv̄ \\
\hspace{1em} LungLung \hspace{1em} ERG \hspace{1em} NwPaw \hspace{1em} 3S.AG.SG \hspace{1em} like LungLung wore new shirt and he liked himself a lot.

(vii) \textit{LungLung cu} \hspace{1em} \textit{angky thaw a} \hspace{1em} \textit{hrwh ei amu le amu a} \hspace{1em} \textit{dw} \hspace{1em} \textit{toih} . \\
\hspace{1em} lùŋ.lùŋ \ tsú \ ?aŋ.kò \ ?ā \ xîʔ \ ?eʔ \ ?aŋ.mú \ lê \ ?aŋ.mú \ ?ā \ dv̄ \ toʔ \\
\hspace{1em} LungLung \hspace{1em} TOP \hspace{1em} shirt \hspace{1em} new \hspace{1em} 3S.AG.SG \hspace{1em} wear \hspace{1em} and \hspace{1em} 3S \hspace{1em} CONJ \hspace{1em} 3S \hspace{1em} 3S.AG.SG \hspace{1em} like very

(viii) \textit{LungLung le} \hspace{1em} \textit{NwPaw a} \hspace{1em} \textit{dw} \hspace{1em} \textit{hai} . \\
\hspace{1em} lùŋ.lùŋ \ lê \ nỳ-po \ ?ā \ dv̄ \ hāi \\
\hspace{1em} LungLung \hspace{1em} CONJ \hspace{1em} NwPaw \hspace{1em} 3S.AG.PL \hspace{1em} like PL
5.7 Conclusion

The agreement markers in Senthang generally mark the person and number of the subject and object arguments in a verbal complex. There are four sets of agreement makers in Senthang with the same preverbal object agreement markers for all sets. Only set 1 subject agreement markers occur pre-verbally, preceding the object agreement markers. The rest, sets 2, 3, and 4, are phonologically similar and are all postverbal, usually clause final.

Among the four sets, agreement marker set 1 is dominant. The other “sets” appear with fewer single constructions.

In the next chapter, we look at combinations of verb stem alternations with agreement sets.

---

(x) LungLung and NwPaw like each other.

(x) LungLung
    hɔ́' kа dɛŋ
    LungLung

(x) Malai pu
    man 3S CONJ 3S 3S.AG.SG beat.up.1

The man beat himself up.

(x) A sampaw ka po
    ʔá sám.po ká pó
    3.GEN.SG grey hair 1S.AG.SG pull.off

I pulled out her grey hair.

(xii) Ka sampaw ka po
    ká sám.po ká pó
    1.GEN.PL grey hair 1S.AG.PL pull.off

We pulled out each other’s grey hair.

(xiii) Ka sampaw ka po
    ká sám.po ká pó
    1.GEN.SG grey hair 1S.AG.SG pull.off

I pulled out my grey hair by myself.
Chapter 6
Predicate Agreement Patterns: Interactions between verb stem alternation and agreement sets

6.1 Overview of Chapter
Agreement and verb stem alternation combine within clauses, forming patterns. The resulting patterns are called predicate agreement patterns. The combination of 4 agreement markers sets and two verb stems logically creates 8 different predicate agreement patterns. Note that not having any agreement markers is also a logical option leading to ten different predicate agreement patterns (see Table 34).

Table 34 Logically possible predication patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate Agreement Pattern</th>
<th>Agreement Set</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Attested</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The predicate agreement patterns still correlate well with sentence types defined semantically and syntactically. In this chapter each of the predicate agreement patterns is briefly commented on. There is also an extended discussion of some previously undiscussed variation.
6.2 Predicate agreement pattern 1
Predicate agreement pattern 1 is defined as having agreement markers from set 1 and using verb stem I (196). This is the dominant form for intransitive verbs in their declarative, non-negative use.

(196) Ka hawi le zung awh ka thw.
    ká ḥɔ̀ lè zúŋ ḏɔ̀ ká ṭɔ̀ɣ
    1.GEN.SG friend PL. N.LOC LOC 1S.AG.SG sit.I

I sat with my friends.

6.3 Predicate agreement pattern 2
A construction of agreement markers from set 1 and verb stem II is termed as predicate agreement pattern 2. This pattern occurs with transitive verbs in non-negative declarative clause; it usually requires an ergative case marker nɔʔ as in (197).

(197) ABawi nawh notaw a len²⁷.
    ḏɔ̀bì nɔʔ nōʾ.ɔ̀ ḏà lèn
    ABawi ERG grandmother 3S.AG.SG visit.II

ABawi visited Grandma.

6.4 Predicate agreement pattern 3
A negative declarative with negator veʔ is composed of set 2 agreement markers and verb stem I with both transitive and intransitive verbs (198.a&b). This composition is called predicate agreement pattern 3.

(198)

    a. Y chy veh.
        ḏɔ̀ ṭɔ̀ɣ veʔ
dog die.I NEG

        The dog did not die.
    
    b. ABawi nawh notaw leng veh.
        ḏɔ̀bì nɔʔ nōʾ.ɔ̀ leŋ veʔ
    
    ABawi ERG grandmother visit.I NEG

    ABawi did not visit Grandma.

---
²⁷ len/leŋ, glossed here as ‘visit’, means to go and visit to a close friend or relatives’ place in order to stay the night with them.
6.5 Predicate agreement pattern 4

Predicate agreement pattern 4, consists of agreement markers set 2 and verb stem II, occurs only in one condition: valency changing — with applicative particles28 such as pīʔ ‘benefactive/maleactive’, pə ‘comitative’, pəu ‘allative/maleactive’, kʰən ‘prioritative’, sən ‘relinquitive’ and nəʔ ‘instrumental’, and a causative particle səʔ. An example with a causative particle is provided. In (199) the verb stem is II and the subject agreement marker that occurs sentence finally is the second person subject agreement marker from agreement set 2. The causative particle səʔ follows the verb. However, as argued in section 6.9, valence increasing constructions are formed from verb stem II forms, but function like verb stem I—thus they are not true instances of predicate agreement pattern 4.

(199) Namu nəw h LungLung pa  dən  səw h  və h  ci  .
   nə.mu nəʔ lúŋ.luŋ pà  dən  səʔ  vəʔ  tsi
   2S  ERG LungLung 1O.AG  beat.up.II  CAUS  NEG  2S.AG
   You didn’t have LungLung beat me up./ You didn’t let me to beat up LungLung.

6.6 Predicate agreement pattern 5

A pattern that has agreement markers from set 3 and takes verb stem I as in polar interrogatives is defined as predicate agreement pattern 5. This pattern is exemplified in (200.a&b).

(200)
   a. Y cḥi i ?
     ?ə təʔ i'
     dog  die.I 3S.AG
   Did the dog die?
   b. ABawi nəw h notaw  leng i ?
     ?əbəʔi nəʔ nəʔ.ʔo  ləŋ  i'
     ABawi  ERG  grandmother  visit.I 3S.AG
   Did ABawi visit Grandma?

6.7 Predicate agreement pattern 6

Predicate agreement Pattern 6 uses agreement set 3 and verb stem II. Like predicate agreement pattern 4 (see 6.5) and 8 (6.9), this pattern occurs only with the applicative and causative particles. In (201), if the causative particle was not there, the verb stem would be I, thus it is not a true example of predicate agreement pattern 6.

---

28 The applicative particles mentioned here each have a corresponding particle in Lai which is found in Peterson’s Hakha Lai article (2003).
(201) ABawi nəw n LungLung ca den sawh i ?
?abşi n šlün.luŋ tsà ḡən sʔi
ABawi ERG LungLung 2O.AG beat.up.II CAUS 3S.AG
Did ABawi have/make LungLung beat you up?/ Did ABawi let you to beat up LungLung?

6.8 Predicate agreement pattern 7

A predicate that consists of agreement markers from set 4 and verb stem I is identified as predicate agreement pattern 7. This pattern occurs in imperative, cohortative, and hortative clauses, as well as restricted complement clauses that take the complementizers sɛ/ləʔ.

(202) Notaw leng aw pih . [Cohortative]
nóʔ.tə leŋ ?ə pi =?
grandmother visit.I F 1S.AG.PL = IMP
Let us visit Grandma.

(203) Notaw leng aw pih se a thu aw. [Complement clause]
nóʔ.tə leŋ ?ə pi sɛ ?a tʰuʔ ?ə
grandmother visit.I F 1S.AG.PL COMP 3S.AG good F
It would be good if we visit Grandma.

6.9 Predicate agreement pattern 8

Like predicate agreement patterns 4 and 6, the resulting pattern of forming agreement set 4 and verb stem II, predicate agreement pattern 8 occurs when the verb is followed by an applicative or causative particle as in (204).

(204) Sy pa din sawh cy khawh uh .
sə pə din sʔi tə kʰʔiʔ ?u =?
medicine 1O.AG drink.II CAUS any.more PROH 2.PL = IMP
(You.pl) Don’t make me partake medicine anymore!

Even though these combinations (predicate agreement pattern 4, 6 and 8) appear to occur as in ((199),(201), (204)) in fact it seems better to consider the applicative and causative markers as creating a new verb from the main verb. If these markers select for stem II verbs, and if the resulting verb is a non-stem alternating verb, then in fact sentences like (199),(201), and (204) are just a stem I type verb occurring
with respective agreement marker set 2, 3, and 4 just like any predicate agreement pattern 2, 3 and 4 respectively.

6.10 Predicate agreement pattern 9
It is also hypothesized that verb stem I might also occur without any agreement markers as predicate agreement pattern 9. Nonetheless, this pattern does not exist.

6.11 Predicate agreement pattern 10
Unlike stem I, stem II verbs occur without taking any agreement from any set. This pattern is defined as predicate agreement pattern 10. This pattern is observed in instrument and place nominalization. In addition, this pattern is also singled out in some restricted complement clauses.

(205)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a. thwh nawh</th>
<th>b. Notaw len ka dw</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ṭʰʔ? nʔ?</td>
<td>nʔ”.tə len ká dʔ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sit.II NMLZ</td>
<td>grandmother visit.II 1S.AG.SG want</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seat</td>
<td>I want to visit Grandma.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.12 Variations on agreement patterns 1 and 2
There is a cluster of variation surrounding verbs with a causative-inchoative meaning alternation. There is some little variation in this predicate agreement pattern, but basically it is agreement set 1 with stem II—but depending on the meaning, the agreement can be seen as agreeing with the patient instead of the implied agent.

6.12.1 Causative-inchoative pairs
Senthang has at least three ways of relating causative and inchoative (resultative meanings). The first is when the same verb can be used for both meanings (causative → inchoative). The second is a passive-like construction that uses [təŋ] with causative verbs (causative = > resultative). The third uses sʔʔ ‘cause’ with resultative verbs (resultative = > causative).
6.12.1.1 Causative ★ inchoative

The class of causative-inchoative verbs in Senthang is small compared to its related languages (such as Falam, Hakha, and Burmese), and most of the verbs are not stem changing. If stem I and II exist, stem I will be chosen for the inchoative.

In Senthang causative-inchoative pairs, the causative statement is Predicate Agreement Pattern 2 (agreement set 1 + verb stem II) as in (206).

(206) Suihkhaw ka hawn .
    súʔ.kʰɔ̀ ká hɔn
    door 1S.AG.SG open.II

I opened the door.

For causative-inchoative verbs which have stems I and II, however, there is a different predicate agreement pattern as in example (207).

(207) Suihkhaw a hawng .
    súʔ.kʰɔ̀ ñà hɔŋ
    door 3S.AG open.I

The door is opened.

In this pattern, for the inchoative meaning, only a set 1 third person subject agreement marker is allowed with verb stem I. Although the third person agreement marker in this pattern bears low tone, it does not mark any number agreement. If any other set 1 agreement markers are inserted as in (208), the sentence becomes ungrammatical.

(208) * Suihkhaw ka / na hawng .
    súʔ.kʰɔ̀ ká /kà ná/nà hɔŋ
    door 1S.AG 2S.AG open.I

Intended: the door was opened by me/you

6.12.1.2 ṭɔŋ: (causative = > resultative)
When the same verb cannot denote both causative and resultative, a different passive-like construction can be used. Examples (209) and (210) show using ṭɔŋ to create a resultative meaning. It is schematized like this: \[ V_II AG_{SUB1} ṭɔŋ \]. All set 1 agreement markers can be used in this construction. However, the agreement occurs before ṭɔŋ and not before the main verb.

109
(209) So ka tawng .
    sòʔ ká ðŋ
    poke.IL 1S.AG.SG meet
    I was poked. (Lit. I encounter (being) poked)

(210) Zei a tawng hai .
    zèʔ ?à ðŋ hāʔ
    hit.IL 3S.AG.PL meet PL
    They got hit.

6.12.1.3 sóʔ ‘cause’: (resultative = > causative)
The causative sóʔ ‘cause’ can convert resultatives to causatives. If the verb has no
stem II form then no change occurs as with kɔʔ which corresponds to the English
‘crack’. In Senthang, kɔʔ is a resultative verb (212). In a causative use, the causative
particle sóʔ follows the verb as expected (211).

(211) Ka kawh sawh .
    ká kɔʔ sóʔ
    1S.AG.SG crack CAUS
    I crack (it).

(212) A kawh .
    ?à kɔʔ
    3S.AG crack
    It is cracked.

A few verbs have different forms for causative, inchoative action and result. (213) is
the causative form of the verb ‘break’ while (214) and (215) are its inchoative action
and result respectively.

(213) Kheng ka deihkhy.
    kʰèŋ ká ðɛʔ.kʰá
    plate 1S.AG.SG break
    I broke the plate.

(214) kawh deihkhy.
    kawh 3S.AG crack
    It is being broken.

(215) A deihkhy.
    à 3S.AG crack
    It is broken.
(214) Kheng a deihkhy.
   \[k^b\text{è}n\ ?à \ dè^\text{i}.k^b\text{š}\]
   plate 3S.AG broken
   *The plate got broken.*

(215) Kheng a ky.
   \[k^b\text{è}n\ ?à \ kò\]
   plate 3S.AG break
   *The plate is broken.*

Table 35 lists Senthang verbs that can be used as both causative and inchoative. The first column lists the causative use of the verbs. The second column glosses the verbs. The third column shows the inchoative uses of the verb and their semantic meaning. And the last column states the stem form of the inchoative verbs.

Table 35 Causative-inchoative verbs in Senthang

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causative</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Inchoative</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>h\text{o}n</td>
<td>open</td>
<td>h\text{o}n</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rò^w?</td>
<td>destroy</td>
<td>rò^w?</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sòu</td>
<td>poke</td>
<td>so\text{u}</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sòu.k^h\text{š}</td>
<td>divide</td>
<td>sòu.k^h\text{š}</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dè^\text{i}.k^b\text{š}</td>
<td>break (plate)</td>
<td>dè^\text{i}.k^b\text{š}</td>
<td>action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dè^\text{i}.k^b\text{š}</td>
<td>break (plate)</td>
<td>kò</td>
<td>result</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dè^\text{i}.k^\text{i}</td>
<td>break (stick)</td>
<td>dè^\text{i}.k^\text{i}</td>
<td>action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dè^\text{i}.k^\text{i}</td>
<td>break (stick)</td>
<td>kì?</td>
<td>result</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t^h\text{i}n</td>
<td>thresh</td>
<td>t\text{i}n</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t^h\text{s}?</td>
<td>drop</td>
<td>tù</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t^h\text{s}?.t^h\text{am}</td>
<td>drop/fell</td>
<td>tù.t^h\text{am}</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pìn</td>
<td>block</td>
<td>pìn</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t^h\text{i}n</td>
<td>clean</td>
<td>t^h\text{i}n</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kò? + sò? crack</td>
<td>kò?</td>
<td>result</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.13 Complex predicates (Two-part verbs)

This section discusses complex predicates (or two part verbs) and how they use agreement markers in Senthang. There are a few verb stem changes but it is not consistent. Complex predicates (see Table 36) are common in Senthang as in some other Kuki-Chin such as Falam, Hakha and Burmese, a Tibeto-Burman language.
Table 36 Complex predicates in Senthang

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>X + V</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transitive</td>
<td>ngai si</td>
<td>‘possess’ 'bad'</td>
<td>to be sad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cy hai</td>
<td>‘water’ 'nonce'</td>
<td>to be thirsty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mih kw</td>
<td>‘eye’ 'nonce'</td>
<td>to be sleepy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>thin haw</td>
<td>‘liver’ 'sharp'</td>
<td>to be angry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>thin phan/ng</td>
<td>‘liver’ 'worry'</td>
<td>to be worry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>thin sau</td>
<td>‘liver’ 'long'</td>
<td>to be patient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>thin cawi</td>
<td>‘liver’ 'short'</td>
<td>to be short-tempered/hot temper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lung nu</td>
<td>‘heart’ 'hurt'</td>
<td>to be hurt/wounded emotionally</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lung hei</td>
<td>‘heart’ 'bit'</td>
<td>to be stubborn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lung leng</td>
<td>‘heart’ 'wander'</td>
<td>to be lonely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lung dong</td>
<td>‘heart’ 'end'</td>
<td>to be depress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lung rei thai</td>
<td>‘heart’ 'tired'</td>
<td>to be anxious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lung roh</td>
<td>‘heart’ 'destroy'</td>
<td>to be discourage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lung hmuih</td>
<td>‘heart’ 'blow'</td>
<td>to be dizzy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lung nem</td>
<td>‘heart’ 'soft'</td>
<td>to be kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lw vai</td>
<td>‘head’ 'wander'</td>
<td>to be dizzy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sy nu</td>
<td>‘nonce’ 'pain'</td>
<td>to be poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vai phu</td>
<td>‘nonce’ 'nonce'</td>
<td>to be hungry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ry vu</td>
<td>‘intestine’ 'nonce'</td>
<td>to be full</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>van sang</td>
<td>‘sky’ 'high'</td>
<td>to be in-need</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>van si</td>
<td>‘luck’ 'bad'</td>
<td>to be unlucky</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>thu bang</td>
<td>‘strength’ 'nonce'</td>
<td>to be tired</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>thu tho</td>
<td>‘strength’ 'wake-up'</td>
<td>to be excited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lung tho</td>
<td>‘heart’ 'wake-up'</td>
<td>to be excited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>zu khu</td>
<td>‘nonce’ 'nonce'</td>
<td>surrender/ concede/ give-up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>luih suih</td>
<td>‘vomit’ 'to be out'</td>
<td>nausea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mei ngam</td>
<td>‘nonce’ 'tame'</td>
<td>satisfy (after eating food)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hnu hnoch</td>
<td>‘ney’ 'nonce'</td>
<td>bother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hnu tu</td>
<td>‘ear’ 'fall'</td>
<td>agree/approve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lung ting</td>
<td>‘heart’ 'complete'</td>
<td>agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

29 There are many more complex predicates in Senthang.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>X + V</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transitive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lung tin</td>
<td>‘heart’ ‘complete’</td>
<td>satisfied</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thin khen</td>
<td>‘liver’ ‘hit.with.hummer’</td>
<td>peeve/ annoy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thin khui</td>
<td>‘liver’ ‘scratch’</td>
<td>peeve/ annoy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nai chy</td>
<td>‘laugh’ ‘nonce’</td>
<td>amuse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mih kem</td>
<td>‘eye’ ‘nonce’</td>
<td>cannot stand the sight of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action _ body part</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khwmh by</td>
<td>‘knee’ ‘fold’</td>
<td>kneel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khy bei</td>
<td>‘hand’ ‘slap’</td>
<td>clap</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mih dai</td>
<td>‘eye’ ‘nonce’</td>
<td>open.eye</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mai kau</td>
<td>‘fire’ ‘open’</td>
<td>make.fire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hmai phy</td>
<td>‘face’ ‘nonce’</td>
<td>wash.face</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mih sym</td>
<td>‘eye’ ‘nonce’</td>
<td>close.eye</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ngan khei</td>
<td>‘body’ ‘wash’</td>
<td>shower</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Action non body part</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mai kau</td>
<td>‘fire’ ‘build’</td>
<td>make.fire</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bei khin</td>
<td>‘pot’ ‘cook’</td>
<td>cook.meal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Osborne terms these kinds of verbs as ‘captive verbs’ (Osborne 1975:188; King 2010:326): “verbs which are obligatorily accompanied by a noun in every instance in which they occur.” King defines them as “complex predicates composed of both a noun and a verb” (King 2012: 326-334).

The combination of these verbs in Senthang also usually consists of a noun and a verb. Most of the first lexemes (X) of the given predicates are obviously nouns, body parts to be specific, and the latter (Y) actions. However, sometimes either element can be a non-meaningful word (Predicate_{complex}→ NV or XY). Both parts of the predicates appear to take agreement markers as in (216).

(216) A mih a kw .
    ?à mì? ?à kv

    3.GEN.SG eye 3S.AG nonce

    He is sleepy.

In (216), since the genitive pronouns and agreement markers from set 1 in Senthang are exactly the same in both person and number, it is not clear which of these
markers *mɪʔ* (N) and *kɤ* (V) take. However, it is assumed that the agreement marker taken by *mɪʔ* is genitive because it is preserved when the statement is negated (217) or when the verb is used in a polar interrogative (218), unlike the agreement marker that appears with the (V), which is not found in those environments (or a different agreement maker from different agreement markers sets occurs (see section 3.3.5.3 & 3.3.5.2).

(217) A mih kw veh .
   ʔá mɪʔ kɤ veʔ?
   3.GEN.SG eye nonce NEG
   *He is not sleepy.*

(218) A mih kw i ?
   ʔá mɪʔ kɤ ?i
   3.GEN.SG eye nonce 3S.AG
   *Is he sleepy?*

There are four different kinds of complex predicates in Senthang; attributive complex predicates (intransitive and transitive) and action complex predicates (body part and non-body part).

### 6.13.1 Complex predicate: Attributive intransitive

Most of the attributive complex predicates in Senthang are intransitive (see Table 36). The agreement marking in attributive intransitive complex predicates in Senthang is shown in (219) and (220). The only agreement marker that can precede the verb *kɤ* is the third person subject agreement marker, ʔá (with no number differentiation) regardless of the person and number of the subject. It is assumed that ʔá agrees with the (N) of the predicate because this (N) belongs to someone and is therefore treated as a third person object. In spoken language, this agreement marker is usually omitted. Thus, the genitive pronoun marker of the N is determined by the person and number of the subject. All agreement markers can occur as shown in Table 37.

(219) Ka mih a kw .
   ká mɪʔ ʔá kɤ
   1.GEN.SG eye 3S.AG nonce
   *I am sleepy.*
(220) Na mih a kw .
    ná mǐ? ?à ky

2.GEN.SG eye 3S.AG nonce

You are sleepy.

Table 37 summarizes the agreement marking pattern of intransitive attributive complex predicates in Senthang.

Table 37 Agreement marking in an attributive intransitive complex predicate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person/Number</th>
<th>AG&lt;sub&gt;GEN&lt;/sub&gt;</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>AG&lt;sub&gt;S&lt;/sub&gt;</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>E.g</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>ká</td>
<td>mi?</td>
<td>?à</td>
<td>ky</td>
<td>(219)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1PL</td>
<td>kà</td>
<td></td>
<td>?à</td>
<td></td>
<td>(220)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2SG</td>
<td>ná</td>
<td></td>
<td>?à</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2PL</td>
<td>nà</td>
<td></td>
<td>?à</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3SG</td>
<td>?á</td>
<td></td>
<td>?à</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3PL</td>
<td>?à</td>
<td></td>
<td>?à</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.13.2 Complex predicate: Attributive transitive

As shown in Table 36, there are only four pure transitive attributive complex predicates to my knowledge. Two of them have similar meaning with tʰìn ‘liver’ as the N of the predicates and kʰúi ‘scratch’ and kʰěn ‘hit.with.hammer’ as the V. The other two have nǎi ‘laugh’ and mǐ? ‘eye’ with a ‘nonce’ V.

Examples (221) to (224) show the agreement pattern in this type of complex predicate. The possessive pronoun ká and the first person object agreement marker ph in (221) and (223) agree with the patient while the agreement nd agrees with the agents.

(221) Ka thin na pa khui .
    ká tʰìn ná pá kʰúi

1.GEN.SG liver 2S.AG.SG 1O.AG scratch

You annoyed me. (emphasis on the agent)

(222) Ka thin na khui .
    ká tʰìn ná kʰúi

1.GEN.SG liver 2S.AG.SG scratch

You annoyed me. (emphasis on the action)
(223) Ka nai na pa chy).
   ká náí ná pá ŭ̄
   1.GEN.SG laugh 2S.AG.SG 1O.AG nonce
   You amused me. (emphasis on the agent)

(224) Ka nai na chy).
   ká náí ná ŭ̄
   1.GEN.SG laugh 2S.AG.SG nonce
   You amused me. (emphasis on the action)

The object agreement markers in these attributive transitive complex predicates can also be omitted resulting a slight difference in the semantic meaning. (222) and (224) emphasizes the action, while the emphasis is on the agent with the patient agreement marker in (221) and (223). When the transitive patient agreement marker does not appear, there is no other change.

Table 38 summarizes the agreement marking pattern of transitive attributive complex predicates in Senthang. The first column shows the person and number of the agent and patient agreement markers. The second to sixth column shows the order they occur in a sentence.

Table 38 Agreement marking in an attributive transitive complex predicate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person/Number</th>
<th>GEN (PT)</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>AG_x(AGT)</th>
<th>(AG_o)PT</th>
<th>V</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agt Pt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1SG/1PL</td>
<td>2SG</td>
<td>ká/ká 1S.AG.SG/PL  tsə 2O.AG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2PL</td>
<td>nà   2.S.GEN.PL  tsə  3O.AG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3SG</td>
<td>3AG.SGEN  mà  3O.AG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3AG.SGEN  mà  3O.AG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2SG/2PL</td>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>ná/nà 2S.AG.SG/PL  tsə 2O.AG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1PL</td>
<td>ká   1S.GEN.PL  tsə  2O.AG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3AG.SGEN  mà  3O.AG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3AG.SGEN  mà  3O.AG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3S/3PL</td>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>ká/ká 1S.AG.SG/PL  tsə 2O.AG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1PL</td>
<td>nà   2.S.GEN.PL  tsə  2O.AG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2SG</td>
<td>nà   2.S.GEN.PL  tsə  2O.AG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2PL</td>
<td>nà   2.S.GEN.PL  tsə  2O.AG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows the agreement marking pattern with the following abbreviations:
- **GEN**: Gender
- **ATT**: Attitude
- **X**: Head
- **AG_x(AGT)**: Agreement markers
- **(AG_o)PT**: Transitive patient agreement marker
- **V**: Verb

The table categorizes the person and number of the agent and patient agreement markers in Senthang. The second to sixth column shows the order they occur in a sentence. The table includes examples of the agreement marking pattern for different person and number combinations. The table is structured to highlight the variations in agreement marking patterns based on the person and number of the agent and patient.
The genitive pronoun and the object agreement marker agree with the patient while the subject agreement marker agrees with the agent of the predicates.

An intransitive attributive can also be transitived as in (225)\textsuperscript{(225)},(226)\textsuperscript{(226)}. The possessive and object agreement marker \textit{ká} and \textit{pá} (225) agree with the patient while the subject agreement markers agree with the agent. When there is no transitive patient agreement, causation is less direct. They have the same set of agreement marking as examples (221) to (224).

\begin{itemize}
\item[(225)] \textit{Ka mih na pa kwh}.
\begin{itemize}
\item ká mí? ná pá kỳ?
\end{itemize}
\begin{itemize}
\item 1.GEN.SG eye 2S.AG.SG 1O.AG nonce
\end{itemize}
\textit{You made me sleepy. (by the way you behave)}
\end{itemize}

\begin{itemize}
\item[(226)] \textit{Ka mih na kw}.
\begin{itemize}
\item ká mí? ná ky
\end{itemize}
\begin{itemize}
\item 1.GEN.SG eye 2S.AG.SG nonce
\end{itemize}
\textit{You made me sleepy. (I'm sleepy by looking at the way you behave.)}
\end{itemize}

However, \textit{ṭu tu} ‘approve’ (228) is different. Although it take the same agreement markers with same position, the genitive and the object agreement markers agree with the semantic agent while the subject agreement marker agrees with the patient. This keeps the syntactic agreement pattern intact, but reverses the semantic pattern.

\begin{itemize}
\item[(227)] \textit{Ka hnu na pa tawh}.
\begin{itemize}
\item ká ḥu ná pá ṭá?
\end{itemize}
\begin{itemize}
\item 1.GEN.SG ear 2S.AG.SG 1O.AG fall
\end{itemize}
\textit{I approved of you. (by your appearance or your character)}
\end{itemize}

\begin{itemize}
\item[(228)] \textit{Ka hnu na tu}.
\begin{itemize}
\item ká ḥu ná tū
\end{itemize}
\begin{itemize}
\item 1.GEN.SG ear 2S.AG.SG fall
\end{itemize}
\textit{I approved of you. (by looking at the way you behave/ the way you look)}
\end{itemize}

\textsuperscript{30} These patterns are used to show one's disappointment or dissatisfaction to another person based on the way they behave.
6.13.3 Complex predicate: Action body part

There are no intransitive action complex predicate with body part X. There are two different kinds of transitive action complex predicates:

Agent = Patient

Agent ≠ Patient.

6.13.3.1 Agent = patient

The genitive and the nominative agreement markers are the same in this kind of action complex predicate as in (229), (230) and Table 39.

(229) Ka hmai ka phy.
    ká mái ká pʰɔ
    1.GEN.SG face 1S.AG.SG nonce
    *I washed my face.\]

(230) Na hmai na phy.
    ná mái ná pʰɔ
    2.GEN.SG face 2S.AG.SG nonce
    *You washed your face.\]

Table 39 Agreement in body part action complex predicates with AGT = PT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person/Number</th>
<th>GEN</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>AGs</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>ká</td>
<td>1.GEN.SG</td>
<td>ká</td>
<td>1S.AG.SG</td>
<td>(229)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1PL</td>
<td>kâ</td>
<td>1.GEN.PL</td>
<td>kâ</td>
<td>1S.AG.PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2SG</td>
<td>ná</td>
<td>2.GEN.SG</td>
<td>máí</td>
<td>ná</td>
<td>2S.AG.SG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2PL</td>
<td>nà</td>
<td>2.GEN.PL</td>
<td>nà</td>
<td>2S.AG.PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3SG</td>
<td>?á</td>
<td>3.GEN.SG</td>
<td>?á</td>
<td>3S.AG.SG</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3PL</td>
<td>?à</td>
<td>3.GEN.PL</td>
<td>?à</td>
<td>3S.AG.PL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.13.3.2 Agent ≠ patient

In (231), the agent and the patient or the benefactee are not the same. The genitive ká and the object agreement marker pʰɔ agree with the benefactee while the subject agreement marker ?á agrees with agent.
He washed my face.

These predicates have the same pattern with attributive transitive complex predicates shown in Table 38 except the agreement is with the benefactee and not the patient.

6.13.4 Complex predicate: Action non-body part

(232) and (233) show the action complex predicates with non-body part N in Senthang. The genitive is optional and is used only to intensify the possessor. Thus, this pattern is indistinguishable from the normal clause structure (see section 3.3.1).

(232) (Ka) mai ka kau.
          ká mál ká kàⁿ
1.GEN.SG fire 1S.AG.SG open.II

I built (my) fire.

(233) (Ka) mai na kau.
          ká mál ná kàⁿ
1.GEN.SG fire 2S.AG.SG open.II

You built (your) fire.

6.13.5 Conclusion of complex predicate

In Senthang, there are two kinds of complex predicates: attributive (intransitive and transitive) and action (body part and non-body part) which are composed of two parts (N ‘noun/nonce’ and V ‘action/nonce’). Both of these parts take agreement markers. The first part takes genitive pronouns which sometimes act like set 1 agreement markers. The second can take both subject and object agreement markers. Verb stem change is not common in complex predicates.
6.14 Chapter conclusion

Table 40 Predicate agreement patterns with constructions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate Agreement Pattern</th>
<th>Agreement Set</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Constructions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Very common with intransitives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>Very common with transitives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Negative veʔ Declarative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>Not attested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Interrogative (Polar)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>Not attested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Imperative, cohortative, hortative, Restricted Complements: šé/bəʔ complementers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>Not attested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>Not attested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>II</td>
<td>Nominalization (Instrument/place) Restricted Complements: ‘zero’ complementers, va“moʔ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of all the predicate agreement patterns possible, only 6 of the 10 have yet been observed. Table 40 summarizes the predicate agreement patterns discussed from section 6.2 to 6.11. The first column states the predicate agreement pattern, the second the agreement set and the third the verb stem. The last column gives the construction(s) where each pattern occurs if they are attested.

There are three constructions (applicatives, unrestricted complement clauses, and tag question interrogatives) that allow almost any predicate agreement pattern. The remaining constructions investigated tend to be restricted to a single predication pattern.
Chapter 7
Conclusion

7.1 Introduction
This chapter summarizes the previous chapters and presents the findings of this thesis.

7.2 Summaries of previous chapters
Chapter 1 gave an overview of the thesis. It also provided some pertinent information regarding about the Senthang people and language. In addition, it explained the methodology used for this study.

Chapter 2 presented other linguistic studies on Senthang and its related languages. Specifically, it gave an overview of the previous studies of verb stem alternation and agreement in Chin languages and ended by introducing the general grammatical studies used in writing this thesis.

Chapter 3 discussed the basic phonology and grammar of Senthang. It included discussions of transitive and intransitive clause types (word order), NP structures, non-verbal clauses, functional word classes (case, postpositions, locative nouns, pronouns, and agreement markers), clause types (imperative, interrogative, negation), and subordination (unrestricted complements, restricted complements, adverbial subordination, nominalization and relativization).

Chapter 4 focused on verb stem alternation, i.e. the verb stem choices in various constructions of the language.

Chapter 5 examined and exemplified the form and position of four agreement sets in Senthang. It also stated the types of clause in which each agreement set occurs.

Chapter 6 investigated how many predicate agreement patterns (verb stem alternation and agreement constructions) have been attested in the language. Apart from the patterns found in causatives and applicatives clauses, in which the causative and applicative markers are considered to create a new verb form from the main verb, only 6 out of 10 predicate agreement patterns were attested.
It also noted some variations in agreement patterns 1 and 2 and then, went on to look briefly at some of the complex predicates (two-part verbs) in Senthang, which are, in fact, quite common in the language.

### 7.3 Findings

Agreement in Senthang Chin is more than just discovering the set of markers even as verb stem alternation is more than discovering the set of verb forms. In both cases discovering the semantic and syntactic environments in which each set and stem form occur proves valuable.

Furthermore, treating agreement sets, agreement locations, and verb stem forms as a combined construction shows the tightest connection to clear clause types.

Although there are many studies on verb stem alternation of Chin languages (both Central, Northern, and Southern Chin), there is no study that investigates the interactions between verb stem alternation and agreement markers, apart from So-Hartmann's (2009) discussion of how the agreement markers and verb stem interact in Daai Chin. Thus it is highly recommended to pay strong attention to this area in future Kuki-Chin syntactical research.

King proposed a single “agentive” semantic notion as motivating stem choice across a large number of Kuki-Chin languages, but this data shows no simple semantic notion will suffice. It also suggests that Kee Shein Mang's (2006) approach of correlating syntactic and pragmatic types to different verb stem alternations is the most promising and should be extended to agreement studies also.

Another finding is that alternation of tone, both lexical and grammatical, was rewarded in this study. Previous studies of agreement need to be reexamined in more detail to see if similar effects from tone can be found.

With respect to the orthography, it may need to be altered if tone is not sufficiently marked; or at least potential readers need to learn about possible ambiguity with agreement markers written without tone.

Although a detailed description of the intersection of agreement and verb stem alternation was made here, it was not possible to use this intersection of information—predicate argument patterns—to reveal other regularities. Perhaps additional research will provide a perspective on whether combining these regularities leads to more in-depth predictions.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


APPENDIX A
SELECTED EXAMPLES

A.01 Word Order, Case
A.02 Non-verbal Clauses
A.03 Verbal Stem Alternation
A.04 Relative Clauses
A.05 Adverbial Clauses
A.06 Complement Clauses
A.07 Coordinate clauses
A.08 Demonstratives
A.09 Proforms, Negation Examples
A.10 TAMs
A.11 Complex predicates
A.12 Noun Phrases
A.13 Applicatives
A.14 Hortative, Jussive Mood

A.01 Word Order, Case

1 Abawi ø a thw.
   ðabði ø ðà tʰɣ
   ABawi ABS 3S.AG sit.I
   Abawi is sitting.

2 Malai pu cu a lam
   má.laɭ.pú tsú ðà lam
   man TOP 3S.AG dance
   The man danced/ is dancing.
3 ABawi (nawh) y ø a coh.
?øbøi nɔ? ø ø á tsøⁿ?
ABawi ERG dog ABS 3S.AG.SG buy.ii
ABawi bougth a dog.

4 ABawi nawh PaSiang (khw) a den.
?øbøi nɔ? pā siaŋ kʰɔ̃? á qin
ABawi ERG PaSiang DEM.info 3S.AG.SG beat.up.ii
ABawi beat up PaSiang.

5 PaSiang (khw) ABawi *(nawh) a den.
pā siaŋ kʰɔ̃? øbøi nɔ? á qin
PaSiang DEM.info ABawi ERG 3S.AG.SG beat.up.ii
ABawi beat up PaSiang.

6 * Y ABawi a ko.
ø øbøi á kò
dog ABawi 3S.AG.SG bite.ii
*The dog bit ABawi.

7 Y *(nawh) ABawi ø a ko.
ø nɔ? øbøi ø á kò
dog ERG ABawi ABS 3S.AG.SG bite.ii
The dog bit ABawi.

8 ABawi ø y nawh a ko.
øbøi ø ø nɔ? á kò
ABawi ABS dog ERG 3S.AG.SG bite.ii
The dog bit ABawi. (not someone else)

9 ABawi nawh LungLung (khw) tangkaw a peih.
?øbøi nɔ? lūŋ luŋ kʰɔ̃ tæŋkɔ? á pêⁿ?
ABawi ERG LungLung DEM.info money 3S.AG.SG give.i
ABawi gave LungLung money.
10 ABawi nəw hən̄g kəw ə LungLung a pei̯h .
əbəi  nɔʔəi  tàŋkə  kʰəŋ  lʊŋ.lʊŋ  ?á  peʔ?
ABawi ERG money DEM.info LungLung 3S.AG.SG give.I
ABawi gave (the) money to LungLung.

11 Tangkəw kəw  ABawi nəw hən LungLung ( kəw ) a pei̯h .
tàŋkə  kʰəŋ  ?əbəi  nɔʔəi  lʊŋ.lʊŋ  kʰəŋ  ?á  peʔ?
money DEM.info ABawi ERG LungLung DEM.info 3S.AG.SG give.II
ABawi gave the money to LungLung.

12 LungLung kəw  ABawi nəw hən̄g Tangkəw ( kəw ) a pei̯h .
lʊŋ.lʊŋ  kʰəŋ  ?əbəi  nɔʔəi  tàŋkə  kʰəŋ  ?á  peʔ?
LungLung DEM.info ABawi ERG money DEM.info 3S.AG.SG give.II
ABawi gave LungLung (the) money. (not to someone else)

13 LungLung kəw  Tangkəw ABawi nəw hən̄g a pei̯h .
lʊŋ.lʊŋ  kʰəŋ  tàŋkə  ?əbəi  nɔʔəi  ?á  peʔ?
LungLung DEM.info money ABawi ERG 3S.AG.SG give.I
ABawi gave LungLung money.

14 Ka ca den .
ká  tsá  dən
1S.AG.SG 2O.AG beat.up.II
I beat up you.

15 ka thw .
ká  tʰɤ
1S.AG.SG sit.I
I sat.

16 Ca dəŋ ni ?
tsá  dəŋ  ni
2O.AG beat.up.I 1S.AG.SG
Did I beat you up?
A.02 Non-verbal Clauses

1 Nuni cu ka nautei a si.
   nûnî tsû kâ na".tei ?à ji
   Nuni TOP 1.GEN.SG sibling.younger 3.SG be
   Nuni is my younger sister.

2 Ani cu sianghawtei a si.
   ?â.nî tsû sfâŋ.ñê.â.tei ?à ji
   3.SG TOP student 3.SG be
   She is a student.

3 Hi pangpaw cu ngukaihpaw a si.
   hi pâŋ.pâ tsû ñû.kâ.ñê.pâ ?à ji
   this flower TOP name of flower 3.SG be
   This flower is ngukaihpaw.

4 Malai pu cu ka inn law awh a wm.
   person male TOP 1.SG.SG house at 3.SG exist.I
   The man is at my house.

5 Na lwkhw cu thingkung paw awh a wm.
   ná lâ.kâ' tsû ñiŋ.kûŋ pò ?ê? ?à ?yìm
   2.GEN.SG hat TOP tree top LOC 3.SG exist.I
   Your hat is on a tree.

6 Lwkhw cu thingkung paw awh wm veh.
   lâ.kâ' tsû ñiŋ.kûŋ pò ?ê? ?yìm ve?
   hat TOP tree top LOC exist.II NEG
   The hat is not on a tree.
Once, there were a rabbit and a bear.

There is a hat on a tree.

There is not a hat on a tree.

My shirt is white.

My shirt is big.

The man is happy.

My brother is tall.
14 Malai pu a va sei .
   má.la̍h pù ?á və séi
   person male 3S.AG go.I
   The man came./ The man went.

15 Malai pu a lung a va lawm .
   má.la̍h.pù ?á luŋ ?á və lɔ̌m
   man 3.GEN.SG heart 3S.AG happy
   The man was happy./ The man became happy.

16 Malaipu nəw hə saingəi a ngai .
   má.la̍h pù nɔʔ saŋ.kəʔ ?á nə́ʔí
   person male ERG bike 3S.AG.SG own.II
   The man has a bike.

17 Nini le nəw hə baŋlə a ngai .
   nì.nì lè nɔʔ baŋ.lù ?á nə́ʔí
   aunt.father sister PL ERG banana 3S.AG.PL own.II
   Aunt family have bananas.

A.03 Verb Stem Alternation

1 Banhlu ka coh .
   bān.lù kà tʂóʔ?
   banana 1S.AG.SG buy.II
   I bought bananas.

2 PaSiang nəw hə pa dən .
   pā.siŋ nɔʔ ?á pà dən
   PaSiang ERG 3S.AG.SG 1O.AG beat.up.II
   PaSiang beat me up.

3 A po a chy .
   ?á pòʔ ?á tʰə́
   3.GEN.SG father 3S.AG die.I
   His father died.
1 I sat on a chair.

2 PaLung said "I bought bananas".

3 He said "The cat sat on my chair".

4 I believe that PaLung beat up PaSiang.

5 I made you buy bananas.

6 I bought you bananas.
11 Mizoh ka thwh sawh .
    mí.zò? ká ṭʰ̊ʔ sò?
    cat 1S.AG.SG sit.II CAUS
    I made the cat sit.

12 Mizoh ka thwh pih .
    mí.zò? ká ṭʰ̊ʔ pì?
    cat 1S.AG.SG sit.II BEN
    I sat (down) for the cat.

13 a chy mi malai pu
    ?à ṭʰ ø mí má.la'.pù
    3S.AG die.I NMLZ man
    the man that died

14 a ca deng mi malai pu
    ?à tsá ñë mí má.la'.pù
    3S.AG 2O.AG beat.up.I NMLZ man
    the man who beat you up

15 a chy h mi thong pang
    ?á ṭʰ̊ʔ mí ṭʰ̊ŋ.pàŋ
    3S.AG.SG die.II NMLZ news
    the news that he died

16 na den mi malai pu
    ná ën mí má.la'.pù
    2S.AG.SG beat.up.II NMLZ man
    the man that/whom you beat up

17 Ahu i a chy ?
    ?ə.hù ?i ?à ṭʰ ø
    who Q 3S.AG die.I
    Who died?
18 Ahu nawh i PaSiang a deng ?

Who beat PaSiang up?

19 Zucyh i a chyh e ?

When did he die?

20 Ahu i na den ?

Whom did you beat up?

21 Chyh!

Die!

22 Pa dengh!

Beat me up!

23 Chy i ?

Did he die?

24 Ca deng ni ?

Did I beat you up?
25 Chy veh.
\(\text{\textsuperscript{t}h\textsubscript{a}}\) ve? die.I NEG
He did not die.

26 Ma deng veh ci.
m\(\text{\textsuperscript{a}}\) de\(\text{\textsuperscript{j}}\) ve? tsi 1O.AG.PL beat.up.I NEG 2S.AG
You did not beat up us.

27 A pa den cawmacu ka den rawh aw.
?á pà dèn tsaw.ma.tsú ká dèn \(\gamma\)\(\text{\textsuperscript{5}}\) ?\(\text{\textsuperscript{5}}\) 3S.AG.SG 1O.AG beat.up.II if 1S.AG.SG beat.up.II also F
If he beat me up, I will beat him up too.

28 A chyh cawmacu ing khau aw veh ni.
?á \(\text{\textsuperscript{t}h\textsuperscript{5}}\)? tsaw.ma.tsú ?iŋ k\(\text{\textsuperscript{a}}\)\(\text{\textsuperscript{5}}\) ?\(\text{\textsuperscript{5}}\) ve? ní 3S.AG.SG die.II if suffer.I can F NEG 1S.AG.SG
If he dies, I won't be able to bear it.

29 Na putaw nawh ca hwm se, a
nà pú.\(\text{\textsuperscript{5}}\) ná? tsá hým sê ?á 2.GEN.PL grand father ERG 2O.AG see.I COMP 3S.AG.SG
lunglawm toih aw.
luŋ ?á lâm to'? ?\(\text{\textsuperscript{5}}\) heart 3S.AG happy very F
If your grandfather had had seen you, he would have been very happy.

30 Banhlu o so lawh cu atw na vaiphu aw veh.
bân.\(\text{\textsuperscript{l}}\)ù ?o' sô'n lâ? tsú ?â.t\(\text{\textsuperscript{5}}\) ná và'i ?à phù ?\(\text{\textsuperscript{5}}\) ve?
banana eat.I ASP COMP TOP now 2.GEN.SG nonce 3S.AG nonce F NEG
If you had eaten banana, you wouldn't be hungry now.

31 Banhlu ka oh so ei atw ka vaiphu veh.
bân.\(\text{\textsuperscript{l}}\)ù kà ?ô'? sô'o ?e'i ?â.t\(\text{\textsuperscript{5}}\)t\(\text{\textsuperscript{l}}\) kà và'i phù ve?
banana 1.GEN.PL eat.II ASP and now 1.GEN.PL nonce nonce NEG
We had eaten banana and we are not hungry now.
If you had not been eaten bananas, you would have been hungry by now.

We went to the field without eating breakfast.

He went out withing bringing an umbrella.

I also beat him up because he beat me up.

Before he died, he left a word for his children.

I went to Tio to buy tomatoes.
38 Phazen coh ka dw.
phá.zèn tsôʔ ká ðê
tomato buy.II 1S AG SG want
I want to buy tomatoes.

39 a chy mi / vau
tà tʰə mí vaʊ
3S AG die.I NMLZ NOM
the dead

40 a deng mi / vau
tà ðɛŋ mí vaʊ
3S AG beat.up.I NMLZ NOM
the one who beat him up

41 chyh nawh
tʰəʔ nəʔ
die.II NOM
death

42 a den mi
tà ðɛn mí
3S AG SG beat.up.II NMLZ
the one who got beat up

43 Zapu i na oh?
zà.púʔ ʔi náʔ ðôʔ?
what Q 2S AG SG eat.II
What do you eat?

44 Ahu i na den?
ʔə.hùʔ ʔi náʔ ðɛn
who Q 2S AG SG beat.up.II
Whom did you hit (beat.up)?
45 Ahu nawh i a ca den?
who ERG Q 3S.AG.SG 2O.AG beat.up.II
Who hit you?

46 PaSiang nawh ca deng i?
pá.siáŋ nś? tsá ñëŋ ?į
PaSiang ERG 2O.AG beat.up.I 3S.AG
Did PaSiang hit you?

47 Kamu nawh deng veh ni.
kó mú nś? ñëŋ ve? nį
1S ERG beat.up.I NEG 1S.AG.SG
I did not beat him up, (someone else did)

48 Zakaw i a ca den?
zà.kó ?į ?á tsá ñëŋ
why Q 3S.AG.SG 2O.AG beat.up.II
Why did you hit him?

49 Banhlu ka oh.
bàn.lù ká ?ō’į?
banana 1S.AG.SG eat.II
I ate banana.

50 PaSiang ka den.
pá.siáŋ ká ñëŋ
PaSiang 1S.AG.SG beat.up.II
I hit Pasiang.

51 Banhlu o ci?
bàn.lù tsi
banana eat.II 2S.AG
Did you eat banana?
52 PaSiang deng ci ?
pá.sianh deŋ tsi
PaSiang beat.up.I 2S.AG
Did you hit PaSiang?

53 Banhlu na oh mo ?
bân.lû ná ?ô"? mo"
banana 2S.AG.SG eat.II Q.tag
Did you eat banana?

54 PaSiang na den mo ?
pá.sianh ná deŋ mo"
PaSiang 2S.AG.SG beat.up.II Q.tag
Did you hit PaSiang?

55 Banhlu o veh ni .
bân.lû ve? ni
banana eat.II NEG 1S.AG.SG
I didn't eat banana.

56 Banhlu ka oh tung lau .
bân.lû ká ?ô"? tuŋ là"
banana 1S.AG.SG eat.II NT.EX NEG
I didn't eat

58 PaSiang deng veh ni .
pá.sianh deŋ ve? ni
PaSiang beat.up.I NEG 1S.AG.SG
I did not hit PaSiang.

59 Oh !
?ô" =?
eat.I = IMP
Eat!
60 Dengh

đẹŋ = ?
beat.up.I = IMP

*Hit (him).*

61 Banhlu o nih

bàn.lụ ni = ?
banana eat.II now = IMP

*Now, eat the banana!*

62 PaSiang deng nih

pá.siəŋ đẹŋ ni = ?
PaSiang beat.up.I now = IMP

*Now, beat up PaSiang!*

63 Banhlu o khawh

bàn.lụ kʰ5ʔ
banana eat.II PROH

*Don’t eat the banana!*

64 PaSiang deng khawh

pá.siəŋ đẹŋ kʰ5ʔ
PaSiang beat.up.I PROH

*Don’t hit PaSiang!*

65 Banhlu mo na oh ?

bàn.lụ mo” ná ?ó“?
banana Q.tag 2S.AG.SG eat.II

*You eat Banana?*

66 Banhlu na oh mo ?

bàn.lụ ná ?ó“? mo”
banana 2S.AG.SG eat.II Q.tag

*Did you eat banana?*
67 **PaSiang** mo na den ?
pá.siàng mo³ ná dën
tab: Fact-Infinitive

**PaSiang** Q.tag 2S.AG.SG beat.up.II

*You beat up PaSiang?*

68 **PaSiang** na den mo ?
pá.siàng ná dën mo³

**PaSiang** 2S.AG.SG beat.up.II Q.tag

*Did you hit PaSiang?*

69 **Banhlù** a o mi
bán.lù ?á mí
tab: Fact-Infinitive

**Banhlù** 3S.AG.SG eat.II NMLZ

*the one who ate a banana*

70 **PaSiang** a deng mi
pá.siàng ?á dēŋ mí

**PaSiang** 3S.AG.SG beat.up.I NMLZ

*person who hit PaSiang*

71 **Banhlù** a o tw
bán.lù ?á tý
tab: Fact-Infinitive

**Banhlù** 3S.AG.SG eat.II -er

*Person.who ate banana*

72 **PaSiang** a deng tw
pá.siàng ?á dēŋ tý

**PaSiang** 3S.AG.SG beat.up.I -er

*Person.who hit Pasiang*

73 **Banhlù** a oh vau
bán.lù ?á ?ō"? vau³

**Banhlù** 3S.AG.SG eat.II NOM

*banana for him to eat*
74 Banlu a o vau
bàn.lù ?á va
banana 3S.AG.SG eat.II NOM
person.who will eat banana

75 Banlu a oh mi
bàn.lù ?á ?ō mi
banana 3S.AG.SG eat.II NMLZ
banana that he ate

76 Banlu ka oh cyhnawh
bàn.lù ká ?ō tō tā.nś?
banana 1S.AG.SG eat.II when
When I ate bananas,

78 Banlu cu a hwmh hmw hwm veh ni .
bàn.lù tsú ?á hŷm ṁō hŷm ve? ni
banana TOP 3S.AG.SG see.II even see.I NEG day
I did not even see the banana.

79 Banlu ca pei veh mo ?
bàn.lù tsá pei ve? mo
banana 2O.AG give.I NEG Q.tag
Din't she give you banana/? She didn't give you banana?

A.04 Relative Clauses

1 Ka y a deng mi malaipu nawh a pa ko .
1.GEN.SG dog 3S.AG beat.up.I REL man ERG 3S.AG.SG 1O.AG bite.II
The man who hit my dog bit me.
The man who my dog bit hit me.

Tha man whom my dog ran from hit me.

The man who sit beside me where I work hit me. / The man who I work at a dext next to hit me.

The man whose desk I broke hit me.
6 Ka y a deng mi malaipu ka ko.
   káʔáʔáđę́ mi má.la'pú ká kò
1.GEN.SG dog 3S.AG beat.up.I REL man 1S.AG.SG bite.II
   I bit the man who hit my dog.

7 Ka y a pa den pih mi malaipu ka ko.
   káʔáʔá pá đę́n píʔ mi má.la'pú ká kò
1.GEN.SG dog 3S.AG 1O.AG beat.up.II BEN REL man 1S.AG.SG bite.II
   I bit the man who hit my dog.

8 Ka y nawh a ko mi malaipu ka den.
   káʔáʔá nòʔá kó mi má.la'pú đę́n
1.GEN.SG dog ERG 3S.AG.SG bite.II REL man 1S.AG.SG beat.up.II
   I hit the man who my dog bit.

9 Ka y nawh a zam pih mi malaipu ka den.
   káʔáʔá zàm píʔ mi má.la'pú đę́n
1.GEN.SG dog ERG 3S.AG.SG run BEN NMLZ man 1S.AG.SG beat.up.II
   I hit the man who my dog ran from.

10 Ka riantuan nawh caboi ham ei (a thw mi) malaipu
   ká yian.túan nòʔÍ tsá.bóʔ hám ṭeʔá t̪e̞r mi má.la'pú
1.GEN.SG work NOM table beside and 3S.AG sit.I REL man
   ka den.
   ká đę́n
1.S.AG.SG beat.up.II
   I hit the man who sit the desk near to me where I work. / I hit the man who I work at a desk near to me.

11 A caboi ka deih pih khy mi malaipu ka den.
   ṭá tsá.bóʔ ká đę́ʔ píʔ k̪e̞sí mi má.la'pú ká đę́n
3.GEN.SG table 1.S.AG.SG pound BEN break REL man 1.S.AG.SG beat.up.II
   I hit the man whose desk I broke.
PaSiang took a bird nest which is on the mango tree.

The fact that he beat my dog up hurts me. My heart hurt that he beat my dog up.

A.05 Adverbial Clauses

When you buy banana, you will see it.

Before you buy banana, I will give you money.

After he bought banana, he didn't go to their house.

If you buy banana with my money, I will be angry.
I will wait (for) you until you come.

I saw you while you were eating bananas.

Since I was a child, I have really liked bananas.

Though I ate bananas, my stomach is not full (I'm not full).

Even though I did not eat bananas, my stomach is full.

I ate banana and my stomach is full.
Because you beat PaLung up, he cried.

Because you told me not to beat him up, I beat him up.

Because you eat up banana, it is gone now.

When I said do not buy bananas, do not be angry.

A.06 Complement Clauses

I know that you bought bananas.

I didn't know that you bought bananas.

Do you know that you bought bananas?
I know that you didn't buy bananas.

I didn't know that you didn't buy banana.

Do you know that I didn't buy bananas?

Do you know if he bought bananas?

I didn't know that you bought bananas. (Counters to the speaker's expectation.)

I didn't know that you didn't buy bananas.

Do you know whether he bought bananas or not?
Palung said, "I lost my key."

Palung said he lost his key.

Palung talked about his losing his key.

PaSiang told my grandmother that Palung lost his key. (He might not have actually lost his key.)

PaSiang told my grandmother that Palung lost his key. (He really lost his key.)
I believe/ hope/ ruih/ that my mother will approve (it).

I believe/ hope/ think PaSiang might beat up him.

PaLung persuaded me to go buy salt.

I want to eat bananas.

PaLung wants to beat me up.

I intend to get high mark.
22 Cucuan a hau.
    tsú.tsúan ʔá hâu
study 3S.AG.SG need
    It is needed to study.

23 Pacy coh a hau.
    pà.tá tsóʔ? ʔá hâu
table salt buy.II 3S.AG.SG need
    It is needed to buy salt.

24 Banhlu coh na hau.
    bân.lù tsóʔ? ná hâu
banana buy.II 2S.AG.SG need
    You need to buy bananas.

25 Banhlu na coh a hau.
    bân.lù ná tsóʔ? ʔá hâu
banana 2S.AG.SG buy.II 3S.AG.SG need
    You need to buy bananas. (Lit: It is needed you buy bananas.)

26 Banhlu co dw veh ni.
    bân.lù tsoʔ veʔ? ni
banana buy.I like NEG 1S.AG.SG
    I don't want to buy bananas.

27 Banhlu pa coh pih lawh ka dw.
    bân.lù pà tsóʔ? píʔ láʔ ká ʔý
banana 1O.AG buy.II BEN COMP 1S.AG.SG want
    I want you to buy me bananas.

28 Banhlu pa coh pih khawh lawh ka dw.
    bân.lù pà tsóʔ? píʔ kʰʔ láʔ ká ʔý
banana 1O.AG buy.II BEN PROH COMP 1S.AG.SG like
    I want you not to buy bananas for me.
29 Banhlu va co lawh ka dw .
ban.h lu va tso³ ló? ká dy'
banana DIR.andative buy.I COMP 1S.AG.SG want
I want you to buy bananas.

'va' could be 'goal' or 'irrl'

30 Banhlu na coh mi ka hni .
ban.h lu ná tso³? mí ká ní
banana 2S.AG.SG buy.II NMLZ 1S.AG.SG know.II
I know that you bought bananas.

31 Banhlu oh ka nuam sawh .
ban.h lu tó³? ká nùam só?
banana eat.II 1S.AG.SG enjoy CAUS
I enjoy eating bananas.

32 Banhlu oh ka heihsan .
ban.h lu tó³? ká hê³.sàn
banana eat.II 1S.AG.SG force
I forced (myself) to eat banana.

33 PaSiang den ka dw .
pá.siån dê³n ká dy'
PaSiang beat.up.II 1S.AG.SG want
I want to hit PaSiang.

34 Pa sei py sawh le ka ca dw .
pà sèi pə só? lè ká tsá dy'
1O.AG go.I Accompaniment/comitative CAUS COMP 1S.AG.SG 2O.AG want
I want you to accompany/ take me.

35 Na notaw nawh a coh mi banhlu ka dw .
ná nó³.tɔ ná? tá tso³? mí ban.h lu ká dy'
2.GEN.SG grandmother ERG 3S.AG.SG buy.II REL banana 1S.AG.SG want
I want the banana that your grandmother bought.
36 Ka notaw nawk banhlu a pa coh sawh.
ká nôⁿ.tô nôį bàn.łu ŋá pà tsô"i? sǐ?
1.GEN.SG grandmother ERG banana 3S.AG.SG 1O.AG buy.II CAUS
My grandmother made me buy banana.

37 Banhlu coh ka twm lau mi na pa coh sawh.
bàn.łu tsô"i? ká ŋym láų mí ná pà tsô"i? sǐ?
banana buy.II 1S.AG.SG intend NEG NMLZ 2S.AG.SG 1O.AG buy.II CAUS
I did not tend to buy banana (but) you made me buy (it).

38 Ka no nawk banhlu ka coh a le .
ká nôⁿ nôį bàn.łu ká tsô"i? ŋá lè
1.GEN.SG mother ERG banana 1S.AG.SG buy.II 3S.AG.SG say
Mom said she bought banana.

39 Mentei nawk ka notaw khaw PaSiang nawk a saikey
mën.té¹ nôį ká nôⁿ.tô kʰ5 pá sièį nôį ŋá sə¹.ké¹
Mentei ERG 1.GEN.SG grandmother DEM PaSiang ERG 3.GEN.SG motor bike
tò"i? ŋá lâų lə.mi ŋá sə̇m
key 3S.AG.SG lose.II COMP 3S.AG.SG tell.II
Mentei told my grandmother that Pasiang lost his motor-bike key.

40 Mentei nawk ka notaw khaw PaSiang nawk a saikey toh
mën.té¹ nôį ká nôⁿ.tô kʰ5 pá sièį nôį ŋá sə¹.ké¹ to"i?
Mentei ERG grandmother DEM PaSiang ERG 3.GEN.SG motor bike key
a hluw lemawh a sym .
ŋá lâų lə.mɔʔ ŋá sə̇m
3S.AG.SG lose.II COMP 3S.AG.SG tell.II
Mentei told my grandmother that Pasiang lost his motor-bike key.
I know that buying a new mortor-bike will cost more.

I knew that Pasiang bought a new motorbike yesterday.

I believe my mother will approve (it).

I wish it rains.

I wish it rain.

I wish I have money.
47 I wish we have money.

48 I tried to succeed at getting a high mark (on my exam).

'nawh vau (mawh)' in this sentence means 'in order to'

49 I intend to get (lit. see) high mark (on my exam).

50 I continue studying till 3pm in the afternoon (lit. evening).

51 I will always pray for you.

'keep doing sth: it doesn't take a complement clause

'thucam' = pray

52 I will always cook for you.
53 Zan kawi symalam pangu lawh riantuan ka ngei aw.
    zàn.kâi sâ.mâ.lam pâ ŋu lâ? yian.tûan kâ ŋê.i ?ô
    evening o'clock CL person five COMP working 1S.AG.SG stop F
    I will stop working at five in the evening.

54 PaSiang sasensu oh a ngei.
    pà.sìaŋ sà.sen.Jû ?ô"? ŋá ŋê.i
    PaSiang beef eat.II 3S.AG.SG stop
    PaSiang stopped eating beef.

    'ngei' means more likely 'stop for a short period of time'... I'm not really sure.

55 PaLung nawh vanlawng cu Airih malai nawh a tui lemi /
    pâluŋ nô? wân.lôŋ tsû ?â.i.yî? mà.lâŋ nô? ŋá tî.i là.mi
    PaLung ERG airplane TOP Irish person ERG 3S.AG.SG invent COMP le a zwm .
    lê ŋá zîm
    COMP 3S.AG.SG believe.II
    PaLung believed that the Irishman invented the aeroplane.

56 PaLung nawh PaSiang zawpyni hlanawh Rih phawh vaumawh khui
    PaLung ERG PaSiang Sunday before Rih arrive COMP village
    a khan,
    ŋá kû.n"ân
    3S.AG.SG put
    PaLung planned for PaSiang to arrive to Rih before Sunday.

57 PaLung nawh a hnapy nw khaw kuih zawn cy lau
    pâluŋ nô? ŋá ņâ.pô nô” kûô kû’? zân tô lâ”
    PaLung ERG 3.GEN.SG wife female DEM cigar smoke any.more NEG vaumawh bi a kam .
    va".mô? bi ŋá kam
    COMP word 3S.AG.SG promise
    PaLung promised his wife to stop smoking.
58 PaSiang nawh lawphawh a dw ngaiti mi nawh ka
PaSiang ERG tea 3S.AG.SG like very COMP ERG 1.GEN.SG
khuiruih a pa haw ( sawh ).
ká³.yú? ?á pá bá sá?
thought 3S.AG.SG 1O.AG sharp CAUS

The fact that PaSiang like tea very much suprises me.

59 Airih malai nawh vanlawng a tui lemi cu mi tampy nawh
?á'.ýí? má.la' ná? vàn.laŋ ?á tū³ lá.mi tsú mó tám.pá ná?
Irish person ERG airplane 3S.AG.PL invent COMP TOP person many ERG
hni si theng veh .
ŋí fí t³'en vc?
know.II be unlikely NEG

It is not widely known that the Irishman invented the aeroplane./ It is not known by many people that the Irishman invented the aeroplane.

60 PaLung nawh PaSiang bi a zwm caw ka khuiruih
páluŋ ná? pá.síáŋ bi ?á zú³ tsó ká ká³.yú?
PaLung ERG PaSiang word 3S.AG.SG believe.II if 1.GEN.SG thought
a haw toih aw .
?á bá to'í? sá
3S.AG.SG very F

I will be really surprised if PaLung believes PaSiang's word.

61 PaSiang nawh tua a taikhwmh kau lai le a hni hoih .
pá.síáŋ ná? túa ?á tá³.k³'ým? ká³ la³ lë ?á ñí? to'í?
PaSiang ERG firmly 3S.AG.SG grasp M Irrl COMP 3S.AG obvious very

It is so obvious that PaSiang still grasp it firmly.

62 PaLung na den le ka hni .
páluŋ ná dèn lë ká ñí
PaLung 2S.AG.SG beat.up.II COMP 1S.AG.SG know.II

I know that you beat PaLung up.
He knew (me) that I beat PaLung up.

I thought you beat PaLung up.

PaSiang said "I beat PaLung up".

PaSiang said you beat PaLung up.

PaSiang tell on his mother the fact that I bought banana with his money.

I hope that PaLung will help us.

I believe that PaLung took the money.
70 PaLung nawh su na coh mi a pa sym.
    páluŋ ná? jú ná tsóʔ? míʔ pà sám
PaLung ERG meat 2S.SG buy.II NMLZ 3S.SG 1O.AG tell.II
    PaLung told me that you bought (some) meat.

71 PaSiang nawh banhlu coh a pa heih san.
    pá.síàŋ ná? bàn.jù tsóʔ? ?á pà héʔ.sán
PaSiang ERG banana buy.II 3S.SG 1O.AG force
    PaSiang forced me to buy bananas.

72 PaSiang nawh banhlu coh vaumawh a pa lem.
    pá.síàŋ ná? bàn.jù tsóʔ? vaʔ.моʔ ?á pà lèm
PaSiang ERG banana buy.II COMP 3S.SG 1O.AG persuade
    PaSiang persuaded me to buy bananas.

73 PaSiang nawh banhlu a sam sawh.
    pá.síàŋ ná? bàn.jù ?á sám sáʔ?
PaSiang ERG banana 3S.SG gone CAUS
    PaSiang made bananas gone.

74 PaLung nawh a pa do sawh.
    páluŋ náʔ ?á pà ɗóʔ sáʔ?
PaLung ERG 3S.SG 1O.AG pull CAUS
    PaLung thinks I am beautiful.

75 PaSiang nawh banhlu coh py vaumawh zangnaih a pa haw.
    pá.síàŋ náʔ bàn.jù tsóʔ? pə vaʔ.моʔ zàng.náʔ? ?á pà hò
PaSiang ERG banana buy.II APPPL COMP pity 3S.SG 1O.AG ask.II
    PaSiang pleaded me to buy bananas with him.

76 PaSiang nawh banhlu va co sawh a ca le.
    pá.síàŋ náʔ bàn.jù və tsoʔ? sáʔ tsá lè
PaSiang ERG banana buy.I CAUS 3S.SG 2O.AG say
    PaSiang wants (orders) you to go and buy bananas.
My mother urge me to finish my school quickly.

PaLung wants to give me money.

PaSiang wants to hit me.

PaSiang wants me to send PaLung (some) money.

PaLung wish I send PaLung money.

I intend to buy bananas.

We planned to buy bananas.
84 Hawkhu kawi loh vaumawh khui a khan.
Hakha towards transfer COMP plan
He planned to transfer to HaKha.

85 PaLung nawkh tai a pa twm.
Páluŋ nąʔ Łàiʔ pà təm
PaLung ERG win 3S.AG.SG 1O.AG intend
PaLung tried to win me.

86 PaLung nawkh Rih eiwm nawkhmawh Hawkhu eiwm a dw
Páluŋ nąʔ Rih ?eʔəʔ məʔ hɔ.kʰuʔ ?eʔəʔ məʔ hɔ.kʰuʔ am.
Páluŋ ERG Rih LOC exist.I more than Hakha LOC exist.I 3S.AG.SG like more
PaLung prefers to settle in HaKha than to settle in Rih.

87 PaLung nawkh PaSiang khaw den vaumawh a chyho.
Páluŋ nąʔ páʔsiŋ kʰʃ diʔən vaʔ.moʔ tʃəʔaʔ tʃʰɔʔuʔ
PaLung ERG PaSiang DEM beat.up.II COMP 3S.AG.SG threaten
PaLung threatened PaSiang to hit him.

88 PaLung nawkh a pa ramh aw le ka ty.
Páluŋ nąʔ tə̣ pə̣ yámʔəʔ lè ká tʃə
PaLung ERG 3S.AG.SG 1O.AG scold F COMP 1S.AG.SG afraid
I am afraid that PaLung will scold me.

89 Khui kawi sei (vau) ka thu a tho.
kʰuʔ kʰi səʔ vaʊ ká tʃʰuʔ tʃʰɔʔuʔ
towards go.I 1S.AG.SG strength 3S.AG.SG get up
I am eager to go to (our) village.

90 Khui kawi kei mawh ka sei khau.
kʰuʔ kʰi kɛʔ moʔ ká səʔ kʰaʊ
village towards leg POST 1S.AG.SG go.I can
I am able to go to (our) village on foot.
I know how to write on a computer.

We started singing at 6 in the evening.

We finished the exam on Saturday.

We continue the lessons for three days.

You need to study even if you don't want to.

A.07 Coordinate clauses

After I had breakfast, I rinsed my mouth and went to the office.
2 Lau lawmawh ka va suih ei bei ka khin.
  lâ'⁵ la.mɔ? ká vâ jù⁴? ?e¹ be¹ ká kʰǐn
  dry field from 1S.AG.SG arrive.I and pot.cooking 1S.AG.SG cook.II
  *I came back from the field and cooked.*

3 A nawh ei a sua mi angky zun khaih ka coh.
  3S.AG black and 3S.AG long.dress REL shirt CLF.cloth one 1S.AG.SG buy.II
  *I bought a long black shirt.*

4 Angky a nawh mi le a sen mi pa va pei
  ?an.kó ?à nɔ? mí lè ?à sen mí pà va pe¹
  shirt 3S.AG black NMLZ CONJ 3S.AG red NMLZ 1O.AG DIR.venitive give.I
  hai,
  há¹
  ABS.PL
  *Give me the red and black shirts.*

5 Inn sung le inn leng
  ?íⁿ sùŋ lè ?íⁿ lèŋ
  house inside CONJ house outside
  *Inside and outside of the house*

6 Oh le y dw toih cu synaih nawh a si.
  eat.II CONJ sleep.II want very TOP poor NOM 3S.AG be
  *Too much love for eating and sleeping cause to poverty.*

7 Pacy le anthawh coh a hau.
  pà.tɔ lè ?án.tʰɔ? tsō'? ?á hâu
  table salt CONJ chili pepper buy.II 3S.AG.SG need
  *It is needed to buy salt and chili-pepper.*
I have washed the pillow covers but I haven't washed the bed sheets.

I have washed the pillow covers but I haven't hung them yet.

Mom and dad told me well.

If you do not eat, you will be hungry.
A.08 Demonstratives

1 ka po hi
ká póʷ hi
1.GEN.SG father this
this my father

2 sacang cu
sà.tsàŋ tsú
paddy rice that
that rice

3 sacang khaw
sà.tsàŋ kʰá
paddy rice DEM
that rice

4 sianginn khi
siàŋ.?ín kʰí
school that
that school

5 Sianginn lawnawh ka zawhai ka heithu .
siàŋ.?ín lɜ nɔʔ ká zá.hài ká hê.ɾʰù
school LOC 1.GEN.SG bag 1S.AG.SG forget
I forget my bag at school.

6 Sianginn law kha nawh ka zawhai ka heithu .
siàŋ.?ín lís kʰá nɔʔ ká zá.hài ká hê.ɾʰù
school LOC DEM LOC 1.GEN.SG bag 1S.AG.SG forget
I forgot my bag at the school.

7 hi laiphy paw ka nun sung lawh
hí láɿ.pʰǝ pò kà nùn sung lís?
this earth top 1S.AG.PL life inside LOC
During our lifetime on this earth
8 hi sacang hai hi
hí sò.tsáŋ hái hí
this paddy rice ABS.PL this
this rice

9 hi sacang hai cu
hí sò.tsáŋ hái tsú
this paddy rice ABS.PL that
this rice

10 Khilei malai pu khi ka hoikom a si .
kʰ.i.lèi má.là pù kʰì ká hɔ̀.kɔ̀m ʔá jì
that.over there person male that 1.GEN.SG friend 3S.AG.SG be

That man there is my friend.

11 halei sacang hai zawng hi
há.lèi sò.tsáŋ hái zɔ̀ŋ hí
this.here paddy rice ABS.PL also this
also these rice here

12 * hi kamu hi
hí kɔ̀ mú hí
this 1S this

13 Ka po a thinhaw hu hi ka cy ngaitei .
ká pó̀ ʔá tʰìn.hu hù hí kà tò ná.jêı̂
1.GEN.SG father 3S.AG.SG angry IRL this 1S.AG.PL afraid very

We were very afraid that Dad might get angry.

14 Ngukaihpaw paw a do cem hi !
ŋú.ká˥.pɔ̀ pɔ̀ ʔà jò jìn tʃɛm hí
name of flower flower 3S.AG beautiful SUPERLATIVE this
Ngukaih flower is the most beautiful!
A.09 Proforms, Negation Examples

1 kamu (le) kamu
ká mú lé ká mú
1S CONJ 1S

myself

2 * Kaw (le) kaw
kó lè kó
1S CONJ 1S

3 (kamu) ka ei
ká mú ká ?e
1S 1 GEN.SG POSS
mine

4 (namu) na lakhw
ná.mú ná lá.khý
2S 2 GEN.SG hat

your hat

5 Na lakhw ka hwmh .
ná lá.khý ká hým?
2 GEN.SG hat 1S AG.SG see.II

I saw your hat.

6 Ka hria lau mi angky ka va phua .
ká xia lá mí ?aŋ.kó ká và phùa
1S AG.SG need NEG NMLZ shirt 1S AG.SG bring

I brough the shirt that I don't need with me.

7 Sawh na oh lau cawmacu thang khau aw veh ci .
sô? ná ?ô"? lá" tsaw.ma.tsú thâŋ ká" ?ô ve? tsì
food 2S AG.SG eat.II NEG if grow able F NEG 2S AG

If you don't eat food, you will not grow up.
Because you did not eat, we have many leftover rice.

You will regret it when you will not able to eat food.

No, I did not eat the banana.

I did not even eat the banana.

I cannot do what I don't want to do.

Don't give it to her anymore what she does not like to eat.

I don't beat you because you didn't beat her.
I bought two white shirts.

**A.10 TAMs**

1 **Sianginn kawi ka sei**.
   sían.ʔin kɔi ká sèi
   school towards 1S.AG go.I
   I go/went to school.

2 **Ningawni sianginn kawi ka sei**.
   ni.ŋɔ.ɲi sían.ʔin kɔi ká sèi
   yesterday school towards 1S.AG go.I
   I went to school yesterday.

3 **Sianginn kawi ka sei aw**.
   sían.ʔin kɔi ká sèi ʔɔ
   school towards 1S.AG go.I F
   I will go to school. (now)

4 **Sianginn kawi ka sei telai**.
   sían.ʔin kɔi ká sèi tɛ.laˈi
   school towards 1S.AG go.I later
   I will go to school. (later)

5 **Anthawh co khau dengmang caw ci ?**
   ʔán.ʈʰɔʔ kuə ɗɛŋ.máŋ tsɔ tsi
   chili pepper buy.I can almost PER 2S.AG
   Do you almost finish buying chili pepper?

6 **Anthawh ka coh khau dengmang caw**.
   ʔán.ʈʰɔʔ ká tsɔʔʔ kʰa ɗɛŋ.máŋ tsɔ
   chili pepper 1S.AG buy.II can almost PER
   I almost finish buying chili pepper.
7 Anthawh na coh khau dengmang caw mo? 
?án,tʰ ваши? ná tsó yêu? kʰa yêu đếng màn? tsó mo yêu 
chili pepper 2S.AG.SG buy.II can almost PER Q.tag 
You almost finish buying chili pepper?

8 Anthawh co khau dengmang veh lai ni. 
?án,tʰ Васи? tso yêu kʰa yêu đếng màn ve yêu? la yêu ni 
chili pepper buy.I can almost NEG yet 1S.AG.SG 
I don't almost finish buying chili pepper.

9 Anthawh coh ka hau. 
?án,tʰ Васи? tsó yêu ká hâu 
chili pepper buy.II 1S.AG.SG need 
I need to (go myself) buy chili pepper.

10 Anthawh ka coh a hau. 
?án,tʰ Васи? ká tsó yêu? tả hâu 
chili pepper 1S.AG.SG buy.II 3S.AG.SG need 
I need to buy chili pepper.

11 Anthawh coh a hau. 
?án,tʰ Васи? tsó yêu? tả hâu 
chili pepper buy.II 3S.AG.SG need 
We need to buy chili pepper.

12 Anthawh coh hau i? 
chili pepper buy.II need 3S.AG 
Do we need to buy chili pepper?

13 Anthawh coh hau veh. 
?án,tʰ Васи? tsó yêu? há yêu ve yêu? 
chili pepper buy.II need NEG 
We don't need to buy chili pepper.
14 Thai oh ka dw.
$t^h.7a^l \ ?o^m? \ k\'a \ d\'\h\h$
mango eat.II 1S.AG.SG want
I want to eat a mango.

15 Thai o dw ci?
$t^h.7a^l \ d\'\h\h \ t\h\h$
mango eat.II want 2S.AG
Do you want to eat a mango?

16 Thai oh dw veh ni.
$t^h.7a^l \ ?o^m? \ d\'\h\h \ v\h\h \ n\h\h$
mango eat.II want NEG 1S.AG.SG
I do not want to eat a mango.

17 Thai oh dw ci?
$t^h.7a^l \ ?o^m? \ d\'\h\h \ t\h\h$
mango eat.II want 2S.AG
Do you want to eat a mango?

A.11 Complex predicates

1 A  mih a kw.
?-?\h\h \ m\h\h? \ ?a \ k\h\h?
3.GEN.SG eye 3S.AG nonce
He is sleepy.

2 A  mih kw veh.
?-?\h\h \ m\h\h? \ k\h\h \ v\h\h?
3.GEN.SG eye nonce NEG
He is not sleepy.

3 A  mih kw i.
?-?\h\h \ m\h\h? \ k\h\h \ ?\h\h?
3.GEN.SG eye nonce 3S.AG
Is he sleepy?
4 Na mih a kw.
ná mf? ʔà kᵯ
2.GEN.SG eye 3S.AG nonce
   You are sleepy.

5 Ka thin a khui.
ká ʔᵮin ʔá k₇ᵯ¹
1.GEN.SG liver 3S.AG.SG scratch
   He annoyed me. (lit. He/she/it scratched my liver.)

6 Ka thin a pa khui.
ká ʔᵮin ʔá p₇ k₇ᵯ¹
1.GEN.SG liver 3S.AG.SG 1O.AG scratch
   He/she/it annoyed me.

7 A thin na khui.
ʔ₇ kᵮin ná k₇ᵯ¹
3.GEN.SG liver 2S.AG.SG scratch
   You annoyed them.

8 Na thin ka khui.
ná ʔᵮin ká k₇ᵯ¹
2.GEN.SG liver 1S.AG.SG scratch
   I annoyed you. (focus on the action)

9 Na thin ka ca khui.
ná ʔᵮin ká tsá k₇ᵯ¹
2.GEN.SG liver 1S.AG.SG 2O.AG scratch
   I annoyed you. (focus on the actor)

10 Ka mih na pa kwh sawh.
ká mf? ná p₇ kᵯ? sᵯ?
1.GEN.SG eye 2S.AG.SG 1O.AG nonce CAUS
   You made me sleepy. (by doing something)
You made me sleepy. (by the way you behave)

I think this is a way to express/show one's disappointment or dissatisfaction to another person because of the way they behave. I cannot find the actual/right free translation for it.

I'm sleepy. (by looking at the way you behave)

This is a way to express one's disappointment of dissatisfaction to another person based on their character or the way they behave.

I'm sad. (by looking at the way you behave)

You made me sad. (by the way you behave)

I agree.

I approved of you. (by looking at the way you behave/the way you look)
17 Ka  hnu  na  pa  tawh.
   ká  ṭu  ná  pá  ḏy?
1.GEN.SG  ear  2S.AG.SG  1O.AG  fall
   I approved of you. (by your appearance or your character)

18 A  hnu  ka  tu.
  ṭá  ṭu  ká  ḏu
3.GEN.SG  ear  1S.AG.SG  fall
   He approved of me. (by looking at the way I behave/ the way I look)

19 Na  hnu  ka  tu.
  ná  ṭu  ká  ḏu
2.GEN.SG  ear  1S.AG.SG  fall
   You approved of me. (by looking at the way I behave/ the way I look)

20 Ka  lung  a  ting.
   ká  luŋ  ṭá  ţiŋ
1.GEN.SG  heart  3S.AG  complete.result
   I agree./ I'm satisfied.

21 Ka  lung  na  ting.
   ká  luŋ  ná  ţiŋ
1.GEN.SG  heart  2S.AG.SG  complete.result
   I'm satisfied. (by looking at the way you behave/ you look)

22 Ka  lung  na  pa  ting.
   ká  luŋ  ná  pá  ţiŋ
1.GEN.SG  heart  2S.AG.SG  1O.AG  complete.result
   You satisfied me (by the way you look/you behave)

23 A  lung  ka  ting.
  ṭá  luŋ  ká  ţiŋ
3.GEN.SG  heart  1S.AG.SG  complete.result
   He is satisfied. (by looking at the way I behave/ I look)

175
I (the way I look or the way I behave) satisfied him.

He (the way he looks or he behaves) satisfied me. (lit. He completed my heart.)

He satisfied me. (he did something intentionally to satisfy me)

I'm amused./ It amused me.

You amused me. (sarcasm)

It could be said as a sarcasm of someone's act that you don't like.

He amused you.

He is amused./ It amused him.
31 A nai ka chy .
?á naí ká tʰá
3.GEN.SG laugh 1S.AG.SG nonce
I amused him.

32 Ka hmai ka phy .
ká máí ká pʰá
1.GEN.SG face 1S.AG.SG nonce
I washed my face.

33 Ka hmai a pa phy (pih / sawh ).
ká máí ?á pá pʰá pí? sá?
1.GEN.SG face 3S.AG.SG 1O.AG nonce BEN CAUS
He washed my face. (He washed my face for me/ He made me wash my face.)

34 Kamu nawh na hmai ka ca phy .
kó mú ná máí ká tsá pʰá
1S ERG 2.GEN.SG face 1S.AG.SG 2O.AG nonce
I washed your face.

35 (Ka ) mai ka kau .
ká ká kà
1.GEN.SG fire 1S.AG.SG open.II
I built (my) fire.

36 (Ka ) mai na kau .
ká ná kà
1.GEN.SG fire 2S.AG.SG open.II
You built (my) fire.

37 (Na ) mai ka ca kau pih .
ná máí ká tsá kà pí?
2.GEN.SG fire 1S.AG.SG 2O.AG open.II BEN
I built your fire for you.
A.11 Noun Phrases

1. **khi (lei) (ei) inn**
   
   kʰi leʰi ?eʰi ?ʰn
   
   that place LOC house
   
   *that house*

2. **inn khi**
   
   ?ʰn kʰi
   
   house that
   
   *that house*

3. **inn khi (*lei)(* ei*)**
   
   ?ʰn kʰi leʰi ?eʰi
   
   house that place LOC
   
   *that house*

4. **khi lei ei (a wm mi) inn khi cu**
   
   
   that place LOC 3S.AG exist.I REL house that TOP
   
   *that house there*

5. **khi lei ei inn law-kha-nawh**
   
   kʰi leʰi ?eʰi ?ʰn lɔ̀-kʰá-náʔ?
   
   that place LOC house at-that-Loc
   
   *at that house there*

6. **Banhlue ka coh.**
   
   bàⁿ.lù ká tsóʔ?
   
   banana 1S.AG.SG buy.1I
   
   *I bought bananas.*

7. **Kyhting tan nawh ngai ci ?**
   
   kà.ʔíŋ tän náʔ? ɲàʰi tsi
   
   nail cut NOM own.1 2S.AG
   
   *Do you have a nail clippers?*
I gave (it to) you.

I prefer that one there.

three shirts

his house

his father's house

his red house

the man's house which is red
15 Talwh inn (a) sen (mi) lei ei a wm mi malai pu
the man who lives at a Chinese red house

16 khi lei malai pu inn / khi lei ei malai pu a inn
that man there his house

17 mahi inn / malei ei inn / hi inn / hi lei (ei) inn
this house this house

18 makha inn / khalei ei inn / khi lei (ei) inn
that house that house

19 khi koi lei (ei) inn / khi koi ei a wm mi inn
that toward LOC house the house that exist there

20 inn tampy
house many

21 inn cawmtei
house few
22 inn khakhaih
?ín kʰá.kʰáʔ
house any
any house

23 inn siokhaih / siokhaih inn / inn cawmpai
?ín jio.kʰáʔ jio.kʰáʔ ?ín ?ín tsɔm.pəi
house some some house house little
some houses

24 inn kengkymh / inn tin
?ín kɛŋ.kəm? ?ín tin
house every house every
every house

25 inn bintei
?ín bɛn. tài
house all
all houses

26 khi lei inn sen
kʰi leʔ ?ín sɛn
that place house red
that red house there

27 khi lei ei inn a sen mi tampy
kʰi leʔ ?eʔ ?ín ?a sɛn mí tʰam.pʰə
that place LOC house 3S.AG red NMLZ many
that many red houses there

28 khi lei a sen mi inn tampy hai
kʰi leʔ ?a sɛn mí ?ín tʰam.pʰə hǎi
that place 3S.AG red REL house many PL
that many red houses there
29 inn sen / inn a sen mi / a sen mi inn

30 khi lei ei inn a sen mi / khi lei ei inn sen

31 inn sen thaw / inn sen a thaw mi

32 inn sen a thaw mi

33 a thaw mi inn sen

34 * a thaw mi sen inn

35 thasyh nakhir a do mi hai capu hawhtei pathwm
36 khilei inn cu halei inn nawhmawh a hei am .
kʰʰ.ɬɛɭ ʔin tsú há.ɬɛɭ ʔin nʲʔ.moʔ ʔà heɭʔam
that.over there house TOP this.house more than 3S.AG big more
That house there is bigger than this house here.

37 halei inn nawhmawh khilei inn a hei am .
há.ɬɛɭ ʔin nʒʔ.moʔ kʰɭ.ɬɛɭ ʔin ʔà heɭʔam
this.house more than that.over there house 3S.AG big more
That house is bigger than this house.

38 Malai pu cu inn a hei cem lawh a wm .
má.ɭaɭ.pu tsú ʔin ʔà heɭ tʃɛm lʃʔ ʔà ʔɛm
man TOP house 3S.AG big SUPERLATIVE LOC 3S.AG exist.I
The man lives at the biggest house.

39 a su toih mi panang / a kang ngaitei mi panang
ʔà su toʔ mi pə.naŋ ʔà kaŋ n_tpli mi pə.naŋ
3S.AG hot very REL cup 3S.AG hot very REL cup
The cup that is very hot.

40 hawhtei tam tataw / hawhtei tampy
hʃʔ.tɭ tám tʃ.təʔ hʃʔ.tɭ tʃə.məɭ
child many a lot child many
many kids

41 a inn hei py
ʔà ʔin heɭpə
3S.AG house big very
his big house

42 a po inn hei py
ʔà pəʔ ʔin heɭpə
3S.AG father house big INTS
his father’s big house
38 inn inn thwm ( hai )
?ín ?ín tʰəm há̂i
house house three PL
three houses

40 kʰilei ei inn inn thwm
kʰi.lēi ?e' ?ín ?ín tʰəm
that over there LOC house house three
the three houses there

42 inn sen inn thwm / a sen mi inn maw thwm hai
?ín sen ?ín tʰəm ?ā sen mí ?ín mó tʰəm há̂i
house red house three 3S.AG red NMLZ house CL general three PL
the three red houses / the three houses that are red

44 inn sen inn thwm / a sen mi inn mawthwm hai
house red house three 3S.AG red NMLZ house PL
three red houses

46 inn sen a hei py py inn thwm
?ín sen ?ā hêi pō pō ?ín tʰəm
house red 3S.AG big very very house three
the big three red houses

48 a sen mi inn hei py maw thwm hai
?ā sen mí ?ín hêi pō mó tʰəm há̂i
3S.AG red NMLZ house big very CL general three PL
the three big houses that are red

49 a inn sen hei py inn thwm
?ā ?ín sen hêi pō ?ín tʰəm
3.GEN.SG house red big very house three
his three big red houses
50 amu a inn sen a hei py py inn thwm
?a ámb á ?ín sen á hei pó pó ?ín ŋəm
3S 3.GEN.SG house red 3S.AG big very very house three
his three big red houses

51 a sen mi a inn hei py inn thwm hai
?à sen mí ?à ?ín hei pó ?ín ŋəm hái
3S.AG red NMLZ 3S.AG house big very house three PL
his three big red house that are red

52 a po inn sen hei py inn thwm
?à póu ?ín sen hei pó ?ín ŋəm
3S.AG father house red big very house three
his father's three big red houses

53 a sen mi a po inn a hei py inn thwm hai
3S.AG red NMLZ 3S.AG father house 3S.AG big very house three PL
his father's three big houses that are red

54 Caboi paw lei khedan a kih .
tsá.bój pó le kʰɛ.ɬán ?à ki?
table top place pencil 3S.AG break.inchoative
The pencil on the table is broken.

55 Caboi paw ei cu tia nawh sung cu a kih .
tsá.bój pó ?ei tsú tía ná? sung tsú ?à ki?
table top LOC literature write NOM stick TOP 3S.AG break.inchoative
The stick that is used to write (pencil) on the table is broken.

56 dwm sung lei ei y
dám sun le ?ei ?á
garden inside place LOC dog
the dog that is inside the garden
57 kun sung ei a wmi y
kùn suŋ ?eŋ ?à ?ûm mì ?á

garden inside LOC 3S.AG exist.I REL dog

the dog that exist in the garden

58 a hu a haw mi mizoŋ
?á hu ?à ho mì mì.zöŋ?

3.GEN.SG tooth 3S.AG sharp REL cat

the cat that teeth is sharp

59 hawhteipu khaw le hawhteinh khaw
h5ʔ.të̀.pú k5 lá h5ʔ.të̀.nỳ k5
boy DEM CONJ girl DEM

the boy and the girl

59 hawhteipu khaw le hawhteinh
h5ʔ.të̀.pú k5 lá h5ʔ.të̀.nỳ
boy DEM CONJ girl

the boy and the girl

60 Ka hawipu Palung cu sazaw a si .
ká hoŋ pù pâluŋ tsû sà.zò ?à ŋi
1.GEN.SG friend male Palung TOP teacher 3S.AG be

My friend Palung is a teacher.

62 A hnapy nw Pawtei nauh ahmei tho tei a khin .
?á qù.pà nó pó.teŋ nòʔ ?á.mèŋ tʰoŋ tëŋ ?a k5ṅin
3.GEN.SG wife female Pawtei ERG curry delicious.I INTF 3S.AG cook.II

His wife Pawtei cook delicious curry.

63 Pawtei , aμu a hoinau nw ahmei khin a thiam .
pó.teŋ ?amû ?à hôŋ.naŋ nỳ ?á.mèŋ k5ṅin ?a tʰiâm
Pawtei 3S 3S.AG relative female curry cook.II 3S.AG know.how.to

Pawtei his wife is good at cooking (curry).
Pawtei, amu a hoinau nw bei khin a thiam.

Pawtei 3S 3S.AG relative female pot.cooking cook.II 3S.AG know.how.to

Pawtei his wife is good at cooking.

ka kyhdong

ká kó? dön
1.GEN.SG hand top

My finger

ka baisakei / ka thiarang

ká ba'.sa.kéi ká fhá.yán
1.GEN.SG bicycle 1.GEN.SG bicycle

my bicycle

ka no

ká nóu
1.GEN.SG mother

my mother

Pawtei a no

po.tei ?à nóu
Pawtei 3.GEN.SG mother

Pawtei’s mother

khalei ei ka kyhdong a nu.

kʰá leí ?eí ká kó? dön ?à nu
DEM place LOC 1.GEN.SG hand top 3S.AG hurt

My finger there hurts (is it really possible??)

khi lei thiarang cu a thaw mi a si.

kʰi leí fhá.yán tsú ?à tʰo mí ?à jí
that place bicycle TOP 3S.AG new NMLZ 3S.AG be

That bicycle is new.
The man who brings me water

The woman who clean my house for me

The three big men that brough the water for me

That girl there with short hair

The woman with her hair short and her shirt white

My three little cats

My long arm shirt
My father’s three red new hats there

My father’s three new big red hats which are on the table do not need to be washed.

A.13 Applicatives

1 Banhluk  ka  ca  coh  pih .
banhá  já  ká  tsá  tsó"?  pí?
banana 1S.AG.SG 2O.AG buy.II BEN
I bought you bananas.

2 Banhluk  ka  ca  oh  pih .
banhá  já  ká  ?ó"?  pí?
banana 1S.AG.SG 2O.AG eat.II BEN
I ate bananas (on behalf of you).

3 Bei  a  ca  khin  tan .
beí  ?á  tsá  kín  tân
pot.cooking 3S.AG.SG 2O.AG cook.II BEN
He cooked for you.
4 Lau a ca tho kemh.
láu ʔá tsá ṭʰóu kém?
dry field 3S.AG.SG 2O.AG weed APP
  He hoed the field for your benefit.

5 Lau ka ca tho py.
láu ká tsá ṭʰóu pə
dry field 1S.AG.SG 2O.AG weed Accompaniment/comitative
  I hoed the field along with you.

6 Lau a ca tho hno.
láu ʔá tsá ṭʰóu ʔən
dry field 3S.AG.SG 2O.AG weed MAL
  He hoed the field to your deriment.

7 Lau a ca tho khan.
láu ʔá tsá ṭʰóu kən
dry field 3S.AG.SG 2O.AG weed PRIOR.APP
  He hoed the field ahead of/ before you.

8 Lau a ca tho sen.
láu ʔá tsá ṭʰóu sən
dry field 3S.AG.SG 2O.AG weed leave.behind
  He left you and hoed the field.

9 Patw lau a tho nawh.
pà.tə láu ʔá ṭʰó run
hoe dry field 3S.AG.SG weed INSTR
  He used the hoe to hoe the field.

A.14 Hortative, Jussive Mood

1.1 Sei pih.
séí pì =?
go.II 1S.AG.PL = IMP
  Let's go.
1.2 Sei pi luh.
seí pì lú =?
go.II 1S.AG.PL 2S.PL =IMP
Let's go.

2 Sei pi se a thu aw.
seí pì sè òà thù ?à
go.II 1S.AG.PL COMP 3S.AG good F
It would be good if we go.

3 Sei caw nih.
seí tsò nì =?
go.II ASP 1S.AG.SG =IMP
Let me go now.

4 Ka sei caw a thu aw.
kà seí tsò òà thù ?à
1S.AG.SG go.II ASP 3S.AG good F
It would be good if we go now.

5 A sei (ni') sawh.
ù sè ni sù?
3S.AG go.I now CAUS
Let's go now.

6 A sei (ni') se a thu aw.
ù sè ni sè òà thù ?à
3S.AG go.I now COMP 3S.AG good F
It would be good if we go now.

7 Sei ni sawh.
seí ni sù?
go.II now CAUS
Let him go now. (obligatory)/ May he go now.
8 Sei kau sawh.

sé̄ ká̄ sâ?
go.II EMPH CAUS

Let him go (even if he doesn't want to/ even if you don't want him to go.)

9.1 O pih./

ʔō pi =ʔ
eat.I 1S.AG.PL =IMP

Let us eat.

9.2 O pi luh.

ʔō pi luʔ =ʔ
eat.I 1S.AG.PL 2S.PL =IMP

Let us eat.

10 A o ni sawh.

ʔà ʔō ni sâ?
3S.AG eat.I now CAUS

Let's eat.

11 A o se a thu aw.

ʔà ʔō sé ʔà ťù ʔâ
3S.AG eat.I COMP 3S.AG good F

It would be good if we eat.

12 Ka oh ni veh?

kà ʔöʔ ni veʔ?
1S.AG.PL eat.II now NEG

Why don't we eat now? (Let's eat now.)

13 Thw pih.

tʰr̩̄ pi =ʔ
sit.I 1S.AG.PL =IMP

Let us sit.
Let us sit now.

It would be better if we sit.

It would be good if we sit.

Why don't we sit?

May the Lord give you blessings!

May he be healthy!
RESUME

Name: Ngun Tin Par
Date of Birth: 13 May, 1988
Place of Birth: Hakha, Myanmar
Institutions Attended: 2004, High School, Falam, Myanmar
2005, High School, Rihkhawdar, Myanmar
2008, English major, KaLay University, Myanmar
2016, Payap University, Master of Arts in Linguistics