The verb phrase in Telugu is a head-modifier phrase having a verb as its head, and adverbials and participles being the modifiers. Again, the head verb has its own internal structure having moods, aspects, persons, numbers and genders in a close-knit sequence. Therefore, Telugu verb phrase can be conveniently termed as a close-knit head modifier phrase. These verb phrases in Telugu fill predicate slots at clause level constructions.

The Telugu verb phrase can be visualised in the following way:

From the above representation the following inferences can be drawn.

1. The verb phrase is either a head-modifier phrase (Type 1), or it consists of only a single word (zero modifier).

2. The head is a close-knit phrase consisting of three interrelated systems, namely, the verbal base system; the mood, aspect and tense system and the person, number and gender system manifesting tagmemes within it.

3. The modifier slot is filled by either adverbials or participles or both, which in turn may be either single units or phrases of head-modifier, coordinate and axis-relator types.
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**Verb Phrase Formula**

\[
\text{VP} = + \text{Mod: Adv./Part.} + \text{H: vb.}
\]

Read, a verb phrase has an optional modifier slot filled by an adverbial or adverbial phrase, and/or a participle or a participle phrase; and an obligatory head slot filled by a transitive or intransitive verb along with the person-number-gender suffixes.

In all, the verb phrases in Telugu can be visualized from three angles, viz., taking the over-all construction of the verb phrase into consideration (Over-all Verb Phrase), taking the modificational structure into consideration (Modifier-Phrase) and taking the internal structure of the head into consideration (Head Phrase).

### 5.1 THE OVER-ALL VERB PHRASE

The over-all verb phrase is a head-modifier phrase. The head slot of this phrase is filled by a finite verb both either a transitive or an intransitive type including model and aspectual systems. The modifier slot is filled by adverbs or adverbial phrases, participles or participle phrases and the combination of both. This phrase may be termed as Head-Modifier Verb Phrase 1 (H-MVP 1). This is because, in Telugu there are head-modifier phrases whose head slots are filled by infinite verbs, and such phrases may be termed as Head-Modifier Verb Phrase 2 (H-MVP 2). The phrases of the second type i.e., H-MVP 2 unlike H-MVP1 fill only the modifier slots at phrase level constructions, and they are discussed under Modifier-Phrases (5.2).

**Formula**

The general formula for a head-modifier verb phrase is:

\[
\text{H-MVP} + + \text{Mod: Adv. and/Part.} + \text{H: fin.vb./infin. vb.}
\]

Read, the head-modifier verb phrase consists of an optional modifier slot filled by an adverbial and/or a participle, and an obligatory head slot filled by a finite or an infinite verb.

A typical formula of H-MVP 1 is

\[
\text{H-MVP} 1 = + \text{Mod: Adv. and/or Part.} + \text{H: fin. vb.}
\]

The modifier slot of the M-MVP 1 as already discussed is filled by adverbials, or participles, or the combination of both adverbials and participles.

**e.g.,**

\[
\text{a:yana mellaga:/ku:rtsoni}  \quad \text{tinnadu}
\]

‘he’ ‘slowly’ ‘having sit’ ‘ate-he’

‘He ate slowly/after sitting’
5.1.1 ADVERBIALS

Under adverbials the intensifiers, the adverbials of manner, time and location occur as modifiers of head verb. Besides these, the quantifiers and the object noun also occur sometimes as verbal modifiers.

I. Intensifiers

The intensifiers that modify the verbs are ba:ga: ‘well’, mari: ‘much’ and bhale: ‘in a good manner (manner intensifier)’.

\[ a:yana \quad ba:ga: \quad \text{tinna:du} \]

‘he’ ‘well’ ‘ate-he’

‘He ate well’

\[ a:me \quad bhale: \quad ma:tla:dutundi \]

‘she’ ‘nicely’ ‘will talk-she’

‘She talks nicely’

Sometimes the intensifiers tsa:la: ‘much’ and bhale: ‘nicely’ precede ba:ga:, thus the combination of both the intensifiers becoming a head-modifier adverbial phrase (See Chapter 6).

\[ a:yana \quad tsa:la: \quad ba:ga: \quad \text{tinna:du} \]

‘He ate very well’

II. Manner Adverbs


\[ mellaga: \quad \text{nadavandi} \]

‘slowly’ ‘walk (pl.)’

‘Walk slowly’

\[ ne:nu \quad tondaraga: \quad \text{vella:li} \]

‘I’ ‘quickly’ ‘must-go’

‘I must go quickly’

Some of the manner adverbials can be iterated.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

e.g.,

\[ \text{mellaga: } + \text{ mellaga: } = \text{ mellamellaga:} \]
\[ \text{a:dava:llu mellamellaga: nadusta:ru} \]
\[ \text{‘females’ ‘slowly-slowly’ ‘will walk-they’} \]
\[ \text{‘The women walk slowly’} \]

The intensifiers precede the manner adverbials in which case they together become head-modifier adverbial phrases (Discussed in Chapter 6).

e.g.,

\[ \text{a:me tsa:la: andanga: ma:tsa:la:indi} \]
\[ \text{‘she’ ‘very’ ‘beautifully’ ‘talked-she’} \]
\[ \text{‘She talked very beautifully’} \]

Two or more adverbs can co-occur together becoming a coordinate adverb phrase (See chapter 6).

e.g.,

\[ \text{a:me andanga: na:dzu:kuga: nadustundi} \]
\[ \text{‘she’ ‘beautifully’ ‘pleasingly’ ‘will walk-she’} \]
\[ \text{‘She walks beautifully and pleasingly’} \]

III. Qualitatives


e.g.,

\[ \text{ma: tsa:kaliva:du guddalu ba:ga utukuta:du} \]
\[ \text{‘our’ ‘washerman’ ‘clothes’ ‘well’ ‘will wash-he’} \]
\[ \text{‘Our washerman washes the clothes well’} \]

\[ \text{payasam tiyyaga: undi} \]
\[ \text{‘payasam’ ‘sweetly’ ‘is-it’} \]
\[ \text{‘The payasam is sweet’} \]

Like in II above, these adverbials also can be iterated, preceded by intensifiers, and also coordinated with other quantifier adverbs.

Iteration

\[ \text{tiyyaga: } + \text{ tiyyaga: } = \text{ tiyyatiyyaga:} \]
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Verb Phrase

e.g.,

mamidi pallu tiyyatiyyaga unna:yi
‘mango’ ‘fruits’ ‘sweetly-sweetly’ ‘are-they’
‘The mangoes are sweet’

Preceded by Intensifiers

pa:yasam tsa:la: tiyyaga: undi
‘The payasam is very sweet’

Coordination

dra:ksarasam tiyyaga: tsallaga: undi
‘grape’ ‘juice’ ‘sweetly’ ‘coldly’ ‘is-it’
‘The grape juice is sweet and cold’

IV. Temporals

Temporals are time indicating nouns. They may be simple nouns or noun phrases, and fill the modifier slot of the head-modifier verb phrase.

(a) Simple Nouns

ne:nu udayam vacca:nu
‘I’ ‘morning’ ‘came-I’
‘I came in the morning’

(b) Noun Phrases

ne:nu ninna udayam vacca:nu
‘I’ ‘yesterday’ ‘morning’ ‘came-I’
‘I came yesterday morning’

ne:nu po:yina va:ram vellsenu
‘I’ ‘went’ ‘week’ ‘went-I’
‘I went in the last week’

Coordination of two temporal nouns or noun phrases is possible.

(a) Nouns

ninna monna vacca:mu
‘yesterday’ ‘the day before yesterday’ ‘came-we’
anukontunna:ra: miru
‘thinking-are-you’ ‘you (pl.)’
‘Are you thinking that you came yesterday or the day before yesterday?’
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Verb Phrase

(b) Noun Phrases

ninna sa:yantram monna
‘yesterday’ ‘evening’ ‘the day before yesterday’
sa:yatram vaccindi a:me
‘evening’ ‘came-she’ ‘she’

‘She came yesterday evening and the day before yesterday evening’

The components of the coordinate temporal nouns or noun phrases are made indefinite by suffixing the indefinite marker -o: when the exact time of the action indicated by the verb is not known.

ninne: monne:
‘yesterday (indef.)’ ‘the day before yesterday (indef.)’
vacca:du a:yana
‘came-he’ ‘he’

‘He came yesterday or the day before yesterday’

V. Locatives

Locatives are place-indicating nouns like illu, ‘house’, u:ru ‘village’, maisu:ru ‘Mysore’, etc., and pronouns like ikkada ‘here’ and akkada ‘there’. A locative marker is suffixed to the locative nouns when the head verb follows them, but the locative pronouns do not take any locative marker. When a verb belonging to the movement class of verbs (movement class of verbs are po:vu- ‘go’, vellu- ‘go’ ce:ru- ‘reach’, vatstsu- ‘come’, nadutsu- ‘walk’, parigettu- ‘run’, etc.), occurs, the locative noun or pronoun that precedes the verb is added by -ki/-ku suffix depending on the final vowel of the word (i.e., if it is -i ending -ki, otherwise -ki, or -ku); however in modern Telugu this suffix is optionally used with place names and some locative nouns also. [See examples under (c) below]

Formula


Read, a verb phrase with a locative modifier has an optional modifier slot filled by a locative noun or a pronoun or noun phrase along with a locative suffix, and an obligatory head slot filled by a finite verb.

(ii) + Mod: Loc. n/pron./NP (+ Loc. Marker) + -ki/-ku + H: fin. mov. vb.

Read, a verb phrase with a locative modifier has an optional modifier slot filled by a locative noun or a pronoun or a noun phrase with or without a locative marker along with the suffix -ki/-ku, and an obligatory head slot filled by a finite movement verb.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

Manifestations

(a) Locative Noun/Noun Phrase

ne:nu gadilo: unna:nu
‘I’ ‘room-in’ ‘am-I’
‘I am in the room’

(b) Locative Pronoun

pustakam akkada undi
‘book’ ‘there’ ‘is-it’
‘The book is there’

To these nouns and pronouns, the indefinite marker -o: can be suffixed to make the meaning indefinite and then these indefinite forms are coordinated.

e.g.,

a:me intlo:ne baito: untundi
‘she’ ‘house-in (indef.)’ ‘out side (indef.)’ ‘will be-she’
‘She will be either in the house or outside’

(c) With Verbs of Movement Class

a:me akkadiki valtunnadi
‘she’ ‘there-to’ ‘going-she’
‘She is going there’

ne:nu re:pu dhilli: veltunna:nu
‘I’ ‘tommorow’ ‘Delhi’ ‘going-I’
‘I am going to Delhi tommorow’

ne:nu udayam illu ce:ranu
‘I’ ‘morning’ ‘house’ ‘reached-I’
‘I reached home in the morning’

VI. Object Noun/Pronoun

Under this group occur all nouns and pronouns on which the action of the verb is directly implied i.e., those nouns and pronouns which are objects. Only a transitive verb occurs in these constructions.

e.g.,

ne:nu sinima: tsusa:nu
‘I’ ‘movie’ ‘saw-I’
‘I saw a movie’
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

va:du da:nni kotta:e:du
‘he’ ‘that-to’ ‘bet-he’
‘He bet it’

Sometimes like in the case of locatives with a movement verb, -ki/-ku is suffixed to
the object noun or pronoun.

e.g.,

ne:nu sinima:ku vellaenu
‘I’ ‘movie-to’ ‘went-I’
‘I went to a movie’

VII. Approximate Quantifiers

da:da:pu, rama:rami, intsumintsu, and suma:ru all meaning ‘approximately’ are
the approximate quantifiers.

ne:nu i: pustakam da:da:pu tsadive:nu
‘I’ ‘this’ ‘book’ ‘almost’ ‘read-I’
‘I almost read this book’

VIII. Limiters

Like the approximate quantifiers the limiters kani:sam and ke:valam also modify
the verbal heads.

e.g.,

va:llu ke:valam atla:dukontunna:ru
‘they’ ‘only’ ‘playing-they’
‘They are only playing’

IX. Interrogatives

The interrogative forms of the adverbials of categories II to VI (mentioned above)
are included under this group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adverbial Category</th>
<th>Adverbial Word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II. Manner, and</td>
<td>etlu, etla:, ela:,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Qualitatives</td>
<td>e:la:gu, ela:ga:, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Temporal</td>
<td>eppudu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Locatives</td>
<td>ekkada</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. Object Nouns</td>
<td>e:mi, e:di (de:nni),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Pronouns</td>
<td>e:vi (ve:ti), evarini</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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Verb Phrase

e.g.,

\[
\text{a:me e:la:/e:ta: ma:tla:dindi?} \\
\text{‘she’ ‘how’ ‘talked-she’} \\
\text{‘How did she talk?’}
\]

\[
\text{ne:nu a:menu ekkada tsu:sa:nu?} \\
\text{‘I’ ‘her-to’ ‘where’ ‘saw-I’} \\
\text{‘Where did I see her?’}
\]

Similarly examples with the other categories of adverbial words also can be given.

In the above examples, the indefinite marker \(-o/-no:\) can be suffixed to the interrogative words to indicate ‘indefiniteness’ or ‘lack of knowledge’ or ‘inability of expression’ of the action of the finite verb that follows the indefinite word in which case the sentences become affirmative.

e.g.,

\[
\text{a:me e:la:no:/e:ta:no: ma:tla:dindi} \\
\text{‘She talked in a strange manner’}
\]

\[
\text{ne:nu a:menu ekkado: tsu:sa:nu} \\
\text{‘I saw her somewhere’}
\]

Similarly, examples with other indefinite adverbial words can be given.

The approximate quantifiers precede the indefinite words belonging to the categories II to V, and limiters precede all the categories from II to VI.

**Approximate Quantifiers**

\[
\text{a:me da:da:pu e:la:/e:ta: ma:tla:dindi?} \\
\text{‘How did she talk approximately?’}
\]

\[
\text{a:yana rama:rami eppudu vacca:du?} \\
\text{‘When did he come approximately?’}
\]

Similarly, examples with the interrogative adverbial words of categories III and V can be given.

**Limiters**

\[
\text{mi:ru a:menu kani:sam ekkada tsu:sa:ru?} \\
\text{‘At least where did you see her?’}
\]

\[
\text{ninna mi:ru kani:sam e:mi/e:di/de:nni/evarini tsu:sa:ru?} \\
\text{‘At least what/whom did you see yesterday?’}
\]

Similarly, examples with other interrogative adverbial words can be given.
PARTICIPLES

The past, the non-past and the negative adverbial participles, and the conditional and concessive forms occur as verb modifiers in Telugu. These participles occur as verb modifiers in the following situations and combinations:

(i) The past, the non-past and the negative participles as single words occur as modifiers to the finite head verbs and other defective forms like obligatory, prohibitive, permissive, etc.

(ii) The past and the non-past forms can be iterated.

(iii) The past and the negative participles of the same verb can be coordinated (See section 5.3.2 for details).

(iv) The same participle forms of two different verbs can be coordinated (See section 5.2.2 for details).

(v) Any two of the past, the non-past and the negative participles of two different verbs can occur in a head and modifier relationship (H-MVP 2) which together modify the finite head verb, provided their combination is semantically possible (See section 5.2.1.2 for details).

(vi) The past, the non-past and the negative participles of any verb can occur in a head and modifier relationship (H-MVP 2) with the conditional and concessive forms of some other verb as heads, which together modify the finite head verb, provided their combination is semantically possible (See section 5.2.1.2 for details).

Derivation of Participles

Past: verb Root + -i

Vell- + -i = velli ‘having gone’

tin- + -i = tini ‘having eaten’

Non-Past: verb Root + -tu:/-tu:

vell- + -tu: = veltu: ‘while going’

tin- + -tu: = tintu: ‘while eating’

Negative: Infinitive + -aka/-akunda:

vell- + -aka/-akunda = vellaka/vellakunda: ‘without having gone’

tin- + -aka/-akunda: = ‘tinaka/tinakunda: ‘without having eaten’
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Verb Phrase

Conditional: Past Participle = -ite/-te

\[\text{velli-} + \text{-ite/-te:} = \text{vellite}/\text{velte:} \quad \text{‘if go’}\]
\[\text{tini-} + \text{-ite/-te} = \text{tinte:} \quad \text{‘if eat’}\]

Concessive: Past Participle + -ina:

\[\text{velli} + \text{-ina:} = \text{vellina:} \quad \text{‘even if go’}\]
\[\text{tini} + \text{-ina:} = \text{tinina}/\text{tinna:} \quad \text{‘even if eat’}\]

Manifestations

(i) As Single Words

Under this group the past, the non-past and the negative participles occur as modifiers to the head verbs.

Formula

\[+ \text{ Mod: Part.} + \text{H:fin. vb.}\]

(a) Past

\[\text{ne:nu maisu:riki velli vacca:nu}\]
‘I’ ‘Mysore-to’ ‘having gone’ ‘came-I’
‘I went to Mysore and came back’
\[\text{ne:nu maisu:riki velli ra:va:li}\]
‘I must go to Mysore and come’

(b) Non-Past

\[\text{ne:nu maisu:riki veltu: vacca:nu}\]
‘I’ ‘Mysore-to’ ‘going’ ‘came-I’
‘I came while going to Mysore’
\[\text{ne:nu maisu:riki veltu: ra:vatstsu}\]
‘I may come while going to Mysore’

(c) Negative

\[\text{ne:nu maisu:riki vellakunda: vacca:nu}\]
‘I’ ‘Mysore-to’ ‘without going’ ‘came-I’
‘I came without going to Mysore’
\[\text{ne:nu maisuriki vella kunda ra:ku:da du}\]
‘I must not come without going to Mysore’
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Verb Phrase

ne:nu amenu maisuriki vellakunda: ce:sa:nu
‘I’ ‘her-to’ ‘Mysore-to’ ‘without going’ ‘did-I’
‘I made her not to go to Mysore’

When sentence (2) is compared with sentence (3), though the negative participle vellakunda: appears to be the same in both, it expresses two different meanings. The reason is that in sentence (1) it is indicated that both the actions vella- ‘go’ and vaccu- ‘come’ one performed by the same subject (ne:nu) whereas in sentence (3), it shows that the two actions are performed by two different subjects, i.e., vellu- ‘go’ by a:me (‘she’) and ce:s- ‘do’ by ne:nu (‘I’). In other words, the sentence a:me vellale:du ‘she did not go’ is embedded in the sentence ne:nu ce:sa:nu ‘I did’.

(ii) Iteration

Only the past and the non-past participles occur in this group.

*Formula*


(a) Past

mi:kku ceppi ceppi alasipo:ya:nu
‘you (pl.)-to’ ‘having told’ ‘having told’ ‘tired-I’
‘I am tired of telling to you’

(b) Non-Past

ne:nu vastu vastua: tsu:sa:nu amenu
‘I’ ‘coming’ ‘coming’ ‘saw-I’ ‘her-to’
‘I saw her while I was coming’

Sometimes verbal forms of the type Non-Past Part. + -ne: and Infinitive + -ga: + -ne: are used as verbal modifiers.

e.g.,

tintu: + -ne: = tintune: ‘as soon as finished eating’
tina- + -ga: = tinaga:ne: ‘as soon as finished eating’
ne:nu annam tintune: vellae:nu
‘I’ ‘food’ ‘as soon as finished eating’ ‘went-I’
‘I went as soon as I finished eating’
ne:nu annam tinaga:ne: vellae:nu
‘I’ ‘food’ ‘as soon as finished eating’ ‘went-I’
‘I went as soon as I finished eating’

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5.1.3 BOTH ADVERBIALS AND PARTICIPLES

Word groups in which either the adverbials precede the participles or the participles precede the adverbials occur as modifiers of finite verbal heads. When an adverbial precedes the participle, the adverbial becomes modifier to the head which is already a head-modifier phrase (H-MVP 2) provided that the cooccurrence of the two verbs (infinite and finite verbs) is more natural. That is, for example, in the sentence mellaga: vacci vellae:du ‘(He) slowly came and went’, the possible ICs are mellaga: and vacci velledu since vatstsu- and vellu- occur more naturally and commonly as a verbal pair. If the verbal pair is not more natural and common in the language, the modifier and the participle together become a H-MVP 2 and modify the following finite verb, thus, totally becoming a H-MVP1 [e.g., mellaga: ku:rtsoni (aremmediga:) ma:tladadu ‘Having sat slowly (he) talked (gently)]. On the other hand, when the participle precedes the adverbial, then the participle modifies the head-modifier phrase (H-MVP 1) to which the adverbial is a modifier (vacci mellaga: vellae:du ‘(He) came and went slowly’). If again an adverbial precedes this phrase [mellaga: vacci mellaga: vallae:du ‘(He) came slowly and went slowly’], then the adverbial and the participle together becoming a H-MVP2 modifies the head-modifier phrase (H-MVP1) consisting of the other adverbial (modifier) and the finite verb (head).

In the above manner, the three participles, the past, the non-past and the negative, and the adverbials discussed in Section 5.1.1 occur in the construction of verb phrases.

Manifestations
(i) Adverbial + Participle

tondaraga: nadici vacca:du
‘quickly’ ‘having walked’ ‘came-he’
‘He came by walking quickly’
da:da:pu parigetti vacca:nu
‘almost’ ‘having-run’ ‘came-I’
‘I came almost running’

Sometimes there can be two or more adverbials.

tondaraga: akkadiki velli vacca:nu
‘quickly’ ‘there-to’ ‘having gone’ ‘came-I’
‘I quickly went there and came’

In the above sentence, the ICs can be either mellaga: vacci and ku:rtsoni ma:tladadu or mellaga: vacci ku:rtsoni and ma:tladadu.

Sometimes either the adverbial or the participle can be iterated.

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Verb Phrase

mellaga: + mellaga: = mellamellaga:

mellamellaga: vacci ku:rtsonna:du
‘s’lowly’ ‘having-come’ ‘sat-he’
‘He came slowly and sat’

tondaraga: parigetti parigetti alasipoyya:nu
‘quickly’ ‘having-run’ ‘having-run’ ‘tired-I’
‘Having run and run I am tired’

(ii) Participle + Adverbial

a:me ku:rtsoni nida:nanga: tindi
‘she’ ‘having-sat’ ‘slowly’ ‘ate-she’
‘She sat and ate slowly’

Sometimes there can be two or more adverbials

a:me ku:rtsoni nida:nanga: sustuga: tindi
‘she’ ‘having-sat’ ‘slowly’ ‘satisfactorily’ ‘ate-she’
‘She sat and ate slowly and satisfactorily’

In the above sentence, the two adverbials become a coordinated structure.

a:yana bho:nce:ci nida:nanga intiki vellae:du
‘he’ ‘having taken meal’ ‘slowly’ ‘house-to’ ‘went-he’
‘He ate and slowly went home’

In the above sentence, the two adverbials unlike in the previous sentence directly and independently modify the head verb (vellae du).

Sometimes there can be two or more participles.

a:me vacci ku:rtsoni mellaga: ceppindi
‘she’ ‘having come’ ‘having sat’ ‘slowly’ ‘told-she’
‘She came and sat and told slowly’

Sometimes either the adverbial or the participle can be iterated.

nenu edurutsu:si edurutsu:si intiki vellae:nu
‘I’ ‘having waited’ ‘having waited’ ‘house-to’ ‘went-I’
‘Having waited and waited I went home’

tondaraga: + tondaraga: = tondaratondaraga:

nenu: tirigi vacci tondaratondaraga: intiki vellae:nu
‘I’ ‘having-returned’ ‘quickly’ ‘house-to’ ‘went-I’
‘Having returned I went home quickly’
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Verb Phrase

(iii) Adverbial + Participle + Adverbial

‘he’ ‘quickly’ ‘having drunk’ ‘slowly’ ‘ate-he’
‘He drank quickly and ate slowly’

Sometimes either the adverbials or the participles can be iterated.

a:yana  tondara  tondaraga: vacci  tondaratondaraga velale:du
‘he’ ‘quickly’ ‘having come’ ‘quickly’ ‘went-he’
‘He came quickly and went quickly’

a:yana  oppiga: edurutsu:si  edurutsu:si mellaga:
‘he’ ‘patiently’ ‘having waited’ ‘having waited’ ‘slowly’
intiki  vellae:du
‘house-to’ ‘went-he’
‘He patiently waited for a long time and went home slowly’

Two or more adverbials or participles occur in different combinations.

a:me  mellaga: ta:piga: vacci
‘she’ ‘slowly’ ‘steadily’ ‘having come’
ku:rtsoni  dhairyanga:  tonakakunda:  java:bu  ceppindi
‘having-eat’ ‘courageously’ ‘unshaked’ ‘reply’ ‘told-she’
‘She came slowly and steadily, sat and replied courageously without shaking’

5.2 THE MODIFIER PHRASE

Under this category all the head-modifier verb phrases whose head is a verbal participle (adverbial participle), and also the coordinate constructions whose constituents are either adverbials or verbal participles are included. These constructions act as modifiers of the H-MVP1.

In H-MVP2 all the five categories of participles, viz., the past, the present, the negative, the conditional and the concessive participles occur as verbal heads irrespective of the type of the verb, i.e., transitive or intransitive; and the modifier slot is filled by adverbials and other verbal participles, or the combination of both. Out of these phrases those which have the past or the present or the negative participle as verbal head fill the modifier slot of H-MVP1 and the predicate slot at clause level constructions. The H-MVP2s which have the conditional and the concessive forms as head-slot fillers, fill clause level predicate slots. The coordinate constructions of adverbials or verbal participles always fill phrase level modifier slots (of H-MVP1).

5.2.1 WITH ADVERBIALS

All the nine categories of adverbials that are discussed in Section 5.1.1 occur as
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modifiers with all the five categories of verbal participles as heads.

Under each adverbial category only two examples (i.e., only with two types of adverbial participles as head-slot fillers) are given, but it must be noted that examples with other types of adverbial participles as head-slot fillers also can be given.

I. Intensifiers

\[ \text{a:yana} \quad \text{ba:ga:} \quad \text{tini} \quad \text{vellae:du} \]

‘he’ ‘well’ ‘having eaten’ ‘went-he’

‘He ate well and went’

\[ \text{a:me} \quad \text{bale:} \quad \text{varnistu:} \quad \text{ceptundi} \]

‘she’ ‘nicely’ ‘describing’ ‘will tell-she’

‘She tells describing nicely’

Sometimes the intensifiers \( \text{tsa:la:} \) and \( \text{bale:} \) precede \( \text{ba:ga:} \), thus both becoming a head-modifier adverb phrase. This occurs in all the above cases except in the case of the negative participle as head.

\[ \text{a:yana} \quad \text{tsa:la:} \quad \text{ba:ga:} \quad \text{tini} \quad \text{vellae:du} \]

‘He ate very nicely and went’

\[ \text{a:me} \quad \text{tsa:la:} \quad \text{ba:ga:} \quad \text{varnistu:} \quad \text{ceptundi} \]

‘She tells describing very nicely’

II. Manner Adverbs

\[ \text{mellaga:} \quad \text{nadici} \quad \text{vacca:nu} \]

‘slowly’ ‘having walked’ ‘came-I’

‘I came by walking slowly’

\[ \text{tondaraga:} \quad \text{ce:sina:} \quad \text{ayipo:le:du} \]

‘quickly’ ‘even if-done’ ‘was not over-it’

‘It was not completed even after doing faster?’

The manner adverbials in the above sentences can be iterated.

\[ \text{tondaraga:} + \quad \text{tondaraga:} = \quad \text{tondaratondaraga:} \]

\[ \text{tondaratondaraga:} \quad \text{ce:sina:} \quad \text{ayipo:le:du} \]

‘It was not completed even after doing faster and faster’

The intensifiers \( \text{tsa:la:} \) and \( \text{bale:} \) precede the manner adverbials in which case they together become head modifier adverbial phrases.
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Verb Phrase

tsa:la mellaga: nadici vacca:nu
‘I came walking very slowly’

Two or more adverbs can cooccur together becoming a coordinate adverb phrase.

a:me mellaga: nirbhayanga nodici vaccindi
‘she’ ‘slowly’ ‘fearlessly’ ‘having-walked’ ‘came-she’
‘She came walking slowly and fearlessly’

III. Qualitatives

ku:ra paltsaga: ceyyakunda: vandu
‘vegetable curry’ ‘thinly’ ‘without doing’ ‘cook (sg.)’
‘Cook the curry in such a way that it will not become diluted’

tsokka: tellaga: utikite ardha ru:payi ista:nu
‘shirt’ ‘whitely’ ‘if wash’ ‘half’ ‘rupee’ ‘will give-I’
‘I shall bive you half a rupee if you wash the shirt cleanly’

Like in II, these adverbials also can be iterated, preceded by intensifiers and coordinated with other adverbs.

ku:ralu ve:dive:diga: tecci vaddintsandi
‘curries’ ‘hotly’ ‘having brought’ ‘serve (pl.)’
‘Bring hot curries and serve’

pa:yasam tsa:la tiyyaga: ce:si teccindi
‘payasam’ ‘much’ ‘sweetly’ ‘having done’ ‘brought-she’
a:me
‘she’
‘She prepared very sweet payasam and brought’

da:yasam tiyyaga: cikkaga: ce:si
teccindi a:me
‘brought-she’ ‘she’
‘She prepared very sweet and thick payasam and brought’

IV. Temporals

The temporals may be single nouns or noun phrases.
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Verb Phrase

e.g.,

\[
\begin{align*}
\mbox{mi:ru} & \quad \mbox{re:pu} & \quad \mbox{ra:kunda}: & \quad \mbox{ela:} \\
\mbox{‘You (pl.)’} & \quad \mbox{‘tommorow’} & \quad \mbox{‘without coming’} & \quad \mbox{‘how’} \\
\mbox{‘velta:ru’} & \\
\mbox{‘will go-you (pl.)’} & \\
\mbox{‘How will you go without coming tommorow?’} & \\
\mbox{ame} \quad \mbox{sa:yantram} & \quad \mbox{vaccina:} & \quad \mbox{ne:nu} & \quad \mbox{ma:ti:danu} \\
\mbox{‘she’} & \quad \mbox{‘evening’} & \quad \mbox{‘even-if-come’} & \quad \mbox{‘I’} & \quad \mbox{‘will not talk-I’} \\
\mbox{‘I shall not talk to her even if she comes in the evening’} & \\
\end{align*}
\]

Coordination of two or more temporals is possible.

\[
\begin{align*}
\mbox{udayam} & \quad \mbox{sa:yantram} & \quad \mbox{vacci} & \quad \mbox{vellandi} \\
\mbox{‘morning’} & \quad \mbox{‘evening’} & \quad \mbox{‘having come’} & \quad \mbox{‘go (pl.)’} \\
\mbox{‘Come in the morning and in the evening and go’} & \\
\end{align*}
\]

The constituents of the coordinate temporal phrases can be made indefinite.

\[
\begin{align*}
\mbox{udayamo:} & \quad \mbox{sa:yanramo:} & \quad \mbox{vacci} \\
\mbox{‘morning (indef.)’} & \quad \mbox{‘evening (indef.)’} & \quad \mbox{‘having come’} \\
\mbox{vellandi} & \\
\mbox{‘go (pl.)’} & \quad \mbox{‘Come either in the morning or in the evening and go’} & \\
\end{align*}
\]

V. Locatives

\[
\begin{align*}
\mbox{a:yana} & \quad \mbox{kurci:lo} & \quad \mbox{ku:rtso:kunda:} & \quad \mbox{nilabadda:du} \\
\mbox{‘he’} & \quad \mbox{‘chair-in’} & \quad \mbox{‘without sitting’} & \quad \mbox{‘stood-he’} \\
\mbox{‘He is standing without sitting in the chair’} & \\
\mbox{nvvvu} & \quad \mbox{ikkadiki} & \quad \mbox{vaste:} & \quad \mbox{ne:nu} & \quad \mbox{cepta:nu} \\
\mbox{‘you (sg.)’} & \quad \mbox{‘her-to’} & \quad \mbox{‘if come’} & \quad \mbox{‘I’} & \quad \mbox{‘will tell-I’} \\
\mbox{‘I shall tell you if you come here’} & \\
\end{align*}
\]

The locatives can be coordinated after the indefinite marker -o:/-ne: is suffixed to them.

\[
\begin{align*}
\mbox{ne:nu} & \quad \mbox{sinima:tsu:si} & \quad \mbox{vaccænu} \\
\mbox{‘I’} & \quad \mbox{‘movie’} & \quad \mbox{‘having seen’} & \quad \mbox{‘came-I’} \\
\mbox{‘I saw the movie and came’} & \\
\mbox{va:du} & \quad \mbox{da:nni} & \quad \mbox{kottukontua:} & \quad \mbox{vaccædu} \\
\mbox{‘he’} & \quad \mbox{‘it-to’} & \quad \mbox{‘beating’} & \quad \mbox{‘came-he’} \\
\mbox{‘He came beating it’} & \\
\end{align*}
\]
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Verb Phrase

VII. Approximate Quantifiers

‘I’ ‘almost’ ‘having completed’ ‘sat-I’
‘I almost completed and sat’

‘you (sg.)’ ‘almost’ ‘even-eaten’ ‘benefit’ ‘no-it’
‘There is no use even if you almost eat’

VIII. Limiters

a:yana kani:sam bho:nce:yakunda: velladu
‘he’ ‘at least’ ‘without eating’ ‘will not go-he’
‘He will not go at least without eating’

nuvvu kani:sam parigettite: bassu dorukutundi
‘you (sg.)’ ‘at least’ ‘if-run’ ‘bus’ ‘will be available-it’
‘If you at least run the bus will be available’

IX. Interrogatives

a:me ela:/etla: ma:tlax:di kurtsondi?
‘she’ ‘how’ ‘having talked’ ‘sat-she’
‘How did whe talk and sat’

a:me eppudu e:dustu: vellindi
‘she’ ‘when’ ‘weeping’ ‘went-she’
‘When did she go weeping?’

These interrogative words can be made indefinite when the past, the non-past and the negative participles occur.

e.g.,

a:me ela:noa: ma:tlax:di kurtsondi
‘she’ ‘in an inexpressible manner’ ‘having talked’ ‘sat-she’
‘She somehow talked and sat’

The approximate quantifiers and limiters can precede the interrogative words.

e.g.,

a:me da:da:pu etla:/ela: ma:tlax:di kurtsondi?
‘she’ ‘approximately’ ‘how’ ‘having talked’ ‘sat-she’
‘Approximately how did she talk and sat’

a:me kani:sam etla:/ela: ma:tlax:di kurtsondi?
‘At least how did she talk and sat’
5.2.1.2. WITH PARTICIPLES

All the five categories of verbal participles, viz., past, non-past, negative, conditional and concessive forms fill the head slot of the H-MVP2, and only the past, the non-past and the negative participles fill the modifier slot. These phrases (H-MVP2) when the past, the non-past and the negative participles are in the head slot fill both the predicate slot at clause level constructions and the modifier slot at phrase level constructions (in H-MVP1).

These verbal participles fill the modifier slot of H-MVP 2 either as single units, or in iteration, or in coordination.

I. As Single Units

The past, the non-past and the negative verbal participles occur as modifiers with all the five verbal participles, viz., the past, non-past, negative, conditional and concessive forms as heads.

Here also under each category only two examples (i.e., only with two adverbial participles as head-slot fillers) are given, but it must be noted that examples with the other three adverbial participles as head-slot fillers also can be given.

(a) Past

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{ne:nu }\text{k:urtsoni }\text{tini }\text{le:ca:nu} \\
&\text{‘I’ ‘having sat’ ‘having eaten’ ‘got up-I’} \\
&\text{‘I ate sitting and got up’} \\
&\text{a:yana }\text{le:ci }\text{veltu: }\text{ceppa:du} \\
&\text{‘he’ ‘having got up’ ‘going’ ‘told-he’} \\
&\text{‘He told having got up and going’}
\end{align*}
\]

(b) Non-Past

\[
\begin{align*}
&e:du:stu: \text{ceppakunda: }\text{anni: }\text{vivarintsu} \\
&\text{‘weeping’ ‘without telling’ ‘all’ ‘detail (sg.)’} \\
&\text{‘You tell everything in detail without weeping’} \\
&\text{navvutu: }\text{ma:tla:dite: }\text{a:meku ko:pam }\text{vastundi} \\
&\text{‘laughing’ ‘if-talk’ ‘her-to’ ‘anger’ ‘will come-it’} \\
&\text{‘She will get angry if you talk with a smile’}
\end{align*}
\]

(c) Negative

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{ne:nu }\text{vangakunda: }\text{ti:sukoni }\text{k:urtsonna:nu} \\
&\text{‘I’ ‘without bending’ ‘having taken’ ‘sat-I’} \\
&\text{‘I took without bending and sat’}
\end{align*}
\]
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Verb Phrase

nuvvu ceppakunda: vaccina paravale:du
‘you (sg.)’ ‘without telling’ ‘even if-come’ ‘alright’
‘It is alright even if you come without telling’

Sometimes there are constructions in which the head verb itself becomes the modifier in the form of concessive participle, in which case certain doubt is expressed that the subject of the action ‘may do’ or ‘might have done’ the action. This occurs in both H-MVP1 and MVP2.

e.g.,

va:du vaccina: vasta:du
‘he’ ‘even-if-come’ ‘will come-he’
‘He may even come’

va:du vaccina: vacci unta:du
‘he’ ‘even-if-come’ ‘having come’ ‘will be-he’
‘He might have even come’

II. In Iteration

Only the past, the non-past and the negative participles are iterated, and they act as modifiers to all the five types of verbal participles.

e.g.,

(a) Past

ame edurutnu:si edurutsu:oi le:ci vellindi
‘she’ ‘having waited’ ‘having waited’ ‘having got up’ ‘went-she’
‘She waited for a long time and got up and went’

ma: pa:pa nadici nadici alisipo:tu undi
‘our’ ‘baby’ ‘having walked’ ‘having walked’ ‘getting tired’ ‘is-she’
‘My daughter is tired of excess of walking’

Similarly, the negative, the conditional and the concessive participles occur as heads with the past participles.

(b) Non-Past

ame tirigi tsu:stu: tirigi:tsu:stu: nadici vellindi
‘she’ ‘looking back’ ‘looking back’ ‘having walked’ ‘went-she’
‘She went by walk looking backwards again and again’
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Verb Phrase


‘he’ ‘talking’ ‘talking’ ‘in-fall’ ‘hospital-in’

c:rc:rmu

‘admitted-we’

‘We admitted him in the hospital when he fell down while talking’

Similarly, the non-past, the negative and the concessive participles also occur as heads when the non-past participle is the modifier.

(c) Negative

\[ \text{ame edurutsu:dakunda: tirigi vellindi} \]

‘she’ ‘without waiting’ ‘having returned’ ‘went-she’

‘She went back without waiting’

\[ \text{ame vellakunda: ku:rtsonna: la:bham le:du} \]

‘she’ ‘without going’ ‘even-if-sit’ ‘benefit’ ‘no-it’

‘There is no use even if she sits without going’

Similarly, the non-past, negative and conditional participles occur as heads when the negative participle is the modifier.

III. In Coordination

When the verbal participles occur in coordination and fill the modifier slot of the H-MVP2, either the past and the negative participles of the same verb are coordinated, or the same participle forms of two different verbs are coordinated. In either case the head slot is filled by all the five types of verbal participles.

(i) Coordination of Past and Negative Participles of the Same Verb

The past and the negative participles of the same verb are coordinated and these coordinate phrases act as modifiers to the head verb which can be any one of the five types of verbal participles.

e.g.,

\[ \text{ame vini vinakunda: ma:tl:a:dutu:} \]

‘she’ ‘having listened’ ‘having not listened’ ‘talking’

\[ \text{undi} \]

‘is-she’

‘She is talking without listening properly’
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Verb Phrase

nuvvu sariga: tini tinakunda
‘you (sg.)’ ‘properly’ ‘having eaten’ ‘having not eaten’
velto: ventane: a:kalautundi
‘if-go’ ‘immediately’ ‘hunger-will-be come-it’
‘You will immediately feel hungry if you go without eating properly’

Similarly the past, the negative (less frequent) and the concessive participles occur as heads when the coordinatives of the past and the non-past participles are modifiers.

The order of the coordinated participles in the above examples cannot be changed, i.e., Negative Participle + Past Participle is not possible.

(ii) Coordination of the Participles of Different Verbs

The same verbal participle either past, or non-past or negative participle of two or more different verbs are coordinated under this category. And these coordinated participle phrases fill modifier slots of H-MVP2. However, the conditional and concessive forms do not occur as modifiers. When these coordinated participle phrases fill the H-MVP2 any one of the five types of verbal participles may be in the position of the head verb.

Under each one of the following categories only two examples (i.e., only two verbal participles as head slot fillers) are given, but it must be noted that examples with other participles as head slot fillers also can be given.

(a) The Past Participles

vacci ku:rtsoni tini po:ya:du va:du
‘having come’ ‘having sat’ ‘having eaten’ ‘went-he’ ‘he’
‘Having come and sat, he ate and went away’

vacci ku:rtsoni tintu: ma:tla:dukontunna:ru va:llu
‘having come’ ‘having sat’ ‘eating’ ‘talking-they’ ‘they’
‘They came, sat, and are talking’

(b) Non-Past Participles

egurutu: du:kutu: parigettakunda: vastunna:ru
‘jumping-up’ ‘jumping down’ ‘without running’ ‘coming-they’
va:llu
‘they’
‘They are coming without running, with jumping and falling’
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Verb Phrase

‘playing’ ‘singing’ ‘if walk’ ‘tiredness’
teliyadu
‘not known-it’
‘Tiredness will not be known if you walk playing and singing’

(c) Negative Participles

ta:gakunda: tinakunda: tirigi po:ya:du
‘without drinking’ ‘without eating’ ‘having returned’ ‘went-he’
a:yana
‘he’
‘He went back without drinking and eating’
kastapadakunda: pani ce:yakunda: ku:rtsonna:
‘without working hard’ ‘work’ ‘without doing’ ‘even if sit’
a:yanaku annam dorukutundi
‘him-to’ ‘food’ ‘will be available-it’
‘He will get his food even if he sits without taking any troubles or working hard’

When this coordinated phrase of negative participles precede a negative participle instead of having a modifier and head relationship they together become a coordinate phrase of three participles.

e.g.,
pillalu a:dakunda: pa:dakunda:
‘children’ ‘without playing’ ‘without singing’
navvakunda: ela: unta:ru?
‘without laughing’ ‘how’ ‘will be-they’
‘How can the children keep quite without playing, singing and laughing’

5.2.1.3. WITH BOTH ADVERBIALS AND PARTICIPLES

The combination of adverbials and participles occur under the same conditions and in the same environment as in 5.1.3. However, the head slot is filled by a participle unlike in 5.1.3 where it is filled by a finite verb. The modifier of this type, composed of both adverbials and participles occur in the following combinations, viz., adverbial + participle, participle + adverbial and adverbial + participle + adverbial.

Here also under each category only two examples with adverbial participle as head slot fillers are given, but examples with the other three participles as head slot fillers also occur.
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Verb Phrase

(i) Adverbial + Participle

‘he’ ‘loudly’ ‘shouting’ ‘having run’ ‘went-he’
‘He ran shouting loudly’

am:me mellaga: le:ci ma:tlakunda vellindi
‘she’ ‘slowly’ ‘having got up’ ‘without talking’ ‘went-she’
‘She went having got up slowly and without talking to any body’

Sometimes there can be two or more adverbials.

tondaraga: intiki velli ceppi
‘quickly’ ‘house-to’ ‘having gone’ ‘having told’
ra:
‘come (sg.)’
‘Go home quickly, and tell and come’

Sometimes there can be two or more participles.

tsa:la: mellaga: ceppi le:ci
‘very’ ‘slowly’ ‘having told’ ‘having got up’
tirigitsu:dkunda: vellindi am:me
‘without looking back’ ‘went-she’ ‘she’
‘She told very slowly, got up and went without looking back’

Sometimes either the adverbial or the participle can be iterated.

mellaga: + mellaga: = mellamellaga:
mellamellaga: vacci ku:rtsoni ceppidi
‘slowly-slowly’ ‘having come’ ‘having sat’ ‘told-she’
‘She came very slowly, sat and told’

ba:ga: nadici nadici alisipo:yi padipo:ya:du
‘well’ ‘having walked’ ‘having walked’ ‘having tired’ ‘fell down-he’
‘Having walked too much he was tired and fell down’

(ii) Participle + Adverbial

a:yana bho:nce:si intiki veltu vacca:du
‘he’ ‘having taken meal’ ‘house-to’ ‘going’ ‘came-she’
‘He came while going home after taking his meal’

a:yana gho:nce:si intiki velte: mancidi
‘he’ ‘having taken meal’ ‘home-to’ ‘if-go’ ‘good-it’
‘It is good if he goes home after eating’
Sometimes there can be two or more adverbials.

```
ve:llu  ku:rtsoni  nida:nanga:  sustuga:
‘they’ ‘having sat’ ‘slowly’ ‘satisfactorily’
bho:nce:si  intiki  vella:ru
‘having taken meal’ ‘house-to’ ‘went-they’
‘They sat and ate slowly and satisfactorily, and went home’
```

Sometimes there can be two or more participles.

```
a:me  vacci  ku:rtsoni  mellaga:  ceppi
‘she’ ‘having come’ ‘having sat’ ‘slowly’ ‘having told’
vellindi
‘went-she’
‘She came, sat, slowly narrated and went’
```

Sometimes either the adverbial or the participle can be iterated.

```
ne:nu  ni:  ko:sm  edurutsu:si  edurutsu:si
‘I’ ‘your (sg.)’ ‘for’ ‘having waited’ ‘having waited’
mellaga:  velli  ku:rtsonna:nu
‘slowly’ ‘having gone’ ‘sat-I’
‘I waited for a long time for you, and then went slowly and sat’
tondaraga:  +  tondaraga:  =  tondaratondaraga:
ne:nu  tirigi  vacci  tondaratondaraga:  intiki
‘I’ ‘having returned’ ‘quickly-quickly’ ‘house-to’
VELLI  nidrapo:ya:nu
‘having gone’ ‘slept-I’
‘I returned, quickly went home and slept’
```

(iii) Adverbial + Participle + Adverbial

```
ne:nu  tondaraga:  vacci  intiki  velli
‘I’ ‘quickly’ ‘having come’ ‘house-to’ ‘having gone’
nidrapo:ya:nu
‘slept-I’
‘I quickly came, went home and slept’
ne:nu  tondaraga:  vacci  intiki  vellina:
‘I’ ‘quickly’ ‘having come’ ‘house-to’ ‘even-if-go’
ma:  a:vida  metstsadu
‘my’ ‘wife’ ‘appreciate-will not-she’
‘My will will not appreciate even if I come early and go home’
```
Sometimes either the adverbials or the participles can be iterated.

\[
\text{a:yana tondaraton:ra:ga: vacci tondaraton:ra:ga:}
\]

‘he’ ‘quickly-quickly’ ‘having come’ ‘quickly-quickly’

dharryanga tonakakunda java:bu ceppi baitiki

‘boldly’ ‘unshaked’ ‘reply’ ‘having-told’ ‘out-to’

\[
velli nidrapo:ya:du
\]

‘having gone’ ‘slept-he’

‘He come very quickly, went very quickly and slept’

\[
\text{a:yana o:pi:ga: edurutsu:si edurutsu:si mella:ga:}
\]

‘he’ ‘patiently’ ‘having waited’ ‘having waited’ ‘slowly’

dharryanga tonakakunda java:bu ceppi baitiki

‘boldly’ ‘unshaked’ ‘reply’ ‘having-told’ ‘out-to’

\[
\text{intiki velli nidrapo:ya:du}
\]

‘house-to’ ‘having gone’ ‘slept-he’

‘He waited patiently for a long time, then went home slowly and slept’

Two or more adverbials or participles occur in different combinations.

\[
\text{a:me mellaga: ta:pi:ga: vacci ku:rtso:ni}
\]

‘she’ ‘slowly’ ‘steadily’ ‘having come’ ‘having-sat’

dharryanga tonakakunda java:bu ceppi baitiki

‘boldly’ ‘unshaked’ ‘reply’ ‘having-told’ ‘out-to’

\[
velli
\]

‘went-she’

‘She came slowly and steadily, sat, replied boldly, and went out’

5.2.2. COORDINATE VERB PHRASE

The coordinate verb phrase in Telugu is a participle phrase having at least two participles, none of which is subordinate to the other as its constituents, and both the constituents have a coordinate relationship with each other. This type of coordinate phrases are partly discussed under 5.1.2 & 5.2.1.2 as modifier slot fillers of H-MVP1 and H-MVP2 respectively. The following discussion will deal with all the types of coordinate verb phrases found in Telugu.

As it is already said the coordinate verb phrase is a participle phrase, in the sense that it has only adverbial participle forms or infinite verbs as its constituents. There are two types of coordinate verb phrases occurring in Telugu. The first type is a multiple head phrase, and each head slot is filled by a participle of the same type but of different verbs, i.e., if the past participle fills one head slot, the other slots also are filled by the same kind of participles but of different verbs. The second type is also a multiple head phrase, but consisting of an even number of slots, and each pair of slots is filled by either a part participle and its negative, or a concessive participle and its negative. The coordinate verb phrases fill predicate slots at clause level constructions and modifier slots at phrase level constructions.

When the participle of the same verb occurs in both the slots it becomes iteration of
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the same verb, and the phrase is no longer a coordinate one since both the slots are filled by
the same form. Coordination of any one of the past, non-past and negative participles is not
possible with conditional or concessive participles since the former are tense indicative
participle and the latter are not. Coordination of conditional participles with concessive
forms is not possible since they represent different functions. Coordination of the conditional
participle of two or more different verbs is also not possible since a finite verb must occur
after each conditional verb (or clause). Coordination of past or negative participle with non-
past participle when the verb is the same is not possible since the former two indicate
completed action or no action respectively and the latter indicates an incomplete action at
one time-point the action being in progress. When the participles of different kinds and if
different verbs are put in juxtaposition, they will be in a modifier and head relationship, the
first one being the modifier and the second one being the head (See H-MVP2, 5.2.1), but
when the same participles of the same kind but of different actions are put in juxtaposition
either it can be treated as the modifier and the head relationship (H-MVP2) if the combination
of the verbs is semantically more natural (ku:rtsoni tine ‘having sat and eaten’), or it can
be treated as the coordinate relationship if the combination of the verbs is not semantically
more natural (le:ci tini ‘having got up and eaten’). In the above examples, ‘sitting and
eating’ is semantically more natural than ‘getting up and eating’. On the other hand, (le:eivelli
‘having got up and gone’) ‘getting up and going’ is semantically more natural than ‘getting
up and eating’.

Thus, the verbal participles occur in coordinate construction,
I. When the past and the concessive participles occur in juxtaposition with their negatives
respectively; and
II. When the same kind of participle of two or more verbs occur in juxtaposition provided
their occurrence is semantically not more natural.

I. Coordination of Past and Negative Participles of Some Verb

Under this group only the past and the concessive participles are coordinated
respectively with their negatives viz., the negative (past) participle and the negative concessive
participle.

Formula

+ H: Positive Part. v₁ + H: Negative Part. v₁

(i) Past and (Past) Negative

nuvvu tsadivi tsadavakunda pari:ksaku
‘you (sg.)’ ‘having studied’ ‘having not studied’ ‘examination-to’
velto: fa:l:u kavatam kha:ya:m
‘go-if’ ‘fail’ ‘becoming’ ‘definite’
‘You will definitely fail if you go to the examination without studying properly’


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>telisi</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘having known’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oppuko:vatstu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘It may be accepted if the mistake is committed unknowingly’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### (ii) Concessive and Negative Concessive

- **mi:ru** | **vaccina:** | ra:kapo:yin | ne:nu | velta:nu |
- ‘you(pl.)’ | ‘even-come’ | ‘even not come’ | ‘I’ | ‘will go-I’ |
- ‘Whether you come or not I will go’

### II. Coordination of the Same Participle of Different Verbs

Only the past, non-past, negative and the concessive participles occur in this group. The conditional participle does not occur since a conditional verb must be followed by a finite verb. The coordination of the above mentioned participles is possible provided that the verb filling the first head slot is not semantically in a modificational relationship with the verb filling the second head slot, otherwise the combination became a H-MVP2.

The coordinate phrase of this type may be formulated as follows:

\[ + \text{H}: \text{Part}_i \text{v}_x + \text{H}: \text{Part}_i \text{v}_y \]

where \( i \) represents any one of the four participles viz., past, non-past, negative and concessive; and \( x \) and \( y \) represents two different verbs i.e., \( x \) not equal to \( y \).

### Manifestations

#### (i) Past Participle

- **ne:nu** | **velli** | **tsu:si** | **vacca:nu** |
  - ‘I’ | ‘having come’ | ‘having seen’ | ‘came-I’ |
  - ‘I went and saw, and came’

Pairs of verbs like **a:di pa:di** ‘having danced and sung’, **aldei solasi** ‘having tired’, **ta:gi tandanafla:di** ‘having drunk and danced’ also occur in coordination. These combinations are perfectly coordinate since the actions can cooccur simultaneously.

- e.g.,

- **pillalu** | **a:di** | **pa:di** | **nidrapo:ya:ru**
  - ‘children’ | ‘having played’ | ‘having sung’ | ‘slept-they’ |
  - ‘The children played and sang, and slept’

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Verbal idioms also can be treated as coordinate phrases.

e.g.,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{memu} & \quad \text{tsacci} & \quad \text{cedi} & \quad \text{tirigi} \\
\text{‘we’} & \quad \text{‘having died’} & \quad \text{‘having got spoiled’} & \quad \text{‘having returned’} \\
\text{vacca:mu} & \\
\text{‘came-we’} & \\
\text{‘We returned after overcoming many difficulties’}
\end{align*}
\]

(ii) Non-Past Participle

These combinations are possible when the actions of the coordinated verbs are simultaneously in progress, or occur frequently.

e.g.,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{va:llu} & \quad \text{ma:} & \quad \text{intiki} & \quad \text{taratsuga:} & \quad \text{va:stu} \\
\text{‘they’} & \quad \text{‘our’} & \quad \text{‘house-to’} & \quad \text{‘often’} & \quad \text{‘coming’} \\
\text{po:tu:} & \quad \text{unta:ru} \\
\text{‘going’} & \quad \text{‘will be they’} \\
\text{‘They will be coming to our house frequently’}
\end{align*}
\]

(iii) Negative Participle

e.g.,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{manusulu} & \quad \text{navvakunda:} & \quad \text{ma:} & \quad \text{tla:} & \quad \text{dakunda:} & \quad \text{ela:} \\
\text{‘human beings’} & \quad \text{‘without laughing’} & \quad \text{‘without talking’} & \quad \text{‘how’} & \quad \text{undagalaru?} \\
\text{‘can-be-they’} & \\
\text{‘How can the human beings keep quite without laughing and talking?’}
\end{align*}
\]

(iv) Concessive Participle

e.g.,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{mi:ru} & \quad \text{vadlintle:} & \quad \text{bho:} & \quad \text{nec:} & \quad \text{sina:} & \quad \text{ba:} & \quad \text{saje:sina:} \\
\text{‘you (pl.)’} & \quad \text{‘their-house-in’} & \quad \text{‘even-eat’} & \quad \text{‘even-stay’} \\
\text{nake:mi:} & \quad \text{ba:} & \quad \text{dha} & \quad \text{le:} & \quad \text{du} \\
\text{‘me-to-any’} & \quad \text{‘worry’} & \quad \text{‘no-it’} \\
\text{‘I do not have to bother even if you eat or stay in their house.’} \\
\text{nuvvu} & \quad \text{vellaka} & \quad \text{po:yina:} & \quad \text{tinakapo:yina:} & \quad \text{va:llu} \\
\text{‘you (sg.)’} & \quad \text{‘even-do not go’} & \quad \text{‘even do not eat’} & \quad \text{‘they’} \\
\text{emi:} & \quad \text{anuko:ru} \\
\text{‘any thing’} & \quad \text{‘will not think-they’} \\
\text{‘They do not feel anything even if you do not go or do not eat’}
\end{align*}
\]
Sometimes to increase the effect the interrogative quantifiers may be put before both the constituents.

\[ \text{ne:\text{nu} en\text{ta} cepp\text{ina}: en\text{ta} mottukunna:} \]
\[ \text{‘I’ ‘how much’ ‘even told’ ‘how much’ ‘even shouted’} \]
\[ \text{va:du ma: ma:ta vinale:du} \]
\[ \text{‘he’ ‘my’ ‘word’ ‘did not listen’} \]
\[ \text{‘He did not listen to my word though I repeatedly told and shouted.’} \]

In all the above cases, i.e., past, non-past, negative and concessive forms adverbials precede these phrases as modifiers. When the adverbials act as modifiers they modify the entire phrase as a unit, but not the constituents of the phrase individually.

e.g.,

**Past Participle**

\[ \text{ne:\text{nu} ninna velli tsu:si vacca:nu} \]
\[ \text{‘I’ ‘yesterday’ ‘having gone’ ‘having seen’ ‘came-I’} \]
\[ \text{‘Yesterday I went, saw and came’} \]

**Non-Past Participle**

\[ \text{vallu ma: intiki ba:ga: vastu: po:tu} \]
\[ \text{‘they’ ‘our’ ‘house-to’ ‘well’ ‘coming’ ‘going’} \]
\[ \text{untaru} \]
\[ \text{‘will be-they’} \]
\[ \text{‘They will be frequently coming and going to our house’} \]

**Negative Participle**

\[ \text{manusulu eppudu: navvakun\text{da}:} \]
\[ \text{‘human beings’ ‘any time’ ‘without laughing’} \]
\[ \text{ma:ta:da:akun\text{da}: ela: unta:ru?} \]
\[ \text{‘without talking’ ‘how’ ‘will be-they’} \]
\[ \text{‘How can the human beings keep quite always without laughing or talking?’} \]

**Concessive Participle**

\[ \text{mi\text{nu} va:llin\text{tlo}: sa:svatanga: bhonce:sina:} \]
\[ \text{‘you (pl.)’ ‘their-house-in’ ‘permanently’ ‘even-eat’} \]
\[ \text{basace:sina nak\text{e}:mi ba:dha le:du} \]
\[ \text{‘even-stay’ ‘me-to-say’ ‘worry’ ‘no-it’} \]
\[ \text{‘I do not have to bother even if you permanently eat or stay in their house’} \]
5.3. THE HEAD PHRASE

The head phrase is the head part of the head modifier verb phrase 1 (H-MVP1) and it is a close-knit phrase since it consists of three interrelated systems, namely, the verbal base system; the mood aspect and tense system; and the gender, number and person system. The head phrase fills the head slot of the H-MVP 1.

The head phrase or the close-knit phrase can conveniently be divided into two parts, viz., the head consisting of the verbal base, and the non-head consisting of the mood-aspect-tense and the person-number-gender markers.

Thus, the head phrase or the close-knit phrase consists of three interrelated systems, viz., the verbal base system, the mood-aspect-tense system and the person-number-gender system.

5.3.1. THE BASE

The base indicates the lexical meaning of the verb phrase. It can be either simple or compound of verbs or verbs and nouns, which in turn can be manifested by intransitives, transitives, ditransitives, receptors, statives, causatives, etc. When a compounding is made, the resultant verbal idea can be either single, in which case one verb is modified by the other, or double in which case the meanings of both the verbs prevail.

I. Simple Verbal Bases

The simple verbal bases include the entire stock of roots composed of single morphemes, and derived stems that are obtained from nouns, adjectives, etc., and composed of at least two morphemes.

(A) ROOTS: Root by its simplest form occurs as a verbal base. To this root only the model, aspect and tense markers are added. This base root can contain intransitives, transitives, ditransitives, receptors, statives and opinionatives.

(i) Intransitives

po:-, vell-, nadus(c)-, arus(c), etc.

Formula

+Lex:  ive

Read, an intransitive verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by an intransitive verb stem.

e.g.,

ne:nu  veltunna:nu
‘I’ ‘going (I)’
‘I am going’
(ii) Transitives

\[ \text{tin-}, \text{ta:gu-}, \text{pa:du-}, \text{ce:s-}, \text{etc.} \]

*Formula*

\[ + \text{Lex: tvs} \]

Read, a transitive verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by a transitive verb stem.

*Example*

\[ \text{a:me} \text{ tintunnadi} \]

‘she’ ‘eating-she’

‘She is eating’

\[ \text{va:llu} \text{ pa:du tunna:ru} \]

‘they’ ‘singing-they’

‘They are singing’

(iii) Ditransitives

Ditransitives include those verbs which involve an indirect object also in addition to the direct object*-is(c)-. ras-, tsu:pu-,* etc.

*Formula*

\[ + \text{Lex: dvs} \]

Read, a ditransitive verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by a ditransitive verb stem.

*Example*

\[ \text{ne:nu a:me kuchupustakam icca:nu} \]

‘I’ ‘her-to’ ‘book’ ‘gave-I’

‘I gave her a book’

\[ \text{a:me na:ku uttaram ra:sindi} \]

‘he’ ‘me-to’ ‘letter’ ‘wrote-she’

‘She wrote a letter to me’

(iv) Receptors

Receptors include the verbs that express a receptive sense - doruku- ‘be available’, telusu- ‘know’, etc.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

Formula

+ Lex: rvs

Read, a receptor verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by a receptor verb stem.

e.g.,

\[\text{naku telugu pustakam dorikindi}\]
\[\text{‘me-to’ ‘Telugu’ ‘book’ ‘is available-it’}\]
\[\text{‘I got the Telugu book’}\]

\[\text{a: visayam naku telugu}\]
\[\text{‘that’ ‘matter’ ‘me-to’ ‘know’}\]
\[\text{‘I know that matter’}\]

(v) Statives

Statives include the verbs that involve stability of action. Only one verb un-/undu- ‘be’ occurs in this class.

Formula

+ Lex: svs

Read, a stative verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by the stative verb stem un-/undu-.

e.g.,

\[\text{ame lo:pala undi}\]
\[\text{‘she’ ‘inside’ ‘is-she’}\]
\[\text{‘She is inside’}\]

\[\text{ikkada evvaru: undaku:dadu}\]
\[\text{‘here’ ‘any body’ ‘be-should not’}\]
\[\text{‘Nobody should be here’}\]

(vi) Opinionatives

Opinionatives include the verbs that indicate judgement or opinion - metstsu- ‘like’, oppu- ‘like’, etc.

Formula

+Lex: ovs.

Read, an opinionative verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by an opinionative verb stem.
Verb Phrase

A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

```
a:me nannu meccindi
'she' 'me-to' 'liked-she'
'She liked me'
```

```
a:me ninnu oppale:du
'she' 'you (sg.)-to' 'liked-no'
'She did not like you'
```

(B) DERIVED STEMS: Only derived roots by suffixation are included under this category. This includes the stems derived from nouns and verbs by means of verbalizing suffixes.

(i) Verbal Bases Derived From Nouns

-intsu/-itstsu is the suffix which is added to the nouns to derive verbal stems. In this process the final -m(u), -na and -da suffixes are deleted in the case of nouns ending in -m(u), -na and -da respectively.

Formula

\[ + \text{ Lex: } n + \text{ Suf.: } -\text{intsu/-itstsu} \]

Read, a verbal base derived from nouns consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by a noun and an obligatory suffix slot filled by a verbalizer.

e.g.,

```
pu:ja + intsu = pu:jintsu 'worship'
```

```
n:nu pu:jinca:nu
'I' 'worshiped-I'
'I worshiped'
```

```
praya:nam + intsu = praya:nintsu 'travel'
```

```
n:nu inta du:ram praya:nintsale:nu
'I' 'this much' 'distance' 'travel cannot-I'
'I cannot travel this much distance.'
```

Similarly, examples can be given for nouns ending in -na and -da.

(ii) Verbal Bases Derived From Verbs

Derived stems from verbs are mostly transitives and causatives, and the most frequent suffixes employed are -intsu, -pintsu and -pu. When these causatives and transitives are derived the verb stems take many alternatives which are not discussed here.

(a) Transitives

Transitives are derived from intransitive verb stems by adding a variety of suffixes
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Like -intsu, -tsu, -pu, -tstsu, -mpu, -npu/-nupu, etc. Most of the transitive bases are derived by suffixing -intsu, -tsu and -pu. The numerical frequency of the other forms is very less.

Formula

```
+ Lex: ivs. + Suf.: -intsu
```

Read, the transitive verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by an intransitive verb stem and an obligatory suffix slot filled by a variety of suffixes of which -intsu is the representative.

Manifestations

1. With -intsu
   - Verb Stem
   - Transitive
   - cirugu- ‘be torn’
   - munugu- ‘dive’
   - digu- ‘decend’

2. With -tsu
   - Verb Stem
   - Transitive
   - ka:lu- ‘burn’
   - adagu- ‘subside’

3. With -pu
   - Verb Stem
   - Transitive
   - le:tsu- ‘get up’
   - tsu:tsu- ‘see’
   - nadutsu- ‘walk’

4. With -ccu
   - Verb Stem
   - Transitive
   - po:- ‘go’

5. With -mpu
   - Verb Stem
   - Transitive
   - tsatstsu- ‘die’

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Verb Phrase

6. With -npu/-nupu

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Transitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tsonpu</td>
<td>‘insert’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsonupu</td>
<td>‘insert’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Causatives

Causatives are derived from both intransitive and transitive verb stems by adding the suffixes -intsu, -pintsu and -ipintsu. Causative verb bases derived by other devices are negligible.

Formula

+ Lex: ivs./tvs. + Suffix: -ints(u)/-pints(u)/-ipints(u)

Read, a causative verb base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by either an intransitive or a transitive verb stem and an obligatory suffix slot filled by the suffix -ints(u) or -pints(u) or -ipints(u).

Manifestations

1. With -ints(u)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Causative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>navvu</td>
<td>‘cause to laugh’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>navvintsu</td>
<td>‘cause to laugh’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adugu</td>
<td>‘cause to ask’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adigintsu</td>
<td>‘cause to ask’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ko:yintsu</td>
<td>‘cause to cut’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. With -pints(u)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Causative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>du:rptsu</td>
<td>‘cause to insert’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ippintsu</td>
<td>‘cause to give’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ce:rpinsu</td>
<td>‘cause to reach’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. With -ipints(u)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Causative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>podipintsu</td>
<td>‘cause to prick or stab’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aripintsu</td>
<td>‘cause to shout’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>konipintsu</td>
<td>‘cause to buy’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Though the stems kanipints(u)- ‘appear’ and vinipints(u)- ‘be heard’ are structurally
causatives of type (3) above, semantically they are ‘intransitive-passives’.

e.g.,

\[
\text{a:ya}na \ na:ku \ \text{kanipinca:du} \\
\text{‘he’ ‘me-to’ ‘appeared-he’} \\
\text{‘He appeared to me’}
\]

\[
\text{a: pa:ta \ na:ku \ vinipinci}ndi \ (\text{Intransitive-Passive}) \\
\text{‘that’ ‘song’ ‘me-to’ ‘was heard-it’} \\
\text{‘I heard that song’}
\]

In modern Telugu the stem vinipints(u)- becomes both ‘intransitive-passive’ and
also ‘transitive’ depending on the subject of the sentence. When the subject is non-human it becomes ‘intransitive-passive’ and when it is human it is ‘transitive’.

The second use seems to be non-native to Telugu and probably it may be the influence of Hindi during recent times. For exam compare the sentence below with sentence above.

e.g.,

\[
\text{mi:ru \ na:ku \ oka \ pa:ta \ vinipintsand}i \ (\text{Transitive}) \\
\text{‘you (pl.)’ ‘me-to’ ‘one’ ‘song’ ‘cuse to listen (pl.)’} \\
\text{‘You make me listen to a song (You sing a song)’}
\]

Another verb of this series is anipints(u)- which is both ‘intransitive-passive’ and ‘causative’. Unlike vinipints(u)-, the causative use of this verb is native to Telugu. In ‘intransitive-passive’ sense, it appears more as a subjectless verb taking always non-masculine singular suffix -di.

e.g.,

\[
\text{na:ku \ i \ ammayi \ mi: \ ammayi \ ka:du} \\
\text{‘me-to’ ‘this’ ‘girl’ ‘your (pl.)’ ‘girl’ ‘not’} \\
anipincindi \ \\
\text{‘caused to feel-it’} \\
\text{‘I felt that this girl is not your daughter’}
\]

\[
\text{mi:ru \ na: ce:ta \ i \ ma:ta \ anipinca:ru} \\
\text{‘you (pl.)’ ‘my-hand’ ‘this’ ‘word’ ‘caused to say (pl.)’} \\
\text{‘You made me to say this’}
\]

An important point to be noted here is that the transitive verbal roots kan-, vin-, and an- after taking the causative suffix -ipints(u)-, instead of becoming causative stems, unlike other transitives become ‘intransitive - passives’.

One more verb of this series is tinipints(u)-. This behaves as a causative like anipints(u)-, and as a transitive like vinipints(u)-.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase
e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Behaving as</th>
<th>Transitive</th>
<th>Causative</th>
<th>Intransitive Passive</th>
<th>Subjectless Intransitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kanipints(u)-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vinipints(u)-</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anipints(u)-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tinipints(u)-</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>konipints(u)-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These five verbs including konipints(u)- ‘cause to buy’ and their behaviour can be put in the following matrix.

TABLE 5.1

II. COMPOUND VERBAL BASES

Compounds of two or more verbs belonging either to intransitive or transitive or both the categories are found in Telugu.

(A) INTRANSITIVES

I. DOUBLE INTRANSITIVE COMPOUNDS

Very few compounds are formed by the intransitive verbs when compared to the transitive verbs. The verb roots po:-, vas(c)-, padu-, sa:gu-, marugu-, au-, tsotssu- and kalugu- take the auxiliary position in intransitive compounds, but po:- is the most frequently occurring auxiliary. The compounds formed with these verbs have either ‘singular verbal idea’ - one verb (auxiliary) modifying the other, or ‘double verbal idea’ - having the meaning of both the verbs.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

(i) Singular Verbal Idea Compounds

Only *po:-* ‘go’, *vas(c)-* ‘come’ and *padu-* ‘fall’ occur as auxiliaries in this category which are added to an intransitive verb stem.

Formula

+ Lex: iVpp. + Aux: *po:-/*vas(c)-/*padu-

Read, an intransitive compound verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by the past participle of an intransitive verb stem, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the verb stem *po:-*, or *vas(c)-* or *padu-*. 

Manifestations

(a) With *po:-* ‘go’

Intransitive compounds with *po:-* ‘go’ are the most frequently available compounds. These compounds with *po:-* as auxiliary can be called ‘completives’ since *po:-* gives the idea of completeness to the main verb. When *po:-* is suffixed to the main verb as auxiliary the main verb is put in its past participle form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vell- ‘go’</td>
<td>vellipo:- ‘go away’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ka:lu- ‘burn’</td>
<td>ka:li:po:- ‘burn down’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>padu- ‘fall’</td>
<td>padipo:- ‘fall down’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) With *vas(c)-* ‘come’

*vas(c)-* ‘come’ occurs as auxiliary only with *po:-* and *vell-* (main verbs). These combinations are used when somebody is departing or taking leave (to avoid inauspiciousness).

When these are used by the person from whom leave is being taken, they will be in the imperative form, and when used by the departing person they occur only in non-past tense. When the auxiliary is in any other form other than imperative, the combination of the main verb and the auxiliary becomes a head modifier verb phrase [See 5.1.2(i)].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>po:- ‘go’</td>
<td>po:yira:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vell- ‘go’</td>
<td>vellira:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

(c) With padu- ‘fall’

Compound verbal bases with padu- ‘fall’ as auxiliary indicate suddenness of the action of the main verbs. As in the case of (a) and (b) here also the main verb becomes past participle.

*egiripadu- ‘experience fright’,
‘become angry’

*olikipadu- ‘fall out (of a vessel)’
\[\text{a vessel (milk, water) etc.}\]

*po:yipadu- ‘going and reaching like a storm’

egiripadu-, olikipadu-, and po:yipadu- also indicate respectively the meanings of ‘jump up and fall’, ‘jump out and fall’, and ‘go and fall’. As singular verbal idea compounds all these are idiomatic expressions.

(ii) Double Verbal Idea Compounds

Unlike the singular verbal idea compounds the double verbal idea compounds will express a collective meaning of both the main and the auxiliary verbs. Under this category of compounds occur po:-, sa:gu-, marugu-, tsotstsu-, kalugu- and d(r)obbu-(ordengu).

*Formula*

\[+\text{Lex: ivi } + \text{Aux: po:-/sa:gu-/marugu-/tsotstsu-/kalugu-/d(r) obbu-}\]

Read, an intransitive compound verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by the infinitive form of an intransitive verb stem, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the verb stem po:- or sa:gu- or marugu- or tsotstsu-, or kalugu- or d(r) obbu-.

A notable point here is that unlike in the singular verbal idea compounds, in the double verbal idea compounds the main verb infinitive when the auxiliary is suffixed and the meanings of both the verbs find prominence in the compound.

(a) With po:- ‘go’

The intransitive compounds with po:- ‘go’ as auxiliary do not indicate ‘completive’ action as in singular verbal idea compounds, but indicate the ‘near futurity’ of the action of the main verb. In the process of compounding the initial p of po:- is voiced.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

eg.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a:du-</td>
<td>a:dubo:- ‘go to play’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa:du-</td>
<td>pa:dubo:- ‘go to sing’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matla:du-</td>
<td>matla:dubo:- ‘go to talk’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Therefore, certain verb stems like eguru-, etc., have three different forms to which the auxiliary po:- is added, viz., the past participle, the infinitive and the root.

e.g.,

eguru- ‘fly, jump’ - egurubo:- ‘go to jump’

egiripo:- ‘fly away’

egarabo:- ‘about to jump’

(b) With sa:gu- ‘continue, start’

Intransitive compounds with sa:gu- ‘continue’ as auxiliary can be called continuatives since sa:gu- indicates continuation of the action of the main verb.

e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>po:-</td>
<td>po:sa:gu- ‘start or continue to go’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vell-</td>
<td>vellasa:gu- ‘start or continue to go’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parigettu-</td>
<td>parigettasa:gu- ‘start or continue to go’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) With marugu- ‘get accustomed’

Intransitive compounds with marugu- ‘habituate’, ‘get accustomed’ as auxiliary is very less frequent, and very few verbs are found combined with it. Suffixation of marugu- to the main verb indicates the ‘habituation’ of the action of the main verb by the subject.

e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vell-</td>
<td>vellamarugu- ‘accustomed to go’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(d) With tsotstsu- ‘penetrate’

Intransitive verbal compounds with tsotstsu- ‘penetrate’ gives more or less the same meaning as those with sa:gu- as auxiliary. However, compounds with tsotstsu- as auxiliary are not frequent in colloquial Telugu. In the process of compounding the initial ‘ts’ is voiced.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

e.g.,

Verb Stem | Verb Compound
---|---
vas(c)- ‘come’ | ra:dzotstsu- ‘begin to come’
po:- ‘go’ | po:dzotstsu- ‘begin to go’

(d) With kalugu- ‘he able to’

This indicates the ability of the subject to perform the action of the main verb.

e.g.,

Verb Stem | Verb Compound
---|---
vell- ‘go’ | vellagalugu- ‘able to go’
vas(c)- ‘come’ | ra:galugu- ‘able to come’

(f) With d(r)obbu- ‘push’

Compounds with d(r)obbu- indicate ‘to push’ or ‘to beat’ to perform the action of the main verb. This is added only to those whose actions change the physical shape or condition of the object that receives the action. This auxiliary is partially taboo in Telugu.

This indicates the ability of the subject to perform the action of the main verb.

Verb Stem | Verb Compound
---|---
padu- ‘fall’ | padad(r)obbu- ‘to pust to fall’
virugu- ‘break’ | viragad(r)obbu- ‘to beat to break’

(g) With dengu- ‘do sexual intercourse’

Compounds with dengu- indicate the same meaning as those with d(r)obbu-, but this word is of more taboo and its usage is more sharp and vulgar. Its usage is objectionable and is strictly prohibited in the presence of women, and in public, and if at all used, used with the same set of verbs used with d(r)obbu-.

Verb Stem | Verb Compound
---|---
padu- ‘fall’ | padadengu- ‘to beat to fall’
virugu- ‘break’ | viragadendu- ‘to beat to break’
tsas(c)- ‘die’ | tsa:vad(r)obbu- ‘to beat to death’
II. TRIPLE INTRANSITIVE COMPOUNDS

There are very few triple compounds. The main verbs are the double intransitive compounds. The auxiliary slot is filled by po:-, kalugu-, sa:gu- and marugu-.

Formula

+Lex: Com, vsi + Aux: po:-/kalugu-/sa:gu-/marugu-

Read, a triple intransitive compound base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by double compound verb stems and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by po:- or kalugu- or sa:gu- or marugu-.

It should be noted that these triple compounds are only singular verbal idea compounds. Triple compounds of double verbal idea type do not occur in Telugu.

Manifestations

(a) With po:- ‘go’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vellipo:-</td>
<td>‘go away’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>egiripo:-</td>
<td>‘fly off’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vellipo:bo:-</td>
<td>‘about to go away’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>egiripo:bo:-</td>
<td>‘about to fly off’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) With kalugu- ‘be able to’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vellipo:-</td>
<td>vellipo:galugu- ‘be able to go away’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>egiripo:-</td>
<td>egiripo:bo:- ‘be able to fly off’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) With sa:gu- ‘continue’, ‘start’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vellipo:-</td>
<td>vellipo:sa:gu- ‘start or continue to go away’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>egiripo:-</td>
<td>egiripo:sa:gu- ‘start or continue to fly off’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(d) With marugu- ‘get habituated’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vellipo:-</td>
<td>vellipo:marugu- ‘habituated to go away’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(B) TRANSITIVES

Both double transitive compounds - compounds of two transitive verbs, and triple transitive compounds - compounds with three transitive verbs - exist in Telugu. There are
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

A number of verbs which take the auxiliary position in these compounds but the number of triple transitive compounds are very less when compared to double transitive compounds.

I. DOUBLE TRANSITIVE COMPOUNDS

As in the case of intransitive compounds, in transitive compounds also there are singular verbal idea compounds and double verbal idea compounds.

(i) Singular Verbal Idea Compounds (or Single Action Compounds)

In the singular verbal idea compounds the main verb occurs in the form of a past participle. The verb roots (v)e:s- ‘throw’, pettu- ‘put’ and pattu- ‘catch’ occur as auxiliaries in forming these compounds.

Formula

+Lex: tvpp + Aux: (v) e:s-/pettu-/pattu-

Read, a transitive verbal base consists of an obligatory head slot filled by the past participle of a transitive verb stem, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the verb root (v) e:s- or pettu- or pattu-.

Manifestations

(a) With (v)e:s- ‘throw’

(v)e:s- ‘throw’ as auxiliary indicates that the action of the main verb is performed ‘very easily’.

e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>tin(iv)e:s- ‘eat up’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kottu-</td>
<td>kott(iv)e:s- ‘beat up’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adugu-</td>
<td>adig(iv)e:s- ‘to ask completely’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) With pettu- ‘put’

pettu- ‘put’, ‘keep’ as an auxiliary indicates that the action of the main verb is ‘already performed and it is intact’, i.e., the action of the main verb precedes the action of the auxiliary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adumu-</td>
<td>adimipettu- ‘press down’, ‘cancel’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tokku-</td>
<td>tokkipettu- ‘withhold’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>konu-</td>
<td>konipettu- ‘buy and give’, ‘buy and keep’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(c) With pattu ‘catch’

*pattu- ‘catch’ as an auxiliary also gives the same meaning as *pettu-. Its occurrence is very less and is found mostly with *tokku- ‘press down with foot’ as main verb.

e.g.,

Verb Stem | Verb Compound
---|---
tokku- | tokkipattu- ‘press down with foot firmly’

(ii) Double Verbal Idea Compounds (or Joint Action Compounds)

In double verbal idea compounds the main verb mostly occurs in the form of an infinitive, but only with *kon- as auxiliary it occurs in the form of root.

1. INFINITIVES

The auxiliaries which are suffixed to the infinitives of the main verbs are *pettu- ‘put, keep’, *ce:s- ‘do’, *tsu:s- ‘see, look’, *ko:ru- ‘desire, wish’, *talatsu- ‘think’, *is(c)- ‘give’, *padu- ‘fall’, *ne:rtsu- ‘learn’ and *tsu:pu- ‘show’.

*Formula

+ Lex: tv | + Aux: pettu-/ce:s-/tsu:s-/ko:ru-/talatsu-/is(c)/-padu/-ne:rtsu/-tsu:pu-

Read, a transitive verb base consists of an obligatory head slot filled by the infinitive form of a transitive verb and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by one of the following transitive verbs pettu-, ce:s-, tsu:s-, ko:ru-, tales(c), padu-, ne:rtsu and tsu:pu.-

Manifestations

(a) With pettu- ‘put, keep’

Transitive compounds with pettu- as an auxiliary indicate the sense of ‘making’ to perform the action of main verb. pettu- occurs with very few transitive verbs, and occurs more frequently with intransitive verbs. In the process of compounding the initial ‘p’ of pettu- is voiced.

e.g.,

Verb Stem | Verb Infinitive | Verb Compound
---|---|---
tin- | tina- | tinabettu- ‘make to eat’
tu:rtso- | tu:rtso- | tu:rtso:betu- ‘make to sit’

(b) With ce:s- ‘do’

Transitive compounds with ce:s- ‘do’ also give the same meaning a pettu- i.e., the meaning of making to perform the action of main verb, but its occurrence is more frequent
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

than pettu-. Here also the initial c of ce:s:- is voiced in compounding.

e.g., Verb Stem  Verb Infinitive  Verb Compound
tin- ‘eat’  tina-  tina je:s- ‘make to eat’
kon- ‘buy’  knoa-  kona je:s- ‘make to buy’
kottints- ‘make to beat by to beat’
tin- ‘eat’  tina-  tina je:s- ‘make to eat’
kon- ‘buy’  knoa-  kona je:s- ‘make to buy’
kottints- ‘make to beat by to beat’

(c) With tsu:s- ‘see’, ‘look’
Compounds with tsu:s- ‘see, look’ as an auxiliary indicate the meaning of ‘trying’ to perform the action of the main verb. The initial ts is voiced in the process of compounding.

e.g., Verb Stem  Verb Infinitive  Verb Compound
kottu- ‘beat’  kotta-  kottadzu:s- ‘try to beat’
tin- ‘eat’  tina-  tinadzu:s- ‘try to see’
adugu- ‘ask’  adaga  adagadzu:s- ‘try to ask’

(d) With ko:ru- ‘desire’, ‘wish’
Compounds with ko:ru- ‘desire’, ‘with’ as an auxiliary indicate that the subject is desirous to perform the action of the main verb. Here also the initial k is voiced in the process of compounding.

e.g., Verb Stem  Verb Infinitive  Verb Compound
kottu- ‘beat’  kotta-  kottadzu:s- ‘try to beat’
tin- ‘eat’  tina-  tinadzu:s- ‘try to see’
adugu- ‘ask’  adaga  adagadzu:s- ‘try to ask’

(c) With talats(c)- ‘think’
Compounds with talatsu- ‘think’ give more or less the same meaning as those with ko:ru-, but unlike in the case of ko:ru- these compounds always occur with the reflexive suffix kon-, thereby the meaning of the main verb reflecting only the performer or the subject of the action. Here also the initial consonant t is voiced.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>tina-</td>
<td>tinadalatsukon-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘decide to eat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adugu-</td>
<td>adaga-</td>
<td>adagadalatsukon-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘decide to ask’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:du-</td>
<td>a:da-</td>
<td>a:dadalatsukon-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘decide to play’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(f) *With is(c) - ‘give’*

Compounds with *is(c)*- ‘give’ as an auxiliary indicate that the subject permits the action of the main verb to be performed by somebody else.

NOTE: The verbal infinitives in Telugu end in *n*. But when the verbal forms that are suffixed to the infinitives start with consonants the final *n* of the infinitives is dropped [See examples of (a) to (e) above]; on the other hand, when the verbs with initial vowel [*is(c)*, *au*, *und*-, etc.] are suffixed the final *n* of the infinitives is retained.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>tinan-</td>
<td>tinanis(c)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘allow to eat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa:du-</td>
<td>pa:dan-</td>
<td>pa:danis(c)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘allow to sing’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ra:s-</td>
<td>ra:yan-</td>
<td>ra:yanis(c)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘allow to write’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(g) *With pa:du- ‘fall’*

Compounds with *pa:du*- ‘fall’ as an auxiliary indicate passive meanings. Here also the initial consonant ‘*p*’ is voiced in the process of compounding.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kottu-</td>
<td>kotta-</td>
<td>kottabadu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘be beaten’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ra:s-</td>
<td>ra:ya-</td>
<td>ra:yabadu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘be written’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kan-</td>
<td>kana-</td>
<td>kanabadu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘appear’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(h) *With ne:rts(u) - ‘learn’*

Compounds with *ne:rts(u)*- ‘learn’ as an auxiliary indicate the ‘proficiency’ of the subject of the verb in performing the action of the main verb.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bratuku-</td>
<td>brataka-</td>
<td>bratakane:rts(u)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tirigu-</td>
<td>tiraga-</td>
<td>tiragane:rts(u)-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘learn to live’

‘learn to wander’

(i) With tsu:pu- ‘show’

Compounds with tsu:pu- ‘show’ as an auxiliary indicate the inclination of the subject to perform the action of the main verb. Here also the initial consonant is voiced.

e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ammu ‘sell’</td>
<td>amma-</td>
<td>ammadzu:pu- ‘incline to sell’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. ROOTS

There is only one verb kon- ‘buy’, ‘take’ which acts as an auxiliary and suffixed to the verbal roots. By suffixing kon- to any transitive verb root, a reflexive compound is derived. The reflexive compound indicates that the action of the main verb to which kon- is suffixed is implied or reflected on the performer of the action.

Manifestations

e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ti:s(u)-</td>
<td>ti:sukon-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsaduvu-</td>
<td>tsaduvukon-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:du-</td>
<td>a:dukon-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

kon- is rarely suffixed to intransitive verb stems, but however, there exist a few cases (This is disculled under C: Mixed Compounds).

e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>navvu-</td>
<td>navvukon-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>padu-</td>
<td>padukon-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘laugh oneself’

‘lie down, sleep’
II. TRIPLE TRANSITIVE COMPOUNDS

As in the case of intransitives, there are very few triple transitive compounds. The verbal base slot is filled by double transitive compounds, and the auxiliary slot is filled by tsu:s-, ko:ru-, talatsu(c)-, kon-, r:s(c)- and sa:gu-.

Formula

+Lex: com. vs + Aux: tsu:s-/ko:ru-/talats(c)/kon-/is(c)/sa:gu-

Read, a triple transitive verbal compound consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by double transitive verbal compounds, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the transitive verb roots tsu:s-, ko:ru-, talats(c)-, kon-, is(c) or sa:gu-.

Unlike triple intransitive verbal compounds these are double verbal idea compounds, and hence, the auxiliary is added to the infinitive form of the verbal base, except when kon- occurs as auxiliary in which case it is added to the root form.

Manifestations

(a) **With tsu:s- ‘see’**

e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin(iv)e:s- ‘eat up’</td>
<td>tin(iv)eyya-</td>
<td>tin(iv)eyyadzu:s-</td>
<td>‘try to eat up’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) **With ko:ru- ‘desire’, ‘wish’**

e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin(iv)e:s- ‘eat up’</td>
<td>tin(iv)eyya-</td>
<td>tin(iv)eyyago:ru-</td>
<td>desire to eat up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) **With talats(c) - ‘think’**

e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ta:g(iv)e:s- ‘drink up’</td>
<td>ta:g(iv)e:ya-</td>
<td>ta:g(iv)e:yadals(c)-</td>
<td>decide to drink up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

(d) With kon- 'take'

e.g.,
Verb Stem      Verb Compound

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tinadalas(c) 'decide to eat'</td>
<td>tinadalatsukon- ‘decide oneself to eat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ra:s(iv):s-  ‘write out’</td>
<td>ra:s(iv):sukon- ‘write out oneself’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(e) With is(c)- 'give'

e.g.,
Verb Stem      Verb Infinitive      Verb Compound

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ra:s(iv):s- ‘write out’</td>
<td>ra:s(iv):eyya-</td>
<td>ra:s(iv):eyyanis(c)- ‘permit to write out’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(C) MIXED COMPOUNDS

Mixed compounds are those which have both intransitives and transitives as their constituents. There is no particular order of occurrence of these verbs, and both the categories, i.e., intransitives and transitives, can occur both as main verb and also as auxiliary in the formation of compounds.

In mixed compounds both the double verbal compounds, and the triple verbal compounds exist in Telugu.

I. DOUBLE VERBAL COMPOUNDS

There are a number of verbs both intransitives and transitives that occur as auxiliaries in the formation of double verbal compounds, but most of these compounds are of double verbal idea type.

(i) Singular Verbal Idea Compounds (or Single Action Compounds)

As in the case of transitive compounds, here also only (v)e:s- occurs as an auxiliary with intransitive verbs. (v)e:s- 'throw' indicates that the action of the main verb is performed easily. In singular verbal idea compounds the main verb is always in the past participle form. The reason for this is that ultimately the action of the compound verb is the same as that of the main verb, whereas in the double verbal idea compounds the actions of both the constituents are involved.

Formula

\[ + \text{Lex: } iv_{\text{pp}} + \text{Aux: } (v) \text{ e:s-} \]

Read, a mixed compound verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by the past participle of an intransitive verb stem, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

transitive verb stem \((v)e:s\)-

Manifestation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vas(e) ‘come’</td>
<td>vacci</td>
<td>vacc(iv)e:s- ‘come off’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>navvu ‘laugh’</td>
<td>navvi</td>
<td>navv(iv)e:s- ‘laugh out’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parigettu ‘run’</td>
<td>parigetti</td>
<td>‘arigett(iv)e:s- ‘run up’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ii) Double Verbal Idea Compounds (or Joint Action Compounds)

As in the case of transitive compounds in most of the double verbal idea compounds the main verb is in the infinitive form. Only in the case of the reflexive suffix the main verb remains as a root.

As it is already mentioned there is no restriction that a particular type of verb must occur in a particular slot. Therefore, the lexical slot may be filled by either intransitives or transitives in which case the auxiliary slot is filled respectively by either transitives or intransitives. Thus, the formulae are as follows:

When the main verb is in the infinitive form,

\[ + \text{Lex: } iv_1/tv_1 + \text{Aux: } tvs/ivs. \]

Read, a verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by the infinitive form of either an intransitive verb or a transitive verb, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled respectively by either a transitive or an intransitive verb stem.

When the main verb is in the root form,

\[ + \text{Lex: } ivs. + \text{Aux: } kon- \]

Read, a verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by an intransitive verb stem, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the transitive verb stem \(kon\)-.

1. INFINITIVES

When the infinitive of the main verb fills the lexical slot the following verbs fill the lexical slot the following verbs fill the auxiliary slot. The following are a few of a number of verbs that are used as auxiliaries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Auxiliaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>((v)e:s)- ‘throw’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ce:s- ‘do’,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sa:gu- ‘start continue’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kottu-</td>
<td>‘beat’</td>
<td>kalugu- ‘happen’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kattu-</td>
<td>‘tie’</td>
<td>tsallu- ‘spray’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t(r)o:lu-</td>
<td>‘drive’</td>
<td>po:- ‘go’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t(r)o:lu-</td>
<td>‘habituate’</td>
<td>padu- ‘fall’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When these verb stems are suffixed as auxiliaries to the main verbs, the initial voiceless stop consonants and affricates are voiced in the process of compounding.

Manifestations

(a) **With (v) e:s- ‘throw’**

Compounds with (v)e:s- ‘throw’ as auxiliary indicate ‘to put’ or ‘to throw’ the object so that it undergoes the action of the main verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pa:ru-</td>
<td>‘run’</td>
<td>pa:ra-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>endu-</td>
<td>‘dry’</td>
<td>enda-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>padu-</td>
<td>‘fall’</td>
<td>pada-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) **With po:s- ‘pour’**

Compounds with po:s- ‘pour’ as auxiliary indicate to ‘pour’ the object to perform the action of the main verb. It is evident from the auxiliary that the object of the verb would always be a liquid, or a collection of small solid particles or pieces like grain, flour, dust, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vadiya-</td>
<td>‘filter’</td>
<td>vadiya:bo:s-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa:ru-</td>
<td>‘run’</td>
<td>pa:ra-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enda-</td>
<td></td>
<td>enda:bo:s-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) **With t(r) o:s- ‘push’**

Compounds with t(r)o:s- ‘push’ indicate the performance of the action of the main verb by pushing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>padad(r)o:s-</td>
<td>‘push to fall’</td>
<td>padad(r)o:s-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>digad(r)o:s-</td>
<td>‘push down’</td>
<td>digad(r)o:s-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>po:d(r)o:s-</td>
<td>‘make discount’,</td>
<td>po:d(r)o:s-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘reduce’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Compounds with *ce:s-* ‘do’ as auxiliary are not much frequent. The addition of *ce:s-* indicates ‘to make to perform the action of the main verb’. Initial *c* of *ce:s-* is voiced in the processes of compounding.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>navvu-</td>
<td>‘laugh’</td>
<td>navvaje:s-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ku:rtson-</td>
<td>‘sit’</td>
<td>ku:rtsonaje:s-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With *tsu:s-* ‘see, look’

Compounds with *tsu:s-* ‘see’ as auxiliary indicate the subject’s ‘effort to perform the action of the main verb’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vas(c)-</td>
<td>‘come’</td>
<td>ra:dzu:s-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>po:-</td>
<td>‘go’</td>
<td>po:dzu:s-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With *is(c)*- ‘give’

Compounds with *is(c)*- ‘give’ as auxiliary indicate ‘to permit the object to perform the action of the main verb’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>po:-</td>
<td>‘go’</td>
<td>ponis(c)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vell-</td>
<td>‘go’</td>
<td>vellanis(c)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>navvu-</td>
<td>‘laugh’</td>
<td>navvanis(c)-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

See (B) (ii). 1.(f), for the details regarding infinitive forms.

With *sa:gu*- ‘continue’

Compounds with *sa:gu*- ‘continue’ as auxiliary indicate the ‘starting’ or the ‘continuation’ of the main action of the verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tsaduvu-</td>
<td>‘read’</td>
<td>tsadavasa:gu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>‘eat’</td>
<td>tina sa:gu-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With *ko:ru*- ‘desire, wish’

Compounds with *ko:ru*- ‘desire, wish’ as auxiliary indicate ‘the desire of the
subject to perform the action of the main verb.

Verb Stem  | Verb Infinitive  | Verb Compound
---|---|---
vell- ‘go’  | vella-  | vellago:ru- ‘wish to go’
ekku- ‘climb’  | ekka-  | ekka go:ru- ‘wish to climb’

(i) With talas(c)- ‘think’

Compounds with talas(c)- ‘think’ as auxiliary indicate the ‘thinking of the subject to perform the action of the main verb’. talas(c)- usually occurs with the reflexive suffix kon-.

Verb Stem  | Verb Infinitive  | Verb Compound
---|---|---
vell- ‘go’  | vella-  | velladalatsukon- ‘decide to go’
vas(c)- ‘come’  | ra:-  | ra:dalatsukon- ‘decide to come’

(j) With kottu- ‘beat’

Compounds with kottu- ‘beat’ as auxiliary indicate that the subject beats or makes the object to perform the action of the main verb.

Verb Stem  | Verb Infinitive  | Verb Compound
---|---|---
padu- ‘fall’  | pada-  | padagottu- ‘beat to fall’
vell- ‘go’  | vella-  | vellagottu- ‘make to go’
po:- ‘go’  | po:-  | po:gottu- ‘make to go loose’

(k) With pettu- ‘put, keep’

Compounds with pettu- as auxiliary indicate ‘putting or keeping of the object by the subject so that the object undergoes the action of the main verb’.

Verb Stem  | Verb Infinitive  | Verb Compound
---|---|---
endu- ‘dry’  | enda-  | endabettu- ‘put to dry’
a:ru- ‘dry up’  | a:ra-  | a:rabettu- ‘put to dry’
digu- ‘climb down’  | diga-  | digabettu- ‘drop at’

(l) With kalugu- ‘happen’

Compounds with kalugu- ‘happen’ as auxiliary indicate the ‘ability of the subject to perform the action of the main verb’.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>‘eat’</td>
<td>tinagalugu- ‘able to eat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsaduvu-</td>
<td>‘read’</td>
<td>tsadavagalugu- ‘able to read’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ra:s-</td>
<td>‘write’</td>
<td>ra:yagalugu- ‘able to write’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(m) With kattu- ‘tie’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ekku-</td>
<td>‘climb up’</td>
<td>egagattu- ‘tie upwards’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>digu-</td>
<td>‘climb down’</td>
<td>digagattu- ‘tie downwards’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vangu-</td>
<td>‘bend’</td>
<td>vangagattu- ‘tie to bend’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(n) With tsallu- ‘spray, sprinkle’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>virus-</td>
<td>‘blossom’</td>
<td>viradzallu ‘spray to spread’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vira-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(o) With cimmu- ‘spout’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aguru-</td>
<td>‘fly, jump’</td>
<td>egarajimmu- ‘spout to jump’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>digu-</td>
<td>‘climb down’</td>
<td>digajimmu- ‘spout downwards’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(p) With t(r)o:lu- ‘drive’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pa:ru-</td>
<td>‘run’</td>
<td>pa:rad(r)o:lu- ‘drive to run away’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ekku-</td>
<td>‘climb up’</td>
<td>egad(r)o:lu- ‘drive upwards’, ‘encourage to quarrel’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(q) With po:- ‘go’

Compounds with po:- as auxiliary indicate that ‘the action of the main verb is about to start’.

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Verb Stem | Verb Infinitive | Verb Compound
---|---|---
tin- | ‘eat’ | tinabo- | ‘go to eat’
tsu:s- | ‘see’ | tsu:da- | ‘go to see’

\( r \) With \( k(r)akku- \) ‘vomit’

Compounds with \( k(r)akku- \) ‘vomit’ as auxiliary indicates ‘vomiting of the object so that the object undergoes the action of the main verb’. There is only one verb \( vedalu- \) that takes the position of the main verb.

Verb Stem | Verb Infinitive | Verb Compound
---|---|---
vadalu- | ‘come or go out’ | vedala- | vedalag(r)akku- | ‘vomit out’,
vella- | ‘speak out’.

\( s \) With \( marugu- \) ‘habituate’

Compounds with \( marugu- \) as auxiliary indicate ‘the subject’s habit to perform the action of the main verb’.

Verb Stem | Verb Infinitive | Verb Compound
---|---|---
tin(u)- | ‘eat’ | tina- | tinamarugu- | ‘habituate to eat’
ta:gu- | ‘drink’ | ta:ga- | ta:gamarugu- | ‘habituate to drink’

\( t \) With \( padu- \) ‘fall’

Compounds with \( padu- \) as auxiliary gives passive meaning to the main verb.

Verb Stem | Verb Infinitive | Verb Compound
---|---|---
tin(u)- | ‘eat’ | tina- | tinabadu- | ‘be eaten’
vin(u)- | ‘hear’ | vina- | vinapadu- | ‘be heard’

Besides the above mentioned auxiliary verbs there are a number of transitive and intransitive verbs which act as auxiliaries with certain other verbs. But the frequency of these verbs is very less and whenever they are used, they are used with specific verbs to express specific meanings.

Some of these less frequent auxiliaries are \( viduts(u)- \) ‘leave, stab’, \( t(r)a:gu- \) ‘drink’, \( tuduts(u)- \) ‘wipe’, \( poduts(u)- \) ‘prick’, \( ra:s- \) ‘write’, \( dunnu- \) ‘plough’, \( ti:s- \) ‘take’ \( tsotsts(u)- \) ‘penetrate’, etc.
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Verb Stem  Verb Infinitive  Verb Compound
digu- 'climb down'  diga-  digavidus(c)- 'drop at'
digat(r)a:gu- 'drink to go down'
digaduduts(u)- 'wipe downwards'
digaboduts(u)- 'prick to go down'
digara:s- 'write downwards'
digadunnu- 'plough towards down'
digadi:s- 'take downwards'

po:- 'go'  po:-  po:dzosttsu- 'start to go'

In the mixed compounds discussed so far, an important point to be noted is, that in those which have a transitive verb as an auxiliary the action of the auxiliary verb is performed by the subject of the sentence whereas the object undergoes the action of the main verb, i.e., the actions of the main verb and the auxiliary verb are performed by two different actors. On the other hand, when the auxiliary is an intransitive, the compound action is performed by the same actor, i.e., the subject of the sentence.

e.g.,

(1) a:me ni:llu pa:ra bo:stunnadi

'she' 'water' 'pouring-away-she'
'She is pouring away the water'

(2) a:me ni:llu ta:gabo:turnjadi

'she' 'water' 'going-to drink-she'
'She is about to drink water'

In (1) a:me performs the action of po:s- 'pour' and ni:llu undergoes the action of pa:ru- 'flow'. Thus, 'she pours the water in such a way that it flows'. But in (2) there
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is no such distinction.

2. ROOT

Only when kon- ‘take’ occurs as reflexive suffix, the main verb of the compound is in its root form; and the occurrence of this type of compounds is very less in Telugu.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>navvu-</td>
<td>navvukon- ‘laugh oneself’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parigettu-</td>
<td>parigettukon- ‘run oneself’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. TRIPLE VERBAL COMPOUNDS

In triple verbal compounds of mixed verbs, there is only one auxiliary (v)e:s- ‘throw’. This is suffixed to a double compound of mixed verbs, and the derived compound becomes a singular verbal idea compound. All the other triple verbal compounds of mixed verbs with other verb stems as auxiliaries are of the double verbal idea type.

(i) Singular Verbal Idea Compounds

(v) e:s- ‘throw’ is the only auxiliary that is suffixed to the double verbal compounds.

Formula

+ Lex: Mixd. Com. vs. + Aux: (v) e:s-

Read, a verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by a mixed compound verb stem, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the verb root (v) e:s- ‘throw’. (v)e:s- indicates the meaning of ‘completeness’.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>padagottu-</td>
<td>‘beat to fall’</td>
<td>padagottes- ‘falling down’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(make to fall)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:rabettu-</td>
<td>‘put to dry’</td>
<td>a:rabettes- ‘keep out to dry’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When a double compound stem with (v)e:s- as auxiliary is used as the lexical slot filler or a triple compound verb with again (v)e:s- as auxiliary, the triple compound formed in such a way is used only as an imperative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vacce:s-</td>
<td>‘come off’</td>
<td>vacce:seyyi ‘come off’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tine:s-</td>
<td>‘eat up’</td>
<td>tine:seyyi ‘eat up’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(ii) Double Verbal Idea Compounds

In double verbal idea compounds the main verb is a compound of mixed verbs expressing singular verbal idea. The main verb as the lexical slot filler occurs in three different forms, viz., as infinitive, as root and as imperative. There are about eleven auxiliary verbs that are used in the formation of these compounds.

The auxiliary verbs are as follows:

With Infinitives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aux: po:- 'go'</th>
<th>verb: sa:gu- 'continue'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ko:ru- 'desire, wish'</td>
<td>talats(u)- 'think, decide'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ce:s- 'do'</td>
<td>tsu:s- 'see, look'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kalugu- 'happen'</td>
<td>is(c)- 'give'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>marugu- 'habituate'</td>
<td>padu- 'fall'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With Roots

| kon- 'take, buy' |

With Imperatives

| Aux: po:- 'go' |

1. INFINITIVES

Formula

\[ + \text{Lex: Mixd. Com. vsi} + \text{Aux: po:-} \]

Read, a verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by the infinitive of a mixed verbal compound and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by a class of verbs of which po:- is the representative.

Manifestations

(a) With po:- ‘go’

Compounds with po:- indicate that the subject tries to perform the action of the main verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tines- 'eat up'</td>
<td>tineyya-</td>
<td>tinneyyabo:- 'try to eat up'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>padad(r)o:s- 'push down'</td>
<td>padad(r)o:ya-</td>
<td>padad(r)o:yabo: 'try to push down'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verbs like ti:sukellipo:- and pattukellipo:- ‘take and go away’, and pilutsukellipi:- ‘take along with and go away’ appear to be triple compounds. But they
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are head-modifier verb phrases, and tisuka- (<ti:sukoni ‘having taken’), pattuka- (<pattukoni ‘having picked up’) and pilutsuka- (<pilutsukoni ‘having taken alongwith’) are past participle forms modifying the head verb (v) ellipo:- ‘go away’.

(b) With sa:gu- ‘continue’

Compounds with sa:gu- ‘continue’ indicate the continuation of the action of the main verb by the subject.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tine:s-</td>
<td>‘eat up’</td>
<td>tineyya-</td>
<td>tinneyasa:gu- ‘continue to eat up’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>endabettu-</td>
<td>‘dry up’</td>
<td>endabetta-</td>
<td>endabbattasa:gu- ‘continue to dry up’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) With ko:ru- ‘desire, wish’

Triple compounds with ko:ru- ‘desire, wish’ as auxiliary indicate the desire of the subject to perform the action of the main verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ra:yanis(c)-</td>
<td>‘permit to write’</td>
<td>ra:yaniyya-</td>
<td>ra:yaniyyago:ru- ‘wish to permit to write’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vellipo:-</td>
<td>‘go away’</td>
<td>vellipo:-</td>
<td>vellipo:go:ru- ‘wish to go away’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(d) With talas(c)- ‘think’

Triple compounds with talas(c)- ‘think’ as auxiliary indicate the subject’s ‘thinking to perform the action of the main verb’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tine:s-</td>
<td>‘eat up’</td>
<td>tineyya-</td>
<td>tineyyadalas(c)- ‘think to eat up’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa:ripo:-</td>
<td>‘run away’</td>
<td>pa:ripo:-</td>
<td>pa:ripo:dalas(c)- ‘think to run away’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(e) With ce:s- ‘do’

Triple compounds with ce:s- ‘do’ as auxiliary indicate that ‘the subject makes the object to perform the action of the main verb’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>va:dipe:</td>
<td>‘fade away’</td>
<td>va:dipo:-</td>
<td>va:dipo:je:s- ‘make to fade away’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vellipe:-</td>
<td>‘go away’</td>
<td>vellipo:-</td>
<td>vellipo:je:s- ‘make to go away’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

(6) With *tsuːs*- ‘see, look’

Triple compounds with *tsuːs*- ‘see, look’ as auxiliary indicate that the subject tries to perform the action of the main verb.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vellipo:-</td>
<td>‘go away’</td>
<td>vellipo:-</td>
<td>vellipo:dzuːs- ‘try to go away’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tineːs-</td>
<td>‘eat up’</td>
<td>tineːya-</td>
<td>tineːyadzuːs- ‘try to eat up’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(7) With *kalugu*- ‘happen’, ‘be able to’

Triple compound with *kalugu-* ‘happen, be able to’ as auxiliary indicate the ‘capability of the subject to perform the action of the main verb’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tineːs-</td>
<td>‘eat up’</td>
<td>tineːya-</td>
<td>tineːyagalugu- ‘able to eat up’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vellipo:-</td>
<td>‘go away’</td>
<td>vellipo:-</td>
<td>vellipo:galugu- ‘able to go away’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(8) With *is(c)*- ‘give’

Compounds with *is(c)*- ‘give’ as auxiliary indicate ‘the permission of the subject to the object to perform the action of the main verb’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vaːdipo:-</td>
<td>‘fade away’</td>
<td>vaːdipoːn-</td>
<td>vaːdipoːnis(c)- ‘allow to fade away’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vellagottu-</td>
<td>‘drive away’</td>
<td>vellagottan-</td>
<td>vellagottanis(c)- ‘allow to drive away’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(9) With *marugu*- ‘habituate’

Compounds with *marugu*- ‘habituate’ indicate that ‘the subject is habituated to perform the action of the main verb’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin(iv)eːs-</td>
<td>‘eat up’</td>
<td>tin(iv)eːya-</td>
<td>tin(iv)eːyamarugu- ‘habituate to eat up’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vacc(iv)eːs-</td>
<td>‘come off’</td>
<td>vacc(iv)eːya-</td>
<td>vacc(iv)eːyamarugu- ‘habituate to come off’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(10) With *padu*- ‘fall’

Compounds with *padu*- ‘fall’ as auxiliary indicate ‘passive’ meaning.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound Verbal Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tsamp(iv)e:s-</td>
<td>‘kill off’</td>
<td>tsamp(iv)e:ya-badu- ‘be killed off’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>viragagottu-</td>
<td>‘break off’</td>
<td>viragatottabadu- ‘be broken off’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. ROOTS

As in the case of intransitive and transitive compounds, only the reflexive suffix `kon-` occurs with the root form of the main verb. Compounds with `kon-` as auxiliary express that ‘the action of the main verb is for the self benefit of the door’.

Formula

\[ + \text{Lex: Mixd. Com. Vs}_r, + \text{Aux: kon-} \]

Read, a verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by a mixed compound verb stem plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the reflexive verb root `kon-`.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound Verbal Stem</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tinadalats(u)-</td>
<td>‘think to eat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>po:gottu-</td>
<td>‘loose’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. IMPERATIVES

The auxiliary verb suffixed to the imperative form of the main verb is `po:- ‘go’. Even after the suffixation of the auxiliary the triple compound derived in this way will also be in the imperative form like the main verb of the compound. These compounds in their imperative form indicate the ordering or directing of the object by the subject to precede to perform the action of the main verb.

Formula

\[ + \text{Lex: Mixd. Com. Vs}_{\text{imp}}, + \text{Aux: po:-} \]

Read, a verbal base consists of an obligatory lexical slot filled by the imperative form of a mixed compound verb stem, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the verb root `po:-`.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound Verbal Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a:dukon-</td>
<td>‘play oneself’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vacc(iv)e:s-</td>
<td>‘come off’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:duko:</td>
<td>a:duko:bo:-</td>
<td>‘(you) play yourself’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vacc(iv)e:yyi</td>
<td>vacceyyibo:-</td>
<td>‘(you) come off’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As verbs are combined to form compounds, nouns are also combined with verbs, and these nominal compounds represent a singular verbal idea. There are a number of verbs in Telugu that are added to various nouns to derive singular verbal meaning some of which are discussed below. Out of these verbs the most widely and commonly occurring verb in the formation of nominal compounds in \textit{ce:s-} ‘do’.

Nominal compound verbal bases consisting of up to six constituents exist in Telugu.

NOTE: With verbs so far, only double and triple compounds are discussed under (A), (B) and (C). But an important point to be noted is that from the nominal compound verbal bases of five and six constituents, if the noun constituent is deleted, we can also have mixed verbal compounds of four and five constituents respectively (Because of lack of space these details are not discussed here).

I. DOUBLE COMPOUNDS

Double compounds are derived by adding a verb to an inanimate noun that becomes the verbal object.

\textit{Formula}

\begin{align*}
\text{+ VO: inan. n.} \quad \text{+ Lex: ce:s-}
\end{align*}

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal object slot filled by an inanimate noun, plus an obligatory lexical slot filled by a class of verbs of which \textit{ce:s-} ‘do’ is the representative.

An important point to be noted here is that the noun in each compound functions as the object of the verb. The verbs occurring in these compounds though mostly are transitives may sometimes be intransitives. Even though the verb is transitive, the resultant compound may be transitive or intransitive.

Manifestations

\textit{(a) With ce:s- ‘do’}

\begin{tabular}{lll}
Inanimate Noun & Nominal Compound & Meaning \\
pani & ‘work (n)’ & panice:s- & ‘work (v)’ \\
khu:ni: & ‘murder (n)’ & khu:ni:ce:s- & ‘murder (v)’ \\
nidra & ‘sleep’ & nidra je:s- & ‘to go and sleep at some other place for a specified period to avoid bad happenings’. \\
\end{tabular}
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

(b) With (v)e:s- ‘throw’

Inanimate Noun | Nominal Compound
--- | ---
muggu ‘decorative design’ | mugg(uv)e:s- ‘decorate with designs’
tukam ‘weight’ | tu:kam(v)e:s- ‘to weigh’
tsukka ‘a drop’ | tsukk(v)e:s- ‘to drink alcoholic liquids’

(c) With padu- ‘fall’

Inanimate Noun | Nominal Compound
--- | ---
ci:kati ‘darkness’ | ci:katipadu- ‘fall dark’
dsabbu ‘sickness’ | dzabbupadu- ‘fall sick’
srama ‘labour’ | sramapadu- ‘work hard’

(d) With kalugu- ‘happen’

Inanimate Noun | Nominal Compound
--- | ---
adrstam ‘luck’ | adrstamkalugu- ‘possess luck’
manci ‘goodness’ | mancikalugu- ‘happen good’

(e) With a:du- ‘play’

In compounds a:du- is used in the sense of ‘do’.

Inanimate Noun | Nominal Compound
--- | ---
sna:nam ‘bath’ | sna:nama:du- ‘take bath’
ni:llu ‘water’ | ni:lla:du- ‘give birth’
debbalu ‘blows’ | debbala:du- ‘quarrel(v)’

(f) With is(c) - ‘give’

Inanimate Noun | Nominal Compound
--- | ---
appu ‘loan’ | appis(c)- ‘lend’
java:bu ‘reply’ | java:bis(c)- ‘reply (v)’

(g) With pettu- ‘put, keep’

Inanimate Noun | Nominal Compound
--- | ---
appu ‘loan’ | appupettu- ‘lend’
ni:llu ‘water (n)’ | ni:llupettu- ‘water (v)’
ka:fi: ‘coffee’ | kafi:pettu- ‘prepare coffee’
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

(\(h\)) With mo:s-  ‘carry’

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound
munda  ‘widow’  mundamo:s-  ‘become widow’, ‘loose everything’

(i) With au-  ‘become’

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound
payanam  ‘journey’  payanamau-  ‘get ready for travel’
nayam  ‘cure’  nayamau-  ‘be cured’

(j) With ra:s-  ‘write’

ra:s- is used only with the noun poga  ‘smoke’ to indicate the way in which smoke goes up straight from the extinguished firewood.

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound
poga  ‘smoke’  pogara:s-  ‘going up of smoke from an extinguished firewood’

(k) With kattu-  ‘tie’

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound
ni:llu  ‘water’  ni:llugattu-  ‘water the field’

(l) With tsu:s-  ‘see’, ‘look’

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound
antu  ‘end’  antutsu:s-  ‘see the end’, ‘finish (v)’

(m) With to:mu-  ‘brush’

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound
pallu  ‘teeth’  palluto:mu-  ‘brush the teeth’

(n) With kottu-  ‘beat’

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound
ga:li  ‘wind, air’  ga:ligottu-  ‘fill air’, ‘flatter’
buddi  ‘small bottle’  buddigottu-  ‘to drink alcoholic liquids’
mandu  ‘medicine’  mandugottu-  ‘consume alcoholic drinks’
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

(o) With ekku- ‘climb up’

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound

kaipu ‘intoxication’  kaipeddu- ‘get intoxicated’
picci ‘madness’  piccekku- ‘get mad’

(p) With pattu- ‘catch’

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound

picci ‘madness’  piccipattu- ‘get mad’
deyyam ‘spirit’  deyyampattu- ‘be possessed by a spirit’

(q) With tirugu- ‘move’, ‘wander’

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound

kallu ‘eyes’  kallutirugu- ‘feel giddiness’
tala ‘head’  talatirugu- ‘feel giddiness’

(r) With duvvu- ‘comb’

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound

tala ‘head’  taladuvvu- ‘comb the hair’
ka:l ‘leg’  ka:laduvvu- ‘invite for combat’

(s) With cedu- ‘get spoiled’

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound

mati ‘wisdom’  maticedu- ‘to get mad’

(t) With calints(c)- ‘shake’

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound

mati ‘wisdom’  maticalints(c)- ‘become mad’

(u) With po:s- ‘pour’

It gives the meaning of ‘make’ in compounds.

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound

kucce ‘frills’  kuccebo:s- ‘make frills’
na:ru ‘seedlings’  na:rubo:s- ‘sow the seeds’
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

(v) With tsu:pu- 'show'

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound
a:sa  'desire'  a:sadzu:pu- 'create desire, promise to give something'

(w) With ceppu- 'tell'

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound
tsaduvu  'education'  tsaduvuceppu- 'teach'
badi  'school'  badiceppu- 'teach'

(x) With t(r)o:s- 'push'

Inanimate Noun  Nominal Compound
cetta  'garbage'  cettat(r)o:s- 'to sweep'
ceeddo:s-

The example given in (x) is used only in certain parts of Cuddapah district of Rayalaseema.

An important thing to be noted is that all the 24 auxiliaries can be converted into transitive-causative verbs by adding suitable suffixes, and used with the same inanimate nouns to derive nominal compounds. Because of lack of space these verbs are not discussed here in detail. However, the verbs after the conversion would be as ce:yints(c)- 'get the work done by others', (v)e:yints(c)- 'make one throw', padaje:s- 'make one fall', kaligints(c)- 'make happen', a:dints(c)- 'make one play', ippints(c)- 'make one give', pettints(c)- 'make one put or keep', mo:yints(c)- 'make one carry', ka:nits(u)- and avanits(u)- 'make one tie', tsu:pints(u)- 'show', to:mints(u) 'make one brush', kottints(u)- 'make one beat', ekkints(u)- 'make one climb', pattintsc(u)- 'make one catch', tippu- or tirigints(u)- 'make one move', duvvints(u)- 'make one comb', ceirts(u)-, cerupu-, cedupu, cedagottu- 'make one get spoiled', calimpaje:s- 'make one shake', po:yints(u)- 'make one pour', tsu:pints(u)- 'show', ceppints(u)- 'make one tell' and t(r)o:yints(u)- 'make one push'.

II. TRIPLE COMPOUNDS

Triple compounds consist of a double verbal compound plus an auxiliary. These compounds are formed exactly as double compounds except that the verbal object slot is replaced by the verbal base slot filled by a double compound (discussed in I), and the lexical slot is replaced by the auxiliary slot filled by an auxiliary verb.

The double nominal compound verb that fills the verbal base slot occurs either as a
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

past participle, or as an infinitive, or as a root. As in the previous cases, when the base slot filler is in the past participle form the compound expresses a singular verbal idea. On the other hand, when it is in the root or in infinitive form the compound expresses a double verbal idea.

There are not many types of triple compounds like the double compounds. Some of the more common triple compounds are discussed below.

**Formula**

\[ + \text{Vb. Base: Double Com. Vb.} + \text{Aux:} \text{(v)} e:s- \]

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by a double compound verb and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by a class of auxiliary verbs of which \( (v)e:s- \) is representative.

**Manifestations**

(a) Singular Verbal Idea Compounds

The base occurs always in the form of a past participle.

**Formula**

\[ + \text{Vb. Base: Double Com. Vb.} + \text{Aux:} \text{(v)} e:s-/po:- \]

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by a past participle of a double compound verb, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by \( (v)e:s- \) or \( po:- \).

(1) **With \( (v)e:s- \) ‘throw’**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vantace:s-</td>
<td>vantace:si</td>
<td>vantage:s(iv) e:s-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu:kam(v) e:s-</td>
<td>tu:kam(v)e:si</td>
<td>tu:kam(v)e:s(ic)e:s-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) **With \( po:- \) ‘go’**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kasta(m)padu-</td>
<td>kasta(m)padi</td>
<td>kasta(m)padipo:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sramapadu-</td>
<td>sramapadi</td>
<td>sramapadipo:-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘finish off cooking’

‘finish off weighing’

‘undergo troubles’

‘work hard’
(b) Double Verbal Idea Compounds

The verbal base occurs both as infinitive as well as root.

(1) INFINITIVES

When the verbal base is in infinitive form po:-, sa:gu-, ko:ru-, talas(c)-, kalugu-, tsu:s-, etc., occur as auxiliaries.

Formula

\[ + \text{ Vb. Base: Double Com. Vbi.} + \ Aux: \ po:- \]

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive of a double compound verb, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by a class of verbs of which po:- is the representative.

(1) With po:- ‘go’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tu:kam(v)e:s-</td>
<td>‘to weigh’</td>
<td>tu:kame:ya:- ‘about to start weighing’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>palluto:mu-</td>
<td>‘brush the teeth’</td>
<td>palluto:ma:- ‘about to brush the teeth’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) With sa:gu- ‘continue’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>panice:s-</td>
<td>‘work(v)’</td>
<td>paniceyya-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu:kam(v)e:s-</td>
<td>‘weigh’</td>
<td>tu:kam(v)e:ya:- ‘continue to weigh’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(3) With ko:ru- ‘desire, wish’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>panice:s-</td>
<td>‘to work’</td>
<td>paniceyya-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pellice:s-</td>
<td>‘to marry off’</td>
<td>pelliceyya-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>pelliceyyago:ru- ‘wish to marry off’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

(4) With talas(c)- ‘think’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>panice:s-</td>
<td>panice:ya-</td>
<td>panice:yadalas(c)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu:kam(v)e:s-</td>
<td>tu:kame:ya-</td>
<td>tu:kam(v)e:yadalas(c)-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(5) With kalugu- ‘happen’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>panice:s-</td>
<td>panice:ya-</td>
<td>panice:yagalugu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pellice:s-</td>
<td>pellice:ya-</td>
<td>pellice:yagalugu-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(6) With tsu:s- ‘see, look’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pellice:s-</td>
<td>pellice:ya-</td>
<td>pellice:yadzu:s-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tu:kam(v)e:s-</td>
<td>tu:kam(v)e:ya-</td>
<td>tu:kam(v)e:yadzu:s-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) ROOTS

Only the reflexive verb kon- ‘take’ occurs as auxiliary and after suffixing kon- the entire compound gives a reflexive meaning.

Formula

\[ + \text{ Vb. Base: Double. Com. Vb,} \quad + \text{ Aux: kon-} \]

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by a double verbal compound stem, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the reflexive verb kon-.

Manifestation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Base</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>panice:s-</td>
<td>‘work(v)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pellice:s</td>
<td>‘marry oneself’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

III. QUADRUPLE COMPOUNDS

The number and frequency of the quadruple compounds are less when compared to the double and the triple compounds, but they do occur frequently in the modern spoken Telugu. These compounds are also formed in the same manner as the triple compounds are formed, i.e., by suffixing an auxiliary to a triple compound discussed in the previous section.

The auxiliaries that derive the quadruple compounds from the triple compounds are again (v)e:s-, sa:gu-, telas(c)-, ko:ru-, po:-, kalugu-, tsu:s-, kon-, etc.

Formula

+ Vb. Base: Triple Com. Vb. + Aux: (v) e:s-

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by a triple compound verb plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by a class of auxiliary verbs of which (v)e:s- is the representative.

Manifestations

In quadruple compounds the base form occurs both as infinitive as well as root.

(1) INFINITIVES

The auxiliaries that occur with infinitives are (v)e:s-, sa:gu-, talas(c)-, ko:ru-, po:-, galugu-, tsu:s-, etc.

Formula

+ Vb. Base: Triple. Com. Vb., + Aux: (v) e:s-

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive of a triple compound verb, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by a class of auxiliaries of which (v)e:s- is the representatives.

(1) With (v) e:s- ‘throw’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Quadruple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>panice:sipa:ru-</td>
<td>panice:sipa:ra-</td>
<td>panice:sipa:r(ay) e:s-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘finish off the work’</td>
<td>‘finish off the work easily’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pellice:sipa:ru-</td>
<td>pellice:sipa:ra-</td>
<td>pellice:sipa:r(ay) e:s-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘finish off the marriage’</td>
<td>‘finish off the marriage easily’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

(2) With *sa:gu*- ‘continue’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Quadruple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tsukk(av) e:sukon-</td>
<td>tsukk(av)e:suko:-</td>
<td>tsukk(av)e:suko:sa:gu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘drink alcoholic liquids’</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘continue to drink alcoholic liquids’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bhaya(m)padipo:-</td>
<td>bhaya(m)padipo:-</td>
<td>bhaya(m)padipo:sa:gu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘be afraid off’</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘continue to be afraid off’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(3) With *talas(c)*- ‘think’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Quadruple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>panice:sokon-</td>
<td>panice:suko:-</td>
<td>panice:suko:dalas(c)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘work oneself’</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘think to work oneself’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pellice:sukon-</td>
<td>pellice:suko:-</td>
<td>pellice:suko:dalas(c)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘marry oneself’</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘think to marry oneself’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(4) With *ko:ru*- ‘desire, wish’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Quadruple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>panice:sukon-</td>
<td>panice:suko:-</td>
<td>panice:suko:go:ru-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘wish to work oneself’</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘wish to marry oneself’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pellice:sukon-</td>
<td>pellice:suko:-</td>
<td>pellice:suko:go:ru-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(5) With *po:-* ‘go’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Quadruple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>panice:sukon-</td>
<td>panice:suko:-</td>
<td>panice:suko:bo:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘about to work oneself’</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘about to marry off’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pellice:s(iv)e:s-</td>
<td>pellice:s(iv)eyya-</td>
<td>pellice:s(iv)eyyabo:-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(6) With *galugu*- ‘be able to’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Quadruple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>panice:sukon-</td>
<td>panice:suko:-</td>
<td>panice:suko:galugu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘be able to work oneself’</td>
<td></td>
<td>‘be able to marry’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

pellice:sukon-  pellice:suko:-  pellice:suko:galugu-
‘be able to marry oneself’

(7) With  tsu:s-  ‘see, look’

Verb Stem  Infinitive  Quadruple Compound
pellice:sukon-  pellice:suko:-  pellice:suko:dzu:s-
‘try to marry oneself’
tu:kam(v)e:sukon-  tu:kame:suko:-  tu:kame:suko:dzu:s-
‘try to weigh oneself’

(2) ROOTS

Only the reflexive verb kon- occurs with root forms.

Formula

+ Vb. Base: Triple Com. Vb., + Aux: kon-

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by a triple verbal compound stem, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the reflexive verb kon-.

Verb Base  Quadruple Compound
panice:yadalas(c)-  ‘think to work’  panice:yadalatsukon-  ‘think to work oneself’
pella:dadalas(c)-  ‘think to marry’  pella:dadalatsukon-  ‘think to marry oneself’

IV. QUINTUPLE COMPOUNDS

These compounds are very less frequent in number but they do find place in modern Telugu. These are derived in the same manner as the other compounds are derived. These compounds are formed by suffixing an auxiliary verb to a quadruple compound discussed in the previous section.

The main auxiliaries which form the quintuple compounds are po:-, talas(c)-, tsu:s- and kon-.

Formula


Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by a quadruple compound verb, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by a class of auxiliary verbs of which po:- is the representative.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Manifestations

In quintuple compounds also the base form occurs both as infinitive as well as root.

(1) INFINITIVES

The auxiliaries that occur with infinitives are po:-, tsu:s-, kalugu-, etc.

Formula

+ Vb. Base: Quadruple Com. Vbi, + Aux: po:-/tsu:s-/kalugu-

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive of a quadruple compound verb, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the auxiliary po:- or tsu:s- or kalugu-.

(1) With po:- ‘go’

Verb Stem Verb Infinitive Quintuple Compound
pellice:s(iv) e:sukon- pellice:s- (iv) e:suko:- pellice:s- (iv) e:suko:bo:-
‘finish off the marriage oneself’

(2) With tsu:s- ‘see, look’

Verb Stem Verb Infinitive Quintuple Compound
pellice:si- pa:r(av)e:s- pellice:si- par(av)e:ya- pellice:si- pa:r(av)e:yadzu:s-
‘finish off the marriage’

(3) With kalugu- ‘happen’

Verb Stem Verb Infinitive Quintuple Compound
pellice:s- (iv)e:sukon- pellice:s- (iv)e:suko:- pellice:s(iv) e:su- ko:galugu-
‘finish off the marriage oneself’

(2) ROOTS

Only the reflexive verb kon- ‘take’ occurs with root forms.

Formula

+ Vb. Base: Quadruple Com. Vbi, + Aux: kon-

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by a quadruple compound stem, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the reflexive verb kon-.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

Manifetsations
Verb Base: Quintuple Compound
pellice:suko:dals(c)- pellice:suko:dalatsukon-
‘to think to marry oneself’ ‘to think oneself to marry oneself’

V. SEXTUPLE COMPOUNDS

Though very rare, compounds of six constituents also are found in modern Telugu.
The sextuple compounds are formed by suffixing an auxiliary to the quintuple compounds discussed in the previous section. The reflexive verb root kon- is the frequently occurring auxiliary in the formation of sextuple compounds.

Formula

+ Vb. Base: Quintuple Com. Vb, + Aux: kon-

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by a quintuple compound stem, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the reflexive verb kon-.

Manifetsations
Verb Base: Sextuple Compound
pellice:sipa:r(av)eyya- dalas (c)- pellice:sipa:r(Av)eyya- dalatsukon-
‘think to finish off marriage’ ‘think oneself to finish off marriage’

In all the types of verbal compounds discussed so far, it is presented that single root auxiliaries are suffixed to simple or compound verbal stems. That is, in a compound, the auxiliary is treated as a single root form, and the remaining part (i.e., compound minus auxiliary as the base stem. But, compounds with compound auxiliaries also exist. That is, the auxiliaries that are suffixed to the verbal bases are composed of more than one verb root. The commonly occurring auxiliary of this type is pa:r (av) e:s- ‘throw away’. In such compounds generally the base form is in the past participle form, thus, the entire compound becoming a ‘singular verbal idea’ compound. For want of space the internal structure of these compound auxiliaries and their types are not discussed here, but however, a few examples are given below. A general and overall formula for these compounds is,

+ Lex: ivpp./tvpp. + Aux: pa:r (av) e:s-

Read, a compound verb consists of an obligatory lexica slot filled by the past participle of an intransitive or a transitive verb, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by compound auxiliaries of which pa:r (av) e:s- ‘throw away’ is the representative.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Manifeshations

Verb Stem | Past Participle | Quintuple Compound
---|---|---
ra:s- | ra:si | ra:sipa:r(av)e:s- ‘write out’
vantace:s- | vantace:si | vantace:si pa:r(av) ea:s- ‘cook off’

It is to be noted that, in the above examples the base slot can be filled by either a single root or a compound root or an intransitive root or a transitive root.

(e) Adjectival Compound Verbal Base

As nouns and verbs are combined to form compounds, adjectives are also combined with verbs. The commonly found verbs that are added to various adjectives are *padu-* and *ce:s-*.

*padu-* ‘fall’ is added to all the colour and quality indicating non-derived adjectives (*nalla* ‘black’, *tsalla* ‘cold’, etc.) to indicate the ‘obtaining of that quality’. And *ce:s-* is added only with a very few non-derived adjectives.

With adjectives mostly double and triple compounds are found. Compounds with more than three constituents are not frequent and hence they are not discussed.

I. DOUBLE COMPOUNDS

Double compounds are derived by adding the verb root *padu-* more commonly and *ce:s-* less commonly to non-derived colour and quality indicating adjectives. The double compounds with *padu-* (intransitive) express ‘singular verbal idea’ and with *ce:s-* (transitive) express ‘double verbal idea’. In the process of compounding the initial consonants of *padu-* and *ce:s-* are voiced.

Formula

+ Base: Non-derived Adj. + Lex: *padu/-ce:s-*

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory adjectival base slot filled by a non-derived adjective, plus an obligatory lexical slot filled by the verbs *padu-* or *ce:s-*.

Manifestations

(1) With *padu-* ‘fall’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adjectival Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nalla</td>
<td>‘black’</td>
<td>nallabadu- ‘become black’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa:ta</td>
<td>‘old’</td>
<td>pa:tabadu- ‘become old’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sanna</td>
<td>‘thin’</td>
<td>sannabadu- ‘become thin’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(2) With ce:s- ‘do’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Adjectival Compound</th>
<th>Verb Phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vetsts</td>
<td>‘warm’</td>
<td>vetstsajes-</td>
<td>‘make warm’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsalla</td>
<td>‘cold’</td>
<td>tsallajes-</td>
<td>‘make cool’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When ce:s- is added to adjectives which also act as nouns, the combinations give idiomatic meanings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective/Noun</th>
<th>Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kotta</td>
<td>kottajes- ‘feel strange’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manci</td>
<td>mancijes- ‘tame’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ve:di</td>
<td>ve:dijes- ‘get urinary infection’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. TRIPLE COMPOUNDS

There are very few adjectival triple compounds. In the formation of these the double compounds become the verbal bases, and the verbs po:-, sa:gu-, ko:ru-, ce:s-, etc., become auxiliaries. In the formation of these compounds most of these auxiliaries are added to the infinitive form of the verbal base, and only po:- is added to both the infinitive form and the past participle. Also kon- is suffixed to the root form only when the double compound contains a transitive verb (i.e., only when ce:s- occurs, since no other transitive verb occurs in the formation of adjectival double compounds). Thus, there are both ‘singular verbal idea’ compounds and ‘double verbal idea’ compounds in adjectival triple compounds also.

**Formula**

\[ + \text{Vb. Base: Double Com. Vb.} \quad + \text{Aux: po:-} \]

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by a double compound verb, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by a class of verbs of which po:- is the representative.

(a) Singular Verbal Idea Compounds

The auxiliary is added to the past participle form of the base. The only auxiliary occurring in this type is po:- ‘go’

**Formula**

\[ + \text{Vb. Base: Double Com.} \quad \text{Vb}_{pp} \quad + \text{Aux: po:-} \]

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the past participle form of a double compound, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the auxiliary po:-.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nallabu-</td>
<td>‘become black’</td>
<td>nallabadi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tiyyabu-</td>
<td>‘become sweet’</td>
<td>tiyyabadi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Double Verbal Idea Compounds

In the formation of double verbal idea compounds the base form either becomes infinitive or remains as root.

(1) INFINITIVES

The auxiliaries *po:-*, *sa:gu-*, *ko:ru-*, *ce:s-*, etc., occur with the infinitive form of the base verb. In the process of compounding the initial voiceless consonants become voiced.

**Formula**

\[ + \text{ Vb. Base: Double Com. Vb}_i + \text{ Aux: po:-} \]

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by a double compound verb stem, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by a class of verbs of which *po:-* is representative.

**Manifestations**

(1) *With* *po:-* ‘go’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tellabu-</td>
<td>‘become white’</td>
<td>tellabada-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vetstsabu-</td>
<td>‘become warm’</td>
<td>vetstsabada-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) *With* *sa:gu-* ‘continue’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nallabu-</td>
<td>‘become black’</td>
<td>nallabada-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sannabu-</td>
<td>‘become thin’</td>
<td>sannabada-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

(3) With ko:ru- ‘desire’, ‘wish’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nallabadu-</td>
<td>‘become black’</td>
<td>nallabadago:ru- ‘with to become black’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sannabadu-</td>
<td>‘become thin’</td>
<td>sannabadago:ru- ‘wish to become thin’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(4) With ce:s- ‘do’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Verb Infinitive</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vetstsabadu-</td>
<td>‘become warm’</td>
<td>vetstsabadaje:s- ‘make to become warm’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sannabadu-</td>
<td>‘become thin’</td>
<td>sannabada je:s- ‘make to become thin’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) ROOTS

kon- ‘take’ is the only auxiliary that occurs with the root form of the base. kon- occurs as auxiliary only when the double compound verb base to which it is added contains a transitive verb (in this case ce:s- ‘do’).

Formula

+ Vb. Base: Double Compound Vb, + Aux: kon-

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by a double compound verb stem, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the verb root kon-.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Stem</th>
<th>Triple Compound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vetstsa je:s-</td>
<td>‘make warm’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kotta je:s-</td>
<td>‘make new, feel strange’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vetstsa sukon-</td>
<td>‘make oneself warm’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kottaje sukon-</td>
<td>‘feel oneself strange’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. QUADRUPLE COMPOUNDS

Quadruple compounds are very rarely found. The base slot is filled by a triple compound verb and the auxiliary slot is filled by either kon- or sa:gu-.

The triple verbal compound that fills the base slot can be either of the ‘singular verbal idea type’ or of the ‘double verbal idea type’, and it occurs both in the infinitive form and in the root form, thus the resulting quadruple compound belonging to the ‘double verbal idea type’.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

Formula

\[ + \text{Vb. Base: Triple Com. Vb}_{i} + \text{Aux: sa:gu-/kon-} \]

Read, a compound consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive form or the root of a triple compound verb, plus an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by \textit{sa:gu-} or \textit{kon-}.

Manifestations

1. INFINITIVES

\textit{With sa:gu- ‘continue’}

\begin{align*}
\text{Verb Stem} & \quad \text{Infinitive} & \quad \text{Quadruple Compound} \\
nallabadipo: & \quad nallabadipo: & \quad nallabadipo:sa:gu- \\
‘become black’ & \quad ‘continue to become black’ \\
tsallabadipo: & \quad tsallabadipo: & \quad tsallabadipo:sa:gu- \\
‘become cool’ & \quad ‘continue to become cool’
\end{align*}

2. ROOTS

\textit{With kon- ‘take’}

\begin{align*}
\text{Verb Stem} & \quad \text{Quadruple Compound} \\
sannabadago:ru- & \quad sannabadago:ruk- \\
‘wish to become lean’ & \quad ‘wish oneself to become lean’
\end{align*}

5.3.2. MOOD

Moods show different degrees or kinds of reality, desirability or contingency of an event (Hockett of 1958). It is much more correct to say that they express certain attitudes of the mind of the speaker towards the contents of the sentence, though in some cases the choice of the mood is determined not by the attitude of the actual speaker, but by the character of the clause itself, and its relation to the main nexus on which it is dependent. Further, it is very important to remember that we speak of ‘mood’ only if this attitude of mind is shown in the form of the verb. Mood thus is a systematic, not a notional category (Jesperson O 1963).

Mood like tense is frequently realized by inflecting the verb, or by modifying it by means of ‘auxiliaries’. It is best defined in relation to an ‘unmarked’ class of sentences which express simple statements of fact, unqualified with respect to the attitude of the speaker towards what he is saying (Lyons J, 1969).
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

MOODS AND TENSE

Most of the models in Telugu are some sort of defective verbs, i.e., the verbal expansion is terminated with the model system, and no tense system and aspect system take place. Though some of them clearly express futurity in the action, they are never marked for the tense. For example, the abilitative \textit{galugu-}, and the negatives \textit{vaddu} and \textit{akkarale:du} clearly indicate future in meaning, but they are not marked for future tense. But there are some moods such as the tense form of the abilitative \textit{galugu-} and the continuative \textit{sa:gu-} which indicate tenses.

MOODS AND COMPOUNDS

A compound verb is a verbal base like any other verbal base which takes tense, mood and aspect markers. And it indicates a singular verbal action \textit{[vellipo:ya:du ‘(he) went away’]}, or a joint verbal action taking both the verbs into account \textit{(padagottu- ‘fell’)}, whereas mood expresses different degrees of reality of an event with the same verb \textit{(tinagalugu- ‘able to eat’)}. Model auxiliaries may be main verbs or auxiliaries in the verbal compounds, but according to the need, to express a particular degree of meaning of the main verb they become model auxiliaries.

A major portion of moods in Telugu are derived by modifying the main verb by means of auxiliaries.

Comprehensively, the following models can be listed in Telugu:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mood</th>
<th>Markers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indicative</td>
<td>$\emptyset$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obligatory</td>
<td>-a:li</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prohibitive</td>
<td>-ku:dadu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dubitative</td>
<td>vatstsu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>-u/-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissive</td>
<td>is(c)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abilitative</td>
<td>gala-/galugu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuative</td>
<td>sa:gu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optative</td>
<td>-ga:ka/-ga:ta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desiderative</td>
<td>ko:ru-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effortative</td>
<td>tsu:s-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Verb Phrase

Hartative: -da:m
Sufficientative: akkarale:du
Negative
Double Imperative: po:- (tinubo:-)
Habituative: marugu-

In Telugu the models are suffixed to the infinitive form of the main verb except in the case of double imperative. In the case of double imperative the models are added to the imperative form of the main verb. After the suffixation of the model suffixes either they may be terminated, or linked with tense-aspect systems.

(i) Indicative Mood

Indicative mood is structurally unmarked. It can be said that simple declarative statements of fact such as *a:yana vasta:du* ‘He comes’ are in indicative mood. This mood is represented by zero, and it directly connects the verbal base to tense-aspect systems.

(ii) Obligatory Mood

The obligatory mood indicates that the action of the main verb ‘must’ take place, or in other words, it is an obligation on the part of the actor to perform the action of the main verb. Though it is an obligation, this can be either a ‘request’ or a ‘suggestion’ sometimes depending on the situation. For example, the sentence *re:pu ne:nu vella:li* ‘I must go tomorrow’ indicates an obligation on the part of the doer; but the sentence *re:pu mi:ru vella:li* indicates three or four shades of meaning. It may indicate that ‘You must go tomorrow’, or ‘It is your duty to go tomorrow’, or ‘You are supposed to go tommorrow’. These indicate no obligation but only a suggestion. Or, it may even express that ‘It is better if you go tommorrow’. These shades of meaning are indicated by different intonational patterns.

**Formula**


Read, the obligatory mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive of a verb, plus as obligatory model slot filled by the obligatory suffix -a:li.

**Manifestations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Mood: Obligatory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>tina-</td>
<td>tina:li ‘must eat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vell-</td>
<td>vella-</td>
<td>vella:li ‘must go’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The obligatory mood acts as a ‘compulsive’, with an auxiliary ti:ru- ‘be cleared off’
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase suffixed to the main verb, in which case the verb base becomes a compound. The above formula may be modified in this case in the following way.


Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Mood: Obligatory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vacciti:ru-</td>
<td>vacciti:ra-</td>
<td>vacciti:ra:li</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘come without fail’</td>
<td>‘must come compulsorily’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iii) Prohibitive Mood

It prohibits the action of the main verb being performed.

Formula

+ VB: inf. + Mood: Prohibitive -ku:dadu

Read, the prohibitive mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by an infinitive, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the prohibitive suffix -ku:dadu

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Mood: Prohibitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>tina-</td>
<td>tinaku:dadu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vell-</td>
<td>vella-</td>
<td>vellaku:dadu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:du-</td>
<td>a:da-</td>
<td>a:daku:dadu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iv) Dubitative Mood

-vatstsu a defective form of the verb vas(c)- ‘come’ is the dubitative marker which indicates the probability of occurrence of an event. When this model is marked the verbal head is terminated, i.e., no tense and PNG (person-number-gender) are marked.

The dubitative mood does not strictly mark only the dubitative degree of the attitude of the mind of a person, but depending on the context and environment it shifts to the degrees of ‘imperative’, and even to ‘abilitative’ and ‘permissive’ sense. For example, see the following sentences:

(1) inka padi nimisallo: bassu ra:vtstsu

‘The bus may come in another 10 minutes’ (Dubitative)

(2) nuvvu kla:sulo:nunci vellavatstsu

‘You may go out of the class’ (Imperative)
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

(3) inka mi:ru ku:rtso:vatstsu
    ‘You may sit now’ (Permissive)

(4) a:yana inta annam tinavatstsu
    ‘He may eat this much food’ (Abilitative)

In the above sentences though the model marker is dubilative it is really true only in sentence (1). ‘The bus may come in another 10 minutes’ may happen or may not happen in some cases. In (2), ‘You may go out of the class’ is the polite way of ordering to get out of the class. Sentence (3) is clearly permissive. ‘You may sit now’ indicates that until then permission to sit was prohibited. Sentence (4) is abilitative since it estimates the capability to perform the action. ‘He may eat this much food’ is estimating the capability of ‘he’ to eat the specified quantity of food.

Though -vatstsu indicates different degrees of reality of the mental attitude of the speaker structurally it is dubitative only.

Formula

+ VB. inf. + Mood: Dubitative -vatstsu

Read, the dubitative mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive of a verb, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the dubitative marker -vatstsu.

Manifestations

Verb Root Infinitive Mood: Dubitative
vell- ‘go’ vella- vellavatstsu ‘may go’
ra:s- ‘write’ ra:ya- ra:yavatstsu ‘may write’

The dubitative has a negative which is marked by -akapo:vatstsu.

e.g.,
tin- ‘eat’ tina- tinakapo:vatstsu ‘may not eat’
ra:s- ‘write’ rasa- ra:yakapo:vatstsu ‘may not write’

(v) Imperative Mood

Imperatives do not express statements, but they express commands or instructions. Since the commands or orders cannot be given to persons who are not present, only the second person nouns or pronouns can occur with the imperatives, and in most of the languages the verbs do not inflect for imperatives, i.e., the verb root itself acts as an imperative (English: *bring, go*, etc., Hindi: *ja:, kha:* , etc.). In classical literary Telugu for most of the verbs the root form and the imperative form is the same. But in modern Telugu though some of the
imperatives are still roots, in general roots are seperated from imperatives, and the verb roots are inflected for imperative. The general imperative markers ar-\textit{-u} and \textit{-i} which are suffixed to the verb roots which undergo certain morphophonemic changes when they are suffixed to certain verb roots.

The imperative is a will-mood as its main function is to express the will of the speaker, and meant to influence the behaviour of the bearer. As Jesperson says the imperatives range from the strictest command to the humblest prayer (See Jesperson; \textit{The Philosophy of Grammar}, p.313). The imperatives not always express ‘command’ or ‘order’ or ‘request’, but sometimes they even mean ‘permission’.

In Telugu, the imperative expresses four shades of meaning, viz., command or order, request, permission and indication or declaration. For example, see the following sentences,

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{nuvvu bayatiki vellu}  \hspace{1cm} \textit{‘you go out’} \hspace{1cm} (command, order)
  \item \textit{mi:ru i: ro:dze: vellandi} \hspace{1cm} \textit{‘you go today only’} \hspace{1cm} (Request)
  \item \textit{mi:ri i: pustakam ti:uko:ndi} \hspace{1cm} \textit{‘you take this book’} \hspace{1cm} (Permission)
  \item \textit{mi:ru i: pu:ta annam tinandi} \hspace{1cm} \textit{‘you take food today’} \hspace{1cm} (Indication, Declaration)
\end{itemize}

\textbf{Formula}

\begin{equation}
+ \text{VB: inf.} \quad + \text{Mood: Imperative} \quad \text{-\textit{u/-i}}
\end{equation}

Read, the imperative mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive form of a verb, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the imperative marker -\textit{u/-i}. 

\textbf{Manifestations}

\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline
\textbf{Verb Root} & \textbf{Infinitive} & \textbf{Mood: Imperative} \\
\hline
\textit{ra:s-} & \textit{‘write’} & \textit{ra:yi} ‘(you) write’ \\
& & (\textit{ra:ya-} + \textit{-i}) \\
\textit{tsu:s-} & \textit{‘see, look’} & \textit{tsu:du} ‘(you) see’ \\
& & (\textit{tsu:da-} + \textit{-u}) \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\textbf{(vi) Permissive Mood}

Permissive mood indicates permitting or allowing the object of the sentence to perform the action of the main verb. Permissive mood is marked by the auxiliary \textit{is(c)-} ‘give’.

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**Verb Phrase**

`Formula`

\[ + \text{VB: inf.} + \text{Mood: Permissive. is(c)-} \]

Read, the permissive mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive of a verb, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the permissive marker `is(c)-`.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Mood: Imperative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vas(c)-</td>
<td>‘come’</td>
<td>ra:nis(c)- ‘allow to come’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa:du-</td>
<td>‘sing’</td>
<td>pa:danis(c)- ‘permit to sing’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(vii) **Negative Mood**

Negative mood indicates the negation of the action of the main verb to which the model markers are suffixed. In Telugu, there are five negative markers, viz., `-aku`, `(-)vaddu`, `(-)le:du`, `-le:-` and `-a-`. Of these, `(-)vaddu` ‘do not want’ and `(-)le:du` ‘does not exist’ are independent words, and are also sentences themselves as negative responses to questions. `vaddu` is negative response to `ka:va:lae?` (ka:va:li + a:), but it is also used as negative response with future verb.

E.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Negative Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>annam ka:va:la: ?</td>
<td>vaddu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Do you want food?’</td>
<td>‘Do not want’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>annam tinta:va: ?</td>
<td>vaddu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Will you take food?’</td>
<td>‘(I) will not take’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

But, `-le:-` is an almorph of `und-` ‘be’. With the suffix `-du` it negates the ‘existence’, in other words, it is the negative of `undi`. As a negative model marker it is suffixed to the infinitive of the main verb, and it negates the past tense. `-le:-` as a bound morpheme when suffixed to the infinitive of the main verb, takes the PNG markers of the subject of the action and negates the abilitative mood. The negative marker `-a-` is also bound and suffixed to the infinitive of the main verb and negates the future-habitual tense taking the PNG markers of the subject of the action of the main verb.

Of the three negative markers `-aku`, `(v)addu` and `(v)le:du`, the first two negate the imperative mood and the last one negates the past tense of the action. This can be seen from the following table.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

DISTRIBUTION MATRIX OF NEGATIVE MARKERS

TABLE 5.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marker</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
<th>Past Tense</th>
<th>Abilitative</th>
<th>Future Habitual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-aku</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(-)vaddu</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(-)le:du</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-le:-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-a-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Formula

+ VB: inf. + Mood: Negative -aku/(-)vaddu/(-)le:du/-le:-/-a-

Read, the negative mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive form of a verb, plus an obligatory model slot filled by a negative marker -aku or (-)vaddu or (-)le:du or -le:- or -a-.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Mood: Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) aku-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>tina-</td>
<td>tina-aku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vell-</td>
<td>vella-</td>
<td>vella-aku</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b) (-)vaddu</td>
<td></td>
<td>tsu:davaddu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsu:s-</td>
<td>tsu:da-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ra:s-</td>
<td>ra:ya-</td>
<td>ra:yavaddu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(c) (-)le:du-</td>
<td></td>
<td>po:le:du</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>po:-</td>
<td>po:-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ti:sukon-</td>
<td>ti:suko:-</td>
<td>ti:suko:le:du</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Verb Phrase

(d) -le-  
a:du- ‘play (v)’   a:da-   a:dale:vu ‘you (sg.) cannot play’

(e) -a-  
tin- ‘eat’   tina-   tinanu ‘I shall not eat’  
navvu- ‘laugh’   navva-   navvadu ‘He will not laugh’

(viii) Abilitative Mood

Abilitative mood indicates the capability of the subject to perform the action of the main verb. Abilitative mood is marked by the auxiliary gala- along with the person markers. It is not marked for tense, but indicates person markers. It is not marked for tense, but indicates futurity in action. However, there is an alternative marker of the abilitative mood, galagu- which is marked for the tense.

Formula

+ VB: inf. + Mood: Abilitative gala-/galagu-

Read, the abilitative mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive form of a verb, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the abilitative marker gala- or galagu-.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Mood: Abilitative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>tina-</td>
<td>tinagala-/tinagalagu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vell-</td>
<td>vella-</td>
<td>vellagala-/vellagalugu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘be able to eat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘be able to go’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(ix) Continuative Mood

Continuative mood indicates continuation or prolonging of the action of the main verb by its performer. Continuative mood is marked by the auxiliary sa:gu-. It is marked only for the past tense. It is not marked for non-past tense because it indicates prolongation of the action, and prolongation of the action cannot be done unless the action has already started.

Formula

+ VB: inf. + Mood: Continuative sa:gu-

Read, the continuative mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive form of a verb, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the continuative marker sa:gu-.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Manifastations

Verb Root Infinitive Mood: Continuative

- tin- ‘eat’ tina- tinas:gu- ‘continue to eat’
- vas(c)- ‘come’ ra:- ra:sa:gu- ‘continue to come’

There is another auxiliary verb tsotstsu- that gives the same meaning as sa:gu-, but its usage is restricted to a very few verbs and is also less frequent.

- e.g., vax(c) ‘come’ ra:- ra:dzotstsu- ‘start or continue to come’

(x) Optative Mood

Optative mood indicates the desire or will of the person that the action of the main verb be performed. Optative mood is marked by a suffix -ga:ka or -ga:ta and it is not marked for any tense. Unlike in other moods, here the suffix is added to the root form of the main verb. Optative mood is used while blessing or cursing somebody.

**Formula**

\[ + \text{VB: verb root} + \text{Mood: Optative: -gaka/-ta:ta} \]

Read, the optative mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the root form of a verb, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the optative marker -ga:ka or -ga:ta.

Manifestation

Verb Root Mood: Optative

- vas(c)-/vatstsu- ‘come’ vatstsuga:ka ‘may come’
- tsu:s-/tsu:tsu- ‘see’ tsu:tsuga:ka ‘may see’
- vardhillu- ‘flurish’ vardhilluga:ka ‘may flurish’

Since the optative mood is found more commonly in written language, only the old or original verbal roots are used with optative suffix.

(xi) Desiderative Mood

Desiderative mood indicates the desire or intention of the subject to perform the action of the main verb. Desiderative mood is derived by suffixing the auxiliary -ko:ru ‘wish, desire’ to the main verb, and it is marked for the tense.

**Formula**

\[ + \text{VB: inf.} + \text{Mood: Desiderative: ko:ru-} \]

Read, the desiderative mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the
infinitive form of a verb, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the desiderative marker ko:ru-, the initial consonant of which is voiced in the process of compounding.

Manifestations

Verb Root    Infinitive    Mood: Desiderative
tin- ‘eat’    tina-    tinago:ru- ‘desire to eat’

(xii) Effortative Mood

Effortative mood indicates the subject’s ‘waiting for a chance’ or ‘trying’ to perform the action of the main verb. It is marked by the verb root tsu:s- ‘see’, ‘look’, and also marked for the tense. The initial consonant of tsu:s- is voiced in the process of compounding.

Formula

+ VB: inf. + Mood: Effortative: tsu:s-

Read, the effortative mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive form of a verb, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the effortative marker tsu:s-.

Manifestations

Verb Base    Infinitive    Mood: Effortative
ra:s- ‘write’ ra:ya-  ra:yadzu:s- ‘try to write’
vas(c)- ‘come’ ra:-  ra:dzu:s- ‘try to come’

(xiii) Hartative Mood

Hartative mood indicates the suggestion of the subject to ‘his own group including himself’ or ‘a group which can be replaced by the inclusive pronoun manam ‘we’’, to perform the action of the main verb. Hartative mood is marked by the suffix -da:m which is added to the root form of the main verb. This is not marked for the tense, but indicates the action in future.

Formula

+ VB: verb root + Mood: Hartative -da:m

Read, the hartative mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by a verb root, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the hartative suffix -da:m.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Manifestations

Verb Root  Mood: Harative

tin-  ‘eat’  tinda:m  ‘let us eat’
ra:s-  ‘write’  ra:dda:m  ‘let us write’

(xiv) Sufficientative Negative Mood

Sufficientative negative mood indicates that the action of the main verb need not be performed. This is marked by the combination of the noun akkara ‘need’ and the negative marker -le:du ‘no, not’. This mood is not marked for the tense. It simply negates the obligatory mood (-a:li) and expresses that the action of the verb to which (-)akkarale:du ‘not necessary’ is suffixed may be performed, but it is not an obligation.

Formula


Read, the needlessness indicative mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive form of a verb, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the sufficientative negative mood (-)akkarale:du.

Manifestations

Verb Base    Infinitive    Mood: Sufficientative Negative

vas(c)-  ‘come’  ra:-  ra:nakkarale:du  ‘need not come’
tsus-  ‘see’, ‘look’  tsu:da-  tsu:danakkarale:du  ‘need noot see’

(xv) Double Imperative Mood

Double Imperative mood indicates the action of ‘moving away’ from the speaker, by the subject of the main verb before performing the action of the main verb. In other words, it indicates that the performer has to move away (po:- ‘go’) first to a specified place and then perform the action of the main verb. Double imperative mood is marked by the verb po:- ‘go’ in its imperative form, and it is not marked for the tense. Double imperative is formed by suffixing po:- to the imperative form of the main verb and in the process of compounding the initial consonant of po:- is voiced.

Formula

+ VB: imp.  + Mood: po:-

Read, the double imperative mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the imperative form of a verb, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the double imperative marker po:- ‘go’.

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Verb Phrase

Manifestations

Verb Root | Imperative | Mood: Double Imperative
----------|------------|-----------------
tin-     | tinu       | tinubo: ‘go and eat’
tsu:s-  | tsudu      | tsu:dubo: ‘go and see’

(xvi) Habituvative Mood

The habituative mood indicates the habituation of a person to perform the action of the main verb. It is marked by the verb root marugu- ‘habituate’, and is also marked for the tense.

Formula

\[ + \text{VB: inf.} + \text{Mood: Habituvative marugu-} \]

Read, the habituative mood consists of an obligatory verbal base slot filled by the infinitive form of a verb, plus an obligatory model slot filled by the habituative marker marugu- ‘habituate’

Manifestations

Verb Root | Infinitive | Mood: Habituvative
----------|-----------|-----------------
tin-   | tina-     | tinamarugu- ‘habituate to eat’
tas(c)-| ra:-      | ra:marugu- ‘habituate to come’

5.3.3. ASPECT

Aspect is more semantic oriented and indicates the temporal distribution of an event. That is, it indicates the events occurrence at different points of time, or in other words, shows contrasts of meaning in respect of its temporal contour.

In Telugu, the aspectual meanings are achieved either by inflecting the main verb, or by suffixing an auxiliary to it. The Telugu aspect indicates mainly the meanings of perfect-stative, perfect-predictive (or suppositive), incessant, durative, inceptive, habitual, completive, malevolent, acellerative, self-benefactive and future-utilitative.

In Telugu verbs, the base system connects into the model system, or directly into the aspectual system with zero mood, or even into tense system with zero mood and zero aspect. The model system either terminates the verb when the mood is not marked for the tense, or connects either into the aspectual system when the aspect is inflexional, or directly into the tense system with zero aspect. The aspect system terminates the verb with PNG markers if the aspect is inflexional, or connects into tense system of the aspect is derivative, i.e., by suffixation. Also, the aspect whether it is inflexional or derivative, in a reverse order
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

connects even into the model system provided the mood is not marked for the tense, except the inceptive with po:- ‘go’. The entire system discussed above is displayed in the following matrix.

TABLE 5.3
BASE - MOOD - ASPECT - TENSE LINKAGE MATRIX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BASE</th>
<th>MOOD</th>
<th>ASPECT</th>
<th>TENSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The aspect in Telugu may be with a single marker or with double or triple markers. The markers may be inflexional or derivative or both mixed.

I. ASPECTS WITH SINGLE MARKER

(A) INFLEXIONAL ASPECTS

This includes the aspects achieved by inflecting the verbal base, and since they are already temporal they are not marked for the tense. The following types of aspects are found under this category.
(i) Habitual Aspect

Habitual aspect indicates a habitual or a routine action in the past. This is achieved by suffixing the pronoun of the subject of the verbal action to its non-past verbal adjective.

*Formula*

\[ + \text{ Base: Non-past verbal adj.} \quad + \text{suf: pn.} \]

Read, the habitual aspect consists of an obligatory base slot filled by the non-past verbal adjective of a verb, and an obligatory suffix slot filled by a pronoun.

*Manifestations*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Aspect: Habitual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vax(c)- 'come'</td>
<td>vacce:-</td>
<td>vadu</td>
<td>vacce:va:du</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘coming person (Mas.)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ra:s- 'write'</td>
<td>ra:se:-</td>
<td>adi</td>
<td>ra:se:di</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘writing person (Fem. &amp; Nue.)’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*NOTE:* The above mentioned habitual form is also used as a noun (subject of the sentence), but in the natural order it occurs at the end of the sentence as verb, and at the beginning as noun.

(ii) Suspective Aspect

Suspective aspect indicates a doubt whether somebody may perform the action when actually he is not supposed to perform, and expresses the speakers advice to him not to perform the action. Suspective aspect indicates future in tense, and is restricted only to the second person as in the case of imperative. The suspective aspect is achieved by suffixing person markers to the non-past verbal adjective of a verb, and it is not marked for the tense.

*Formula*

\[ + \text{ Base: Non-past verbal adj.} \quad + \text{suf: -vu/-ru} \]

Read, the suspective aspect consists of an obligatory base slot filled by the non-past verbal adjective of a verb, and an obligatory suffix slot filled by the second person markers.

*Manifestations*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Aspect: Suspective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a:du- 'play (v)'</td>
<td>a:de:-</td>
<td>-vu/-ru</td>
<td>a:de:vu ‘may you play’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a:de:ru play’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(iii) Incessant Habitual Aspect

Incessant habitual aspect indicates a progressive and habitual action in the past. It is achieved by adding the habitual aspectual form of the verb *und-* ‘be’ to the progressive participle of any verb. The incessant habitual aspect is not marked for the tense.

Formula

+ Base: Prog. Part. + Aux: Habitual Aspect of *und-*

Read, the incessant habitual aspect consists of an obligatory base slot filled by the progressive participle of a verb, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the habitual aspect with verb *und-*.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Aspect: Incessant Habitual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘existing person (Mas.)’ ‘(He) used to write’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘existing person’ ‘(She/It) used to sing’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Fem./Neu.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iv) Perfect - Stative Aspect

The perfect-stative aspect indicates that the subject performed the action of the verb, and is in the stative condition. The perfect-stative aspect is not marked for any tense. This is achieved by adding the non-future tense form of the verb *und-* ‘be’ to the past adverbial participle of any verb.

Formula


Read, the perfect-stative aspect consists of an obligatory base slot filled by the past adverbial participle of a verb, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the non future tense form of the verb *und-*.
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Manifstructures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Aspect: Perfect Stative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>‘eat’</td>
<td>tini</td>
<td>unna:du</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tiniunna:du</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘he ate and he is’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘is(he)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vas(c)-</td>
<td>‘come’</td>
<td>vacci</td>
<td>unna:mu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>vacciunna:mu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘we came and we are’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘are (we)’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(v) Perfect-Predictive (or Suppositive) Aspect

The perfect-predictive aspect indicates that the action of the main verb might have been performed by its subject. This is achieved by adding the future tense form of the verb und- ‘be’ to the past adverbial participle of any verb. The first constituent, the past adverbial participle indicates that the action of the main verb is performed, and the second constituent, the auxiliary expresses ‘futurity of existing’, and both together express an indefiniteness of ‘uncertainty’ about the performance of the action.

Formula

\+ Base: Past Adv. Part. \+ Aux: Future Tense. und-

Read, the perfect-predictive aspect consists of an obligatory base slot filled by the past adverbial participle of a verb, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the future tense form of the verb und-.

Manifstructures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Aspect: Perfect Predictive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ta:gu-</td>
<td>‘drink’</td>
<td>tahi</td>
<td>unta:du</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ta:giunta:du</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘he might have’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘will be (he)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:du-</td>
<td>‘play’</td>
<td>adi</td>
<td>untundi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a:di-untundi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘she/it might have’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘will be (she/it)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>played</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(vi) Incessant Aspect

The incessant aspect indicates progress or continuity of an action. It is achieved by suffixing the non-future tense form of the verb und- to the progressive adverbial participle of the main verb.

Formula

\+ Base: Prog. part. \+ Aux: Non-future und-

Read, the incessant aspect consists of an obligatory base slot filled by the progressive

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A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

participle of a verb, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the non-future tense form of the verb *und*.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Aspect: Incessant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vas(c)</td>
<td>‘come’</td>
<td>vastu:- ‘coming’</td>
<td>unna:du ‘is(he)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>vastu:unna:du ‘he is still coming’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tsu:s-</td>
<td>‘seeing’</td>
<td>unna:mu</td>
<td>tsu:stu:unna:mu ‘we are still’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘we are still’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(vii) Durative Aspect

The durative aspect indicates ‘continuation’ or ‘repetition’ of the action as a habit as in ‘He *often comes* to my house’. It also indicates that the action is ‘continuing, but the speaker only predicts that the action is going on, and he did not see it’. The best example to express it in English is ‘He *must be coming now*’.

Formula

\[ + \text{Base: Prog. Part.} + \text{Aux: Future} \text{ und-} \]

Read, the durative aspect consists of an obligatory base slot filled by the progressive adverbial participle of a verb, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the future tense form of the verb *und*.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Aspect: Durative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vin-</td>
<td>‘listen’</td>
<td>vintu:- ‘listening’</td>
<td>unta:du ‘will be’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘will be (he)’ listening’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>le:s-</td>
<td>‘get up’</td>
<td>le:stu:- ‘getting up’</td>
<td>untundi ‘will be’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>‘will be (she/it)’ getting up’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(B) DERIVATIVE ASPECTS

This category includes all the aspects that are derived by suffixation, i.e., by suffixing auxiliaries to the main verb. Unlike inflexional aspects these aspects are marked for the tense. The derivative aspects found in Telugu are as follows.

(i) Completive Aspect

Completive aspect indicates the ‘completion of the action’, or ‘finishing the action without any difficulty’. This is marked by two auxiliaries in Telugu, viz., *po:- ‘go’* and *(v)*e:s- ‘throw’. There is no clear cut distinction that to which verbs *po:-* is suffixed and to which verbs *(v)*e:s- is suffixed, but *po:-* is suffixed to most of the intransitive verbs and
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Verb Phrase

\((v)e:s-\) into the transitive verbs more frequently. Both the auxiliaries are suffixed to the past adverbial participle form of the main verb.

**Formula**

\[ + \text{ Base: Past Adv. Participle } + \text{ Aux: po:-(v)e:s-} \]

Read, the completive aspect consists of an obligatory base slot filled by the past adverbial participle of a verb, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the auxiliaries \(po:-(v)e:s-\).

**Manifestations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Base: Past Part.</th>
<th>Auxiliary</th>
<th>Aspect: Completive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vell-</td>
<td>‘go’</td>
<td>velli</td>
<td>‘having gone’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>‘eat’</td>
<td>tini</td>
<td>‘having eaten’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>((v)e:s-)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(tin(iv)e:s-)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iii) Accelerative Aspect

Accelerative aspect quickens the action of the main verb, in other words, the action of the main verb is performed faster. The accelerative aspect is marked by the auxiliary \(padu-\) ‘fall’, and it is also marked for the tense. The accelerative suffix \(padu-\) is added only to verbs which already indicate the process of quick or faster action. Some of these verbs are \(uluku-\) ‘shake’, \(aguru-\) ‘jump’, \(aduru-\) ‘tremble’, etc.

**Formula**

\[ + \text{ Base: Past Adv. Part. } + \text{ Aux: } padu- \]
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Read, the accelerative aspect consists of an obligatory base slot filled by the past adverbial participle of a verb, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the auxiliary marker padu-.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>uluku-</td>
<td>uliki padu-</td>
<td>ulikipadu-</td>
<td>ulukupadu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘shake’</td>
<td>‘having shaken’</td>
<td>‘be shaken’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eguru-</td>
<td>egiri padu-</td>
<td>egiripadu-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘jump’</td>
<td>‘having jumped’</td>
<td>‘jump up’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iv) Future Utilitative Aspect

Future utilitative aspect indicates prolongation of the action of the main verb for certain time for future use. This is generally marked by the auxiliary pettu- ‘put’, ‘keep’ and the aspect is marked for the tense.

Formula

+ Base: Past Adv. Part. + Aux: pettu-

Read, the future utilitative aspect consists of an obligatory base slot filled by the past adverbial participle of a verb, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the auxiliary marker pettu-.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adumu-</td>
<td>adimi pettu-</td>
<td>adimipettu-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘press’</td>
<td>‘having pressed’</td>
<td>‘pressed and keeping pressed, hide’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anus(c)-</td>
<td>anici pettu-</td>
<td>anicipettu-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘press’</td>
<td>‘having pressed’</td>
<td>‘pressed and keeping pressed, hide’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(v) Malevolent Aspect

Malevolent aspect indicates the nuance of malevolence. In Telugu, the malevolent aspect is marked by the auxiliaries tsas(c)- ‘die’, e:dus(c)- ‘weedp’ and e:gu- ‘go’, or by the compound pa:r(av)e:s- ‘throw away’ used as an auxiliary. The malevolent aspect is marked for the tense.
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Formula

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Verb Phrase} & \quad \text{Formula} \\
& \quad + \text{ Base: Past Adv. Part.} \quad + \text{ Aux: } \text{tsas(c)-/e:dus(c)-/e:gu-/pa:r(av)e:s-} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Read, the malevolent aspect consists of an obligatory base slot filled by the past adverbial participle of a verb, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the auxiliary markers \text{tsas(c)-}, or \text{e:dus(c)-}, or \text{e:gu-} or \text{pa:r(av)e:s-}.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Base: Past Part.</th>
<th>Auxiliary</th>
<th>Aspect: Malevolent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vas(c)-</td>
<td>vacci</td>
<td>tsas(c)-</td>
<td>vaccitsas(c)-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘come’</td>
<td>‘having come’</td>
<td>‘die’</td>
<td>‘come off (contempt)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>tini</td>
<td>e:dus(c)-</td>
<td>tin(i)e:dus-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘eat’</td>
<td>‘having eaten’</td>
<td>‘weep’</td>
<td>‘eat up (contempt)’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(vi) Inceptive Aspect

Inceptive aspect indicates ‘setting up to start’ the action of the main verb, and it is marked by the auxiliary \text{po:- ‘go’}, the consonant ‘p’ becoming voiced in the process of combination. The inceptive aspect is marked for the tense. The specially of the auxiliary \text{po:-} is that it occurs with the main verb as the primary auxiliary (\text{tinabo:- ‘about to eat’}), and also as a secondary auxiliary with a compound which already expressed as aspectual meaning (\text{tokkipettabo:- ‘about to supress’}), or with an inflexional aspect (\text{vacciundubo:- ‘about to stay after having come’}). Unlike the other aspectual markers \text{po:-} is suffixed to the infinitive form of the main verb.

Formula

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Verb Phrase} & \quad \text{Formula} \\
& \quad + \text{ Base: inf.} \quad + \text{ Aux: po:-} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Read, the inceptive aspect consists of an obligatory base slot filled by the infinitive form of a verb, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the inceptive auxiliary \text{po:-}.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Root</th>
<th>Base: Infinitive</th>
<th>Auxiliary</th>
<th>Aspect: Inceptive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vas(c)-</td>
<td>‘come’</td>
<td>ra:-</td>
<td>po:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>‘eat’</td>
<td>tina:-</td>
<td>po:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>tinabo:- ‘about to eat’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

II. ASPECTS WITH DOUBLE MARKERS

Some of the more commonly occurring double marker-aspects are of the following types:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Base} & \quad + \text{ Derivative Suffix} \quad + \text{ Inflexional Suffix} \\
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\end{align*}
\]
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Verb Phrase

Base + Derivative Suffix + Derivative Suffix
Base + Inflexional Suffix + Inflexional Suffix

(i) Base + Derivative Suffix + Inflexional Suffix

  e.g.,
  uliki - pade:- va:du ‘(He) used to feel shock’
  egiri - padutu:- unna:du ‘(He) is feeling shock’

(ii) Base + Derivative Suffix + Derivative Suffix

  e.g.,
  uliki- pada- bo:ya:du ‘(He) was about to feel shock’

(iii) Base + Inflexional Suffix + Inflexional Suffix

  e.g.,
  pa:d-utu: unde:- va:du ‘(He) used to be singing’

III. ASPECTS WITH TRIPLE MARKERS

Aspects with triple markers are very less in frequency, but they too occur both in spoken as well as in written Telugu. Aspects with triple markers are not discussed here in detail because of lack of space, however, the following example can be noted.

  e.g.,
  tin-(iv)e:ya- bo:tu:-unna:du ‘(He) is about to eat up’

ASPECT TO MOOD

As it is already discussed under Aspect (5.3.3.), the aspevctual system in the reverse order connects into the model system provided the mood is not marked for the tense. This is not true with all the aspects. Only the aspects which consists of a verb root as its final constituent connects in the reverse order into the model system. This aspect-mood system is represented by the following formula.

Formula

  + Base: Vb. Root/Past Part. + Aux₁ : Aspect
  + Aux₂ : Mood

Read, the aspect-mood system consists of an obligatory base slot filled by a verb root or its past participle, an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the aspect markers, and an obligatory auxiliary slot filled by the model markers.
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Verb Phrase

Auxiliary₁ is filled by the aspectual markers (v)e:s-, po:-, -tu: und-, -i und(u), etc., and auxiliary₂ is filled by the model markers that are not marked for the tense such as -a:li, -ku:dadu, -le:du, is(c)-, etc.

Manifestations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Mood</th>
<th>Aspect-Mood System</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tin-</td>
<td>(v)e:s-</td>
<td>-a:li</td>
<td>tinneyya:li</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘must eat away’  ‘should not be writing’

5.3.4. TENSE

As Hockett says, tense typically shows different locations of an event in time. Or, in other words, tense relates the time of the action or event or state of affairs referred to in the sentence to the time of utterance.

In Telugu, the verb base directly connects into the tense system, or through the model system, or through both the model and the aspectual systems (see TABLE 5.3: BASE - MOOD - ASPECT TENSE LINKAGE MATRIX).

In Telugu all the verbs uniformly show a two way tense system, viz., past and future-habitual, except the verb root un(d)- ‘be’. The present tense is expressed by other devices. un(d)- has a different system of two way tense, viz., future and non-future. The Rayalaseema dialect however, shows a three way tense system- Past, Present and future for un(d)-.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Group III</th>
<th>Group IV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Verb Root</td>
<td>PAST TENSE MATRIX</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-n ending roots with preceding</td>
<td>long vowel ending roots.</td>
<td>-d ending roots with preceding</td>
<td>Other roots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>short vowel. tin- ‘eat’</td>
<td>po:- ‘go’</td>
<td>short vowel. pad- ‘fall’</td>
<td>navvu- ‘laugh’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st person sg.</td>
<td>-na:-</td>
<td>-ya:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-da:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-se-/-(y)ina:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st person Pl.</td>
<td>-na:-</td>
<td>-ya:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-da:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-se-/-(y)ina:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person sg.</td>
<td>-na:-</td>
<td>-ya:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-da:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-se-/-(y)ina:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person Pl.</td>
<td>-na:-</td>
<td>-ya:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-da:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-se-/-(y)ina:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person sg. Mas.</td>
<td>-na:-</td>
<td>-ya:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-da:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-se-/-(y)ina:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person sg. Non-Mas.</td>
<td>φ</td>
<td>--(y)ina-</td>
<td>-da:-/-(y)ina-</td>
<td>-(y)ina-/(y)ina:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-na-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-(y) in-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person Pl. Non-Neu.</td>
<td>-na:-</td>
<td>-ya:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-da:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-se-/-(y)ina:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-na-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-(y)ina-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person Pl. Neu.</td>
<td>-na:-</td>
<td>-ya:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-da:-/-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-se-/-(y)ina:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-na-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-(y)ina-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Comments

1. The past tense markers are -na:- and -se- with a few exceptions.

2. With all -n- ending roots having a preceding short vowel such as vin-, tin:sukon- etc., -na:- occurs as past tense marker.

   e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Past Tense Marker</th>
<th>Person Marker</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vin-</td>
<td>-na:-</td>
<td>-nu</td>
<td>‘(I) heard’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ti:sukon-</td>
<td>-na:-</td>
<td>-du</td>
<td>‘(He) took’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   The only exception to this rule is, that in the 3rd person non-masculine singular the past tense marker is either ‘zero’, or -na- borrowed from old Telugu and used in the Brahmin dialect. Either the regular marker -na:- or -in- is used in the Rayalaseema dialect. Again in the 3rd person neuter plural, besides the regular marker -na:-, -na- is also found especially in the Brahmin dialect as in the earlier case.

3. With long vowel ending roots (or, in other words, with po:- ‘go’, since po:- is the only long-vowel-ending root), -ya:- occurs uniformly as the past tense marker except in the 3rd person non-masculine singular. In all the cases whenever -ya:- occurs, -(y)ina:- occurs as the past tense marker in the Rayalaseema dialect. In the 3rd person non-masculine singular -(y)in- is the past tense marker in all the dialects. -(y)in- is also used in the 3rd person both in masculine singular and non-neuter plural in the Telangana dialect.

   e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Past Tense Marker</th>
<th>Person Marker</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>po:-</td>
<td>-ya:-</td>
<td>-du</td>
<td>‘(He) went’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>po:-</td>
<td>-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-nu</td>
<td>‘(I) went’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. With the verb roots ending in -d- with a preceding short vowel, -da:- occurs uniformly as the past tense marker except in the 3rd person non-masculine singular. In all these cases wherever -da:- occurs, -(y)ina:- occurs as the past tense marker in the Rayalaseema dialect.

   In the 3rd person non-masculine singular, -da- is the past tense marker. -(y)in- occurs in this case in the Rayalaseema dialect.

   e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Past Tense Marker</th>
<th>Person Marker</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pad-</td>
<td>-da:-</td>
<td>-du</td>
<td>‘(He) fell’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pad-</td>
<td>-(y)ina:-</td>
<td>-du</td>
<td>‘(He) fell’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pad-</td>
<td>-(y)in-</td>
<td>-di</td>
<td>‘(She/It) fell’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. With the remaining verbs the past tense marker is uniformly -se- except in the case of 3rd person non-masculine singular, and in all these places -(y)ina:- occurs in the Rayalseema dialect.

In the 3rd person non-masculine singular -(y)in- occurs as the past tense marker though rarely -(y)ina:- occurs as a sub-standard form in the Rayalseema dialect.

e.g.,

- tsu:s- -ae- -du ‘(He) saw’
- adug(u)- -ina:- -nu ‘(I) asked’
- ra:s- -(y)in- -di ‘(She/It) wrote’

6. au- ‘become’ is an exceptional root. To achieve the past tense, ay- has to be posited as th root instead of au- in which case it falls into the verbs of Group IV.

e.g.,

- ay- -ae- -du ‘(He) became’
- ay- -ina:- -nu ‘(I) became’
- ay- -(y)in- -di ‘(She/It) became’

7. In the 3rd person masculine singular, and in the 3rd person non-neuter plural, -(y)in- occurs as the past tense marker with the verbs of Groups II, III and IV in the dialect of Telangana.

e.g.,

- po:- -(y)in- -du ‘(He) went’
- po:- -(y)in- -ru ‘(They) went’
- pad- -(y)in- -du ‘(He) fell’
- pad- -(y)in- -ru ‘(They) fell’
- ra:s- -(y)in- -du ‘(He) wrote’
- ra:s- -(y)in- -ru ‘(They) wrote’

8. In some parts of Coastal Andhra, in the 3rd person neuter plural, -na-, -(y)ina-, -da- and -(y)ina- occur as additional past tense markers respectively with the verbs of Groups I, II, III and IV. These are derived by shortening the final vowel in the general forms -na:-, -(y)ina:- and -da:-.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Phrase

e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Past Tense Markers</th>
<th>Past Tense Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vin-</td>
<td>-na:-</td>
<td>vinna:(nu)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:dukon-</td>
<td>-na/∅</td>
<td>a:dukonti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>po:-</td>
<td>-ya:-</td>
<td>po:ya:(du)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>padipo:-</td>
<td>-(y)in-</td>
<td>padipo:in(di)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pad(u)-</td>
<td>-da:-</td>
<td>padda:(du)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kanapad(u)-</td>
<td>-(y)in-</td>
<td>kanapaddi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ra:s-</td>
<td>-ae-</td>
<td>ra:sae(nu)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa:rabo:s-</td>
<td>-(y)in-</td>
<td>pa:rabo:in(di)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FORMULA FOR PAST TENSE SYSTEM

+ Base: Vb. Root with Mood & Aspect + Past Tense: -na:-/ae

Read, the past tense consists of an obligatory base slot filled by a verb base with model and aspectual markers, and an obligatory past tense slot filled by the past tense markers -na:- or -ae-.
II. FUTURE - HABITUAL TENSE SYSTEM

### TABLE 5.5
FUTURE - HABITUAL TENSE MATRIX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Verb Root</td>
<td>Other Roots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-n- ending roots with preceding short vowel</td>
<td>a:du- ‘play’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kon- ‘buy’</td>
<td>tsu:s- ‘see’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Person Sg.</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Person Pl.</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Person Sg.</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Person Pl.</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Person Sg. Mas.</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Person Pl. Non-Mas.</td>
<td>-tun/-/ta:-/ta</td>
<td>-tun/-/ta:-/ta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Person Pl. Non-Neu.</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Person Pl. Neu.</td>
<td>-ta:-/-/ta:-</td>
<td>-ta:-/-/ta:-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Comments**

1. The future-habitual tense markers are -ta:- and -ta:-.

2. With all the -n- ending roots with preceding short vowel such as vin-, ti:sukon-, etc., (Group I) -ta:- occurs as the future-habitual marker with the exception of the 3rd person non-masculine singular.

   In 3rd person non-masculine singular in the case of these verbs the future-habitual tense marker is -tun-. In the Rayalseema dialect uniformly -ta:- occurs as future-habitual tense marker including the 3rd person non-masculine singular. In some sub-standard
speeches, -pa- which is derived by shortening the vowel in -ta:- occurs as future-habitual tense marker in the 3rd person non-masculine singular and the 3rd person neuter plural.

e.g.,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{tin-} & \quad \text{-ta-} & \quad \text{-nu} & \quad \text{‘I shall eat’} \\
\text{kon-} & \quad \text{-tun-} & \quad \text{-di} & \quad \text{‘(She/It) will buy’}
\end{align*}
\]

3. With all the other verb roots that do not and in -n-, -ta:- occurs as the future-habitual tense marker with the exception of the 3rd person non-masculine singular.

In the 3rd person non-masculine singular the future-habitual tense marker is -tun-.

Like in Group I in the Rayalseema dialect -ta:- occurs uniformly including the 3rd person non-masculine singular as the future-habitual tense marker, and in some sub-standard speeches -ta- which is derived by shortening the vowel in -ta- occurs both in the 3rd person non-masculine singular and the 3rd person neuter plural.

e.g.,

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ra:s-} & \quad \text{-ta:-} & \quad \text{-mu} & \quad \text{‘(We) will write’} \\
\text{adugu-} & \quad \text{-tun-} & \quad \text{-di} & \quad \text{‘(She/It) will ask’}
\end{align*}
\]

**Formula for Future-Habitual Tense System**

\[+ \text{ Base: Vb. Root with Mood & Aspect } + \text{ Fut.Hab.Tense: -ta:-/-ta:-}\]

Read, the future-habitual tense consists of an obligatory base slot filled by a verb base with model and aspectual markers, plus an obligatory future-habitual tense slot filled by the future-habitual tense markers -ta:- or -ta:-.

**Manifestation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb Base</th>
<th>Future-Habitual Tense Markers</th>
<th>Future-Habitual Tense Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group I</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vin-</td>
<td>-ta:-</td>
<td>vinta:(nu)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘listen’</td>
<td>‘(I) shall listen’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ti:sukon-</td>
<td>-tun-</td>
<td>ti:sukontun(di)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘take’</td>
<td>‘(She/It) will take’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group II</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a:d(u)-</td>
<td>‘play’ -ta:-</td>
<td>a:da:(nu)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘play’</td>
<td>‘(I) shall play’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>le:s-</td>
<td>-tun-</td>
<td>le:stun(di)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘get up’</td>
<td>‘(She/It) will get up’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Person-number-gender system is the closure of the finite verb, i.e., the finite verb cannot be further expanded beyond this. Either the verbal base directly connects into the person-number-gender system, or through the model system, or through model and aspectual systems, or through model, aspectual and tense systems. The PNG system terminates the finite verb and indicates the person, the number and the gender of the subject of the sentence, or the ‘performer’ of the action of the main verb. The PNG system is as follows:

PNG System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number &amp; Gender</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Person</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>-nu</td>
<td>-m(u)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>-vu</td>
<td>-ru</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>-du</td>
<td>-ru</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the 3rd person neuter plural, though -yi occurs as person-number-gender marker both in the past and future-habitual tenses, sometimes the old Telugu form -vi is used in the past tense with the verb roots like vin-, tin-, a:dukon-, etc., in modern Telugu (especially in the Brahmin variety).

Formula for PNG System

+ Base: Vb. Root with Mood, Aspect & Tense + PNG: PNG Marker

Read, the person-number-gender system consists of an obligatory base slot filled by a verb with model, aspectual and tense systems, and an obligatory PNG slot filled by the person-number-gender markers.
A study of the Structure of Telugu Phrases

Verb Base | PNG Markers | Finite Verb
--- | --- | ---
1st Person
ra:s- ‘write’ | -nu | ra:sta:nu ‘(I) shall write’
po:- ‘go’ | -m(u) | po:ya:m(u) ‘(We) went’
2nd Person
a:d(u)- ‘play’ | -vu | a:dae:vu ‘[You (sg.)] will walk’
nadus(c)- ‘walk’ | -ru | nadusta:ru ‘[You (pl.)] will walk’
3rd Person
po:- ‘go’ | -du | po:ya:du ‘(He) went’
vin- ‘listen’ | -di | vintundi ‘(She/It) will listen’
pa:d(u)- ‘sing’ | -ru | pa:dae:ru ‘(They) sang’
le:s- ‘get up’ | -yi | le:sta:yi ‘[They (non-hum)] will get up’
tin- ‘eat’ | -vi | tinnavi ‘[They (non-hum)] ate’

5.4 THE DISTRIBUTION OF VERB PHRASES

The verb phrase in every case fills the predicate slot on clause level. When the over-all verb phrase (Head-modifier Verb Phrase 1; See 5.1) fills the clause level predicate slot, the modifier phrases (Head-Modifier verb phrase 2 and Coordinate Verb Phrase: See 5.2) fill the modifier slots at phrase level. The head phrase (Close-Knit Verb Phrase: See 5.3) fills the head slot on the phrase level.

The type of the clause in which the phrase occurs is determined by the verbal base. That is, if the verbal base is transitive, the whole verb phrase is transitive, and consequently, fills the predicate slot in a transitive clause. Similarly, if the verbal base is intransitive, the verb phrase is intransitive, and fills the predicate slot in an intransitive clause.