



**A DESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR  
OF KAYAH MONU**

**WAI LIN AUNG**

**Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree  
of  
MASTER OF ARTS  
IN  
LINGUISTICS**

**Payap University**  
November 2013



Title: A Descriptive Grammar of Kayah Monu  
Researcher: Wai Lin Aung  
Degree: Master of Arts in Linguistics  
Advisor: Larin Adams, Ph.D.  
Approval Date: 26 November 2013  
Institution: Payap University, Chiang Mai, Thailand

The members of the thesis examination committee:

1. \_\_\_\_\_ Committee Chair  
(Assoc. Prof. Saranya Savetamalya, Ph.D.)
  
2. \_\_\_\_\_ Committee Member  
(Larin Adams, Ph.D.)
  
3. \_\_\_\_\_ Committee Member  
(George Bedell, Ph.D.)

Copyright © Wai Lin Aung

Payap University 2013

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all I want to praise God for His grace for giving me the opportunity to study linguistics at Payap University. I give thanks to Him for hearing my prayers and giving me wisdom, knowledge, and both spiritual and physical strength. May the name of the Lord be glorified!

I wish to thank the Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL) organization for financial support throughout my study. I also want to express my gratitude to Jeff German and OJ Gamache for their guidance and taking responsibility for me. I am grateful to all of the teachers from the Linguistics Department who taught and equipped me with a good foundation in linguistics.

My special thanks go to Dr. Larin Adams for graciously serving as my advisor throughout the process of writing this thesis. I could not have completed it without his encouragement, support, and guidance. I also would like to thank Dr. George Bedell for serving as the second reader on my thesis.

I want to extend my thanks to Dr. Ken Manson, Mr. John Bryant and Mr. Myar Reh for contributing their excellent ideas and helpful materials to this project. I also express my gratitude to Mr. Terry Gibbs for thesis formatting and also for helping me with my computer problems.

I am deeply grateful to all of my Language Resource Persons from Taw Khu village for their invaluable help in eliciting and translating data. I would like to state that this Kayah Monu Grammar would have never become a reality without the active involvement of the Kayah Monu people.

Finally I would like to thank my parents and church members from Phruso Baptist Church in Myanmar, Rev. Tin Oo and Chiang Mai Karen Christian Fellowship (CKCF), who supported me with their encouragement and prayers during my study in Thailand. I particularly want to thank my beloved wife Naw Hsa Eh Ywar who took care of me with love each day.

Wai Lin Aung

Title: A Descriptive. Grammar of Kayah Monu  
Researcher: Wai Lin Aung  
Degree: Master of Arts in Linguistics  
Advisor: Larin Adams, Ph.D.  
Approval Date: 26 November 2013  
Institution: Payap University, Chiang Mai, Thailand  
Number of Pages: 137  
Keywords: Tibeto-Burman, Karen, Kayah Monu, Grammar, Phonology

## ABSTRACT

This thesis is the first grammatical description of Kayah Monu, a Tibeto-Burman language of the Karenic branch of Sino-Tibetan, spoken in Kayah State, Myanmar. This research is based on the Taw Khu dialect which is regarded as the prestige variety and also officially approved for the Kayah Monu orthography.

The thesis consists of eight chapters and an appendix. The findings of this research include descriptions discusses several types of word classes both major (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) and minor (pronouns, demonstratives, classifiers, numerals, quantifiers, preposition, localizers, conjunctions, question words, particles, and directional verbs). Additional description of different kinds of noun phrases, verb phrases, simple clauses, complex clauses and sentence types of Kayah Monu are also provided. The typical sentence structure is SVO which is different from the SOV structure of other Tibeto-Burman languages.

Verb phrase findings included two classes of auxiliaries, pre-verbal and post-verbal Directional verbs occur on both sides of the main verbs to show the direction of the action. Negation was found to be post-verbal and usually appear clause final. Many main verbs are multiple-verbs constructions consist of the combination of two or more verb roots. They express one simple event or a complex event. Although adjectives were found to have some features of verbs, evidence is presented that they are distinct from verbs.

Another area researched included classifiers which are divided into a number of different subclasses based on grammatical distribution They occur primarily with numbers. The numbering system is unique in that it includes a 'pair' classifier for some numbers Oblique locatives include a general locative preposition which always precedes the noun to express the general location and often a in the final phrasal position to point out a specific place.

Findings are based on four mother tongue speakers who provided a number of different genres of texts: 1st person narratives (happy and sad experience stories), descriptions of how to do X (two procedure stories), wish or imagination stories (two regret stories), and a traditional story (one folktale) and a set of elicited grammatical sentences Additional checking was done intermittently using the telephone or internet.

ชื่อเรื่อง:	ไวยากรณ์เชิงวรรณนาในภาษากะยาโมนุ
ผู้วิจัย:	ไว ลิน ออง
ปริญญา:	ศิลปศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาภาษาศาสตร์
อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก:	ดร. ลาริน อัดัมส์
วันที่อนุมัติผลงาน:	26 พฤศจิกายน 2556
สถาบันการศึกษา:	มหาวิทยาลัยพายัพ จังหวัดเชียงใหม่ ประเทศไทย
จำนวนหน้า:	137
คำสำคัญ:	ทิเบต-พม่า, กะเหรียง, กะยาโมนุ, ไวยากรณ์, สัทวิทยา

## บทคัดย่อ

วิทยานิพนธ์ฉบับนี้เป็นไวยากรณ์เชิงวรรณนาฉบับแรกในภาษากะยาโมนุ หนึ่งในภาษาทิเบต-พม่า ในกลุ่มภาษากะเหรียง ตระกูลจีน-ทิเบต พูดักันบริเวณรัฐคะยาห์ ประเทศพม่า งานวิจัยฉบับนี้ ศึกษาโดยเก็บข้อมูลจากภาษาเตาคุ ภาษาถิ่นที่ถือว่าเป็นภาษาย่อยที่มีศักดิ์ศรีและมีรูปเขียนที่เป็นทางการ

วิทยานิพนธ์ฉบับนี้แบ่งออกเป็นแปดบท และภาคผนวก ผลการวิจัยครอบคลุมถึงการบรรยาย ประเภทของคำ ทั้งหมดคำหลัก ได้แก่ คำนาม คำกริยา คำคุณศัพท์ และคำกริยาวิเศษณ์ และหมวดคำรอง ได้แก่ คำสรรพนาม คำบอกกำหนด คำลักษณะนาม คำบอกจำนวน คำบอกปริมาณ คำบุพบท คำแสดงปริภูมิ คำสันธาน คำถาม อนุภาค และคำกริยาแสดงทิศทาง นอกจากนี้ยังอภิปรายถึงประเภทของนามวลี กริยาวลี อนุพากย์เดี่ยว อนุพากย์ซ้อน และชนิดของประโยคในภาษากะยาโมนุ โครงสร้างประโยคพื้นฐานในภาษากะยาโมนุเป็นแบบ SVO ซึ่งแตกต่างจากภาษาในตระกูลทิเบต-พม่าภาษาทั่วไปที่มีลำดับคำแบบ SOV

ในส่วนของกริยาวลีพบว่ามีการย่นย่อของประเภทได้แก่ คำกริยานุเคราะห์หน้ากริยา และคำกริยานุเคราะห์หลังกริยา คำกริยาแสดงทิศทางสามารถปรากฏได้ทั้งสองข้างของ คำกริยาหลักเพื่อบอกทิศทางของการกระทำ คำปฏิเสธพบที่ปรากฏในตำแหน่งท้ายคำกริยา และมักปรากฏในตำแหน่งท้ายสุดของอนุพากย์ คำกริยาหลักหลายคำปรากฏเป็นกลุ่มคำกริยาที่ประกอบไปด้วยกริยาตั้งแต่สองคำหรือมากกว่า โดยแสดงเหตุการณ์เดี่ยว หรือเหตุการณ์

ที่ซับซ้อนหนึ่งเหตุการณ์ แม้จะพบว่าคำคุณศัพท์มีคุณลักษณะเป็นเหมือนคำกริยา แต่จากหลักฐานพบว่าเป็นคนละประเภทคำกัน

ในส่วนของคำลักษณะนามพบว่า มีประเภทย่อยหลายประเภท โดยการจัดประเภทขึ้นอยู่กับ การกระจายตัวทางไวยากรณ์ โดยพื้นฐานแล้วลักษณะนามปรากฏร่วมกับคำบอกจำนวน โดยระบบการบอกจำนวนในภาษากะยาโมนูเป็นระบบที่ซับซ้อนเนื่องจากมีการใช้คำลักษณะนาม บอก “คู่” กับคำบอกจำนวนบางจำนวน การบอกสถานปรากฏในรูปของคำบุพบทบอกสถานที่ หน้าคำนาม เพื่อบอกสถานที่โดยทั่วไป และปรากฏในตำแหน่งท้ายของนามวลีเพื่อบ่งชี้สถานที่ แบบเฉพาะเจาะจง

ผู้วิจัยวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลจากผู้บอกภาษาที่พูดภาษากะยาโมนูเป็นภาษาแม่จำนวนสี่คน โดยผู้บอกภาษา แต่ละคนให้ข้อมูลโดยการเล่าเรื่องตามตัวบทหลายประเภท ได้แก่ เรื่องเล่าแสดงประสบการณ์ ความสุข และความเศร้าจากมุมมองของบุคคลที่หนึ่ง การบรรยายวิธีการทำ X จำนวนสองเรื่อง

เรื่องเล่าแสดงอารมณ์และจินตนาการจากเรื่องเศร้าสองเรื่อง และเรื่องเล่าพื้นบ้านหนึ่งเรื่อง นอกจากนี้ยังใช้ชุดประโยคทดสอบอีกหนึ่งชุด และในขั้นตอนสุดท้าย ตรวจสอบข้อมูลเพิ่มเติม โดยอาศัยการคุยทางโทรศัพท์และอินเทอร์เน็ต

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements.....	ii
Abstract.....	iii
บทคัดย่อ.....	iv
List of Tables .....	x
List of Figures .....	xi
List of Abbreviations and Symbols.....	xii
Chapter 1 Introduction .....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Language and People .....	1
1.3 Geography and Demography .....	3
1.4 General Information.....	7
1.5 Scope of the Thesis Research .....	8
1.6 Methodology .....	9
1.7 Literature Review.....	10
1.8 Brief Phonology of Kayah Monu.....	11
1.8.1 Consonants.....	11
1.8.2 Vowels .....	12
1.8.3 Tones.....	13
1.8.4 Syllable Structure.....	13
1.8.5 Kayah Monu Orthography .....	14
1.9 Summary .....	14
Chapter 2 Word Classes.....	15
2.1 Introduction.....	15
2.2 Major Word Classes.....	15
2.2.1 Nouns .....	15
2.2.2 Verbs .....	19
2.2.3 Adjectives .....	21
2.2.4 Adverbs .....	24
2.3 Minor Word Classes .....	27



2.3.1 Pronouns .....	27
2.3.2 Demonstratives .....	31
2.3.3 Classifiers.....	33
2.3.4 Numerals .....	37
2.3.5 Quantifiers.....	39
2.3.6 Localizers .....	41
2.3.7 Uses of <i>dá</i> .....	42
2.3.8 Conjunctions .....	45
2.3.9 Final Particles.....	46
2.3.10 Directional Verbs .....	51
2.4 Word Formation.....	53
2.4.1 Compoundings .....	53
2.4.2 Affixation.....	56
2.4.3 Elaborate Expressions .....	57
2.4.4 Reduplication .....	59
2.5 Summary .....	59
Chapter 3 Noun Phrase .....	60
3.1 Introduction.....	60
3.2 Sub-constituents of Noun Phrase .....	60
3.2.1 The Head of the Noun Phrase .....	61
3.2.2 Possessive Noun Phrase .....	63
3.2.3 Adjective Phrase .....	64
3.2.4 Relative Clause .....	67
3.2.5 Quantifier Phrase .....	67
3.2.6 Classifier Phrase.....	68
3.2.7 Demonstrative .....	71
3.2.8 Topic Marker .....	71
3.2.9 Complex Noun Phrase .....	72
3.3 Summary .....	74
Chapter 4 Verb Phrase .....	75
4.1 Introduction.....	75
4.2 Auxiliaries.....	76
4.2.1 Preverbal Auxiliaries .....	77
4.2.2 Postverbal Auxiliaries .....	78
4.3 Copula .....	81
4.3.1 <i>mí</i> Copula.....	82

4.3.2 ʔə Copula.....	83
4.3.3 Zero Copula .....	84
4.4 Adverb Phrase.....	85
4.5 Multiple Verb Constructions.....	87
4.5.1 Simultaneous.....	87
4.5.2 Sequential Motion.....	87
4.5.3 Resultative.....	88
4.5.4 Directive.....	88
4.5.5 Causative.....	89
4.6 Negation.....	90
4.6.1 Declarative Negation .....	90
4.6.2 Imperative Negation.....	91
4.7 Summary .....	92
Chapter 5 Simple Clauses .....	93
5.1 Introduction.....	93
5.2 Non-verbal Clauses .....	93
5.2.1 Equative Clauses .....	93
5.2.2 Existential Clauses .....	94
5.2.3 Clausal Possession .....	96
5.2.4 Locative Clauses .....	97
5.2.5 Attributive Clauses.....	97
5.3 Verbal Clauses .....	98
5.3.1 Intransitive Clauses .....	99
5.3.2 Semitransitives Clauses .....	100
5.3.3 Transitive Clauses .....	100
5.3.4 Ditransitive Clauses .....	101
5.4 Oblique Constituents.....	102
5.4.1 Location .....	103
5.4.2 Source .....	104
5.4.3 Recipient .....	105
5.4.4 Goal.....	105
5.4.5 Benefactive .....	106
5.4.6 Instrument .....	106
5.4.7 Accompaniment .....	107
5.4.8 Time .....	107
5.4.9 Ability .....	107

5.5 Summary .....	108
Chapter 6 Complex Clauses .....	109
6.1 Introduction .....	109
6.2 Coordination .....	109
6.3 Subordination .....	110
6.3.1 Complement Clauses .....	111
6.3.2 Relative Clauses .....	112
6.3.3 Adverbial Clauses .....	114
6.4 Summary .....	121
Chapter 7 Sentence Types.....	122
7.1 Introduction .....	122
7.2 Declarative (Statements) .....	122
7.3 Imperative (Commands) .....	123
7.3.1 Regular Imperatives .....	123
7.3.2 Prohibitive Imperatives .....	124
7.3.3 Polite Imperatives .....	124
7.3.4 Hortative Imperatives.....	125
7.4 Interrogative (Questions) .....	126
7.4.1 Yes-No Questions .....	126
7.4.2 Content Questions .....	126
7.4.3 Disjunctive (Negative) Questions .....	130
7.5 Summary .....	131
Chapter 8 Conclusion.....	132
8.1 Introduction.....	132
8.2 Summary of Findings.....	132
8.3 Further Research .....	134
Bibliography .....	136
Appendix A Earthworm and termite.....	138
Appendix B How to cook rice?.....	141
Appendix C How to prepare a rice-field? .....	144
Appendix D The happiest day.....	147
Appendix E A difficult living .....	150
Appendix F Imagine being a rich person.....	153
Appendix G Future growth .....	156
Appendix H Elicited sentences .....	159
Resume.....	194

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Information on Informants.....	9
Table 2 Kayah Monu Consonants (adapted from Myar Reh: 2004).....	12
Table 3 Kayah Monu Vowels (adapted from Myar Reh: 2004).....	12
Table 4 Kayah Monu Tones.....	13
Table 5 Consonant Clusters in Kayah Monu.....	13
Table 6 People Names in Kayah Monu.....	17
Table 7 Place Names in Kayah Monu.....	17
Table 8 Titles in Kayah Monu.....	17
Table 9 Abstract Nouns in Kayah Monu.....	19
Table 10 Pronouns in Kyah Monu.....	27
Table 11 Interrogative Pro-forms in Kayah Monu.....	30
Table 12 Demonstratives in Kayah Monu.....	33
Table 13 Sortal Classifiers in Kayah Monu.....	35
Table 14 Measure Classifiers in Kayah Monu.....	36
Table 15 The Positions of Classifiers in Kayah Monu.....	37
Table 16 Numbers 1 to 10 in Kayah Monu.....	38
Table 17 Numbers 11 to 19 in Kayah Monu.....	38
Table 18 Numbers 20 to 90 in Kayah Monu.....	39
Table 19 Higher Numbers in Kayah Monu.....	39
Table 20 Quantifiers in Kayah Monu.....	39
Table 21 Localizers of Kayah Monu.....	42
Table 22 Different Functions of <i>dá</i> .....	45
Table 23 Conjunctions in Kayah Monu.....	46
Table 24 Preverbal and Post-verbal Directional Verbs in Kayah Monu.....	53
Table 25 Endocentric Right-headed Subordinate Compound Nouns.....	54
Table 26 Endocentric Left-headed Attributive Compound Nouns.....	55
Table 27 Exocentric or Idiomatic Compound Nouns.....	55
Table 28 Nominal Coordinate Compound Nouns.....	55
Table 29 Verb Nominalizations.....	56
Table 30 Adjective Nominalizations.....	57
Table 31 Agent Nominalizations.....	57
Table 32 ABAC Pattern of Noun Elaborate Expressions.....	58
Table 33 ABAC Pattern of Adjective Elaborate Expressions.....	58
Table 34 Preverbal and Postverbal Auxiliaries.....	77
Table 35 Movable and Unmovable Auxiliaries.....	81
Table 36 Different Negations of Copulas.....	85
Table 37 Interrogative Pro-forms in Kayah Monu.....	127

## **LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 1 Language Classifications (Bradley 1997: 47) .....	2
Figure 2 Classification of Karen Languages (Manson 2002) .....	3
Figure 3 Location of Kayah State in Myanmar .....	4
Figure 4 Location of Kayah Monu Area in Kayah State .....	5
Figure 5 Kayah Monu Villages Area in Kayah State .....	6

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS**

(\*) = Content in parenthesis is ungrammatical

( ) = Optional (in examples and schema)

\* = Ungrammatical

\*() = Without content in parenthesis, it is ungrammatical

{ } = Either or (in schema)

∅ = Zero

1S = First person singular

1P = First person plural

2S = Second person singular

2P = Second person plural

3S = Third person singular

3P = Third person plural

ADJ = Adjective

AdjP = Adjective phrase

ADV = Adverb

AdvP = Adverb phrase

APPL = Applicative marker

ASP = Aspect

ASRT = Assertive

AUX = Auxiliary

C = Consonant (only in Chapter 1)

CAE = Contrast in Analogous Environment

CLF = Classifier

ClfP = Classifier phrase  
COMPL = Completive aspect marker  
COMPZR = Complementizer  
CONJ = Conjunction  
COORD = Coordinating connective  
COP = Copula  
HORT = Hortative  
INTS = Intensifier  
DEM = Demonstrative  
FN = Footnote  
IMP = Imperative  
INTRG = Interrogative pro-form  
LCLZR = Localizer  
Lit = Literal translation  
Loc = Location  
LRP = Language Resource Person  
MOD = Modality  
N = Noun  
NEG = Negation  
NMLZR = Nominalizer  
NP = Noun phrase  
NPROP = Proper noun  
NUM = Numeral  
OBL = Oblique  
POSS = Possessive pronoun  
PP = Prepositional phrase

PREP = Preposition  
PRO = Pronoun  
PRT = Particle  
QP = Question particle  
QUANT = Quantifier  
QntP = Quantifier phrase  
RECP = Reciprocal pronoun  
REFL = Reflexive pronoun  
REL = Relativizer  
RC = Relative clause  
RSMP = Resumptive pronoun  
S = Sentence  
S<sub>Main</sub> = Main clause  
S<sub>Comp</sub> = Complement clause  
S<sub>Sub</sub> = Subordinate clause  
S<sub>Poss</sub> = Possessive clause  
SF = Sentence final  
SUBORD = Subordinating connective  
TOP = Topic marker  
V = Verb  
V = Vowel (only in Chapter 1)  
V<sub>Dir</sub> = Directional verb  
VP = Verb phrase  
V<sub>Complex</sub> = Verb complex  
V<sub>Motion</sub> = Motion verb  
XP = Constituent



# Chapter 1

## Introduction

### 1.1 Introduction

Kayah Monu is a Karen language of the Tibeto-Burman language family of Sino-Tibetan spoken in the Southwest of Kayah State, Myanmar. There is a phonology of the Kayah Monu language but no grammatical studies of Kayah Monu have been published. The previous phonological study was done by Myar Doo Myar Reh in his M.A thesis. This thesis presents an initial description of the grammatical structures of Kayah Monu.

The purpose of this chapter is to present a basic introduction to the language and people as well as to present basic geographic locations and demographic information about the Kayah Monu. It provides information about the informants used to collect the data used in this research. It also describes the objectives, benefits, scope and methodology of this study. It finally includes a brief overview of the phonological of the Kayah Monu. The phonology section presents the consonant and vowel tones inventories, and the syllable structure of Kayah Monu.

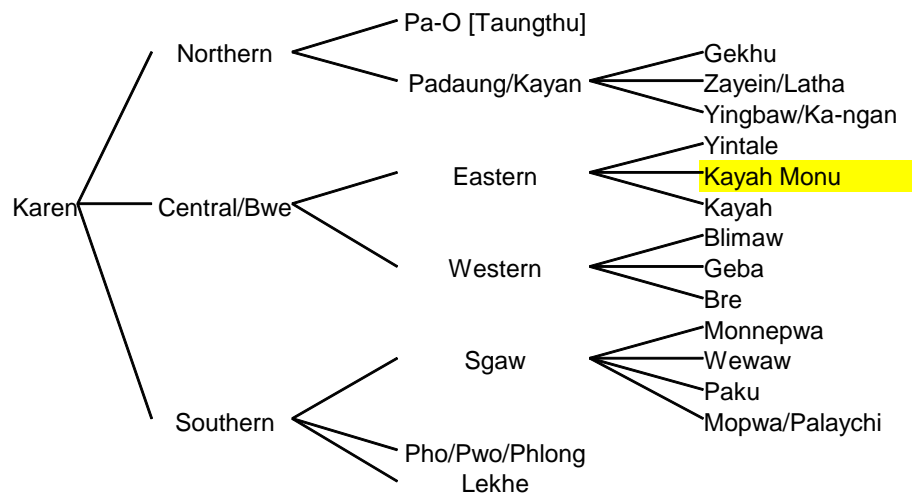
### 1.2 Language and People

Kayah Monu is one of the Karenic languages spoken in Kayah State (formerly called Karenni State) of Myanmar. Kayah Monu is a Central Karen language, belongs to the Karenic branch under the Tibeto-Burman language family group of Sino-Tibetan. According to Bradley (1997: 47), Kayah Monu is in the Eastern Central Karenic group. However, its position among Tibeto-Burman languages has been disputed. Matisoff classifies Kayah Monu under Tibeto-Burman while Benedict (1973) and Egerod (1973) classify it under Tibeto-Karen due to its distinctive characteristic of having a SVO structure like other Karenic languages which differs from the SOV structure of all other Tibeto-Burman languages.

Kayah Monu has alternate language names. In previous research, this language was called Manu (Bradley 1997, Manson 2002), Manumanaw (Ethnologue, Joshua Project) and Monumanaw (Kauffman 1993: 5, Myardoo Myarreh). There is a book

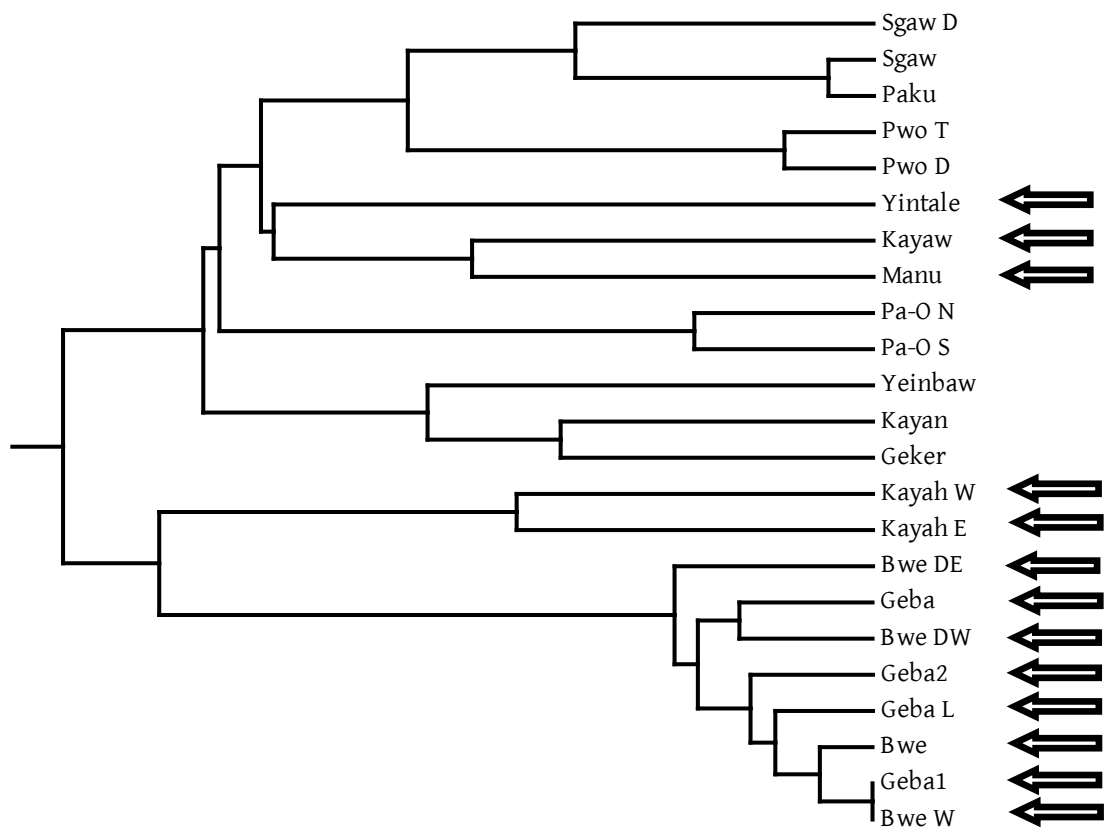
“A History of Kayah Monu”, published by the Kayah Monu literature committee in 2000. This book is the latest book which describes updated information about the Kayah Monu people. It is written in Burmese and includes an ethnographical overview, history, traditions and culture of Kayah Monu people. This book relates that on May 3<sup>rd</sup> 1970, Kayah Monu representatives from Loikaw, Phroso, Daw La Saw, and Taw Khu held a meeting at U Mi Lo’s house in Dee Dar Ku quarter, Phruso Township. From that meeting, all representatives rejected the well-known name ‘Manumanaw’ used by outsiders instead they agreed to refer themselves by using the old names ‘Kayah Monu’ /kà jà mò nù/ or ‘Kayaw Monu Phu’ /kà jò mò nù p<sup>hú</sup>/. Both names mean “people who live in the west region or west people”. Native speakers refer to their language by these two names which are widely used nowadays (History of Kayah Monu, 2000: 80). The researcher refers to this language as Kayah Monu in this study.

Bradley (1997) illustrates the classification of Karen within Tibeto-Burman family in Figure 1. He regards Kayah Monu as one of the Eastern Central Karenic groups. Bradley presents three main groups of Karenic: Northern, Central/Bwe and Southern. Under these three groups, he sub-classifies each. Kayah Monu is found in the Eastern branch of the Central/Bwe group.



**Figure 1 Language Classifications (Bradley 1997: 47)**

According to Manson (2002), Figure 2 summarizes a lexicostatistic analysis showing that the central Karen languages (marked with arrows) do not belong to a unified group within Karen. This diagram is based on wordlist data collected from different 20 Karenic languages wordlists. The analysis is based on lists of 32 words.



**Figure 2 Classification of Karen Languages (Manson 2002)**

In his thesis, Myar Reh said that Kayah Monu includes two dialects: Monu and Manaw. Monu is the northern dialect and Manaw the Southern. They appear to be two separate languages because Baptists live in the Manaw part and Roman Catholic live in the Monu part. They are not only different in the name of their locations and accent but since they are also different in religious beliefs so they appear to outsiders to be two different dialects. However both sides consider themselves to be the same. In Myar Doo Myar Reh’s M.A thesis, he refers to both of them as Monumanaw (Myar Reh, 2004: 15). From the researcher’s point of view, both Baptist and Roman Catholic use one language as they have high intelligibility and can communicate with each other very well with no apparent difficulties.

### **1.3 Geography and Demography**

Kayah Monu people are found primarily in the Southwest part of Kayah State, Myanmar. Kayah State is located in the eastern part of Myanmar and it borders Shan State to the northeast, Karen State to the southwest and Thailand to the east. It is one of the smallest states in Myanmar (see Figure 3).



**Figure 3 Location of Kayah State in Myanmar**

In Kayah State, the Kayah Monu villages can be found west of Bawlakhe and Phruso townships. They also form communities in one quarter of Loikaw, a quarter of Phruso and a quarter of Demawso. They are also found in Naa Phe village, Bawlakhe Township. Naa Phe is the place where the researcher recorded and collected his data. There are a total of 21 villages and three town quarters (see Figure 4 and Figure 5).



**Figure 4 Location of Kayah Monu Area in Kayah State**

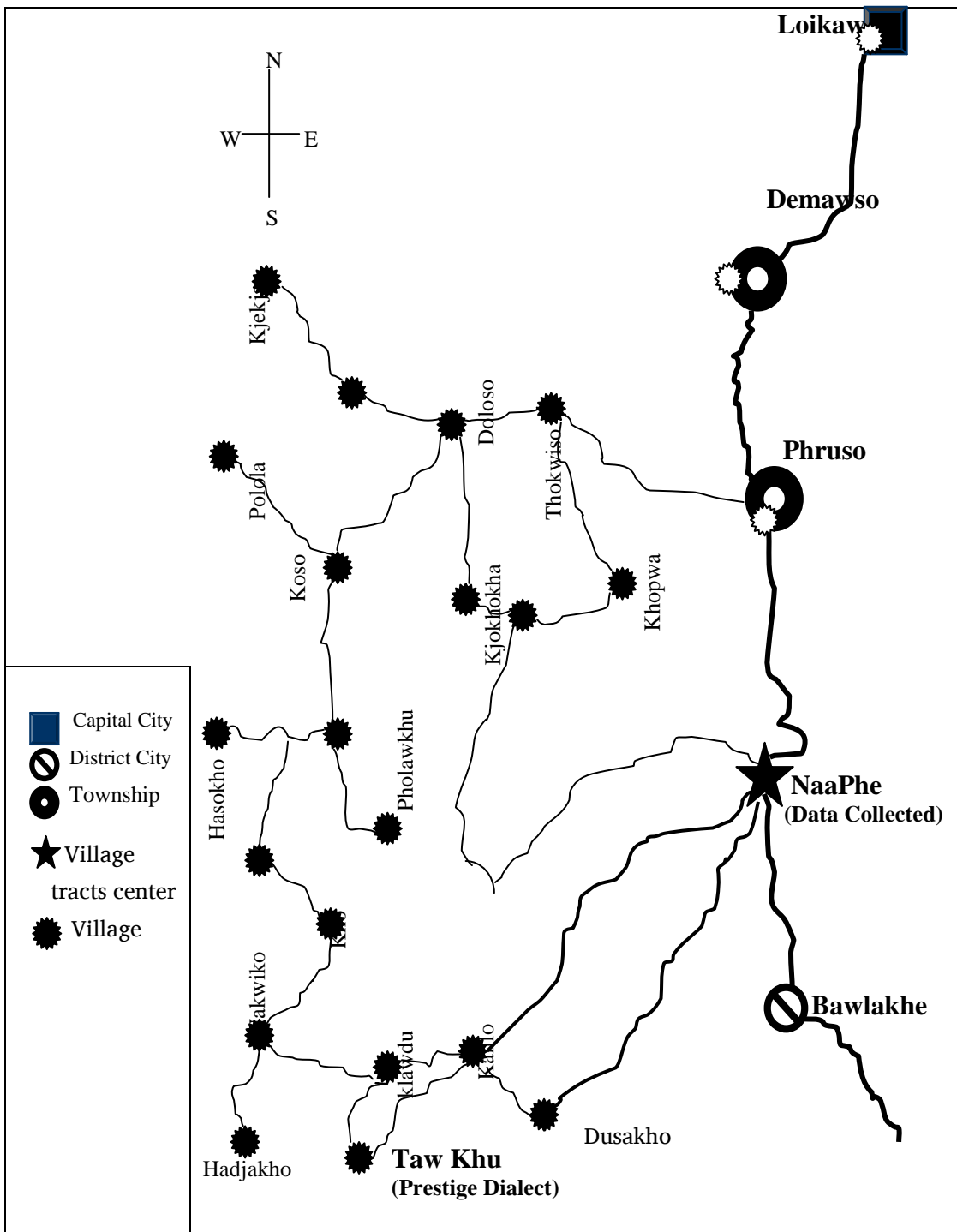


Figure 5 Kayah Monu Villages Area in Kayah State

There are different estimated populations of Kayah Monu given. According to the census of Myanmar in 1980, the population of Kayah Monu speakers was 4060. Another current estimate population is 10,000 (Bradley, Myardoo Myarreh, and Ethnologue). In *A History of Kayah Monu*, the total population of Kayah Monu is more than 5000 speakers (History of Kayah Monu, 2000: 46). From online resources, the population of Kayah Monu is reported to be 9800 (Joshua Projects), or 10,000 (Multitree: A Digital Library of Language Relationships).

## **1.4 General Information**

Historically, the Kayah Monu people were animists, but currently, all Kayah Monu speakers have converted to Christianity. The Kayah Monus are fully Christians, 70% of Kayah Monu speakers are Baptists and 30% are Roman Catholic. In a Kayah Monu community, if a village chief gives a command to do something, the whole community totally follows his instruction, even if they are displeased with his decision. They are hard-workers and have very limited free time. They wake up at four o' clock in the early morning, prepare their meal and then leave to go to their fields. It is very common, if a family builds or repairs their old house, that at least one person from each family in the village would come to help that family. If there is a funeral service in the village, most villagers come to join and some bring food, rice, drinks or contribute as much as they can afford to show their sympathy. Teamwork is very important in Kayah Monu society.

Farming and cultivation is the main vocation of the Kayah Monu people. The basic steps, ploughing, harrowing, planting and harvesting, are done by the whole village working cooperatively. They trade their goods, handicrafts, and foods in Phruso Township. The main goods for trade are betel nuts and betel leaf, beans, plantains, and oranges. These things are all sold to buy household items, kitchen things, and other necessities. Women and men do different work. Men work by cutting bamboo, chopping wood, erecting posts, ploughing, carrying heavy things and butchering animals. Women do cooking, weaving and do all the domestic work at home.

The traditional Kayah Monu costume is very similar to Kayah Li costumes and can be considered a variant of it. Men wear black or white woven pants with white shirts. Men also wear white turbans on their head similar to other mountainous Karen people. Kayah Monu woman's sarong colour is red or black, and is worn with a black shawl. Women also wear black turbans on their head and a white sash worn

around the waist. Black loops made by white cotton and painted in black are worn at a women's knee and calf.

The Kayah Monu have significant contact with other languages, including Sgaw, Kayah Li and Burmese. In the west part of Bawlakhe Township, the Sgaw Karen language is important for communicating with the neighboring Sgaw. Sgaw Karen is also used in the churches for religious purposes. In Phruso Township, Kayah Li and Burmese are languages of wider communication.

### **1.5 Scope of the Thesis Research**

In this study, different genres of texts: 1<sup>st</sup> person narratives (happy and sad experience stories), descriptions of how to do X (two procedure stories), wish or imagination stories (two regret stories), and a traditional story (one folktale) were collected and used. Moreover, elicited grammatical sentences for specific phrases and clauses were collected for analysis.

All the data was collected from only one village named Taw Khu. All Kayah Monu speakers recognize the Taw Khu variety as the standard/prestige variety and it is also officially approved as a standard for the Kayah Monu orthography. The data used in this study is derived primarily from four language resource persons. They range in age from 35 to 75 years. Data collection was done within a period of 2 months (March & April 2012) at Nan Phe village. Due to the difficulty of transportation, the researcher arranged a convenient/middle place (Nan Phe village) to meet those informants then collected the data there. The researcher's own background knowledge of the language helped in analyzing the data. The researcher speaks Wester Kayah Li and has had previous contact with the Kayah Monu from that area. The sociolinguistic background was based on data collected from LRPs living in the same village. Table 1 shows the biographic data of each informant.



**Table 1 Information on Informants**

	Informant (1)	Informant (2)	Informant (3)	Informant (4)
Gender	M	M	M	M
Age	75	60	56	35
Job	Farmer	Religious teacher	Church leader	Farmer
Birth place	Taw Khu village, Phruso Township, Kayah State	Taw Khu village, Phruso Township, Kayah State	Taw Khu village, Phruso Township, Kayah State	Taw Khu village, Phruso Township, Kayah State
Mother tongue	Kayah Monu	Kayah Monu	Kayah Monu	Kayah Monu
Other languages	Sgaw Karen	Sgaw Karen, Burmese	Sgaw Karen, Burmese	Sgaw Karen, Burmese
Religion and denomination	Baptist Christian	Baptist Christian	Baptist Christian	Baptist Christian

Elicited grammatical sentences supplemented the text analysis and were verbally translated from English into Burmese and then the language helper provided a translation equivalent in Kayah Monu. The thesis does not include a description of information structure, or text discourse analysis. Due to the limited of time and data, this study only presents an overview of the grammar structure. It should be helpful for language learners and those who want to explore this language further. Much more research is needed to understand the details and complexities of this language.

## 1.6 Methodology

The general process for analysis consisted of recording a text, then with native speakers going over the recorded text and creating an initial interlinear transcription and go free translations first into Burmese and later into English.

The primary methods of data collection were recording not only narratives but also eliciting basic grammatical sentences. The lengths of each text range from 5 to 60 clauses. Sound recordings were made using a MiniDisc recorder which was then transfer to computer as MP3 files. Texts and elicited material were transcribed using International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) symbols and entered into the computer database program called “Fieldworks Language Explorer” in order to be examined. A 436 wordlist was recorded from a single person and new words were discovered through the interlinearization of the collected texts. After interlinearizing texts, the subsequent analysis was then checked with another two female speakers to confirm whether the glosses were accurate or not.

Additional interlinearizing and analysis of the selected texts was done in Chiang Mai. English glosses, grammatical categories and free translation in English were also entered in Fieldworks. The data were analyzed from a descriptive perspective and then this grammar sketch, including phrase and clause structure was created. Meanwhile, the interlinear translations were revised. After a preliminary grammar was drafted, the analysis was frequently re-checked with native speakers. From the result of this analysis, the basic grammatical structures of Kayah Monu are presented.

## **1.7 Literature Review**

Kayah Monu phonology was done by Myar Doo Myar Reh and David Solnit has done research on Eastern Kayah Li Grammar. Additionally, this thesis uses the research on closely related languages compiled by Robert B. Jones Jr., Kenneth Neil Manson and Hsar Shee. All these references provided help for doing this research. Each is briefly summarized below.

*A Phonological Comparison of Selected Karenic Language Varieties of Kayah State*, by Myar Reh (2004): this thesis mainly focuses on a phonological comparison of selected Karenic language varieties of Kayah state. The synchronic phonologies of Kayaw, Kayah Monu and Yintale are compared with Kayah Li. The study focuses on the comparison of consonants, vowels and tones in these four languages in order to learn how closely they are related to each other. It also determines the correspondences between these elements. The researcher uses the Kayah Monu phonology from Myar Reh in this research.

*Eastern Kayah Li: Grammar, Texts, Glossary* by Solnit (1997): this book looks at a typological outline, a phonology, detailed grammar structures, dialect and orthographic information about Kayah Li (one of the central Karenic group languages), and other related Karen languages.

*Karen Linguistic Studies: Description, Comparison and Texts* by Jones, Robert B, Jr. (1961): this book primarily presents a general overview of phonology and grammar structures found in Karen languages. Moreover, the author adds the comparison and reconstruction of Karen languages. He also incorporates some texts from different Karen groups to help the reader get some idea of what Karen languages look like.

*A Grammar of Kayan: a Tibeto-Burman Language* by Manson (2010): this thesis is the first grammatical description of Kayan, a Tibeto-Burman language of the Karen

branch spoken in Myanmar and Thailand. This thesis consists of thirteen chapters and an appendix. It describes the phonology (including the tonal system) and the complete grammatical structures of Kayan with illustrations.

*A Descriptive Grammar of Geba Karen* by Hsar Shee (2008): This thesis describes the basic structure of Geba Karen grammar within 'Basic Linguistic Theory' (BLT). BLT is based on traditional grammar. In this thesis, Geba Karen, a previously unresearched language is introduced. The basic grammar structure and the basic phonology of Geba Karen are discussed. The phonology presented is not yet complete. This thesis covers a wide-range of phonological and grammatical topics and opens the door for future research on Geba.

*A History of Kayah Monu* by Peter Ko Doe Ri, U & Mateo Ket Ri, U (2000): this book was arranged and published by the Kayah Monu literature committee. This book tries to update the latest information about Kayah Monu. It is written in Burmese. It presents the worldview, ethnographical details, the traditions and culture of the Kayah Monu people.

## **1.8 Brief Phonology of Kayah Monu**

This section provides brief information on the phonology of Kayah Monu. It presents the consonant, vowel, and tone inventories of Kayah Monu, and its syllable structure. The phonology presented in this chapter was taken from the M.A Thesis '*A Phonology Comparison of Selected Karenic Language Varieties of Kayah State*' written by Myar Doo Myar Reh in 2004. However, small changes based on the researcher's analysis are incorporated in this section.

### **1.8.1 Consonants**

The consonant inventory of Kayah Monu includes 22 consonants (Myar Reh, 2004: 91). The phoneme chart can be seen in Table 2.

**Table 2 Kayah Monu Consonants (adapted from Myar Reh: 2004)**

Manners of articulation	Bilabial	Alveolar	Post-Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosives	p	t			k	ʔ
	p <sup>h</sup>	t <sup>h</sup>			k <sup>h</sup>	
	b	d			g	
Fricatives		s	ʃ	ç		h
Affricate			tʃ			
				dʒ		
Nasals	m	n				
Trill		r				
Approx.	w			j		
Lat. Appro		l				

## 1.8.2 Vowels

According to Myar Reh's analysis, there are 10 vowels and no diphthongs are found in Kayah Monu. There are four unrounded front vowels, one central vowel, two close unrounded back vowels and three rounded back vowels in Kayah Monu as shown in Table 3. Kayah Monu seems to have some breathy vowels, but there is an unaccounted for regularity between vowel breathiness and the voicing of preceding consonants.

**Table 3 Kayah Monu Vowels (adapted from Myar Reh: 2004)**

	Front	Central	Back un-rounded	Back-rounded
Close	i		ɯ	u
Close-mid	e		ɤ	o
Open-mid	ɛ	ə <sup>1</sup>		ɔ
Open	a			

<sup>1</sup> /ɜ/ was used in Myar Reh's analysis but the researcher feels that it is closer to /ə/.

### 1.8.3 Tones

There are four contrastive tones in Kayah Monu. Each tone is marked by the diacritics in Table 4. They are high, high-mid, mid, and low. It is very rare to find the contrast of the high-mid tone and mid tone. Only one pair of CAE with both these tones is found as in /lú/ ‘cloud’ and /lō/ ‘plate’ (Myar Reh, 2004: 105-106).

**Table 4 Kayah Monu Tones<sup>2</sup>**

	High	High-Mid	Mid	Low
Phonetic Transcription	ˈ	ˉ	ˉ	ˉ

### 1.8.4 Syllable Structure

Kayah Monu is an open syllable language, no consonant can be found at the end of words or syllables. There are two syllable types in Kayah Monu. They are CV and CCV. V only syllables do not occur as a glottal stop always precedes them. CCV occurs rather infrequently in Kayah Monu. The template for main syllable structure is C<sub>1</sub>(C<sub>2</sub>) V. Symbols enclosed by parentheses are optional while other elements are obligatory. All the consonants are permitted in the onset position C<sub>1</sub>. However, in the intital cluster postions of C<sub>1</sub>(C<sub>2</sub>), the first consonant C<sub>1</sub> of the cluster is restricted to /p/, /p<sup>h</sup>/, /t<sup>h</sup>/, /k/, /k<sup>h</sup>/, /l/ and the second consonant C<sub>2</sub> is limited to the liquid and approximants /r/, /l/, /j/, /w/. There are 15 types of consonant clusters in Kayah Monu as shown in Table 5.

**Table 5 Consonant Clusters in Kayah Monu**

	/p/	/p <sup>h</sup> /	/t <sup>h</sup> /	/k/	/k <sup>h</sup> /	/l/
/r/				+	+	
/l/	+	+		+	+	
/j/		+			+	+
/w/	+	+	+	+	+	+

<sup>2</sup> The researcher hypothesizes that there are only three level tones in Kayah Monu without high-mid tone and high-mid tone and mid tone presumably are the same.

### **1.8.5 Kayah Monu Orthography**

There is no established written form in Kayah Monu, although Roman based script orthographies for Kayah Mon were designed by Roman Catholic missionaries in the past. A Roman based alphabet is still used for religious purposes among the Roman Catholics. Currently, the Kayah Monu Literature Committee is implementing language development programs organized by SIL and some materials such as primer books, story books etc. were published in Burmese based script. The Kayah Monu Literature Committee is trying to approve a common orthography that is accepted by both Baptist and Roman Catholic. Both sides agreed the Taw Khu dialect as the main/prestige dialect to use for Kayah Monu orthography. That is why the researcher has done data collection from that standard dialect.

### **1.9 Summary**

This chapter looked at overview of the Kayah Monu including language and people, geography and demography, general information about Kayah Monu. The scope, the methodology, literature review of the research, a brief phonology of Kayah Monu, and brief information about Kayah Monu orthography were also presented. There are 22 consonants, 10 vowels, and 3 tones in Kayah Monu. Kayah Monu is an open syllable language, no consonant can be found at the end of words or syllables. There are two syllable types in Kayah Monu. They are CV and CCV.

## Chapter 2

### Word Classes

#### 2.1 Introduction

Chapter two describes word classes in Kayah Monu. Both open and closed classes are discussed in this chapter. It primarily involves a discussion of some diagnostics of open or major class words and listings of closed or minor class words.

#### 2.2 Major Word Classes

Major word classes are lexical categories that can function as the head of a phrase (Kroeger, 2005: 346). This chapter deals with the four major classes of lexical words that appear most widely across languages. Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs are considered the major word classes. They are also categorized as open word classes because they can accept the addition of new morphemes through such processes as modifying, compounding, derivation, and inflection.

##### 2.2.1 Nouns

Noun is a word class where members function as heads in a noun phrases. The head noun is modified by the other elements such as adjectives, numerals and classifiers. Example (1) shows a noun phrase in which the noun functions as a head and is modified by adjectives, numeral, and classifier.

- (1) **hí**    ?àlì    dó    sù    mè  
house red    big    three    CLF.round.big  
N    ADJ ADJ NUM CLF  
three big red houses

##### 2.2.1.1 Common Nouns

Common nouns in Kayah Monu can be distinguished from other types of nouns because this type of noun can be followed by numerals and classifiers. Common nouns in Kayah Monu typically denote concrete objects (human and non-human),

places and times. These usually occur with related classifiers (sometime called sortal classifiers). The following examples show different types of common nouns with their related classifiers.

Example (2) shows a common noun denoting a human classified by the human sortal classifier *pwà*.

(2) **pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó** hénù tà pwà  
**male** that one CLF.human  
 N DEM NUM CLF  
 That man

In example (3), a dog (in this case an exemplar of large, four-legged animals and rodents) is classified by the sortal classifier *dó*. In (4), a fish (here an exemplar for the set of small animals, birds, fishes and insects) is classified by the sortal classifier *bá*.

(3) jí sù **dò**  
 dog three **CLF.four legs animals**  
 N NUM **CLF**  
 three dogs

(4) tị kàní **bá**  
 fish two **CLF.flat**  
 N NUM **CLF**  
 two fishes

### 2.2.1.2 Proper Nouns

Proper nouns in Kayah Monu identify a specific entity, such as a person, place, thing, or specific period of time by an arbitrary name. This type of noun does not normally occur with either numerals or classifiers. Table 6 and Table 7 show some proper nouns for people and places in Kayah Monu.





Titles in Kayah Monu	Gloss
<i>p<sup>h</sup>àdó</i>	‘uncle’
<i>pú</i>	‘brother/sister’ (younger)
<i>wé</i>	‘brother/sister’ (older)
<i>sàrà</i>	‘teacher/sir’ (male)
<i>sàrà<sup>m̄</sup></i>	‘teacher/sir’ (female)

### 2.2.1.3 Mass Nouns

Mass nouns are also found in Kayah Monu. Mass nouns can only be counted if a measure classifier is used. Example (6) shows mass noun with a specific container to measure them.

For the mass noun *jì* ‘water’, the specific container *bē* ‘cup’ is obligatorily used to classify the noun.

(6) *jì*    *lì*    \* (*bē*)  
water four    **CLF.measure**  
N    NUM    **CLF**  
four cups of water

For the mass noun *bú* ‘paddy’ the specific container *pó* ‘basket’ is used to classify the noun as in example (7).

(7) *bú*                    *sù*    \* (*pó*)  
rice.unthreshed three    **CLF.measure**  
N                    NUM    **CLF**  
three baskets of paddy

For the mass noun *ʔèsá* ‘salt’ the specific container *ʔé* ‘bag’ is used to classify the noun as in (8).

(8) *ʔèsá* *lì*    \* (*ʔé*)  
salt four    **CLF.measure**  
N    NUM    **CLF**  
four packs of salt

As shown above, mass nouns are uncountable unless they occur with related measure classifiers.

### 2.2.1.4 Abstract Nouns

Abstract nouns in Kayah Monu are formed by adding the nominalizer prefix *t̄-* to verbs or adjectives and thereby changing their word class into nouns. Abstract nouns cannot be used with a count classifier or any container. They are uncountable nouns. Table 9 shows some abstract nouns in Kayah Monu.

**Table 9 Abstract Nouns in Kayah Monu**

Abstract Nouns	Literal Translation	Gloss
<i>t̄-mā</i>	NOM-love	'love'
<i>t̄-tàk<sup>h</sup>àsá</i>	NOM-hate	'hate'
<i>t̄-sáp<sup>h</sup>lédó</i>	NOM-angry	'anger'
<i>t̄-sòwō</i>	NOM-shy	'shame'
<i>t̄-sálsáldò</i>	NOM-rejoice	'joy'
<i>t̄-sáplá</i>	NOM-sad	'sadness'

### 2.2.2 Verbs

Verb is the name given to the parts-of-speech class in which occur most of the words that express actions, processes, and the like (Shopen, 2007: 9). Verbs are most typically events that involve concrete participant nouns. The verbs then code either the physical action, or physical change, or spatial motion of those participants (Givon, 2001: 52).

Different kinds of verbs are widely used in Kayah Monu. They always function as a predicate and generally follow the agent to denote activities, states, accomplishments, or achievements. Verbs appear as main verbs, auxiliary (pre-verbal and post-verbal), and copulas.

The following properties are used to diagnose main verbs in Kayah Monu:

- i) Verbs can be negated and followed by the general negator *t̄*
- ii) Verbs can be modified by various aspectual markers
- iii) Verbs can occur with auxiliaries/modal verbs

All tests can be used to identify both verbs and adjectives.

The example (9) shows the main verb *nùm̄* 'stink' occurring as a predicate with negation.

### Verb Negation

(9) jí nùmọ tẹ

dog stink not

N V ADV

The dog does not stink.

### Adjective Negation

Example (10) shows that the monosyllabic verb-like adjective *mē* ‘right’ is directly followed by the general negation *tẹ* that is one reason why “adjectives” are considered a subclass of verbs in Kayah Monu (for more discussion, see section 2.2.3.1 and 2.2.3.2).

(10) mē tẹ

right not

ADJ NEG

It is not right. (Lit: right not)

### Aspect

Example (11) demonstrates a verb *sì* ‘die’ directly followed and modified by both perfective and completive aspect markers *kè* and *hó* in a single clause. It indicates that the action or the event is already completed by placing those two aspect markers next to the verb. In Kayah Monu, sequences of two or more auxiliaries are allowed, in which case their order in relation to one another is generally fixed.

(11) jí sì kè hó

dog die PERF COMPL

N V ASP ASP

The dog just died (recently).

### Modal

In the following example (12), the verb *ʔá* ‘eat’ follows and is modified by the modal verb *bá* ‘must’.

(12) ʔà bá ʔá dì

3S must eat cooked-rice

PRO MOD V N

She must eat the rice.

More discussion on verbs is presented in Chapter 4.



(18) hè	hàwǐǰèwè	kè	hó	(19) ǰí	sì	kè	hó
1S	poor	PERF	COMPL	dog	die	PERF	COMPL
PRO	ADJ	ASP	ASP	N	V	ASP	ASP
I became poor.				The dog just died (recently).			

The following examples show that an adjective (21) can be modified by the same intensifier as a verb (20). *tǰpwé* ‘try’ is a verb and *sáplá* ‘dejected’ is an adjective is shown in FN 3 on page 23.

(20) hè	tǰépwé	dómàti	(21) hè	sáplá	dómàti
1S	try	very	1S	dejected	very
PRO	V	ADV	PRO	ADJ	ADV
I try a lot.			I am very dejected.		

### 2.2.3.2 Features that separate Adjectives from Verbs

There is also evidence that adjectives are distinct from prototypical verbs. Inside the noun phrase, both adjectives and verbs can modify a noun. The fact that the numeral and classifier follows adjectives shows this modification is inside a noun phrase. In a noun phrase, adjectives and verbs typically follow the head noun.

The following three example sentences show more than one adjective can occur in a noun phrase (22), whereas verbs are limited to one. If a verb modifies a noun then even if the relativizer *dá* is marginally dropped, no other adjective can follow it (23). Schematically, given [N \_ ADJ], as in (22) only an adjective can occur in the gap.

(22) hí	ʔàli	ʔàsà	sù	mè	
house	red	new	three	CLF.round.big	
N	ADJ	ADJ	NUM	CLF	
the three red new houses					
(23) * ǰí	nùmǰ	dó	ʔá	hè	*ungrammatical
dog	stink	big	bite	1S	
N	V	ADJ	V	PRO	
The big stink dog bit me.					

(24) jí dó \*(dó) nùmọ́ ʔá hè  
 dog big relativizer stink bite 1S  
 N ADJ REL V V PRO  
 The big stink dog bit me.

The next evidence is from comparative and superlative constructions. The comparative degree marker ‘*kʰlò*’ ‘more.than’ directly follows adjectives in comparative constructions. But in comparative construction of intransitive verbs, the verb is separated from *kʰlò* by *dó* ‘big’, *dówè* ‘many’ or some directional verbs. The schema for comparative formation is as below.

ADJ → ADJ *kʰlò*  
 V → V \*(X) *kʰlò/kàtù* (X represents ADJ or V<sub>Dir</sub>)

Examples (25), (26), and (27) show the comparative construction with an adjective and a verb<sup>3</sup>.

(25) hè sáplá kʰlò pʰàlú  
 1S dejected more.than Phalu  
 PRO ADJ ADV NPROP  
 I am more dejected than Phalu.

(26) pʰàbò kʰlé \*(jí) kʰlò pʰàlú  
 Phabaw run away more.than Phalu  
 NPROP V V.DIR ADV NPROP  
 Phabaw runs further than Phalu.

(27) hè tʃépwé \*(dó) kʰlò pʰàbò  
 1S try big more.than Phabaw  
 PRO V ADJ ADV NPROP  
 I try more than Phabaw.

Adjectives can also occur with the superlative degree markers ‘*kàtù*’ and ‘*lú*’ in the superlative construction. Verbs are different from adjectives in the superlative constructions because, as in the comparative construction, they need an adjective or

<sup>3</sup> This test shows that ‘try’ is a verb in (20) and ‘dejected’ is an adjective in (21) as proposed in section 2.2.3.1.

directional verb as in the examples above. The examples (28) and (29) show adjectives in the superlatives and (30) shows the superlative structure of a verb.

(28) hè ʔá \*(wí) kàtù mí m̀kʰésá  
 1S eat delicious **most** be pineapple  
 PRO V ADJ **ADV** COP N  
 My favorite food is pineapple.

(29) ʔàmè ló lùmūnì tà nì  
 happy **most** day one CLF.day  
 ADJ **ADV** N NUM CLF  
 The happiest day

(30) hè kʰə́ d́ kʰlé \*(jí) kàtù mí pʰàb̀b̀  
 1S.Poss friend that run away **most** be Phabaw  
 PRO N REL V V.DIR **ADV** COP NPROP  
 My friend who runs the most is Phabaw.

### 2.2.3.3 Summary

As can be seen above, adjectives seem to share some characteristics of verbs especially with regards to negation and aspect marker. Both main verbs and adjectives occur as the predicate of a clause without auxiliaries. But adjectives also have distinct characteristics not shared with verbs. The position and structure of adjectives modifying the head noun in a noun phrase and the comparative and superlative construction show strong evidence that adjectives exist in Kayah Monu as a distinct word class.

### 2.2.4 Adverbs

Adverbs are words which modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Typically, adverbs follow verbs. There are four types of adverbs found in Kayah Monu. They are 1) event adverbs, 2) agent adverbs, and 3) truth adverbs.

#### 2.2.4.1 Event Adverbs

Event adverbials modify the event in terms of rate, sound, or degree of action.

Example (31) shows modification of a creation event by a reiterative adverb.



(31) ʔà dī bó **tàplēsə** pùʔù hāk<sup>h</sup>ō  
 3S allow create **again** termite soil  
 PRO V V **ADV** N N  
 He (the old man) again allows termite to create the soil.

In example (32), *lālātəbá* ‘completely’ another event adverb is used to indicate exhaustive completion of an action expressed in the sentence.

(32) dʒ ʔá **lālātəbá** pùʔù hāk<sup>h</sup>ō  
 and.then eat **completely** termite soil  
 COORD V **ADV** N N  
 Then (the earthworm) completely eats the termite’s soil.

Sometimes adverbs of movement modify by using a reduplicated form. In example (33), the reduplication expresses that the rate of action that the agent is doing is fast. Both adverbs have the same tones.

(33) ʔà k<sup>h</sup>lé tʃó **p<sup>h</sup>wè p<sup>h</sup>wè**  
 3S run go **quickly quickly**  
 PRO V V **ADV ADV**  
 He runs quickly.

Adverbial elaborate expressions also appear as partially reduplicated forms where the first two syllables and the last two are the same (AABB). They can be seen in the following example (34).

(34) hè kó hè mā kó hè p<sup>h</sup>ó hè lì  
 1S and 1S.Poss wife and 1S.Poss child 1S.Poss grand child  
 PRO CONJ POSS N CONJ POSS N POSS N  
 ʔáməʔəbá **tʃótʃópwəpwə** hēpē  
 content **forever** SF.future  
 ADJ **ADV** PRT  
 I and my wife with my children and grandchildren will stay together in contentment forever.

### 2.2.4.2 Agent Adverb

Another kind of adverb modifies the attitude, disposition or technique of the agent performing the action. In Kayah Monu, these adverbs do not have to directly follow the adjective, verb, or adverb they modify. Example (35) shows the adverb *tət<sup>h</sup>ótàlǝ* ‘carefully’ which modifies *p<sup>h</sup>á?á* ‘cook’. The adverb follows after the object noun but it modifies the predicate.

- (35) ?à p<sup>h</sup>á?á hásí tət<sup>h</sup>ótàlǝ  
3S cook curry **carefully**  
PRO V N ADV  
She cooked the meat carefully.

### 2.2.4.3 Truth Adverb

Another kind of adverb modifies the proposition and is used to emphasize what the speaker believes about whether he or she is saying is true. These truth adverbs usually occur at the final position and do not have to directly follow after the verb. Examples (36) and (37) show propositions modified by truth adverbs.

- (36) ?à hé tǎwétǎkè nū ?àmē wáhó  
3S say subject.matter topic right **probably**  
PRO V N TOP ADJ ADV  
The subject matter that he said is probably right.

- (37) k<sup>h</sup>ótàni hè kà t<sup>h</sup>òwākā tǝ pēlē  
today 1S will attend school **maybe**  
ADV PRO ASP V N ADV  
Today, maybe I will attend the school.

An elaborate expression adverb intensifier that occurs after an adjective in (38) is an AABB elaboration expression.

- (38) tǎ?às<sup>h</sup>é?àk<sup>h</sup>ā k<sup>h</sup>ónó nū ?àpō?às<sup>h</sup>à tǝtǝpǝpǝ dǎ hè jā  
time now topic difficult **really** at 1S for  
N ADV TOP ADJ ADV PREP PRO LCLZR  
Nowadays, it is really difficult for me.

A discussion of adverbs as adjective intensifiers is in section 3.2.3.

Several varieties of adverb constructions are found in Kayah Monu. As can be seen above, adverbs in Kayah Monu occur as single words, reduplication, and elaborate expressions. They modify events, agents, and truth claims.

## 2.3 Minor Word Classes

Minor word classes in Kayah Monu form closed classes to which no new items can normally be added and that usually contains a relatively small number of items. Some of the closed classes, pronouns, demonstratives, preposition, localizers, numerals, classifiers, conjunctions, and directional verbs are discussed in this section.

### 2.3.1 Pronouns

Pronouns are a small closed class of words which substitute for NPs and may function as the subject or the object in a clause. They can occur as possessors in NPs. In Kayah Monu, pronouns play an important role by providing continuity and brevity. No gender or class distinctions are relevant for pronouns. There are also reflexive pronouns and reciprocal pronouns. Pronouns are marked for person (1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, and 3<sup>rd</sup>). Table 10 shows the different pronouns in Kayah Monu.

**Table 10 Pronouns in Kyah Monu**

	Number	Function				
		Subject/ free pronoun	Object	Possessor	Reflexives Reciprocals	
					human	non-human
1 <sup>st</sup> Person	singular	<i>hè</i>	<i>hè</i>	<i>hè</i>	<i>hè-ná</i>	<i>hè-tà</i>
	plural	<i>pà</i>	<i>pà</i>	<i>pà</i>	<i>pà-ná</i>	<i>pà-tà</i>
2 <sup>nd</sup> Person	singular	<i>nà</i>	<i>nà</i>	<i>nà</i>	<i>nà-ná</i>	<i>nà-tà</i>
	plural	<i>sè</i>	<i>sè</i>	<i>sè</i>	<i>sè-ná</i>	<i>sè-tà</i>
3 <sup>rd</sup> Person	singular	<i>?à</i>	<i>?à</i>	<i>?à</i>	<i>?à-ná</i>	<i>?à-tà</i>
	plural	<i>?àsè/ ?àlók<sup>h</sup>è</i>	<i>?àsè</i>	<i>?àsè</i>	<i>nó?ò</i>	<i>nó?ò</i>

As can be seen in the above table, all subject, object, and possessive personal pronouns are the same. Example (39) exemplifies the first person singular pronoun in the subject position.

(39) **hè** mé s<sup>h</sup>ájá nū **hè** kà nébá rù  
 1S if sell topic 1S will get money  
**PRO** SUBORD V TOP **PRO** ASP V N  
 If I sell them, I would get money.

For the object and oblique positions, the first person singular pronoun appears with the same form as in the subject position. Examples (40) and (41) show the first person singular pronoun in oblique and object position.

(40) tậ?às<sup>h</sup>ó?àk<sup>h</sup>ā k<sup>h</sup>ònó nū ?àpō?às<sup>h</sup>à t[<sup>h</sup>ēt[<sup>h</sup>ēpòpò] dó **hè** jā  
 time now topic difficult really at 1S for  
 N ADV TOP ADJ ADV PREP **PRO** LCLZR  
 Nowadays, it is really difficult for me..

(41) ?à sáp<sup>h</sup>lódó nótjàká **hè**  
 3S angry extremely 1S  
**PRO** ADJ ADV **PRO**  
 He extremely angry at me.

Both the 1<sup>st</sup> person singular *hè* and the possessive pronoun *hè* appear together in a single sentence. The two forms are identical as shown in (42).

(42) **hè** t<sup>h</sup>ò klḷḷ só dʻ **hè** lḷtē kḷ kè **hè** k<sup>h</sup>ḷḷèpḷ  
 1S climb.up cut tree and.then 1S down break PERF 1S.Poss leg  
**PRO** V V N COORD **PRO** V.DIR V ASP **PRO** N  
 I climb up to cut a tree and I fell down then my leg was broken.

### 2.3.1.1 Reflexive and Reciprocal Pronouns

Reflexive and reciprocal pronouns are also found in Kayah Monu and they express reflexives for animates by using the personal pronoun plus the word for *-ná* ‘body’ or *-tậ* ‘thing’. *nó?ò* ‘each other’ functions as the reciprocal pronoun. The reflexive pronoun usually co-occurs with *tậ?ó* a verbal reflexive marker. It can be used to form emphatic reflexives (43) or used as an intransitivizers (44) in Kayah Monu.

(43) *hè hé tàʔó hèná*  
 1S say alone myself  
 PRO V PRO.RFLX PRO.RFLX  
 I said it myself.

(44) *ʔà plèbásó tàʔó ʔàná*  
 3S hit alone himself  
 PRO V PRO.RFLX PRO.RFLX  
 He hits himself.

The following example (45) shows the verbal reflexive marker used in an emphatic statement. The reflexive pronoun *ʔàná* is dropped. But in (46), the reflexive pronoun is not dropped and no intransitivization occurs.

(45) *ʔà p̄ t̄àʔó jí*  
 3S beat alone dog  
 PRO V PRO.RFLX N  
 He himself beats the dog.

(46) *nà bá mà tàʔó nàtà*  
 2S must do alone yourself  
 PRO MOD V PRO.RFLX PRO.RFLX  
 You must do by yourself.

In example (47), the reiterative adverb *só* ‘again’ modifies the verb phrase. Both the verb and verbal reflexive marker precedes that adverb but the object NP follows the adverb. This suggests that *tàʔó* is a verbal marker and not a nominal marker.

(47) *ʔà p̄ t̄àʔó só jí*  
 3S beat alone again dog  
 PRO V PRO.RFLX ADV N  
 He himself hits the dog again.

For the reciprocal pronoun, the form *nóʔò* ‘each other’ is used. More than one participant is found in this kind of construction. Examples (48) and (49) show the reciprocal construction in Kayah Monu. The verbal reflexive marker *tàʔó* does not appear with *nóʔò*.

(48) ʔàsè plú nóʔò  
 3P fight each other  
 PRO V RECP  
 They fight each other.

(49) hè kó ʔà nū ʔólòkwē plóbáká nóʔò  
 1S and 3S topic play together each.other  
 PRO CONJ PRO TOP V ADV RECP  
 I and him (we) play together.

### 2.3.1.2 Interrogative Pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions. Table 11 provides a list of content interrogative pronouns in Kayah Monu. These are used in content questions that elicit a specific answer. Besides content question words, Kayah Monu also has two question particles *lē* and *ʔà* that both appear clause final. The question particle *ʔà* is optionally used in ‘Yes-No’ questions. Interrogative sentences are discussed more in section 7.4.

**Table 11 Interrogative Pro-forms in Kayah Monu**

Gloss	Interrogative Proform
who	<i>móʔè</i>
where	<i>bátè</i>
what	<i>títè</i>
when	<i>bák<sup>h</sup>àtè</i>
how	<i>hítè</i>
how much	<i>pwéʔè</i>
why	<i>màtítè</i>

### 2.3.1.3 Plural Pronoun

To use a pronoun to denote a 3<sup>rd</sup> person plural in Kayah Monu, the 3<sup>rd</sup> person pronoun singular *ʔà* + 2<sup>nd</sup> person plural *sè* combine to become 3<sup>rd</sup> person plural *ʔàsè*. Another 3<sup>rd</sup> person plural pronoun is derived by the addition of the suffix *lák<sup>h</sup>* to the root 3<sup>rd</sup> person plural form *ʔàsè*.

Examples (50) and (51) show the use of the third person plural pronoun.

(50) ?àsè tʃó tʰɔ̄ t̄  
3P lift up box  
PRO V V.DIR N  
They lift up the box.

(51) ?àsèlákʰɔ̄ pʰó ?á só jē  
3P child have CLF.human five  
PRO N V CLF NUM  
They have five children.

The above example sentences show that both 3<sup>rd</sup> person plural pronouns ?àsè and ?àsèlákʰɔ̄ can be used in the subject position.

The plural pronoun ?àsè can be used in object position as in the following example (52) while -lákʰɔ̄ is attached to subject position only.

(52) pà mà sì ?àsè  
1P do die 3P  
PRO V V PRO  
We kill them.

It is ungrammatical for the plural pronoun ?àsèlákʰɔ̄ appear at object position as in (53).

(53) \* pà mà sì ?àsèlákʰɔ̄ (ungrammatical)  
1P do die 3P  
PRO V V PRO  
We kill them.

### 2.3.2 Demonstratives

Demonstrative (modifiers) can modify a noun with deictic information (see section 2.3.2.1). Or in some cases, a demonstrative occurs without a head noun; instead it functions as demonstrative pronoun (see section 2.3.2.2).

### 2.3.2.1 Demonstratives as Modifiers

Demonstratives in Kayah Monu are used to identify a particular thing or individual which is near or far from the speaker. *hé?ù* ‘this’ is proximate and *hénù* ‘that’ and *bánù* ‘that’ are distal. Sometimes, for plural demonstratives ‘these’ or ‘those’ the quantifier *tàk<sup>h</sup>lè* is optionally added. Demonstratives normally modify a noun in a noun phrase, and typically, they follow the noun.

In the following examples (54) and (55), both demonstratives are optionally added and followed by the quantifier *tàk<sup>h</sup>lè* to show the plural.

(54) hí      **hé?ù**    *tàk<sup>h</sup>lè*  
house **this**    some  
N      **DEM**    QUANT  
these houses

(55) hí      **hénù**    *tàk<sup>h</sup>lè*    ?ó      **dónù**  
house **that**    some      be.exist **there**  
N      **DEM**    QUANT    COP      **DEM**  
those houses (way) over there

Sometimes the distal demonstrative *bánù* ‘that’ occurs at the start of an adverbial clause used to specify or emphasize time as in example (56).

(56) **bánù**    ?àk<sup>h</sup>ā    ?à      tʃólēlù    pē  
**that**    time    3S      travel    still  
**DEM**    N      PRO    V      ASP  
At that time, he (old man) is still travelling.

### 2.3.2.2 Demonstrative Pronouns

A demonstrative pronoun comes before the copula *mí* and optionally the topic marker *nū* to function as a subject in interrogatives. Examples (57) and (58) show demonstratives which occur before a copula verb in interrogative sentences.

(57) **hénù**    mí      tìtè  
**that**    be      what  
**DEM**    COP    INTRG  
What is that?



(58) **hé?ù** nū pwétè  
 this topic how.many  
**DEM TOP INTRG**  
 How much is it?

One remarkable fact is that the distal *hénù* ‘that’ can refer to an event which normally is marked a verb or verb phrase. Table 12 presents the demonstrative pronouns in Kayah Monu.

**Table 12 Demonstratives in Kayah Monu**

Referents	Near	Far
Object	<i>hé?ù</i>	<i>hénù</i>
Location	<i>bá?ù</i>	<i>dónù</i>
Time	<i>bá?ù</i>	<i>bánù</i>

Examples (59) and (60) show the distal demonstrative *hénù* ‘that’ which follows and refers to an event which normally is marked a verb or verb phrase.

(59) mà **hénù** dʻ hè ʃipènà pè pē tà kʰó t̚  
 do **that** and.then 1S forget able.can still one CLF.time not  
 V **DEM** COORD PRO V MOD ASP NUM CLF NEG  
 By doing that, I can still never forget about that day.

(60) mà **hénù** ?à tʰò tʰó kè dì ?àbó tà kàpùr hó  
 do **that** 3S become up PERF cooked.rice white one pot COMPL  
 V **DEM** PRO V V.DIR ASP N N NUM N ASP  
 By doing that it becomes a pot of white cooked-rice.

### 2.3.3 Classifiers

Classifiers in Kayah Monu are preceded by numerals. Classifiers accompany nouns to mark a specific class of nouns. Sometimes the classes differentiate based on a semantic feature such as the physical shape of the noun or the difference between “animacy” and “inanimacy”.

In some cases the classifier has the same form as the noun it classifies. Generally, most classifiers (CLF) follow numerals (NUM) which come after the head noun. However, sometimes classifiers precede numerals for humans. See the discussion on Table 15 for more detail on this.

The classifier usage depends on noun that is the head of a noun phrase. There are two kinds of classifiers: sortal and measure. Sortal classifiers are typical count type nouns and are semantically based. Measure classifiers are used to measure mass nouns and denote a container, weight, height, group, or amount.

Examples (61), (62), and (63) show sortal classifiers in noun phrases.

(61) dítǎ sù bá  
spoon three **CLF.flat**  
N NUM **CLF**  
three spoons

(62) hí sù mē  
house three **CLF.round.big**  
N NUM **CLF**  
three houses

(63) shù tà bō  
tree one **CLF.long and thin**  
N NUM **CLF**  
a tree

Table 13 is a list of semantic based sortal classifiers.

**Table 13 Sortal Classifiers in Kayah Monu**

Classifiers	Semantic (Sortal)	Examples
<i>pwà</i>	human	king, woman, man, children
<i>só</i>	human	king, woman, man, children
<i>dō</i>	mammals, rodents, four legs animal	elephant, dog, horse
<i>bō</i>	long, thin, cylindrical, hair	tree, snake, river, pencil, hairs,
<i>dā</i>	village	vilalges
<i>mú</i>	plants	tree
<i>mè</i>	big and rounded things	house, mango, banana, bugs, silkworms, mountain, stars
<i>k<sup>h</sup>ō</i>	vehicle	bicycle, bus
<i>tfó</i>	kind, non-human object things	desire, curry (kind)
<i>prò</i>	generic	unspecified
<i>bá</i>	flat things	book, spoon, money, teeth
<i>bá</i>	animals or vehicles that fly and swim	birds, fish, plane, boat,
<i>bō</i>	pole, long, grass	pole, rope, grasses
<i>jù</i>	subject, topic	story, news, bibliography, monograph
<i>pù</i>	clothes	shirts, trousers, blankets
<i>nì</i>	day	days

There are also measure classifiers used in Kayah Monu. Some measure classifiers are shown in the following examples.

(64) *ʃì lì bē*  
 water four CLF.cup  
 N NUM CLF  
 four cups of water

(65) *ʔà rù ʔó jē bá*  
 3S money have five CLF.flat  
 PRO N V NUM CLF  
 He has five kyats.

(66) sék<sup>h</sup>á kàní pḵ  
 alcohol two CLF.measure  
 N NUM CLF  
 two bottles of alcohol

Table 14 lists some measure classifiers with their related example usages.

**Table 14 Measure Classifiers in Kayah Monu**

Classifiers	Unit	Substance Measured	Examples
<i>bē</i>	dish or cup	water, curry	a cup of water, a dish of curry
<i>métsumū</i>	finger	measure size	two inches, three feet
<i>pḵ</i>	bottle	oil, wine	three bottles of wine
<i>kàpiù</i>	pot	rice, curry	a pot of rice/ curry
<i>mè</i>	round thing	water container made of bamboo	three water containers
<i>pó</i>	basket, bucket	water, oil	water
<i>pló</i>	heap	paddy, stone	a heap of paddy
<i>mū</i>	group	human	a group/team of people
<i>klḵ</i>	plot	land	a field, plot,
<i>kò</i>	hole	hole, cave	two holes, a cave
<i>k<sup>h</sup>ḵ</i>	time	frequency, number of times,	once, twice,
<i>ʔé</i>	bag, pack		a bag of rice, a pack of salt
<i>k<sup>h</sup>ḵ</i>	pair things	windows, doors, hands, shoes	a window, two hands

The Table 15 shows the positions of classifiers for both human and non-human. The schematic constructions are [N Num Clf] and [N Clf Num]. The non-human classifier *dò* is used for four-leg animals and the human classifier *pwà* is the main classifier for human.

It is common for a semantically null prefix *ʔà-* to attach to a classifier when the classifier precedes the numeral in a classifier phrase.

The human classifier *só* ‘person’ only precedes the numbers “two, three, four, and five”.

For all other classifiers, usually the classifiers follow the number, but for the numbers six and eight, and all multiples of ten, the classifier precedes the number as in the following.

**Table 15 The Positions of Classifiers in Kayah Monu**

	<b>Non-human</b>	<b>Human – <i>só</i></b>	<b>Human – <i>pwà</i></b>
1	ʃí tà dò dog one CLF.animal	NOT POSSIBLE	kòjò tà pwà people one CLF.human
2	ʃí kàní dò dog two CLF.animal	kòjò só kàní people CLF.human two	kòjò kàní pwà people two CLF.human
6	ʃí ʔàdò sù só dog CLF.animals three pair	NOT POSSIBLE	kòjò ʔàpwà sù só people CLF.human three pair
7	ʃí sù só tà dò dog three pair one CLF.animal	NOT POSSIBLE	kòjò sù só tà pwà people three pair one CLF.human
10	ʃí ʔàdò ʃí dog CLF.animals ten	NOT POSSIBLE	kòjò ʔàpwà ʃí people CLF.human ten
20	ʃí ʔàdò kàní ʃí dog CLF.animals two ten	NOT POSSIBLE	kòjò ʔàpwà kàní ʃí people CLF.human two ten

### 2.3.4 Numerals

The numeral systems of Kayah Monu are discussed in this section. Normally, most languages have a specific name for each number from one to ten, but the numeral system in Kayah Monu is different from others. In Kayah Monu, the number six is equivalent to three + Classifier (pairs), and the number eight is four + Classifier (pairs). The number seven and nine are different still, with seven having the combination of six (three + pairs) plus one and nine, the combination of eight (four + pairs) plus one as it can be seen in Table 16. The cardinal numbers from 11 to 19 are presented in Table 17.

**Table 16 Numbers 1 to 10 in Kayah Monu**

Kayah Monu Numerals	Gloss	Literal Translation
<i>tà</i>	'one'	
<i>kàní</i>	'two'	
<i>sù</i>	'three'	
<i>lì</i>	'four'	
<i>jē</i>	'five'	
<i>sù só</i>	'six'	three + pair
<i>sù só tà</i>	'seven'	three + pair + one
<i>lì só</i>	'eight'	four + pair
<i>lì só tà</i>	'nine'	four + pair + one
<i>fí</i>	'ten'	

**Table 17 Numbers 11 to 19 in Kayah Monu**

Kayah Monu Numerals	Gloss	Literal Translation
<i>fí tà</i>	'eleven'	ten + one
<i>fí kàní</i>	'twelve'	ten + two
<i>fí sù</i>	'thirteen'	ten + three
<i>fí lì</i>	'fourteen'	ten + four
<i>fí jē</i>	'fifteen'	ten + five
<i>fí sù só</i>	'sixteen'	ten + three + pair
<i>fí sù só tà</i>	'seventeen'	ten + three + pair + one
<i>fí lì só</i>	'eighteen'	ten + four + pair
<i>fí lì só tà</i>	'nineteen'	ten + four + pair + one

Table 18 presents Kayah Monu numbers from twenty to ninety. Table 19 shows higher numbers in Kayah Monu. Such numbers *jà* 'hundred', *só* 'ten thousand' and *sí* 'hundred thousand' are loan words from Burmese.

**Table 18 Numbers 20 to 90 in Kayah Monu**

Kayah Monu Numerals	Gloss	Literal Translation
<i>kàní fí</i>	'twenty'	two + ten
<i>sù fí</i>	'thirty'	three + ten
<i>lì fí</i>	'forty'	four + ten
<i>jē fí</i>	'fifty'	five + ten
<i>ʔàfí sùsó</i>	'sixty'	ten + six
<i>sùsótà fí</i>	'seventy'	seven + ten
<i>ʔàfí lísó</i>	'eighty'	ten + eight
<i>lísótà fí</i>	'ninety'	nine + ten

**Table 19 Higher Numbers in Kayah Monu**

Kayah Monu Numerals	Gloss
<i>tà jà</i>	'one hundred'
<i>tà rí</i>	'one thousand'
<i>tà só</i>	'ten thousand'
<i>tà sí</i>	'one hundred thousand'

### 2.3.5 Quantifiers

Quantifiers are modifiers of nouns that indicate quantity or scope. A quantifier expresses a referent's definite or indefinite number or amount. There are six quantifiers in Kayah Monu and they are shown in Table 20.

**Table 20 Quantifiers in Kayah Monu**

Quantifiers in Kayah Monu	Gloss
<i>dówè</i>	many
<i>lóbò</i>	all
<i>tàk<sup>h</sup>là</i>	some
<i>tàkí</i>	few
<i>tàkíp<sup>h</sup>ú</i>	few
<i>tàsílí</i>	few

Example (67) shows that the quantifier *dówè* ‘many’ occurs after the noun in a noun phrase.

(67) hí      ?àlì    hénù    **dówè**  
house red    that    **many**  
N      ADJ    DEM    **QUANT**  
many of those red houses

In examples (68) (an existential clause), *dówè* ‘many’ follows a copula and a verb.

(68) kànē    ?á      **dówè**  
bee    be.exist    **many**  
N      COP      **QUANT**  
The bees are many.

In examples (69), *lób̀̀* ‘all’ comes after the noun to function as an indefinite quantifier.

(69) hí      **lób̀̀**  
house **all**  
N      **QUANT**  
all houses

Example (70) shows the quantifier *tàk<sup>h</sup>l̀̀* ‘some’ is normally added to a noun to create a non-specific plural.

(70) jí      **tàk<sup>h</sup>l̀̀**  
dog **some**  
N      **QUANT**  
dogs (or) some dogs

In Kayah Monu, there cannot be both a ClfP and a quantifier in the same NP and it is ungrammatical as in (71) and (72).

(71) \* hí      **tàk<sup>h</sup>l̀̀**      sù      m̀̀      ungrammatical  
house **some**      three    CLF.round.big  
N      **QUANT**    NUM    CLF  
some three houses



(72) \* hí sù mè tàk<sup>h</sup>lè ungrammatical  
house three CLF.round.big **some**  
N NUM CLF **QUANT**  
some three houses

In example (73), the quantifiers *tàkíp<sup>h</sup>ú* and *tàsílí* appear after the noun and both have the same meaning.

(73) hí tàkíp<sup>h</sup>ú / tàsílí  
house few few  
N **QUANT** **QUANT**  
few houses

See section (3.2.5) for more on quantifiers.

### 2.3.6 Localizers

Localizers, also called relator nouns (Watters 136-137) and location nouns (Hartmann 2008: 93-95), are specialized words that function to provide a more specific locational reference to the location preposition *dá*. Localizers form a closed class of nouns that cover much of the semantic territory of English prepositions. While they are not structurally equivalent to prepositions they are also not truly postpositions (Solnit 1997: 209). Localizers are not usually modified by any noun modifier, classifier, relative clause, demonstrative, possessor (Manson 2010: 241).

Kayah Monu has a number of localizers which co-occur with the location preposition *dá*. All these localizers point out the specific location of the place denoted by the noun. In examples (74), (75), and (76), the localizers come after the noun and denote specific places or locations.

(74) jí ?á dá wē kō  
dog be.exist at yard **in**  
N COP PREP N **LCLZR**  
The dog in the yard.

(75) dì ?á dá sàbwé k<sup>h</sup>ó  
cooked.rice be.exist at table **on**  
N COP PREP N **LCLZR**  
Cooked rice is on the table.

(76) p<sup>h</sup>itʃá ʔó      dǎ      hí      lǎ  
 child be.exist at      house **under**  
 N      COP      PREP N      **LCLZR**  
 The child is under the house.

The localizers used in Kayah Monu are listed in Table 21.

**Table 21 Localizers of Kayah Monu**

Localizers in Kayah Monu	Gloss
<i>báʃá</i>	about
<i>k<sup>h</sup>ó</i>	on/to
<i>jā</i>	for
<i>k<sup>h</sup>ɔ̄</i>	foot/base
<i>klà</i>	among
<i>kó</i>	with/about
<i>kō</i>	in
<i>kòlǎ</i>	under
<i>lǎ</i>	under
<i>lǎ</i>	beside
<i>lò</i>	from
<i>t<sup>h</sup>ɔ̄</i>	above
<i>ʔàjā</i>	for
<i>ʔàklà</i>	among
<i>ʔàkō</i>	in
<i>ʔàwēkē</i>	about
<i>ʔó</i>	to
<i>k<sup>h</sup>ī</i>	top
<i>ʔàk<sup>h</sup>lǎ</i>	outside

### 2.3.7 Uses of *dǎ*

One special feature of Kayah Monu is the word *dǎ*. In this research, *dǎ* is glossed and treated as preposition and relativizer. The uses of *dǎ* fall into two apparent categories: 1) PP: *dǎ* + NP (LCLZR) and 2) S': *dǎ* + S, which can be generalized into a single abstract syntactic representation.

### 2.3.7.1 Preposition

When *dá* ‘at’ is a preposition, it usually functions as a general location marker which encodes non-core participants. As a preposition, it contributes little semantic content and is usually accompanied by a localizer, or some word that further refines its semantic role – what might be called a semantic role marker (SRM).

Examples (77) and (78) show the location of use of the preposition *dá*. Here, it follows the main verb and occurs with a phrase that includes a post-phrasal localizer.

(77) t<sup>h</sup>òp<sup>h</sup>àtī ʔá      **dá**      sá k<sup>h</sup>ī  
 bird      be.exist **at**      tree top  
 N      COP      **PREP** N      LCLZR  
 The bird is on the top of tree.

(78) p<sup>h</sup>ítʃǎ pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó k<sup>h</sup>lé nù      **dá**      hìdē kō  
 child male      run in      **at**      house in  
 N      N      V      V.DIR **PREP** N      LCLZR  
 The boy ran inside of the house.

The location preposition *dá* also denotes motion from (source), motion to (goal), and beneficiary in prepositional phrase. More discussions are in (5.4.2), (5.4.4), and (5.4.5).

### 2.3.7.2 Relativizer

Relativizer *dá* ‘that’ is used to mark S’ constituents. When used as a relativizer, it follows the head noun to introduce a relative clause in a sentence. Examples (79) and (80) show the relativizer *dá* introducing a relative clause following the head noun.

(79) ʃí **dá** ʔà                      ʔá p<sup>h</sup>ítʃǎ p<sup>h</sup>ó nū ʔà ʔó  
 dog **that** 3S.RSMP      bite child      child topic 3S      bark  
 N      **REL** PRO.RSMP V      N      N      TOP PRO V  
 The dog that bit the boy is barking.

(80) pwàmó **dó** ?à t<sup>h</sup>úplē hē hí  
 female **that** 3S.RSMP clean 1S.Poss house  
 N **REL** PRO.RSMP V POSS N  
 the woman who cleans my house

The following example (81) shows both relativizer *dó* and location preposition *dó* co-occurring together in a single sentence. This prepositional use is used to show a goal without a localizer.

(81) pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó **dó** ?à hē ?í hē ?ì tʃó **dó** jōkūkā  
 male **that** 3S.RSMP come give 1S water go **at** Yangon  
 N **REL** PRO.RSMP V V PRO N V **PREP** NPROP  
 the man who brings me water went to Yangon.

Example (82) shows the occurrence of prepositional *dó* marking a non-core argument, the beneficiary with a localizer Semantic Role Marker *?àjā* ‘for’ following the noun phrase.

(82) ?à p<sup>h</sup>é?á hásí ?ē jì **dó** ?ítēmè ?àjā  
 3S cook curry chicken meat **at** guest for  
 PRO V N N N **PREP** N LCLZR  
 She cooked chicken curry for the guests.

### 2.3.7.3 Temporal Preposition

Another use of *dó* is used to introduce adverbial time clauses. In the following example (83), *dó* introduces a temporal phrase. It may be used to indicate time but it must be a past time; which usually appears at the beginning of a story as standard story-telling opener.

(83) **dó** nīhānīné ?àmúpwá ?àpə?àp<sup>h</sup>á ?é tà pwà  
**when** long.time.ago old.man powerful be.exist one CLF.human  
**PREP** ADV N ADJ COP NUM CLF  
 Long time ago, there was a powerful old man.

When the argument of a time preposition is a clause and the prepositional phrase is functioning as an adjunct to another clause, the temporal clause is delimited by the temporal preposition *dó* ‘when’ and the clause final temporal marker subordinator

*ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā* ‘while’. Typically in connected discourse, the temporal clause occurs before the main clause as the following example shows:

- (84) [[ *dó* *hè* *p<sup>h</sup>itjǎ* *ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā* ]S<sub>Subord</sub> *hè* *ʔó* *dó* *k<sup>h</sup>ē* *kā* ]S<sub>Main</sub>  
**when** 1S child while 1S live **at** China country  
**PREP** PRO N SUBORD PRO V **PREP** NPROP N  
 When I was a child, I lived in China.

The connective uses of *dá* are listed in Table 22.

**Table 22 Different Functions of *dá***

Different functions of <i>dá</i>	Gloss	Structure	Part of Speech
<i>dá</i> (locative)	at	<i>dá</i> NP (LCLZR)	preposition
<i>dá</i> (beneficiary)	at	<i>dá</i> NP <i>ʔàjā</i>	preposition
<i>dá</i> (source)	at	<i>dá</i> NP (LCLZR)	preposition
<i>dá</i> (goal)	at	<i>dá</i> NP (LCLZR)	preposition
<i>dá</i> (as relativizer)	that	<i>dá</i> S <sub>RC</sub>	relativizer
<i>dá</i> (as temporal marker (past))	when .....	<i>dá</i> XP <sub>time</sub> (XP = NP or S)	preposition

As can be seen in previous analysis, *dá* functions as a location preposition and it precedes a noun to form a prepositional phrase whereas the relativizer *dá* precedes a relative clause in a noun phrase; the temporal preposition *dá* appears with an adverbial at the start position. Among these uses, the location prepositional use of *dá* is by far the most common. One possible unifying hypothesis of all uses of *dá* is as a general subordinator which marks constituents which modify another head.

Schematically this modification could take the following forms:

- [X<sub>head</sub> [***dá*** + XP + (LCLZR)]<sub>modifier</sub> ] – for all uses except TIME  
 [ [***dá*** + XP + (LCLZR) ] X<sub>head</sub> ] - TIME

### 2.3.8 Conjunctions

Conjunctions are words that are used to connect words, phrases, or clauses. Two general classes of conjunctions, coordinating and subordinating, are traditionally distinguished (Shopen, 2007: 45). In this section coordinating conjunctions such as *kó* ‘and/with’, *támè* ‘or’, and *dá* ‘and.then’ are discussed. Subordinating conjunctions also will be presented following them. The conjunctions of Kayah Monu are listed in

Table 23. See sections (6.2) and (6.3) for more on clausal conjunctions For more on nominal conjunctions see section (3.2.9.2).

**Table 23 Conjunctions in Kayah Monu**

Conjunctions	Gloss	Conjunct Type	Relationship
<i>kó</i>	and/with	Words and NPs	Coordinating
<i>támè</i>	or	Phrases or Clauses	Coordinating
<i>dý</i>	and.then	Clauses	Coordinating
<i>mé</i>	if	Clauses	Subordinating
<i>tólò</i>	until	Clauses	Subordinating
<i>ʔàk<sup>h</sup>óʔàk<sup>h</sup>jè</i>	because.of	Clauses	Subordinating
<i>mâtítènù</i>	because	Clauses	Subordinating

### 2.3.9 Final Particles

In this section, some sentence final particles which are commonly found in Kayah Monu are presented. Declarative, imperative, and interrogative final particles are discussed in turn.

#### 2.3.9.1 Declarative

There are three declarative final particles appear in Kayah Monu. They are 1) *já*, 2) *hó*, and 3) *hépé* respectively.

##### 2.3.9.1.1 Final Particle *já*

The particle *já* has a sentence final function in Kayah Monu. It usually occurs at the end of the sentence. Examples (85) and (86) show the usage of the particle *já* at the end of sentence.

(85) *lōʔā tō t<sup>h</sup>ə ʔó plú já*

dry bundle PERF collect together SF

V N ASP V ADV PRT

After you have dried (the bundles of unthreshed rice) then collect (them).

(86) *pā bú t<sup>h</sup>ə mà s<sup>h</sup>ó já*

beat rice.unthreshed PERF do thresh SF

V N ASP V V PRT

After beating (them), thresh the unthreshed rice.

Examples (87) and (88) show several clauses embedded in a single sentence constructed with more than one final particle *já*. However each use is clause final.

(87) ʔà sì hó dʻ wépwá kó pʰɪtʃá ké **já** dʻ mà ʔá **já**  
 3S die COMPL and.then man and child see **SF** and.then do eat **SF**  
 PRO V ASP COORD N CONJ N V **PRT** COORD V V **PRT**

When it (prey) was died and both men and children saw it, then (they) cut up its meat to eat.

(88) kʰlɪkʰū **já** tʰə wìsú **já** kó ðìdè  
 mix **SF** PERF mix **SF** with flat.wooden.ladle  
 V **PRT** ASP V **PRT** APPL N

It must be mixed and then mix by using flat wooden ladle.

*já* has no apparent semantic contribution as it seems to only mark the end of declarative clauses.

### 2.3.9.1.2 Aspect Marker *hó*

The particle *hó* is used to express the completive aspect—that the action is done. It usually co-occurs with perfective aspect markers *ké* ‘finish’ and often with *tʰə* ‘finish’ to show completed action or event. It can occur after the NP<sub>obj</sub> and thus often appears clause final.

In examples (89) and (90) the particle *hó* appears clause final and functions to mark the completive aspect.

(89) ʃí sì kè **hó**  
 dog die PERF **COMPL**  
 N V ASP **ASP**

The dog just died (recently).

(90) pʰɪtʃá ʔá tʰə ðì **hó**  
 child eat PERF cooked.rice **COMPL**  
 N V ASP N **ASP**

The children ate the rice.

*hó* can appear after the verb, and not sentence final, with no apparent change in meaning as in (91).

- (91) p<sup>h</sup>itfá ?á t<sup>h</sup>è hó dì  
 child eat PERF **COMPL** cooked.rice  
 N V ASP **ASP** N  
 The children ate the rice.

### 2.3.9.1.3 Final Particle *hépě*

In Kayah Monu, the particle for the future *hépě* appears sentence final. It expresses the irrealis mood and sometime co-occurs with irrealis aspect marker *kà* ‘will’ in a sentence. Examples (92), (93), and (94) show the particle for future *hépě* in sentence final position.

- (92) ?à kà ?á dì **hépě**  
 3S will eat cooked-rice **SF.future**  
 PRO ASP V N **PRT**  
 She will eat the rice.

- (93) hè pwè níbá pá mòtàkā **hépě**  
 1S buy own additional car **SF.future**  
 PRO V V ADJ N **PRT**  
 I will additionally buy and own a car.

- (94) hè sálésálò **hépě**  
 1S rejoice **SF.future**  
 PRO V **PRT**  
 I will also rejoice.

Examples (95) and (96) show the future particle *hépě* following an interrogative pronoun in the final position in interrogative sentences.

- (95) pèwèpě nà kà mà tìtè **hépě**  
 tomorrow 2S will do what **SF.future**  
 ADV PRO ASP V INTRG **PRT**  
 What will you do tomorrow?



(96) nà kà hē bák<sup>h</sup>ətē hēpē  
 2S will come when SF.future  
 PRO ASP V INTRG PRT  
 When will you come?

### 2.3.9.2 Imperative

In Kayah Monu, the final particle *né* or *nō* shows that the actor is giving a softened command or polite opinion. Among these two, *nō* is a loan word from Burmese. Examples (97) and (98) show the assertive command usage of *né* or *nō*.

(97) pōk<sup>h</sup>ə ʔà hé nū mà tàmə né  
 as 3S say be do not IMP.polite  
 PREP PRO V COP V NEG IMP  
 Don't do it as he said.

(98) kànèʔí hē nō  
 remember 1S IMP.polite  
 V PRO IMP  
 Remember me please.

The following example (99) shows the actor is giving quite strong command by using high intonation with imperative negation *má* 'not' without *né* or *nō*.

(99) mà má  
 do not  
 V NEG  
 Don't do it!

In examples (100) and (101), the hortative particle *lá* and *mó* are used to express polite opinion in a clause.

(100) pà tʃó lá  
 1P go HORT  
 PRO V IMP  
 Lets go.

(101) pà    tʃó mó  
       1P    go    **HORT**  
       PRO V    **IMP**  
       Lets go.

### 2.3.9.3 Interrogative

There are only two final question particles *lē* and *ʔyà*. Both are discussed below and detail in section (7.4).

In example (102), the interrogative proform *mópè* appears in the object position as a recipient of ‘give’ while the final particle *lē* occurs at the end of the sentence.

(102) nà    kà    ʔí    mópè    lē  
       2S    will give who    **QP**  
       PRO ASP V    INTRG    **Q**  
       Whom will you give it?

The interrogative form ‘why’ also has two parts. The interrogative proform *màtítè* appears in the sentence initial position while the final particle *lē* occurs in the sentence final position.

Example (103) shows the structure of ‘why’ in Kayah Monu.

(103) màtítè    nà    hè    ṭ    lē  
       why    2S    come not    **QP**  
       INTRG PRO V    NEG    **Q**  
       Why don't you come?

For ‘yes-no’ close questions, the final question word particle *ʔyà* is used in Kayah Monu. Example (104) shows the form of a ‘yes-no’ question. The answer for this type of question would be ‘yes or no’ or the verb phrase. (see also section 7.4.1).

(104) nà    sákànā    m̀̀ǹ̀    j́    ʔyà  
       2S    understand Monu    language    **QP**  
       PRO V    NPROP N    **Q**  
       Do you understand Kayah Monu language?

### 2.3.10 Directional Verbs

Directional verbs are an example of complex verb serialization and they are very common in Kayah Monu. They are inseparable from the main verb because if moved they will be understood differently. All directional verbs are still used as independent verbs, although in concurrence with main verbs some have developed more specific meanings.

When the main predicate is a verb of motion, the directional verb describes the direction of motion of theme. The first verb is interpreted as the main verb and the second verb as the directional verb. In these, the second verb gives a directional specification to the action of the first verb. Examples can be seen in the following.

(105) ?à tʃó l̥t̥ē d̥i kàp̥ùr  
 3S lift **down** cooked.rice pot  
 PRO V **V.DIR** N N  
 She lifts down the pot of rice.

(106) bétʃá jésú k̥è t̥h̥ó k̥è d̥ó mók̥h̥ó  
 Lord Jesus return **up** PERF at sky  
 N NPROP V **V.DIR** ASP PREP N  
 Lord Jesus ascended to the heaven.

(107) ?à k̥è w̥ōk̥i w̥ē k̥ō  
 3S return **cross** yard in  
 PRO V **V.DIR** N LCLZR  
 He crosses through the yard.

(108) ?à tʃó n̥ù t̥ā d̥ó h̥id̥ā k̥ō  
 3S lift **go.in** box at house in  
 PRO V **V.DIR** N PREP N LCLZR  
 He carries the box into the house.

The following examples show non-motion action predicates which are followed by directional verbs. When the main predicate is not a verb of motion, the directional verb describes different meanings as in (109), (110), and (111). These uses are more like exhaustive aspectual marking.

(109) pà bé t<sup>h</sup>ɔ́ ʃimákp̄hà  
 1P put **up** leaders  
 PRO V **V.DIR** N  
 We nominated our leaders.

(110) ʃikā kà dó t<sup>h</sup>ɔ́ t<sup>h</sup>ò t<sup>h</sup>ɔ́  
 country will big **up** become **up**  
 N ASP ADJ **V.DIR** V **V.DIR**  
 The country will grow.

(111) ʔà bó l̩̀ t̩̀p<sup>h</sup>ót̩̀wè ʔó kàní prò  
 3S create **down** animal be.exist two CLF.generic  
 PRO V **V.DIR** N COP NUM CLF  
 There were two kinds of animals he created.

In examples (112) and (113), the directional verbs are following state verbs. In the first sentence, the actor looks into the water and sees the fish while in the second example, the actor recalls or brings back the memory of something. The semantics of this usage is difficult to understand.

(112) ʔà kɛ́ʃí l̩̀ t̩̀ dó ʃi kō  
 3S see **down** fish preposition water in  
 PRO V **V.DIR** N PREP N LCLZR  
 He saw (down) fish in the water.

(113) hè kànéʔí t<sup>h</sup>ɔ́ tàkí tàkí  
 1S remember **up** few few  
 PRO V **V.DIR** QUANT QUANT  
 I remember (up) a little bit.

The directional verb normally co-occurs with main verb as the second verb of the verb sequence but sometimes preceding the main verb as in (114) but only with tʃó ‘go’.

(114) ʔà h́át<sup>h</sup>ɔ́ tʃó kè dó hí  
 3S **out** go PERF at house  
 PRO **V.DIR** V ASP PREP N  
 He went out from the house.

The following sentences show that directional verbs can also be used as independent verbs as in (115) and (116).

(115) ?à l̥ə də jəkūkā  
 3S down at Yangon  
 PRO V.DIR PREP NPROP  
 She goes down to Yangon.

(116) ?à nù də hìdē kō  
 3S go.in at house in  
 PRO V.DIR PREP N LCLZR  
 He enters the house.

The following Table 24 shows some preverbal and post-verbal directional verbs.

**Table 24 Preverbal and Post-verbal Directional Verbs in Kayah Monu**

Preverbal	Main Verb	Postverbal
<i>hátʰʰ</i> ‘out’		<i>tʰʰ</i> ‘up’
<i>tʰʰ</i> ‘up’		<i>l̥ə / l̥ət̥ē</i> ‘down’
<i>l̥ə / l̥ət̥ē</i> ‘down’		<i>wōkī</i> ‘cross’
		<i>nù</i> ‘go.in’

## 2.4 Word Formation

This section presents some morphological features in Kayah Monu. The morphological processes of compounding, affixation, elaborate expression and reduplication are analyzed.

### 2.4.1 Compoundings

In Kayan Monu’s nominal compounds, the primary head noun may appear as the first member of compound or the second. The possible grammatical relations holding between the two constituents of a compound are basically the relations that hold in syntactic constructions: subordination, coordination and attribution (Bisetto & Scalise, 2005: 326). In Kayan Monu, subordinate compounds are often right-headed; attributive compounds are often left-headed; and coordinate compounds are double-headed.

Timothy Shopen (2007: 30) states:

*Endocentric compounds denote a subclass of items referred to by one of their elements and this element can be treated as the head of the compound. In contrast, exocentric compounds denote something which is different from either of their components. Coordinate compounds consist of two juxtaposed nouns which refer to a unitary concept.*

**The following compound nouns listed in**

Table 25 are endocentric right-headed subordinate compound. These compounds are related to the possessive noun phrase construction. Two nouns combine together to form a single noun, where the first noun functions as the possessor of the second one, and the possessive *ʔà* can be optionally omitted  $[N (ʔà) N]_N$  as shown and compared in examples (117a) and (117b).

(117) (a)

sá      ʔà      sá  
 tree    3S.Poss   fruit  
 ‘fruit’

(117) (b)

sá      sá  
 tree    fruit  
 ‘fruit’

**Table 25 Endocentric Right-headed Subordinate Compound Nouns**

Examples	Literal translation	Gloss
<i>sá-sá</i>	tree-fruit	‘fruit’
<i>sá-p<sup>h</sup>ɔ̃</i>	tree-branch	‘branch’
<i>sá-lá</i>	tree-leaf	‘leaf’
<i>pò-núfi</i>	cow-milk	‘milk’
<i>blé-ji</i>	tongue-liquid	‘spit (noun)’
<i>k<sup>h</sup>ā-s<sup>h</sup>ō</i>	chin-hair	‘beard’
<i>t<sup>h</sup>ó-ʔàs<sup>h</sup>ó</i>	bird-hair	‘feather’
<i>mí-sá-p<sup>h</sup>lá</i>	face-seed	‘eye’
<i>k<sup>h</sup>ók<sup>h</sup>í-sáblé</i>	tooth-cover	‘gums’
<i>mí-k<sup>h</sup>ú</i>	fire-smoke	‘smoke’

The compound nouns listed in Table 26 are endocentric left-headed attributive compounds. They have an attributive (head modifier) relation between the two constituents, where the first word is the head noun and the second constituent

modifies it. The compound words in the following table occur as noun-noun pairs  $[N + N]_N$ , noun-adjective pairs  $[N + ADJ]_N$ , and noun-localizer pairs  $[N + LCLZR]_N$ .

**Table 26 Endocentric Left-headed Attributive Compound Nouns**

Examples	Literal translation	Gloss
<i>ʃi-kó</i>	water-hot	‘tea/coffee’
<i>ʃi-pḵ</i>	water-bottle	‘water bottle’
<i>bè-siù</i>	bean-rotten	‘soy bean’
<i>dì-bò</i>	rice-white	‘white rice’
<i>há-kàmù</i>	soil-powder	‘dust’
<i>p<sup>h</sup>ó-pwàmá</i>	child-female	‘daughter’
<i>pḷ-pwàmá</i>	sister-female	‘sister (younger)’
<i>hí-lḷ</i>	house-under	‘area under house’

Some exocentric or idiomatic compound nouns in Kayah Monu are listed in Table 27 and they are  $[N + N]_N$ . In some cases the meaning of the compound seems more transparent than in others but it is not equal to the meaning of its components.

**Table 27 Exocentric or Idiomatic Compound Nouns**

Examples	Literal translation	Gloss
<i>sí-ʃi</i>	blood-water	‘energy’
<i>ʔiká-pwí</i>	head-hard	‘stubborn person’
<i>lḷ-kò</i>	stone-hole	‘cave’
<i>lā-p<sup>h</sup>ó</i>	river-child	‘stream’

Coordinate compound nouns are presented in Table 28. They are composed by two elements that have the same meaning or opposite meaning  $[N + N]_N$ .

**Table 28 Nominal Coordinate Compound Nouns**

Compound words	Literal translation	Gloss
<i>má-p<sup>h</sup>à</i>	mother-father	‘parent’
<i>p<sup>h</sup>ó-pwàk<sup>h</sup>ò</i>	child-male	‘son’
<i>p<sup>h</sup>itfá-pwàk<sup>h</sup>ò</i>	kid-male	‘boy’
<i>p<sup>h</sup>ó-lí</i>	child-grandchild	‘descendants’
<i>ʔàdó-ʔàpété</i>	big-small	‘size’
<i>ʔàt<sup>h</sup>wò-ʔàpū</i>	long-short	‘length’

A compound noun made up of more than two words is shown in example (118) and totally of four nouns are combining together as a single noun [N + N + N + N]<sub>N</sub>.

(118)	ɟì	mọ̀	kā̀	p <sup>h</sup> à
	water	mother	country	father
	N	N	N	N
	King (or) leader			

## 2.4.2 Affixation

Affixation in Kayah Monu occurs with the ‘tậ-’ ‘?à-’ and ‘pwà-’ prefixes appearing on stems that acquire new meanings. These three prefixes are the three primary nominalizers in Kayah Monu. They all attach to verbs and adjectives to create nouns. The nominalizer ‘tậ-’ is used more for verb nominalizations; both ‘tậ-’ and ‘?à-’ are used for adjectives, while ‘pwà-’ is used for agent nominalizations.

### 2.4.2.1 Verb nominalization

In Table 29, some de-verbal nouns are presented where the nominalizer ‘tậ-’ is added to the verbs to create nouns.

**Table 29 Verb Nominalizations**

	Examples	Gloss	Example	Gloss
a.	<i>mà</i>	‘make/do’	<i>tậ-mà</i>	‘job/ work’
b.	<i>?á</i>	‘eat’	<i>tậ-?á</i>	‘food’
c.	<i>dótfé</i>	‘check’	<i>tậ-dótfé</i>	‘exam’
d.	<i>hébá</i>	‘speak’	<i>tậ-hébá</i>	‘story’
e.	<i>màkú?á</i>	‘trade’	<i>tậ-màkú?á</i>	‘trading’
f.	<i>p<sup>h</sup>?áwè?á</i>	‘earn’	<i>tậ-p<sup>h</sup>?áwè?á</i>	‘living’
g.	<i>s<sup>h</sup>à</i>	‘hurt’	<i>tậ-s<sup>h</sup>à</i>	‘disease’
h.	<i>tàk<sup>h</sup>àsó</i>	‘hate’	<i>tậ-tàk<sup>h</sup>àsó</i>	‘hate’
i.	<i>tjàbá</i>	‘worship’	<i>tậ-tjàbá</i>	‘worship’
j.	<i>tjótújábák<sup>h</sup>ó bá</i>	‘experience’	<i>tậ- tjótújábák<sup>h</sup>ó bá</i>	‘experience’
k.	<i>sá</i>	‘bear fruit’	<i>tậ-sá</i>	‘fruit’



### 2.4.2.2 Adjective nominalization

Adjective nominalization nouns are listed in Table 30 where the nominalizer ‘ʔà-’ and ‘tậ-’ are added to an adjective to make a noun.

**Table 30 Adjective Nominalizations**

	Examples	Gloss	Example	Gloss
a.	<i>bó</i>	‘white’	<i>ʔà-bó</i>	‘white’
b.	<i>lì</i>	‘red’	<i>ʔà-lì</i>	‘red’
c.	<i>múpwá</i>	‘old’	<i>ʔà-múpwá</i>	‘old person’
d.	<i>t<sup>h</sup>ó</i>	‘tall’	<i>ʔà-t<sup>h</sup>ó</i>	‘tall person’
e.	<i>sálèsálò</i>	‘happy’	<i>tậ-sálèsálò</i>	‘happiness’
f.	<i>sáp<sup>h</sup>ládó</i>	‘angry’	<i>tậ-sáp<sup>h</sup>ládó</i>	‘anger’
g.	<i>sáplá</i>	‘sad’	<i>tậ-sáplá</i>	‘sadness’
h.	<i>sòwō</i>	‘shy’	<i>tậ-sòwō</i>	‘shame’

### 2.4.2.3 Agent Nominalization

In Kayah Monu, agent nominalizations are also very common when the prefix *pwà-* ‘person’ is attached to verbs to create nouns. Some agent nominalizations are exhibited in Table 31.

**Table 31 Agent Nominalizations**

	Examples	Gloss	Example	Gloss
a.	<i>mà</i>	‘do’	<i>pwà-mà</i>	‘doer’
b.	<i>bá</i>	‘create’	<i>pwà-bá</i>	‘creator’
c.	<i>dāsijā</i>	‘inform’	<i>pwà-dāsijā</i>	‘informant’
d.	<i>hébá</i>	‘speak’	<i>pwà-hébá</i>	‘speaker’
e.	<i>màkú?á</i>	‘trade’	<i>pwà-màkú?á</i>	‘trader’

### 2.4.3 Elaborate Expressions

In this section, different kinds of elaborate expressions, such as elaborate nouns and elaborate adjectives are discussed. For noun elaborate expressions, different kinds of phonetic parallel forms are combined with nouns or verbs which are semantically parallel to form noun elaborate expressions.

Table 32 shows noun elaborate expressions where the first syllable and the third syllable are phonetically identical and the second and the fourth are semantically similar. The following Kayah Monu elaborate expressions have a pattern of ABAC.

**Table 32 ABAC Pattern of Noun Elaborate Expressions**

Examples	Literal translation	Gloss
<i>tà-p<sup>h</sup>ú-tà-wè</i>	NOM-child-NOM-elder	‘animal’
<i>tà-p<sup>h</sup>í-tà-mà</i>	NOM-work-NOM-work	‘work’
<i>tà-wē-tà-kè</i>	NOM-news-NOM-story	‘subject matter’
<i>?à-wí-?à-kè</i>	NOM-about-NOM-about	‘subject matter’
<i>?à-s<sup>h</sup>ó-?à-k<sup>h</sup>ā</i>	NOM-time-NOM-time	‘time’
<i>?à-p<sup>h</sup>ā-?à-s<sup>h</sup>ā</i>	NOM-difficult-NOM-ache	‘difficulty’
<i>?à-plè-?à-wā</i>	NOM-clean-NOM-good	‘goodness’

Table 33 shows adjective elaborate expressions where the first syllable and the third syllable are phonetically similar and the second and the fourth are semantically similar.

**Table 33 ABAC Pattern of Adjective Elaborate Expressions**

Examples	Literal translation	Gloss
<i>sá-lè-sá-lì</i>	mind-happy-mind-happy	‘happy’
<i>?ó-mā-?ó-bá</i>	be-happy-be-pleased	‘content’
<i>?à-tfē-?à-tfó</i>	3S-difficult-3S-difficult	‘difficult’
<i>?à-p<sup>h</sup>ā-?à-p<sup>h</sup>á</i>	3S-powerful-3S-powerful	‘powerful’
<i>kà-tfú-kà-bá</i>	∅-cold-∅-cold	‘cold’

Sometimes pronouns are used to form elaborate expressions as in example (119).

- (119) ?à      m<sup>h</sup>é      ?à      p<sup>h</sup>à  
           3S.Poss mother 3S.Poss father  
           PRO    N        PRO    N  
           his parents

The following Kayah Monu elaborate expressions have a pattern of AABB. Examples (120), (121), and (122) show this kind of AABB elaborate expressions.

(120) *tfo tʃó pwà pwà*

‘forever’

(121) *tʃé tʃé pɔ́ pɔ́*

‘really hard’

(122) *tʃó tʃó kē kē*

‘travel around’

#### 2.4.4 Reduplication

Kayah Monu has reduplicated forms. Sometimes adjectives reduplicate and sometimes adverbs reduplicate. The reduplication expresses a strong feeling by the speaker and can often be viewed as an intensifier. The following two examples show reduplication.

(123) *hè màtʰɔ́ hí ?àmè dó dó tà mè*  
1S build house CLF.round.big **big big** one CLF.round.big  
PRO V N CLF **ADJ ADJ** NUM CLF  
I build a very big house.

(124) *ʃí kʰlé pʰwè pʰwè*  
dog run **quickly quickly**  
N V **ADV ADV**  
The dog ran very quickly.

#### 2.5 Summary

This chapter presented the word classes including nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, demonstratives, numerals, classifiers, quantifiers, preposition, localizers, conjunctions, particles, directional verbs. The morphological processes that are found in Kayah Monu were also discussed.

## Chapter 3

### Noun Phrase

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the structure of noun phrases in Kayah Monu. Different types of noun phrases are discussed. It deals with several aspects of noun phrase in Kayah Monu including pronouns, possession, quantification, noun phrase coordination, and nominal compounds. This section also outlines the internal structure and constituent order within a noun phrase.

Kroeger defines noun phrases as “phrasal constituents whose head is a noun and it can function as subjects, primary or secondary objects, and objects of prepositions” (2005: 87). A Kayah Monu noun phrase is head initial, except that a possessive can precede the head noun. The following schema is the general structure for noun phrases in Kayah Monu:

$$NP \longrightarrow (\text{PossNP}) N_{\text{Head}} (\text{ADJ}^*) (\text{RC}) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} (\text{ClfP}) \\ (\text{QntP}) \end{array} \right\} (\text{DEM}) (\text{TOP})$$

According to this phrase structure rule, the head noun can be preceded by an optional possessive noun phrase (PossNP) and followed by an optional adjective phrase (AP) or relative clause (RC). The last part of the noun phrase would be either a quantifier phrase (QntP) or classifier phrase (ClfP) followed by an optional demonstrative (DEM) and optional topic marker (TOP).

#### 3.2 Sub-constituents of Noun Phrase

In total, there are seven sub-constituents of NP in Kayah Monu. They are 1) Possessive Noun Phrase, 2) Adjective Phrase, 3) Relative Clause, 4) Quantifier Phrase (usually Numeral), 5) Classifier Phrase, 6) Demonstrative, and 7) Topic Marker respectively.

The following example shows a noun phrase in Kayah Monu with most of these.

(125) ʔà p<sup>h</sup>à hí ʔàli dó sù m̀è hénù  
 3S.Poss father **house** red big three CLF.round.big that  
 POSS N N ADJ ADJ NUM CLF DEM  
 His father's three red big houses

### 3.2.1 The Head of the Noun Phrase

There are four types of words which function as head-nouns in Kayah Monu. They are: 1) common noun, 2) pronoun, 3) proper noun, and 4) demonstrative respectively. Below are examples of head-nouns in Kayah Monu.

#### 3.2.1.1 Common Noun as Head-Noun

In Kayah Monu, common nouns often occur as the head-noun. The common noun *hí* ‘house’ functions as head and is followed by the adjectives, numeral and classifier in example (126).

(126) ʔà hí ʔàli dó sù m̀è  
 3S.Poss **house** red big three CLF.round.big  
 POSS N ADJ ADJ NUM CLF  
 his three big red houses

In example (127), *ʃí* ‘the dog’ is a common noun which functions as the subject argument of the verb *sì* ‘die’. It appears without any modifiers.

(127) ʃí sì k̀è hó  
**dog** die PERF COMPL  
 N V ASP ASP  
 The dog just died (recently).

The head-noun ‘*d̀ə p̀òká*’ used in this example also illustrates a [NN] string used as compound and not as a nominal modifier.

(128) d̀ə p̀òká p̀ə ʃí  
**village head.man** beat dog  
 N N V N  
 The headman hits the dog.

### 3.2.1.2 Pronoun as Head-Noun

When a pronoun functions as a head-noun it can be only modified with numerals. A pronoun is in the subject position in example (129).

- (129) ?àsè só sù tʃépwe ?á dì  
3P CLF.human three try eat cooked.rice  
PRO CLF NUM V V N  
They, these three, try to eat rice.

### 3.2.1.3 Proper Noun as Head-Noun

A proper noun can also function as a head-noun in the subject and object positions in (130).

- (130) p<sup>h</sup>àbò pèjà p<sup>h</sup>àlú  
Phabaw hit Phalu  
NPROP V NPROP  
Phabaw hits Phalu.

### 3.2.1.4 Demonstrative as Head-Noun

In Kayah Monu, a demonstrative can be a noun and appear at either subject or object position as in (131) and (132).

- (131) hè ?á hénù  
1S eat that  
PRO V DEM  
I eat that.

- (132) hé?ù mí ?à tậ  
this be 3S.Poss thing  
DEM COP PRO N  
This (thing) is hers.

In the following example (133), the demonstrative pro-form locative is a head-noun and it functions as a subject in a zero copula existential clause (see section 5.2.2 for more on existential clauses).

(133) **dónù**      lì      tà      bá  
           **there**      book one      CLF.flat  
           **DEM.Loc** N      NUM CLF  
           There is a book.

### 3.2.2 Possessive Noun Phrase

There is no special possessive form for any pronoun in Kayah Monu. Possessors are pronouns, possessive *ʔà* and nouns preceding the head-noun. Types of possessive noun phrases are commonly seen as (1) [PRO + N<sub>Possessed</sub>], (2) [NP<sub>Poss</sub> + N<sub>Possessed</sub>], (3) [NP<sub>Poss</sub> ʔà/ʔàsè N<sub>Possessed</sub>].

#### 3.2.2.1 [PRO + N<sub>Possessed</sub>] type Possessive Noun Phrase

In example (134), the pronoun *hè* which is the same as all other 1S pronouns is followed by the head noun to form a possessive noun phrase.

(134) **hè**            mḗ  
           **1S.Poss**    mother  
           **PRO**        N  
           my mother

#### 3.2.2.2 [NP<sub>Poss</sub> + N<sub>Possessed</sub>] type Possessive Noun Phrase

The following example (135) shows the possessed noun *hí* ‘house’ possessed by *ʔà* *p<sup>h</sup>à* ‘his father’ which is itself a possessor noun phrase.

(135) **ʔà**          p<sup>h</sup>à      hí  
           **3S.Poss** **father** house  
           **PRO**      N        N  
           his father's house

#### 3.2.2.3 [NP<sub>Poss</sub> ʔà/ʔàsè N<sub>Possessed</sub>] type Resumptive Possessive Noun Phrase

*ʔà* and *ʔàsè* also functions as resumptive pronouns in possessive phrases. They only occur between the third person possessor noun phrases (singular or plural) and the possessed noun as in (136) and (137).

(136) pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó p<sup>h</sup>ó só sù ?à jí  
 male child CLF.human three 3S dog  
 N N CLF NUM **PRO.RSMP** N  
 The three boys' dog

(137) pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó p<sup>h</sup>ó só sù ?à jí  
 male child CLF.human three 3S dog  
 N N CLF NUM **PRO.RSMP** N  
 The three boys' dog

Example (138) shows the resumptive pronoun ?à co-occur with the head of the possessed noun in a complex noun phrase.

(138) pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó dó k<sup>h</sup>ē kā ?à hí ?àlì  
 male that China country 3S house red  
 N REL NPROP N **PRO.RSMP** N ADJ  
 the man from China's red house

It is ungrammatical to have combinations of a 1S possessive pronoun or 2S possessive pronoun with the resumptive pronoun ?à together in a phrase. Examples (139) and (140) show ungrammatical phrases with the resumptive pronoun ?à.

(139) \* hē ?à mǝ  
 1S.Poss 3S mother  
**PRO PRO.RSMP** N  
 my mother

(140) \* nà ?à mǝ  
 2S.Poss 3S mother  
**PRO PRO.RSMP** N  
 your mother

### 3.2.3 Adjective Phrase

Adjective modifiers in Kayah Monu normally occur after the head noun. Thus the basic order of constituent in the Kayah Monu NP is: N<sub>Head</sub> (AdjP) as seen in the following examples.



Examples (141) and (142) show adjectives (with an optional ?à-) which modify head nouns.

(141) hí      ?àdó

house **big**

N      **ADJ**

big house

(142) ?à      hí      ?àsà      ?àdó

3S.Poss house **new big**

POSS N      **ADJ ADJ**

his new big house

(143) is a predicate adjective clause, shows that ?à is not resumptive pronoun since the subject is 1S, not 3S but ?à still appears.

(143) hè      mí      ?àt<sup>h</sup>ó

1S      be      **tall**

PRO COP **ADJ**

I am tall.

Interestingly, ?à- is not possible when it is used as a predicative adjective followed by perfective and completive aspect markers as in (144).

(144) dít(ó) nū      (\* ?à) lì kè      hó

spoon topic **red**      PERF COMPL

N      TOP **ADJ**      ASP ASP

the spoon became red (color).

It is unusual but possible for more than one adjective to occur after the head noun in Kayah Monu as in example (145).

(145) dít(ó) ?àlì      ?àsà      ?àkó

spoon **red new hot**

N      **ADJ ADJ ADJ**

the red new hot spoon

Adverbs often function as adjective intensifiers, conveying a greater or lesser degree. In the following examples, all adverbs intensify the preceding adjectives. Each can only be used with the appropriate semantic type of adjective.

In example (146), both intensifier adverbs ‘*lídé*’ and ‘*dílé*’ intensify a degree of temperature or environment state.

(146) sèbà dǎ ʔàkǒ lídé / dílé  
 glass that hot very very  
 N REL ADJ INTS INTS  
 the very hot glass

The three intensifier adverbs ‘*tǐlèwá*’, ‘*dómàtì*’, and ‘*nótǐkáká*’ intensify degrees of emotion in (147).

(147) hè sáplǎ tǐlèwá / dómàtì / nótǐkáká  
 1S dejected deeply very extremely  
 PRO ADJ INTS INTS INTS  
 I am very dejected

The following two intensifier adverbs ‘*kǎpì*’ and ‘*dómàtì*’ modify degrees of size.

(148) hí mǎ dǒ dómàtì / kǎpì tà mǎ  
 house CLF.round.big big very very one CLF.round.big  
 N CLF ADJ INTS INTS NUM CLF  
 A very big house

The following two intensifier adverbs ‘*drílè*’ and ‘*tǐōprǒtǐlè*’ modify events of speed.

(149) ʔà hébá p<sup>h</sup>wè drílè / tǐōprǒtǐlè  
 3S speak quickly very very  
 PRO V ADV INTS INTS  
 He speaks very quickly.

### 3.2.4 Relative Clause

A relative clause is a kind of subordinate clause which modifies the head noun within a noun phrase (Kroeger 2005: 230). Details are discussed in the complex clauses section 6.3.2. The frame of a Kayah Monu relative clause is:

[N<sub>Head</sub> [dǎ.....(?à<sub>1</sub>).....(nū)]<sub>s</sub>]NP (?à<sub>2</sub>).....

?à<sub>1</sub> marks a relative clause internal resumptive pronoun referring back to the head noun and

?à<sub>2</sub> marks NP if NP in relative clause has been topicalized.

(150) jí [ dǎ p<sup>h</sup>ítǰǎ p<sup>h</sup>ó pǎǰǎ nū ] ?à ?ó  
 dog that child child hit topic 3S.RSMP bark  
 N REL N N V TOP PRO.RSMP V  
 the dog that boy hits is barking.

Example (150) illustrates five basic parts of a relative clause construction: the head noun (jí ‘dog’), the modifying clause (p<sup>h</sup>ítǰǎ p<sup>h</sup>ó pǎǰǎ ‘the boy hit’), the topic marker (nū) and the relativizer (dǎ ‘that’) which links the modifying clause to the head and the resumptive pronoun (?à) after the relative clause. The head noun actually has two different roles in this example: it functions as the subject of the main clause, but at the same time it is interpreted as being the object of the modifying clause. As this example illustrates, the relative clause in Kayah Monu is a post-nominal relative clause, with the modifying clause always following the head noun.

### 3.2.5 Quantifier Phrase

In Kayah Monu, lóbǎ ‘all’, dówè ‘many’, tàkìp<sup>h</sup>ú/ tàsílí ‘few’, and tàk<sup>h</sup>lǎ ‘some’ function grammatically as quantifiers. In Kayah Monu, there cannot be both a ClfP and a quantifier in the same NP (see more in 2.3.5). Examples (151) and (152) show quantifiers in noun phrases.

(151) hí dówè  
 house many  
 N QUANT  
 many houses

(152) hí      **tàkíp<sup>h</sup>ú** / **tàsílí**  
house **few**                      **few**  
N      **QUANT**      **QUANT**  
few houses

In Kayah Monu, the quantifier *tàk<sup>h</sup>lè* ‘some’ is normally added to a noun to create a non-specific plural as in examples (153) and (154).

(153) jí      **tàk<sup>h</sup>lè**  
dog **some**  
N      **QUANT**  
dogs (or) some dogs

(154) hí      **tàk<sup>h</sup>lè**  
house **some**  
N      **QUANT**  
some houses (more than few less than many)

### 3.2.6 Classifier Phrase

Classifier phrases usually individuate nouns in a noun phrase. Classifier phrases can also use measure classifiers to show quantities of a mass noun. Lists of different types of classifiers are in section (2.3.3). The frame for a classifier phrase is:

**ClfP** → **N Num CLF**

Classifier phrases use a numeral and a specific sortal classifier based on the semantic properties (shape, size, humanness, etc.) of the head noun to individuate a specific number of objects as in examples (155) and (156).

(155) jí      sù      **dò**  
dog three      **CLF.animal**  
N      NUM      **CLF**  
three dogs

(156) ṭj      kàní      **bá**  
fish two      **CLF.flat**  
N      NUM      **CLF**  
two fishes

The classifier usually follow adjectives and numbers in NP but it can also precede them as in (157) and (158).

(157) ?à hí ?àmè dó  
 3S.Poss house **CLF.round.big** big  
 POSS N **CLF** ADJ  
 his big house

(158) hí dó ?àmè lì só  
 house big **CLF.round.big** four pair  
 N ADJ **CLF** NUM N  
 eight houses

In example (159), the head noun and classifier have the same classifier word form. These are called auto-classifiers ('self-classifiers' Solnit 1997: 200) where the head noun is repeated in the classifier phrase for counting (Manson 2010: 220).

(159) dè sù dè  
 village three **Clf**  
 N NUM **clf**  
 three villages

In examples (160) and (161), the number and classifier cannot appear together with the quantifier.

(160) jí (\*tàk<sup>h</sup>lè) sù dò (ungrammatical)  
 dog some three CLF.animal  
 N QUANT NUM CLF  
 some three dogs

(161) jí sù dò (\*tàk<sup>h</sup>lè) (ungrammatical)  
 dog three CLF.animal some  
 N NUM CLF QUANT  
 some three dogs

Sometimes more than one classifier phrase appears in order to express a partitive meaning. Examples (162) and (163) show more than one classifier in clause.

(162) hí lì m̀è klà kàní m̀è mí ʔàlì  
 house four **CLF.round.big** among two **CLF.round.big** be red  
 N NUM **CLF** LCLZR NUM **CLF** COP ADJ  
 two of four houses are red

(163) pà p<sup>h</sup>ʔá hásí tà pwà tà tʃó  
 1P cook curry one **CLF.human** one **CLF.non-human**  
 PRO V N NUM **CLF** NUM **CLF**  
 We each cook each curry per person (Lit: one person cooks one curry).

### Clause final classifier phrases

In Kayah Monu, the classifier phrase often appears clause final position if it is not a negative sentence. It can occur far away from its head noun. Consider the following examples from Kayah Monu:

(164) ʔà bó l̩ t̩p<sup>h</sup>ót̩wè ʔá kàní prò  
 3S create down **animal** be.exist two **CLF.generic**  
 PRO V V.DIR N COP NUM **CLF**  
 There were two kinds of animal he created.

(165) ʔà lé tʃó kó ʔà hīp<sup>h</sup>ù ʔá tà prò  
 3S crawl go with **3S.Poss** belly be.exist one **CLF.generic**  
 PRO V V APPL PRO N COP NUM **CLF**  
 One animal crawls and goes with its belly.

(166) ʔàmúp̩wà màt<sup>h</sup>ó hí d́ l̩ kō tà m̀è  
 old.man build **house** at field in one **CLF.round.big**  
 N V N PREP N LCLZR NUM **CLF**  
 The old man built a house in the field.

These ‘moved’ classifier phrases come from object (164), (166) and from subject (165). More investigation is needed.

### 3.2.7 Demonstrative

Demonstratives are deictic modifiers of nouns that point to the time, place, or situation in which the speaker is speaking. This class consists of *hé?ù* 'this' and *hénù* 'that'. The position of this type of modifier is after the head noun.

In example (167), the two demonstratives *hé?ù* 'this' and *hénù* 'that' follow the head noun.

(167) hí      **hénù**    dó    k<sup>h</sup>lò      hí      **hé?ù**  
          house **that**    big    more.than    house **this**  
          N      **DEM**    ADJ    ADV      N      **DEM**  
          that house is bigger than this house

Example (168) shows the distal demonstrative *hénù* 'that' follows many NP constituents but still modifies the noun.

(168) ?à      p<sup>h</sup>à    hí      ?àlì    dó    sù      mè              **hénù**  
          3S.Poss father house red    big    three    CLF.round.big **that**  
          POSS    N      N      ADJ    ADJ    NUM    CLF              **DEM**  
          that three red big houses of his father

### 3.2.8 Topic Marker

Lambrecht states that “the topic of a sentence is the thing which the proposition expressed by the sentence IS ABOUT” (1994: 118). Example (169) shows the topic marker *nū* co-occur with the copula *mí* in an equative copula clause.

(169) sósá    hé?ù    **nū**    mí    jósá  
          fruit this    **topic**    be    banana  
          N      DEM    **TOP**    COP    N  
          This (type of) fruit is a banana.

Example (170) shows topic marker follows a demonstrative to mark the dependent clause and it is followed by the main independent clause.

(170) tà      mət<sup>h</sup>    ?àná    hé?ù    **nū**    dý      hè      sāp<sup>h</sup>lō    pjé      kè  
          thing happen itself    this    **topic**    and.then    1S.Poss mind    be.destroyed    PERF  
          N      V      REFL    DEM    **TOP**    COORD    POSS    N      V              ASP  
          (When) it happened like this then I was very disappointed (Lit: my mind was destroyed).

In Kayah Monu, when a noun phrase is used to identify the topic, this noun phrase is usually marked by the topic marker *nū*, especially when it is a contrastive topic.

### 3.2.9 Complex Noun Phrase

Two complex noun phrases: 1) apposition noun phrase and 2) coordinate noun phrase appear in Kayah Monu. Each is discussed below.

#### 3.2.9.1 Apposition Noun Phrase

An appositional phrase consists of two phrases of the same category which are placed next to each other to make more definite or explicit the meaning of one or the other. In Kayah Monu, a second noun phrase (NP<sub>2</sub>) follows another noun phrase (NP<sub>1</sub>) to clarify the meaning; and both nouns have the same relationship to the whole sentence. The following is the structure of an appositional noun phrase in Kayah Monu.

NP<sub>Appositional</sub> → NP<sub>1</sub> NP<sub>2</sub>

Specific nouns which expand or clarify the meaning of the generic nouns can have different structures such as elaborate expressions, descriptive noun phrases or possessive noun phrases. The following examples show apposition phrases in Kayah Monu.

In example (171), the first noun phrase is a proper name and is further specified by the following noun phrase to form appositional noun phrase where the 3<sup>rd</sup> singular pronoun *ʔà* looks like a resumptive pronoun and is optional.

(171) **mótú** ʔà wē ʔà p<sup>h</sup>éʔá hásí wí  
**Motu** 3S.Poss wife 3S cook curry delicious  
**NPROP** PRO N PRO.RSMP V N ADJ  
 Motu, his wife, cooks good curry

In examples (172), the first descriptive noun phrase is further specified by the following proper noun to form appositional noun phrase.

(172) **hè** k<sup>h</sup>è p<sup>h</sup>àlú ʔà mí tʃō sàrà  
**1S.Poss** friend Phalu 3S be school teacher  
**PRO** N NPROP PRO.RSMP COP N N  
 My friend, Phalu, is a teacher



### 3.2.9.2 Co-ordinate Noun Phrase

A co-ordinate noun phrase usually consists of two similar head constituents joined by a conjunction: ‘and’ or ‘or’. In examples (173), (174), and (175), two head nouns are joined by a conjunction to form a co-ordinate noun phrase.

(173) t<sup>h</sup>àǰǰkè kó pù?ù  
 earthworm **and** termite  
 N CONJ N  
 Earthworm and termite

(174) lùmú tǰmè mí  
 sun **or** fire  
 N CONJ N  
 sun or fire

(175) pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó kó pwàmó  
 male **and** female  
 N CONJ N  
 the boy and the girl

In Kayah Monu, a serial coordinate phrase which includes three or more noun phrases can occur. The conjunction links only the first three noun phrases. Example (176) shows the serial noun phrase construction.

(176) hè kó hè mā kó hè p<sup>h</sup>ó hè l̩  
 1S **and** 1S.Poss wife **and** 1S.Poss child 1S.Poss grand children  
 PRO **CONJ** POSS N **CONJ** POSS N POSS N  
 ʔáməʔəbá tʃótʃópwàpwà hēpē  
 content forever SF.future  
 ADJ ADV PRT

I and my wife with my children and grandchildren will stay together in contentment forever.

### **3.3 Summary**

This chapter presented the internal structure of a noun phrase. As can be seen, there were various structures in a noun phrase. All sub-constituents including relative clause, plural pronoun and topic marker were also presented. Two complex noun phrase constructions, appositional phrases and co-ordinate noun phrases, were also discussed.

## Chapter 4

### Verb Phrase

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on complex verb phrase structure and how different pre-verbal and post-verbal markers combine with the verb to form a phrase. It presents an overview of positions in a verb phrase and discusses various particles that fit the different verb phrase positions.

The verb phrase in Kayah Monu optionally starts with an auxiliary (AUX<sub>1</sub>) which is followed by the head verb (V\*), and one or more auxiliary (AUX<sub>2</sub>) which are usually aspect markers and modality, and lastly by an optional constituent (XP), which is often adverbial. Finally a negation marker may appear.

The following is a typical verb phrase structure in Kayah Monu. The rule below does not include the positions of objects, obliques, or sentential complements because they appear in many different positions. Also, multi-verbs are indicated by the Kleene star operator in this formula.

VP → (AUX<sub>1</sub>) V (V\*) (AUX<sub>2</sub>\*) (XP) (NEG)

Example (177) shows a typical verb phrase which is in brackets.

(177) hè [kà tʃó màkúʔá tʃò t̚ ] hēpē  
 1S will go trade able.can not SF.future  
 PRO ASP V V MOD NEG PRT  
 I would not be able to go trade.

The verb phrase structure expresses various events according to the meaning of the head verb. In above (177), the main verbs function serially together as the head of the verb phrase to express an event happening at the present time.

Example (178) shows a sentence in which two verb phrases use both main verbs *tʰò* *kl̚* ‘climb up to cut’ and *kā* ‘break’.

(178) *hè t<sup>h</sup> kĺ̩ sá dʒ hè ĺ̩tē̄ k̄ k̄ hè k<sup>h</sup>ə̀ĺ̩ṕ̩*  
 1S climb.up cut tree and.then 1S down break PERF 1S.Poss leg  
 PRO V V N COORD PRO V.DIR V ASP PRO N

↑ climb up to cut a tree and I fell down then my leg was broken.

The first clause has two serial verbs and an object NP in the VP, the second clause has a directional verb, a main verb, an aspect marker and an object NP.

## 4.2 Auxiliaries

Auxiliaries are words that specify the tense, aspect, mood, voice, or polarity (future, perfect, and conditional respectively) of the verb with which they are associated (Shopen, 2007: 41). Auxiliary is a “helping verb” or particle which expresses verbal inflectional categories such as tense, aspect, modality, and/or agreement, but does not have lexical semantic content like a normal verb (Kroeger, 2005: 342). Since Kayah Monu has no agreement or verbal inflection, auxiliaries are defined mostly by their lack of semantic content.

Auxiliaries usually accompany the main verb to form a complex verb phrase. They cannot be the head which provides the main semantic content of the verb phrase and they cannot occur alone without the main verb. They generally precede or follow the verb. In this thesis, the term auxiliary is used for any aspects or modalities that are not full verbs. Although they are all auxiliaries, in the part of speech line of the interlinears, the more specific ASP or MOD marking is provided. Directional verbs are considered full verbs in this analysis.

Table 34 shows preverbal and postverbal auxiliaries which precede and follow the main verb in Kayah Monu.

**Table 34 Preverbal and Postverbal Auxiliaries**

Preverbal Auxiliary	Main Verbs	Postverbal Auxiliary
Modal <i>bá/tàbá</i> ‘must’		Modal <i>pè</i> ‘able.can’ (unmovable)
Irrealis aspect <i>kà</i> ‘will’		Modal <i>tʃɔ</i> ‘able.can’ (unmovable)
Inceptive aspect <i>klé</i> ‘about.to’		Imperfective aspect <i>pē</i> ‘still’ (unmovable)
		Perfective aspect <i>kè</i> ‘just finish’ (movable)
		Perfective aspect <i>tʰə</i> ‘finish’ (movable)
		Completive aspect <i>hó</i> ‘complete’ (movable and occur clause final)

Aspect concerns the temporal features of an event including whether it is started, ongoing or completed. Modals express other features of an event situation including ability and obligation among others.

#### 4.2.1 Preverbal Auxiliaries

In Kayah Monu, *bá/tàbá* ‘must’, *kà* ‘will’, and *klé* ‘about.to’ are the preverbal auxiliaries.

Example (179) shows the auxiliary *bá/tàbá* ‘must’ in Kayah Monu.

(179) *nà təbá ʔá dì*  
 2S    **must**    eat    cooked.rice  
 PRO   **MOD**   V    N  
 You must eat the rice.

Example (180) shows the auxiliary *bá* ‘must’ in Kayah Monu. *bá* is used as an abbreviated form of *təbá* and both have same meaning.

(180) *sàkʰōlō pà bá tʃó pʰí bú*  
 first    1P    **must**    go    take    rice.unthreshed  
 ADV    PRO   **MOD**   V    V    N  
 Firstly, we must go deliver the unthreshed rice.

The auxiliary *kà* 'will' functions as future marking to express an action that will be done in the future. The following examples (181) and (182) show an irrealis situation construction in Kayah Monu.

(181) ?à kà tʃó hēpē tǎʃəbí

3S will go next week

PRO ASP V ADV N

He will leave next week.

(182) ?à kà ?á dì hēpē

3S will eat cooked-rice SF.future

PRO ASP V N PRT

She will eat the rice.

The sentence final particle *hēpē* is optional and it also expresses future.

The auxiliary *klé* is used to express that an action is going to happen very soon as in example (183).

(183) hē kē tó ?àk<sup>hā</sup> ?à klé ?á dì

1S return arrive while 3S about.to eat cooked.rice

PRO V V SUBORD PRO ASP V N

When I arrive, he is near to eat rice.

#### 4.2.2 Postverbal Auxiliaries

Kayah Monu has several post verbal auxiliaries. There are two patterns 1) V AUX NP<sub>OBJ</sub> and 2) V NP<sub>OBJ</sub> AUX. Some can appear in both positions--usually aspect markers (called movable AUX); but others cannot (unmovable AUX). The moveable aspect markers have variable positions within the clause and they are only used when the speaker is emphasizing a particular aspectual view.

The non-moveable auxiliary *pē* 'able/can' appears directly after the main verb. Examples (184) and (185) show it is indicating inability to perform an action when it co-occurs with a negation marker.

(184) *hè klɔ́nú pɛ̀ hè mì tɛ̀*  
 1S hoe **able.can** 1S.Poss grass not  
 PRO V **MOD** PRO N NEG  
 I am not able to hoe the grass.

(185) *hè mà?ánú pɛ̀ hè bú tɛ̀*  
 1S do.sth.for.living **able.can** 1S.Poss rice.unthreshed not  
 PRO V **MOD** PRO N NEG  
 I am not able to work on my unthreshed rice field for living.

Another auxiliary that appears after the main verb is *tʃɔ̀* 'able.can' and it is non-moveable as in examples (186) and (187).

(186) *nà hébá tʃɔ̀ mùnú jɔ̀ ?ɣà*  
 2S speak **able.can** Monu language QP  
 PRO V **MOD** NPROP N Q  
 Can you speak Monu language?

(187) *?àpwàk<sup>h</sup>ó dɔ̀ ?àt<sup>h</sup>ó bé t<sup>h</sup>ɔ̀ tʃɔ̀ sésá dɔ̀ sémú lò*  
 boy that tall pick up **able.can** fruit at tree from  
 N REL ADJ V V.DIR **MOD** N PREP N LCLZR  
 The tall man, he is able to pick the fruit from the tree.

Another non-moveable postverbal auxiliary in Kayah Monu is the imperfective aspect marker *pɛ̀* 'still'. Examples (188) and (189) show usages of *pɛ̀* 'still' in Kayah Monu.

(188) *hè bú sá pɛ̀ tɛ̀*  
 1S.Poss rice.unthreshed bear.fruit **still** not  
 POSS N V **ASP** NEG  
 My unthreshed rice still does not bear fruit.

(189) *bá hè tʃó t<sup>h</sup>ɔ̀ tʃō ?àk<sup>h</sup>ā ?à p<sup>h</sup>á?á pɛ̀ dì*  
 when 1S go up school while 3S cook **still** cooked.rice  
 SUBORD PRO V V.DIR N SUBORD PRO V **ASP** N  
 When I went to school, she still was cooking rice.

The next postverbal auxiliary that functions as a perfective aspect marker in Kayah Monu is the moveable perfective aspect marker *kè* ‘just finish’. That the action was done recently is also expressed with it. It is shown in the following two examples (190) and (191).

(190) *ʃí sì kè hó*  
 dog die **PERF** **COMPL**  
 N V **ASP** **ASP**  
 The dog just died (recently).

(191) *kàpùr háp<sup>h5</sup> kè hó*  
 pot break **PERF** **COMPL**  
 N V **ASP** **ASP**  
 The pot just broke.

In examples (192) and (193), the action which was done or completed is expressed by the moveable perfective aspect marker *t<sup>hə</sup>* ‘finish’. Evidence for moveability is discussed with examples (196) and (197).

(192) *ká t<sup>hə</sup> kēmī já kēmī t<sup>hə</sup> lōʔā tō*  
 reap **PERF** tie up SF tie up **PERF** dry bundle  
 V **ASP** V PRT V **ASP** V N  
 After reaping, tie them into bundles, then dry the bundles of unthreshed rice.

(193) *lōʔā tō t<sup>hə</sup> ʔó plú já ʔó plú t<sup>hə</sup> pē bú*  
 dry bundle **PERF** collect together SF collect together **PERF** beat rice.unthreshed  
 V N **ASP** V ADV PRT V ADV **ASP** V N  
 After you have dried the bundles of unthreshed rice then collect (them) and then beat them.

Another post-verbal auxiliary is moveable aspect marker *hó*, which functions as a completive aspect marker and usually appears in the final position. In examples (194) and (195), the action which was done or completed is expressed by *hó*. Evidence for moveability is discussed with examples (196) and (197).

(194) *hè kẹ tọ dʒ ʔà tʃó dó t<sup>hə</sup> ʃi hó*  
 1S return arrive and.then 3S go draw **PERF** water **COMPL**  
 PRO V V COORD PRO V V **ASP** N **ASP**

When I arrived, he had already drawn the water.



(195) ?àpwàmó tʃó tʰə́ dǎ klá kō hó  
 woman go PERF at market in COMPL  
 N V ASP PREP N LCLZR ASP  
 The woman went to the market.

In Kayah Monu, sequences of two or more auxiliaries are allowed, in which case their order in relation to one another is generally fixed. They express the event or action which was done or completed and can move around in a sentence as in the following examples. In first sentence (196), the two perfective aspect markers *kè* and *tʰə́* are interchangeable but the completive aspect marker *hó* cannot because it usually follows these two. Likewise in second sentence (197), *hó* can move forward to precede the NP and the meaning does not change. As moveable markers, either *tʰə́* or *kè* can occur after the object NP too.

(196) pʰitʃá ?á kè tʰə́ dì hó  
 child eat PERF PERF cooked.rice COMPL  
 N V ASP ASP N ASP  
 The children ate the rice.

(197) pʰitʃá ?á kè tʰə́ hó dì  
 child eat PERF PERF COMPL cooked.rice  
 N V ASP ASP ASP N  
 The children ate the rice.

The moveable and unmoveable auxiliary verbs are listed the following Table 35.

**Table 35 Movable and Unmovable Auxiliaries**

Moveable AUX	Unmoveable AUX
Perfective <i>kè</i>	Modal <i>tʃǎ</i>
Perfective <i>tʰə́</i>	Modal <i>pè</i>
Completive <i>hó</i>	Imperfective Aspect <i>pē</i>

### 4.3 Copula

Copula verbs are defined as those verbs which link a noun phrase and a non-verb predicate. There are three different copulas ‘*mí*’, ‘*?ǎ*’, and ‘*zero*’ in Kayah Monu. Each are discussing with some of their properties in the following section. Additional discussion is in the non-verbal clause section (5.2).

### 4.3.1 *mí* Copula

In examples (198) and (199), the first type of copula '*mí*' is shown linking two noun phrases in an equative clause.

(198) pà      m̀̀ǹ̀ǹ̀      k̀̀      **mí**      k̀̀      ʔ̀̀m̀̀        
 1P.Poss Monu      country **be**      country happy  
 POSS    NPROP    N      **COP**    N      ADJ  
 Our Monu land is a happy land.

(199) s̀̀s̀s̀      h́́eʔ̀̀      ǹ̀      **mí**      j̀̀s̀s̀        
 fruit this      topic **be**      banana  
 N      DEM    TOP    **COP**    N  
 This (type of) fruit is a banana.

The following example (200) shows an ungrammatical structure using *mí* with an aspect marker; without the aspect marker, it is okay.

(200) \* h̀̀      ʔ̀̀      ẃ́      k̀̀t̀̀      **mí**      j̀̀s̀s̀      p̀̀        
 1S      eat    delicious    superlative **be**      banana **still**  
 PRO    V    ADJ      ADV      **COP**    N      **ASP**  
 My favorite food is banana.

The negation of the copula *mí* is shown in (202) and compared with affirmative in (201). The predicate *mē* is obligatory to be natural.

(201) ʔ̀̀      **mí**      ṭ̄      s̀̀r̀̀m̀̀        
 3S      **be**      school teacher  
 PRO    **COP**    N      N  
 She is a teacher.

(202) ʔ̀̀      **mí**      ṭ̄      s̀̀r̀̀m̀̀      \* (m̀̀)      ṭ̄        
 3S      **be**      school teacher      **right not**  
 PRO    **COP**    N      N      **ADJ**    **NEG**  
 She is not a teacher.

### 4.3.2 ʔá Copula

In examples (203) and (204), the second type of copula ʔá ‘be.exist’, related to the verbs ‘live’, ‘stay’ and ‘have’, joins an adverbial phrase in (203), or a prepositional phrase in (204) to a subject NP.

(203) pwē ʔá pèwə̀pē̄  
party **be.exist** tomorrow  
N COP ADV  
The festival is tomorrow.

(204) tʰs ʔá d́ wē ʔàkō  
pig **be.exist** at yard in  
N COP PREP N LCLZR  
The pig is in the garden.

The following examples (205), (206), and (207) show ʔá can also function as the main verb ‘stay’, ‘have’, and ‘live’.

(205) nà ʔá bátè  
2S **stay** where  
PRO V INTRG  
Where do you stay?

(206) ʔà rù ʔá  
3S money **have**  
PRO N V  
He has the money.

(207) pà ʔá d́ pʰə̀b̀ sʰá kʰ̄  
1P **live** at Pha Baw mountain foot.base  
PRO V PREP NPROP N POST  
We live at the foot of the Pha Baw Mountain.

The negation of the copula ʔá is shown in (208). There the negation marker occurs far away from the copula at clause final position to negate the clause. The adjective *mē* is not required as in equative clauses (215).

(208) t<sup>h</sup>ɔ̄ ʔɔ̄      dɔ̄      wē      kō      tɔ̄  
 pig **be.exist** at      yard in      **not**  
 N **COP** PREP N POST **NEG**  
 The pig is not in the garden.

### 4.3.3 Zero Copula

The last and the third type of copula is no copula or zero copula. The head noun is denoted by optional topic marker or demonstrative and followed by adjective or adverb as in (209) and (210).

(209) tɔ̄dɔ̄tʃɛ̄ k<sup>h</sup>ɔ̄tànì  
 exam today  
 N ADV  
 The exam was today.

(210) ʃì      nū      ʔàkòtʃó  
 water topic cold  
 N TOP ADJ  
 The water is cold.

In zero copula clauses, the subjects are usually modified by a topic marker or demonstrative following them as in the below example sentences.

(211) ʔà      nū      hɛ̄      k<sup>h</sup>ə̄  
 3S topic 1S.Poss friend  
 PRO TOP POSS N  
 She is my friend.

(212) ʔà      nū      tʃō      sàrà̄mē      tà      pwà̄  
 3S topic school teacher one CLF.human  
 PRO TOP N N NUM CLF  
 She is a teacher.

(213) səsá      hé?ù      jósá  
 fruit this banana  
 N DEM N  
 This fruit is banana.

(214) sàk<sup>h</sup>ósá hénù mī hó  
 mango that ripe SF.past  
 N DEM ADJ PRT  
 That mango is ripe.

To negate a zero copula clause, the predicate *mē* ‘right’ is obligatory (215) like in the copula *mí* (see 4.3.1). But if there is a predicate in a zero copula sentence there is no need to use *mē* ‘right’ as in the second example (216).

(215) tậdót[ế k<sup>h</sup>ótànì \* (mē) tậ  
 exam today right not  
 N ADV ADJ NEG  
 The exam was not today.

(216) sàk<sup>h</sup>ósá hénù mī tậ  
 mango that ripe not  
 N DEM ADJ NEG  
 That mango is not ripe yet.

The different patterns of negation of those four copulas are display in Table 36.

**Table 36 Different Negations of Copulas**

Copula	Negation
mí	<i>mē tậ</i>
ʔá	<i>tậ</i>
∅	<i>mē tậ</i>
∅ ADJ	ADJ <i>tậ</i>

#### 4.4 Adverb Phrase

Adverbs are heads of adverb phrases Adverb phrases are constituents of the VP and modify the event denoted by the verb. Adverbs follow main verbs, post-verbal auxiliaries and appear near or at the end of sentences. They can both precede and follow the NP<sub>Obj</sub>. The two different position of adverb phrase which co-occur with complex verb phrase are: 1) [(AUX) V<sub>Complex</sub> (AUX) (**AdvP**) NP<sub>Obj</sub> (NEG)] and 2) [(AUX) V<sub>Complex</sub> (AUX) NP<sub>Obj</sub> (**AdvP**) (NEG)]. Adverbs can follow NP<sub>Obj</sub> optionally but aspect markers cannot (except *hó*). Details on particular adverbs are provided in section (2.2.4).

Examples (217) and (218) show the adverb phrase position, which directly follows the main verb complex in a transitive clause structure.

(217) ?à nā sà<sup>h</sup> bá wī kó t<sup>h</sup>ájájikà  
 3S order.ask start create **first** with earthworm  
 PRO V V V **ADV** APPL N

He (the old man) orders the earthworm to start create the soil first.

(218) dý ?á lā<sup>l</sup>tèbá pù?ù hāk<sup>h</sup>ō  
 and.then eat **completely** termite soil  
 COORD V **ADV** N N

Then (the earthworm) completely eats the termite's soil.

Examples (219) and (220) show adverbs following the NP<sub>Obj</sub> but still modifying the main verb even though they occur away from it in a sentence.

(219) ?à p<sup>h</sup>á?á hásí tèt<sup>h</sup>ótālǎ  
 3S cook curry **carefully**  
 PRO V N **ADV**

She cooked the meat carefully.

(220) k<sup>h</sup>ótàni hē kà t<sup>h</sup>ōwākā tǎō pēlē  
 today 1S will attend school **maybe**  
 ADV PRO ASP V N **ADV**

Today, maybe I will attend the school.

The two following examples show the two different positions of adverbs after verb or after NP<sub>Obj</sub>. Both have same meaning, thus there is no meaning change associated with the different adverb positions.

(221) ?à ?á jò dì  
 3S eat **slowly** cooked.rice  
 PRO V **ADV** N

He eats rice slowly.

(222) ?à ?á dì jò  
 3S eat cooked.rice **slowly**  
 PRO V N **ADV**

He eats rice slowly.

## 4.5 Multiple Verb Constructions

Multiple verb constructions are commonly found in Kayah Monu. Multiple verbs consist of a sequence of two or more verb roots. This sequence is in the form of immediate concatenation like a string of verbs. An object NP can sometime separate the verbs. In a multiple verb construction, normally the first verb is a head. They express one simple event or a complex event.

There is no limitation on how many verbs are permitted in multiple verb construction within a single clause. Different types of semantic relationship among multi-verbs, such as, simultaneous, sequential, resultative, directive, causative are discussed in the following sub-sections.

### 4.5.1 Simultaneous

In simultaneous motion multiple verb constructions, events happen at the same time or about at the same time. Examples (223) and (224) demonstrate the multiple verb constructions that indicate simultaneous motion. The actions of ‘going’ and ‘searching’ happen at about the same time.

- (223) *sàk<sup>h</sup>ōlō tʃó kébá hāk<sup>h</sup>ō*  
first go search land  
ADV V V N  
Firstly, go search a land (to cultivate).

The actions of ‘shouting’, ‘blowing’ and ‘returning’ happen at about the same time.

- (224) *kútàwè ʔūtū kè dǎ dè kō*  
shout.loudly blow return at village in  
V V V PREP N LCLZR  
(We) shouted, blew loudly and returned to the village.

### 4.5.2 Sequential Motion

Sequential motion is expressed with two verbs in a verb phrase where they share the same subject. The first verb denotes an action; the second verb denotes an action performed after or as the purpose of the first as in (225) and (226). In second sentence, *kō* ‘hot’ functions like a changeable predicate ‘to heat’. Thus, the sequence of the verbs mirrors the sequence of events.

(225) hè t<sup>h</sup> kl̩ sá d̩y hè l̩t̩ k̩ k̩ hè k<sup>h</sup>əl̩p̩  
 1S climb.up cut tree and.then 1S down break ASP.PERF 1S.Poss foot  
 PRO V V N COORD PRO V.DIR V ASP POSS N  
 I climb up to cut a tree and I fell down then my foot was broken.

(226) m̩ k̩ háp<sup>h</sup> k̩ k̩p̩ h̩  
 fire hot break PERF pot COMPL  
 N V/ADJ V ASP N ASP  
 Fire did heat and cracked the pot.

### 4.5.3 Resultative

In a resultative string of verbs, the first verb denotes an action; the second verb gives the changed state result of that action described by the first as in (227) and (228). The *mà* ‘do’ verb is also discussed in the causative section (4.5.5) below.

(227) ?à mà k<sup>h</sup>lé jí k̩ jí  
 3S do run away PERF dog  
 PRO V V V.DIR ASP N  
 He made the dog run away.

(228) k̩l̩sá mà k̩ k̩ sá  
 wind do break PERF tree  
 N V V ASP N  
 The wind broke the tree.

### 4.5.4 Directive

In directive multiple verb construction, the first verb denotes an act of ordering or permitting, the second verb denotes the content of that act, the action ordered or permitted as in (229) and (230). In both examples the subject of the embedded clause appears after the embedded verb.

(229) ?à n̩ há<sup>h</sup>m̩?á ?à p<sup>h</sup>óp<sup>h</sup>wàk<sup>h</sup>ó d̩ ?àk<sup>h</sup>l̩  
 3S order sleep 3S.Poss son at out  
 PRO V V POSS N PREP LCLZR  
 He ordered his son to sleep outside.



(230) ?àmópwá **dī** **bó** tàplēsō pù?ù hāk<sup>h</sup>ō  
 old.man **allow create** again termite soil  
 N **V V** ADV N N  
 The old man again allows the termite to create the soil.

### 4.5.5 Causative

Kayah Monu causatives are complex verb serializations where the first verb is an activity and the second is a state or an event. Most causative predicates are based on the activity verbs *mà* ‘do’ and *nā* ‘order’ respectively. The causer takes a position before the complex predicate while the causee follows it and functions with patient-like properties.

#### 4.5.5.1 *mà* ‘do’ Causatives

This *mà* ‘do’ causative is used when the causer physically does something that directly results in the causee doing something or changing state. The causers can be both animate and inanimate as in the following examples. Again if there is an embedded subject it now appears after the embedded verb.

(231) ?à mǝ **mà** sì kè wó tà bō  
 3S.Poss mother **do** die PERF snake one CLF.long and thin  
 POSS N **V V** ASP N NUM CLF  
 His mother killed a snake.

(232) kálisá **mà** kǝ kè sǝ  
 wind **do** break PERF tree  
 N **V V** ASP N  
 The wind broke the tree.

#### 4.5.5.2 *nā* ‘order’ Causative

In a *nā* ‘order’ causative, the causer does not physically cause an action to happen. It is indirect causative type. The causee in *nā* ‘order’ causative needs to be animate either human or animal. The embedded subject again moves to a position following the embedded verb. An object (also an embedded subject) NP can sometime separate the verbs as in (233) compare to (234).

(233) ?à nō tʃábo ?à p<sup>h</sup>ópwàmó sósá  
 3S order wash 3S.Poss daughter fruit  
 PRO V V PRO N N  
 He ordered his daughter to wash the fruit.

(234) ?à nō ?à p<sup>h</sup>ópwàk<sup>h</sup>ó hámè?ó dó ?àk<sup>h</sup>lō  
 3S order 3S.Poss son sleep at out  
 PRO V PRO N V PREP LCLZR  
 He ordered his son to sleep outside.

As mentioned earlier, the multiple verb constructions in Kayah Monu can be more than two verbs in a string. Below is an example of a multiple verb constructions that takes a single noun phrase argument for four verbs This may be multi-clausal but it illustrate how extensive multiple verb constructions can be.

(235) ?à sájù nō tʃépwé ?á ?à p<sup>h</sup>ópwàk<sup>h</sup>ó dì  
 3S want order.ask try eat 3S.Poss son cooked.rice  
 PRO V V V V PRO N N  
 He wanted his son to try to eat the rice.

## 4.6 Negation

In Kayah Monu, negation is marked by a negation marker, *tʃ* ‘not’ placed after the predicate or predicative adjective that is to be negated. It normally appears at the clause final position. All verbs of indicative sentences can be directly followed by this negation marker. In contrast, the negative imperative *má/támá* ‘not’ precedes the imperative illocutionary force marker *né* in imperative sentences.

### 4.6.1 Declarative Negation

Below are examples of negation in Kayah Monu. In examples (236) and (237), the verb and adjective are directly followed by the negation marker *tʃ* ‘not’.

(236) ?à hē tʃ  
 3S come not  
 PRO V NEG  
 He does not come.

(237) ʃì kòtʃó t̚  
 water cold not  
 N ADJ NEG  
 The water is not cold.

The following sentences are negated where the negation marker occurs far away from the predicate separated by NP objects, post-verbal auxiliaries, and aspect markers as in (238) and (239). In (239) the ‘ability’ and not the event is negated.

(238) ʔà t̚ bāwə ʔà s̄p<sup>hl</sup>ō t̚  
 3S.Poss thing please 3S.Poss mind not  
 PRO N V PRO N NEG  
 His thing (soil created by earthworm) does not please his (the old man's) mind.

(239) mà hénù d̚ h̄ ʃìpènà p̄ p̄ tà k<sup>h</sup>ó t̚  
 do that and.then 1S forget able.can still one CLF.time not  
 V DEM COORD PRO V MOD ASP NUM CLF NEG  
 By doing that, I can still never forget about that day.

To negate the copula *mí* and topic marker *nū* the negative marker appears at the end preceded by obligatory adjective *ʔàmē* ‘right’ as in example (240). See section (4.3) for more on copula negation.

(240) ʔà mí / nū t̚ s̄ràràmə \*( ʔàmē ) t̚  
 3S be topic school teacher right not  
 PRO COP TOP N N ADJ NEG  
 She is not a teacher.

#### 4.6.2 Imperative Negation

The negative imperative takes a different form where the negative element precedes imperative illocutionary force marker. It is used in prohibitive (negative command) and optionally co-occurs with the imperative illocutionary force marker *né* as in (241) and (242). *m̄* is used as an abbreviated form of *t̄m̄* and both have the same meaning.

(241) mà **mạ** / **tàmạ**

do **not** **not**

V **NEG** **NEG**

Don't do it.

(242) p̄k̄h̄ ʔà hé nū hé **mạ** né

as 3S say topic say **not** ASRT

SUBORD PRO V TOP V **NEG** IMP

As he said, don't tell it.

## 4.7 Summary

In this chapter, various structures of verb phrases were discussed. The verb phrase was shown to consist of the main verb, preverbal and post-verbal auxiliaries. Brief discussions of copula, adverb phrase, multi-verb construction, and negation were also included in this section.

# Chapter 5

## Simple Clauses

### 5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the structure of simple clauses. This section will focus on non-verbal and verbal clauses, and clausal constituents. Kayah Monu basically has two types of clauses based on the type of predicate that occurs and they are 1) non-verbal clauses and 2) verbal clauses.

### 5.2 Non-verbal Clauses

Clauses which are built around nominal predicates or adjectives are known as non-verbal clauses. Equative clauses, existential clauses, possessive clauses, locative clauses, and attributive clauses are all kinds of non-verbal clauses. They are composed of a noun phrase followed by a copula. Kayah Monu has three copulas 1) *mí*, 2) *ʔá*, and 3) zero. In some cases the copula is optional.

#### 5.2.1 Equative Clauses

An equative clause is one in which the semantic predicate is expressed by a noun phrase. The semantic function of the clause depends on whether the predicate NP is definite or indefinite (Kroeger, 2005:175). In Kayah Monu, equative clauses are used to identify some nominal with the subject. The sentence structure of an equative clause is [NP *mí* NP (ClFP)].

If the predicate NP is definite and it basically states that the two NPs refer to the same individual as in (243).

- (243) p<sup>h</sup>àbò    **mí**    hè    p<sup>h</sup>à  
Phabaw   **be**    1S.Poss   father  
NPROP   **COP**   POSS   N  
Phabaw is my father.

In the following clauses, the equative copula *mí* functions as a predicate to join the two noun phrases, one denoting an indefinite NP. The result is that the subject NPs are members of the classes named by the predicate NPs as in (244) and (245).

(244) hè    **mí**    tʃō    sàrà    tà    pwà  
          1S    **be**    school teacher one    CLF.human  
          PRO **COP** N    N    NUM CLF  
          I am a teacher.

(245) pà    m̀̀ǹ̀ǹ̀    k̀̀ā    **mí**    k̀̀ā    d̀̀ó̀j̀̀  
          1P.Poss Monu    country **be**    country rich  
          POSS NPROP N    **COP** N    ADJ  
          Our Kayah Monu land is a rich land.

Equative clauses can also be used to attribute a name to the subject. Example (246) shows an equative clause which attributes a name to the subject.

(246) hè    k̀̀h̀̀ə    ʔ̀̀ap̀̀h̀̀ú    k̀̀à̀t̀̀ù    **mí**    p̀̀h̀̀à̀l̀̀ú  
          1S    friend close most **be**    Phalu  
          PRO N    ADJ ADV **COP** NPROP  
          My closest friend is Phalu.

## 5.2.2 Existential Clauses

There are three main existential clauses:

- i) [NP ʔ́ (XP)],
- ii) [NP ʔ́ ClfP], and
- iii) [DEM<sub>loc</sub> NP].

### 5.2.2.1 [NP ʔ́ (XP)]

There is no complement in existential clauses, only the NP subject and the copula ʔ́ ‘be.exist’ occur in examples (247) and (248).

(247) pwē ʔó pèwàpē  
 party **be.exist** tomorrow  
 N **COP** ADV  
 The festival is tomorrow.

(248) ʔà tʃó tɛp<sup>h</sup>ɛ màtītènù wó ʔó  
 3S go away because snake **be.exist**  
 PRO V V.DIR COORD N **COP**  
 She fled because there is a snake.

Example (249) has both the topic marker *nū* and the copula *ʔó* present in an existential copula clause (here *ʔà* is optional).

(249) pà bú klà **nū** ʔà ʔó dɔ s<sup>h</sup>ɔ k<sup>h</sup>ó  
 1P rice field **topic** 3S.RSMP **be.exist** preposition mountain on  
 PRO N N **TOP** PRO.RSMP **COP** PREP N LCLZR  
 Our rice field, it is on the mountain.

### 5.2.2.2 [NP ʔó ClfP]

In the following example (250), the existential copula co-occurs with a classifier phrase to express the existence of two animals.

(250) tɛp<sup>h</sup>ótɛwè ʔó kàní prò  
 animal **be.exist** two CLF.generic  
 N **COP** NUM CLF  
 There were two kinds of animal.

Existential clauses of this form are often found at the beginning of texts where a new participant and location are introduced, and to report that some entity exists as in example (251).

(251) dɔ nīhānīnó ʔàmúpɔwá ʔàpəʔàp<sup>h</sup>á ʔó tà pwà  
 when long.time.ago old.man powerful **be.exist** one CLF.human  
 PREP ADV N ADJ **COP** NUM CLF  
 Long time ago, there was a powerful old man.

### 5.2.2.3 [DEM<sub>loc</sub> NP]

A zero copula appears in existential clause if there is a demonstrative functioning as a subject at the start position as in example (252) and (253).

(252) dónù      kàpwàkō  
          there      forest  
          DEM.Loc N  
          There is a forest.

(253) báʔù      lì      tà      bá  
          here      book one      CLF.flat  
          DEM.Loc N      NUM CLF  
          Here is a book.

### 5.2.3 Clausal Possession

Clausal possession expresses that the subject has possession of an object noun phrase which follows the subject but precede the verb. In Kayah Monu, the possession clause is denoted by the same existential copula ʔá ‘be.exist’. The following examples show two types of possessive clauses.

#### 5.2.3.1 [NP<sub>1</sub> NP<sub>2</sub> ʔá]<sub>Sposs</sub>

In example (254), the regular possessive clause structure is found without a possessive prefix on the possessed noun or a possessive marking anywhere in the noun phrases.

(254) ʔà      rù      ʔá  
          3S      money have  
          PRO N      V  
          He has the money.

#### 5.2.3.2 [NP<sub>1</sub> NP<sub>2</sub> ʔá (ClfP)]<sub>Sposs</sub>

In second type of clausal possession, a classifier phrase optionally follows ʔá ‘be.exist’ where the classifier phrase is part of NP<sub>2</sub> as in the following examples (255) and (256). Other examples of classifier phrases in a sentence final position are in section (0).



(255) ʔàsèlák<sup>hó</sup> p<sup>hó</sup> ʔó só jē  
 3P child **have** CLF.human five  
 PRO N V CLF NUM  
 They have five children.

(256) hí ʔàlì tàk<sup>hù</sup> pàdēpó ʔó kàní k<sup>hó</sup>  
 house red some window **have** two CLF.pairs  
 N ADJ QUANT N V NUM CLF  
 some of the red houses have two windows.

### 5.2.4 Locative Clauses

Locative clauses refer to the location of some referent in space. The linear order is [NP ʔ PP<sub>Loc</sub>] where the copula complement expresses a location prepositional phrase. It can be seen in examples (257) and (258).

(257) lì tà bá ʔó dó sàbwé k<sup>hó</sup>  
 book one CLF.flat **be.exist** at table on  
 N NUM CLF **COP** PREP N LCLZR  
 There is a book on the table.

(258) p<sup>hìt</sup>ʔá ʔó dó hìdē kō  
 child **be.exist** at house in  
 N **COP** PREP N LCLZR  
 A child is in the house.

### 5.2.5 Attributive Clauses

Attributive clauses predicate a noun phrase with an adjective. Subject NPs in these constituent are usually marked with the topic marker *nū* or a demonstrative. The copula verb is not obligatory for this type of clauses. The sentence structure is [NP (TOP) ADJ].

The following two attributive sentences show the comparison between a zero copula clause (259) with a *mí* copula clause (260). These have the same meaning.

(259) ʃì nū ʔàkòtʃó  
 water topic cold  
 N TOP ADJ  
 .The water is cold

(260) ʃì mí ʔàkòtʃó  
 water be cold  
 N COP ADJ  
 .The water is cold

In example (261), the clause is an intransitive clause with a zero copula that has a noun phrase and an adjective as a predicate.

(261) sàk<sup>h</sup>ósá hénù mī hó  
 mango that ripe SF  
 N DEM ADJ PRT  
 That mango is ripe.

Another zero copula clause is with times as in (262).

(262) tàdótʃé k<sup>h</sup>ótàni  
 exam today  
 N ADV  
 The exam was today.

For negation of all above non-verbal clauses see section 4.3 under the verb phrase chapter.

### 5.3 Verbal Clauses

This section deals with the structure of simple clauses with verbal predicates. In Kayah Monu, clause alignment is shown by word order. In a clause, the subject (most agent-like argument) occurs preceding the verb complex and the direct object (most patient-like) occurs immediately after the verb complex; and if there is a third argument then it normally follows the object. The basic distinction among verbal predicates is between intransitive verbs which take a single argument and transitive verbs which take two or more arguments. Clauses that have a direct object are syntactically transitive while all others are syntactically intransitive.

A slightly finer definition of basic clauses in Kayah Monu, says that that clauses can consist of intransitive clauses, which are the combination of a subject and a verb phrase; semitransitive clauses, which include a subject, verb phrase, and location; transitive clauses, which consist of a subject, verb phrase, and object; and, finally, ditransitive clauses, which include a subject, verb phrase, object, and location respectively.

### 5.3.1 Intransitive Clauses

An intransitive clause consists of a noun phrase argument followed by a predicate. The predicate can be an intransitive verb, a predicative adjective, or a complex verb phrase. Below are examples of intransitive clauses with different verb types.

#### 5.3.1.1 Activity Verb

In example (263), an activity verb follows the argument in an intransitive clause.

(263) ?àpwàk<sup>hó</sup> p<sup>h</sup>itfá **hámè?**  
 boy child sleep  
 N N V  
 The boy is sleeping.

#### 5.3.1.2 Achievement Verb

Achievement verbs are frequently intransitive verb as in example (264).

(264) kàpùr **háp<sup>hó</sup>** kè hó  
 pot break PERF COMPL  
 N V ASP ASP  
 The pot just broke (recently).

#### 5.3.1.3 Stative Verb

An inverted subject construction is also possible in Kayah Monu. If the subject is inverted in a clause, the word order is SV, and the subject is more patient-like and affected by an unspecified agent. Examples (265) and (266) show attributive clauses that denote a changeable state. Both clauses denote the same event but they have a different emphasis.

(265) *hè tʃúmúplə sʰà*  
 1S.Poss finger hurt  
 POSS N V  
 My finger has been hurt.

(266) *ʔàsʰà hè tʃúmúplə*  
 hurt 1S.Poss finger  
 V POSS N  
 My finger is hurting.

In (265) the agent is unspecified but implied, but in (266) there is no implied agent, only the fact of the pain

### 5.3.2 Semitransitives Clauses

A motion or semitransitive clause in Kayah Monu consists of a motion verb and a distinctive location element. The motion clause structure would be NP<sub>Sub</sub> V<sub>Motion</sub> OBL. Example (267) shows a motion or semitransitive clause that consists of a subject, motion verb, directional verb, and an obligatory locative. The agent *pʰitʃá pwàkʰó* and the goal *hìdē* are the subject and oblique.

(267) *pʰitʃá pwàkʰó kʰlé nù dó hìdē kō<sup>4</sup>*  
 child male run in at house in  
 N N V V.DIR PREP N LCLZR  
 The boy ran inside of the house.

As can be seen in above examples, intransitive verbs can be followed by directional verbs (267), aspect markers (264), and locative prepositional phrases (267).

### 5.3.3 Transitive Clauses

A transitive clause involves two participants. Semantically, the subject normally functions as the agent and the object prototypically functions as the patient.

---

<sup>4</sup> In this thesis, all locative words are glossed as localizers. They usually co-occur with preposition *dá* and are used to express the specific location of NP object in PP. The localizer *jā* ‘for’ might be called semantic role marker or postposition because it does not necessarily mark a specific location.

In example (268), a transitive clause structure is shown and the sentence structure is S V O.

(268) dè pòkà p̄ jí  
 village head.man **beat** dog  
 N N V N  
 The headman hit the dog.

It is impossible to change the sentence structure to SOV as in example (269).

(269) \* dè pòkà jí p̄ (ungrammatical)  
 village head.man dog **beat**  
 N N N V  
 The headman hit the dog.

It is also impossible to change the sentence structure to VSO as in example (270).

(270) \* p̄ dè pòkà jí (ungrammatical)  
**beat** village head.man dog  
 V N N N  
 The headman hit the dog.

### 5.3.4 Ditransitive Clauses

Ditransitive clauses involve three noun phrase arguments. Sometimes ditransitive is loosely defined such that one of these noun phrases may be part of an oblique PP, or an indirect object.

Example (271) shows a locative transitive clause with an obligatory location PP following the NP object. In this example the final ClfP is a discontinuous part of the NP object.

(271) ?àmópwá màt<sup>h</sup> hí d́ l̄ kō tà m̄  
 old.man **build** house at field in one CLF.round.big  
 N V N PREP N LCLZR NUM CLF  
 The old man built a house in the field.

It is impossible to move the object after the locative phrase as in example (272).

(272) \* ʔàmúpwá màt<sup>h</sup>ó dǎ lā kō hí tà mè  
 old.man build at field in house one CLF.round.big  
 N V PREP N LCLZR N NUM CLF  
 The old man built a house in the field.

Ditransitive clauses are varied and they show different construction types as in the following examples (273) and (274). In (274), the preposition *dǎ* is required regardless of the word order.

(273) ʔàpwàk<sup>h</sup>ó ʔí pwàmó lì tà bá  
 boy give female book one CLF.flat  
 N V N N NUM CLF  
 The boy gave the girl a book.

(274) ʔàpwàk<sup>h</sup>ó ʔí lì tà bá dǎ pwàmó ʔó  
 boy give book one CLF.flat at female to  
 N V N NUM CLF PREP N LCLZR  
 The boy gave a book to the girl.

Usually, the indirect object in a ditransitive clause follows the verb phrase but sometimes the word order changes. Example (275) shows the indirect object (recipient) preceding the direct object which is followed by a benefactive phrase. With this alternate order SVO OBL, the OBL must include the localizer /*jā*/.

(275) pwàmó ʔí pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó bóìò dǎ pà jā  
 female give male ball at 1P for  
 N V N N PREP PRO LCLZR  
 The girl gave the boy a ball for us.

## 5.4 Oblique Constituents

Clause constituents presented in this section are the semantic notions of location, source, recipient, benefactive, instrument, accompaniment, time, topic, and ability.

In Kayah Monu, the location preposition *dǎ* combines with noun phrases to form prepositional phrases. The structure of a prepositional phrase is:

PP → PREP NP (LCLZR)

### 5.4.1 Location

The location preposition *dá* is used to show location at a point (place), motion to (goal), and from (source). When location constituents are oblique as arguments, they usually occur near the end of the sentence and there a localizer is obligatory to specify a particular locational meaning as in example (276).

- (276) ?àpwàmó tʃó tʰè **dá** klá kō hó  
 woman go PERF **at** market in COMPL  
 N V ASP **PREP** N LCLZR ASP  
 The woman went to the market.

Kayah Monu uses a number of localizers in the PP final position. In a prepositional phrase, the location preposition expresses the general place followed by the main noun while the localizer further defines the location eg. 'to', 'in' and 'on'. Thus the location preposition *dá* is a general location marker which can have the meaning 'at' followed by a noun with localizers following which might give more specific locational information.

The following examples show the structure of the location preposition and the localizers. The preposition *dá* comes before the noun which is followed by the localizers *kʰó* and *kó* to clarify the specific place.

- (277) lì ?á **dá** sàbwé kʰó  
 book be.exist **at** table on  
 N COP **PREP** N **POST**  
 The book is on the table.

- (278) jí ?á **dá** wē kō  
 dog be.exist **at** yard in  
 N COP **PREP** N **LCLZR**  
 the dog in the yard

- (279) ?à kéjí tʰó **dá** lā kō  
 3S see pig **at** field in  
 PRO V N **PREP** N **LCLZR**  
 He saw the pig at the river.

Prepositional phrases can modify a noun only by being part of a relative clause. Below are examples of prepositional modifications inside a relative clause. The relative clause is in brackets in (280) and (281).

(280) tʃùbò [ ʔó      **dó**      **sàbwé kʰó**      ] ʔà      làkà  
pencil be.exist at table on 3S.RSMP break  
N COP **PREP** N **LCLZR** PRO.RSMP V  
the pencil on the table is broken (Lit. the pencil that is on the table, it is broken)

(281) tʰàkə̀bè [ ʔó      **dó**      **hākə̀ kō lə̀**      ] ʔà      hámèʔó  
bear be.exist at cave hole under 3S.RSMP sleep  
N COP **PREP** N N **LCLZR** PRO.RSMP V  
the bear in the cave slept (Lit. the bear that is in the cave, it slept)

#### 5.4.2 Source

As in location clauses, the location preposition *dó* is used to show sources in Kayah Monu. In this case, the directional verb is a particular word to denote where the theme is originated from and followed by the source prepositional phrase as in example sentence (282). The semantics of source are mostly derived from the directional verb.

(282) pʰí tʰó      bólò **dó**      tē kō  
take up ball at box inside  
V V.DIR N **PREP** N LCLZR  
Take the ball out of the box.

Sometimes source is coded by a static location copula clause “ʔó *dó* NP” which occurs immediately before the verb complex to show the source as in (283).

(283) ʔà      ʔó **dó**      jōkūkā ʔà      hē  
3S live at Yangon 3S come  
PRO V **PREP** NPROP PRO V  
He lives in Yangon and comes here.



### 5.4.3 Recipient

In Kayah Monu, the recipient is normally marked by word order and it is the first NP object after the verb complex in a ditransitive clause as in (284).

(284) ?à hè ?í hè ʃì  
 3S come give 1S water  
 PRO V V PRO N  
 She brings me water.

Example (285) shows a typical prepositional phrase structure. In this case it is a goal or recipient where the oblique marker *dá* occurs between the verb phrase and the GOAL NP + LCLZR.

(285) ?àpwàk<sup>hó</sup> ?í lì tà bá dá pwàmó ?ú  
 boy give book one CLF.flat at female to  
 N V N NUM CLF PREP N LCLZR  
 The boy gave a book to the girl.

### 5.4.4 Goal

Kayah Monu also encodes goals with the location preposition *dá* accompanied by a localizer. Examples of both animate and inanimate goals coded by the preposition *dá* prepositional phrase are shown below:

(286) ?àpwàk<sup>hó</sup> wí tʃó bólò dá pwàmó ?ú  
 boy throw go ball at female to  
 N V V N PREP N LCLZR  
 He threw the ball to her.

(287) pà tʃó dá mì klà  
 1P go at forest among  
 PRO V PREP N LCLZR  
 We went into the forest.

The localizer is optional with some motion goals as in the following example (288).

(288) p<sup>h</sup>àlú tʃó dǎ mǎdǎlé  
 Phalu go at Mandalay  
 NPROP V PREP NPROP  
 Phalu goes to Mandalay (city).

### 5.4.5 Benefactive

The benefactive constituent is a kind of indirect object constituent. Beneficiaries are always animate and usually human. It can be oblique when it occurs with the locative preposition *dǎ* and with the localizer (beneficiary marker) *ʔàjā* or *jā* as in first example (289). The beneficiary can also occur as an indirect object recipient as in second example (290).

(289) ʔà p<sup>h</sup>ǎʔá hásí ʃē jì dǎ ʃítèmè ʔàjā  
 3S cook curry chicken meat at guest for  
 PRO V N N N PREP N LCLZR  
 She cooked chicken curry for the guests.

(290) hē ʔí p<sup>h</sup>àlú ʔà mǎ rù kǎní ʃí bá  
 1S give Phalu 3S.Poss mother money two ten CLF.flat  
 PRO V NPROP POSS N N NUM NUM CLF  
 I gave Phalu's mother twenty kyat.

### 5.4.6 Instrument

Instrument constituents occur in transitive and ditransitive clauses. In example (291), the instrument constituent follows both the direct object and the applicative marker *kó* 'with'. Unlike the beneficiary, there is no localizer or marker following the instrument.

(291) ʔà mà sì t<sup>h</sup>ó kó tǎp<sup>h</sup>ō  
 3S do die pig with knife  
 PRO V V N APPL N  
 He killed the pig with a knife.

### 5.4.7 Accompaniment

The accompaniment constituent is expressed by the conjunction *kó* ‘and’ and followed by the core verb in a clause. Example (292) shows how accompaniment is shown in Kayah Monu.

- (292) ?à kó ?à p<sup>h</sup>ó tʃó dǎ mì klà  
3S and 3S.Poss child go at forest among  
PRO CONJ POSS N V PREP N LCLZR  
He and his son went into the forest.

### 5.4.8 Time

Time constituents also occur in Kayah Monu. If the noun phrase denotes some temporal meaning it may be unmarked. The time constituent appears at both initial and final positions of a clause. Examples (293) and (294) show time constituents in peripheral positions. See section (6.3.3.1) for more on time adverbials.

- (293) pèhánǎ ?à hè dǎ búlǎ k<sup>h</sup>ó  
yesterday 3S come at rice field to  
ADV PRO V PREP N LCLZR  
Yesterday, he went to the rice field.

- (294) pwē ?ǎ pèwǎpē  
party be.exist tomorrow  
N COP ADV  
The festival is tomorrow.

### 5.4.9 Ability

In Kayah Monu, ability is normally denoted by a post-verbal auxiliary. There are two words which encode ability: *pè* and *tʃǎ*. The negation of an ability clause always results in the negation marker occurring at final position as in other clauses. See section (4.2.2) for more on ability. Examples can be seen below:



## Chapter 6

### Complex Clauses

#### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter describes complex clauses that are found in Kayah Monu, including coordinate clauses and subordinate clauses. Coordinate clauses are discussed then three different types of subordinate clauses 1) complement clauses, 2) relative clauses, and 3) adverbial clauses are also discussed.

#### 6.2 Coordination

The coordinated units may be words, phrases, clauses or sentences (Haspelmath, 2007: 1). In Kayah Monu, coordinate clauses are two independent clauses and can be joined by coordinating connectives such as *dʒ* ‘and.then’, and *təmè* ‘or’.

Coordination refers to syntactic constructions in which two or more units of the same type are combined into a larger unit and still have the same semantic relations with other surrounding elements. In the case of coordinate clauses, the combined unit is a clause. The two coordinate clauses are often related by 1) logic and 2) temporal sequence. If the subjects of both clauses are the same, the subject is not normally mentioned in the latter sentence.

In (297), *dʒ* ‘and.then’ conjoins two independent clauses. The subject of the verb *plú* ‘gather’ in the first clause and *tʃó* ‘go’ in the second clause is the same and the subject is drop in the second clause.

(297) *pà kəjə plú nóʔò dʒ tʃó dá mì klà*  
1P.Poss people together each.other **and.then** go at forest among  
POSS N ADV RECP **COORD** V PREP N LCLZR  
Our people gathered together and (we) went into the forest.

In (298), *dʒ* ‘and.then’ conjoins two independent clauses. The subject for both verbs *sáp<sup>h</sup>lódó* ‘angry’ and *wí lətē* ‘throw down’ is the same and dropped in the later clause.

(298) ?à sáphlódo dʒ wí lɛtɛ kè lì  
 3S angry **and.then** throw down PERF book  
 PRO ADJ **COORD** V V.DIR ASP N  
 He was angry and threw the book down.

Two clauses with two different NP subjects *tɛ* ‘thing’ and *hè* ‘I’ are conjoined by a coordinating connective to form coordinate clause as in (299). In this case both subjects are presented.

(299) tɛ mətʰɔ ?àná hé?ù nū dʒ hè sáphlō pjé kè  
 thing happen itself this topic **and.then** 1S.Poss mind be.destroyed PERF  
 N V REFL DEM TOP **COORD** PRO N V ASP  
 (When) it happened like this then I was very disappointed (Lit: my mind was destroyed).

In the following example (300), more than two independent clauses occur where the subjects Sub<sub>1</sub> *?à* ‘prey’ is not the same with Sub<sub>2</sub> *wépwá kó pʰɪtʃá* ‘men and children’ while Sub<sub>2</sub> and the zero Sub<sub>3</sub> ‘they’ are the same. Coordinate NPs conjoined by the conjunction *kó* ‘and’ is also shown but *kó* ‘and’ cannot be used to coordinate clauses.

(300) ?à sì hó dʒ wépwá kó pʰɪtʃá ké já dʒ mà ?á já  
 3S die COMPL and.then man and child see SF and.then do eat SF  
 PRO V ASP **COORD** N CONJ N V PRT **COORD** V V PRT  
 When it (prey) was died and both men and children saw it, then (they) cut up its meat to eat.

Another coordinate conjunction *tɛmè* ‘or’ conjoins two independent clauses in (301).

(301) nà kà tʃó dá klá tɛmè kè dá hí ?yà  
 2S will go at market or return at house QP  
 PRO ASP V PREP N CONJ V PREP N Q  
 Will you go to the market or return to the house?

### 6.3 Subordination

A subordinate clause is one which functions as a dependent modifier or argument of a main clause. Three different types of subordinate clauses 1) complement clause, 2) relative clause, and 3) adverbial clause are discussed in the following.

### 6.3.1 Complement Clauses

A complement clause is a type of clause which fills an argument slot in the structure of another clause where one clause is included within another (Dixon 2010: 370). Complement clauses occur as subject or object arguments of other clause, which are called matrix clause (Kroeger 2005: 219). There is a possible complementizer *kó* that only precedes the object complements of verbs of speech in Kayah Monu. Sometimes complement clause looks similar to multiple verb construction. All dependent clauses are in square brackets.

[NP<sub>Sub</sub> V [(*kó*) ]S<sub>Comp</sub>] S<sub>Main</sub>

#### 6.3.1.1 Verbs of Desire

The two following examples (302) and (303) illustrate core complement clauses. One sentence has the matrix verb desire *sájù* ‘want’ in (302) and the other has the imperative verb *nā* ‘order’ in (303).

(302) ?à    sájù [ ?à        p<sup>h</sup>ópwàk<sup>h</sup>ó ?á dī        ]  
          3S    want    3S.Poss son                    eat cooked.rice  
          PRO V     POSS   N                    V    N  
          He wanted his son to eat the rice.

(303) ?à    nā [ ?à        p<sup>h</sup>ópwàk<sup>h</sup>ó hámə?ə də    ?àk<sup>h</sup>lā ]  
          3S    order    3S.Poss son                    sleep    at    out  
          PRO V     POSS   N                    V            PREP LCLZR  
          He ordered his son to sleep outside.

#### 6.3.1.2 Verbs of Speech

The example sentences in (304) and (305) show sentential complements associated with verbs of speech where the complement clause has imperative illocutionary force from the [2P/1P *bá*] construction in the embeded clause (see section (7.3)). In direct speech structure, the complementizer *kó* ‘that’ always precedes the complement clause in order to introduce it.

[V<sub>speech</sub> [*kó* ]S<sub>Comp</sub>] S<sub>Main</sub>

(304) ?àmúpwá hé ?àsè [ kó k<sup>h</sup>ónó nū sè bá ?ómi?óklò tǎlǎ tà kò ]  
 old.man say 3P that now topic 2P must settle place one CLF.land  
 N V PRO COMPZR ADV TOP PRO MOD V N NUM CLF  
 The old man said to them, "Now, you have to settle at a specific place."

(305) ?àmúpwá hé [ kó k<sup>h</sup>ónó pà bá sà<sup>h</sup>ḡ bó lḡ hāk<sup>h</sup>ō tákíp<sup>h</sup>ú ]  
 old.man say that now 1P must start create down soil few  
 N V COMPZR ADV PRO MOD V V V.DIR N QUANT  
 The old man said, "Now, we must start to create a few of soil."

### 6.3.1.3 Verbs of Perception

The perception verb *kéǐ* ‘see’ needs a complement clause as in (306).

[V<sub>see</sub> [ ]S<sub>Comp</sub>] S<sub>Main</sub>

(306) ?à kéǐ [ ǐ ?á wó ]  
 3S see **dog bite snake**  
 PRO V N V N  
 He saw the dog bite the snake.

### 6.3.1.4 Subject Complement

The following example shows a subject complement through event nominalization. The complement clause includes a topic marker, pointing to the complement being a sentential complement as in (307).

(307) [[ ?à hé tǎwétǎkè ]<sub>s</sub> nū ]<sub>NP</sub> ?àmē wáhó  
 3S say subject.matter topic right probably  
 PRO V N TOP ADJ ADV  
 The subject matter that he said is probably right.

### 6.3.2 Relative Clauses

Relative clauses are clauses which function as modifiers to the head nouns within an NP (Kroeger 2005: 219). Matrix clauses and relative clauses share an argument; it may be stated in both clauses, or in just one, or in neither. The relative clause has the basic structure of a clause – involving a predicate and the core arguments required by that predicate (Dixon 2010: 314).



Kayah Monu has postnominal relative clauses and the relativizer immediately precede the relative clause. There is no specific relative pronoun in Kayah Monu instead the relativizer *dá* (same as the preposition *dá*) is used to modify the head noun and sometimes the pronoun *?à*<sub>1</sub> optionally functions as a resumptive pronouns referring back to the head noun in an NP. The frame of a Kayah Monu relative clause is:

[N<sub>Head</sub> [*dá*.....(*?à*)<sub>1</sub>.....(*nū*)]<sub>S</sub>]NP (*?à*)<sub>2</sub>.....

*?à*<sub>1</sub> marks relative clause resumptive pronoun referring back to the head noun in NP

*?à*<sub>2</sub> marks NP if NP in relative clause has been topicalized.

The following examples show the relative clauses modifying the head noun *hè k<sup>h</sup>ə* ‘my friend’ and *kəjə* ‘people’ where the pronouns *?à* optionally functions as a resumptive pronouns referring back to the head noun as in (308) and (309).

(308) [ *hè k<sup>h</sup>ə* [ *dá ?à k<sup>h</sup>lé dó kàtù ]<sub>S</sub>]NP *mí p<sup>h</sup>əbə*  
 1S.Poss friend that 3S run big most be Phabaw  
 POSS N REL PRO V ADJ ADV COP NPROP  
 My friend who runs the most is Phabaw.*

(309) [ *kəjə* [ *dá ?à ?it<sup>h</sup>ə só sù ]<sub>S</sub>]NP *tjó tʃə hó*  
 people that 3S stand.up CLF.human three go able.can COMPL  
 N REL PRO V CLF NUM V MOD ASP  
 The three who stood up can leave.*

In (310) and (311), the post-nominal relative clauses modify the head nouns *pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó* ‘male’ and *pwàmó* ‘female’ where they take optional topic markers *nū* at final position and both relative clauses are followed by the resumptive *?à* ‘3S’ in (310) and (311).

(310) [ *pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó* [ *dá ?à hè ?í hè ʃi nū ]<sub>S</sub>]NP *?à ná t<sup>h</sup>ó kəpì*  
 male that 3S come give 1S water topic 3S.RSMP body tall very  
 N REL PRO V V PRO N TOP PRO.RSMP N ADJ ADV  
 The man who brings me water is very tall.*

(311) pwàmó [ dǎ ʔà màplēmàmwō hē hí nū ]<sub>s</sub> ʔà p<sup>h</sup>ó ʔǎ  
 female that 3S clean 1S.Poss house topic 3S.RSMP child have  
 N REL PRO V PRO N TOP PRO N V  
 sǒ sù  
 CLF.human three  
 CLF NUM  
 the woman who cleans my house has three children

In the following two examples (312) and (313) are parallel examples where the first head noun functions as a subject in the relative clause whereas the second one is an object. The optional resumptive pronoun ʔà is dropped inside the relative clause in second example where the relativized position is an object.

(312) [ jí [ dǎ ʔà ʔá p<sup>h</sup>ítǎ́ p<sup>h</sup>ó nū ]<sub>s</sub> ]<sub>NP</sub> ʔà ʔǎ  
 dog that 3S bite child child topic 3S.RSMP bark  
 N REL <sup>PRO</sup> V N N TOP PRO V  
 The dog that bit the boy is barking.

(313) [ jí [ dǎ p<sup>h</sup>ítǎ́ p<sup>h</sup>ó pǎ́ǎ́ nū ]<sub>s</sub> ]<sub>NP</sub> ʔà ʔǎ  
 dog that child child hit topic 3S.RSMP bark  
 N REL N N V TOP PRO V  
 The dog that boy hit is barking.

In example (314), there are two relativizers modifying the same head noun.

(314) [[ pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó [dǎ ʔà ná dǎ ]<sub>s1</sub> [ dǎ ʔà hē ʔí hē jí nū ]<sub>s2</sub>  
 male that 3S.Poss body big that 3S come give 1S water topic  
 N REL <sup>POSS</sup> N ADJ REL PRO V V PRO N TOP  
 sǒ sù ]<sub>NP</sub> tǎ́ dǎ klá kō  
 CLF.human three go preposition market in  
 CLF NUM V PREP N LCLZR  
 The three men who are big and who bring me water went to the market

### 6.3.3 Adverbial Clauses

Adverbial clauses are modifiers of verb phrases or whole clauses (Kroeger 2005: 227). Subordinate adverbial clauses usually modify the main clause and adverbial conjunctions (here called subordinating conjunctions) are used to introduce

adverbial clauses. They can be considered a kind of adjunct. The canonical constituent order is adverbial clause followed by main clause.

### 6.3.3.1 Temporal Clauses and Expressions<sup>5</sup>

There are several clauses which express temporal adverbial clauses expressing concepts like ‘when’, ‘before’, ‘after’ and others. These adverbial clauses appear at the beginning of a subordinate clause and usually precede the main clause.

#### 6.3.3.1.1 ‘When’ Clauses

In examples (315) and (316), the subordinate conjunction *bá* ‘when’ is used to introduce the adverbial clause and another marker for temporal phrases (clause final subordinator) *ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā* ‘while’ stands at final position of that clause. The adverbial clauses precede the main clauses. In both sentences, the two events are interpreted as occurring at the same time.

[(*bá*)..... *ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā* (*nū*)]<sub>S<sub>Sub</sub></sub> S<sub>Main</sub>

(315) [ *bá*            *hè*    *kè*    *tó*    *đó*            *hí*    *ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā*    ]<sub>s</sub> *ʔà*    *díʔá*  
           when        1S    return arrive preposition house while        3S    feed  
           SUBORD PRO V    V    PREP        N        SUBORD    PRO V  
*pē*    *ʔà*        *p<sup>h</sup>ó*    *dì*  
           still    3S.Poss child cooked.rice  
           ASP    POSS    N        N

When I arrived home, she still was feeding her baby rice.

(316) [ *bá*            *hè*    *tʃó* *t<sup>h</sup>ó*    *tʃō*    *ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā*    ]<sub>s</sub> *ʔà*    *p<sup>h</sup>óʔá* *pē*    *dì*  
           when        1S    go up    school while        3S    cook still cooked.rice  
           SUBORD PRO V    V.DIR N        SUBORD    PRO V    ASP N

When I went to school, she still was cooking rice.

In (317), the subordinate adverbial temporal marker *bá* ‘when’ is drop and *ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā* ‘while’ alone occurs phrase final. In this phrase, the event has not happen yet, as shown by the future sentence final marker *hēpē* which show future time reference on the main clause.

<sup>5</sup> Many temporal adverbials are either event-denoting clauses or time-denoting noun phrases. But they are both similarly marked.

(317) [ tà nē ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā ]<sub>AdvP</sub> hē pwènū tētā kà ʔó dówè hēpē  
 one year while 1S buy property will be.exist many SF.future  
 NUM N SUBORD PRO V N ASP COP QUANT PRT  
 In one year, I will buy many properties (for me).

In example (318), the event is completed but the temporal adverbial clause has only an indirect relationship with both perfective and completive aspect markers *t<sup>h</sup>ə* and *hó* in the main clause.

(318) [ bá hē kē tō ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā ]<sub>s</sub> ʔà tʃó dó t<sup>h</sup>ə ʃi hó  
 when 1S return arrive while 3S go draw PERF water COMPL  
 SUBORD PRO V V SUBORD PRO V V ASP N ASP  
 When I arrived, he had already drawn the water.

(317) and (318) show that the temporal meaning of the subordinate clause is often dependent on the main clause.

### 6.3.3.1.2 ‘Before’ Clauses

In contrast to ‘when’ adverbial clauses, the adverbial temporal marker *nók<sup>h</sup>ə* ‘before’ appears often at the end of the adverbial clause but inside *ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā* ‘while’ which takes a position at a clause final position in (319).

[.....*nók<sup>h</sup>ə* NEG( *ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā* ) (*nū*)]<sub>S<sub>Sub</sub></sub> S<sub>Main</sub>

(319) [ nà mà tàmə nók<sup>h</sup>ə tō ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā ]<sub>s</sub> kènè wó wó  
 2S do work before not while think suitable suitable  
 PRO V N SUBORD NEG SUBORD V ADJ ADJ  
 Before you work, think carefully.

The subordinate adverbial temporal marker *nók<sup>h</sup>ə* ‘before’ occurs with the topic marker *nū* at clause final position as in (320).

(320) [ ʔà háməʔó nók<sup>h</sup>ə tō nū ]<sub>s</sub> ʔà tʃàbà  
 3S sleep before not topic 3S pray  
 PRO V SUBORD NEG TOP PRO V  
 Before he sleeps, he prays.

### 6.3.3.1.3 ‘After’ Clauses

‘After’ adverbial clauses usually co-occur with temporal aspect markers such as perfective aspect marker *t<sup>h</sup>ə* ‘finish’, completive aspect marker *hó*, and the topic marker *nū* in a sentence. These three combine together and mean ‘after that’. The coordinative connective *dʒ* ‘and.then’ also means ‘after’ in coordinate clause. They usually occur in discussions of sequential events as in procedures. Example sentences are shown below.

[.....*t<sup>h</sup>ə* (*hó*) (*nū*)]<sub>S<sub>Sub</sub></sub> S<sub>Main</sub>

(321) [ ʔà k<sup>h</sup>wè t<sup>h</sup>ə hó nū ]<sub>s</sub> bé nù dɛ́ ʃútɔ̃ kō  
 3S dry PERF COMPL topic put go.in at mortar in  
 PRO ADJ ASP ASP TOP V V.DIR PREP N LCLZR  
 After drying (the paddy), put (it) into the mortar.

(322) [ ʃíp<sup>h</sup>á t<sup>h</sup>ə hó ]<sub>s</sub> wó t<sup>h</sup>ɔ́ d̀̀kò kō  
 pound PERF COMPL scoop out round.bamboo.tray in  
 V ASP ASP V V.DIR N LCLZR  
 After pounding, scoop out to put into the round bamboo tray.

(323) [ t̩ mət<sup>h</sup>ɔ́ ʔàná hé?ù nū dʒ ]<sub>s</sub> hè s̩p<sup>h</sup>lō pjé kè  
 thing happen itself this topic and.then 1S.Poss mind be.destroyed PERF  
 N V REFL DEM TOP COORD POSS N V ASP  
 (When) it happened like this then I was very disappointed (Lit: my mind was destroyed).

### 6.3.3.1.4 Other Temporal Adverbial Expressions

The adverbs like *k<sup>h</sup>ə́nɔ́* ‘now’, *sàk<sup>h</sup>óló* ‘firstly’, and other words denoting ‘today/tomorrow/yesterday’ indicate dependent adverbial expressions and usually precede the independent main clause but sometimes the adverbial clause appears clause final. There is a lot of variation with the subordinators used, as can be seen in the following set of examples.

[.....*k<sup>h</sup>ə́nɔ́/sàk<sup>h</sup>óló*... (*nū*)]<sub>S<sub>Sub</sub></sub> S<sub>Main</sub> or S<sub>Main</sub> [*t̩l̩* *k<sup>h</sup>ə́nɔ́*]<sub>S<sub>Sub</sub></sub>

(324) [ k<sup>h</sup>ɔ́nɔ́ nū ]<sub>s</sub> sè bá ʔómíʔóklù t̩l̩ā tà kò  
 now topic 2P must settle place one CLF.land  
 ADV TOP PRO MOD V N NUM CLF  
 At now, you must settle at a (specific) place.

(325) [ t̩l̩āʔàs<sup>h</sup>ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā k<sup>h</sup>ɔ́nɔ́ nū ]<sub>s</sub> ʔàp̩ʔàs<sup>h</sup>à t̩f̩ɛt̩f̩ɛp̩p̩d̩ d̩ó h̩è j̩ā  
 time now topic difficult really at 1S for  
 N ADV TOP ADJ ADV PREP PRO LCLZR  
 Nowadays, it is really difficult for me.

(326) [ sàk<sup>h</sup>ólō ]<sub>s</sub> p̩à bá t̩j̩ó p<sup>h</sup>í bú  
 first 1P must go take rice.unthreshed  
 ADV PRO MOD V V N  
 First, we must go take the rice paddy.

(327) [ k<sup>h</sup>ɔ́t̩àni ]<sub>s</sub> h̩è k̩à t<sup>h</sup>òwākā t̩j̩o p̩èl̩è  
 today 1S will attend school maybe  
 ADV PRO ASP V N ADV  
 Today, maybe I will attend the school.

(328) t<sup>h</sup>àj̩ɔ́j̩k̩è ʔáʔít̩j̩ h̩èn̩è h̩āk<sup>h</sup>ō [t̩j̩l̩] k<sup>h</sup>ɔ́nɔ́ ]<sub>s</sub>  
 earthworm eat continue soil until now  
 N V ADV N SUBORD ADV  
 The earthworm continues eating the soil until now.

### 6.3.3.2 Result Adverbial Clauses

Adverbial clauses for ‘result’ use the subordinate conjunction *màt̩t̩èn̩ù* ‘because’. In examples (329) and (330), subordinate and matrix clauses are joined by the subordinate conjunction *màt̩t̩èn̩ù* ‘because’ to form a coordinate clause where two NP subjects are different.

$S_{Main} \dots [ \dots \dots m\grave{a}t\grave{t}\grave{e}n\grave{u} ] S_{Sub}$

(329) ʔàsèl̩ák<sup>h</sup>è hàwīf̩ɛwè [m̩àt̩t̩èn̩ù ʔà ʔó sék<sup>h</sup>á ]<sub>s</sub>  
 3P poor because 3S drink alcohol  
 PRO ADJ SUBORD PRO V N  
 They were poor because he drank alcohol.

(330) ?à tʃó tɛp<sup>h</sup>ɛ [màtítènù wó ?ó ]<sub>s</sub>  
 3S go away because snake be.exist  
 PRO V V.DIR SUBORD N COP  
 She fled because there was a snake.

### 6.3.3.3 Cause Adverbial Clauses

Adverbial clauses for ‘cause’ use the subordinate conjunction ?àk<sup>h</sup>ó?àk<sup>h</sup>jè ‘because.of’. Sentences (331) and (332) provide examples of ‘cause’ adverbial clauses joined by the subordinating connective ?àk<sup>h</sup>ó?àk<sup>h</sup>jè ‘because.of’ as in the following.

[.....?àk<sup>h</sup>ó?àk<sup>h</sup>jè]<sub>S<sub>Sub</sub></sub> S<sub>Main</sub>

(331) [ ?à tʃépwé mà ?àk<sup>h</sup>ó?àk<sup>h</sup>jè ]<sub>s</sub> ?à rù ?ó dówè  
 3S try do because.of 3S.Poss money have many  
 PRO V V SUBORD POSS N V QUANT  
 Because of trying to work (hard), he has money a lot.

(332) [ hè kɛʃí bá hénù ?àk<sup>h</sup>ó?àk<sup>h</sup>jè ]<sub>s</sub> hè sáplá tʃélèwá  
 1S encounter that because.of 1S dejected deeply  
 PRO V DEM SUBORD PRO ADJ ADV  
 Because of encountering that (difficult) experience, I am deeply dejected.

### 6.3.3.4 Conditional Adverbial Clauses

Conditional adverbial clauses are also composed of a dependent conditional clause and an independent main clause. The subordinate conjunction that is used in conditional clauses is *mé* ‘if’ where the topic marker *nū* optionally occurs clause final. The subordinate conjunction *mé* ‘if’ occurs after the NP subject. And if there is no subject then it is clause initial. Examples can be seen in the following set of sentences.

[.....*mé*..... (*nū*)]<sub>S<sub>Sub</sub></sub> S<sub>Main</sub>

(333) [ mé mà t<sup>h</sup>ə hó nū ]<sub>s</sub> bé nù dó p<sup>h</sup>òkā kō  
 if do PERF COMPL topic put go.in at basket in  
 SUBORD V ASP ASP TOP V V.DIR PREP N LCLZR  
 If (you are) done then put (them) into the basket.

(334) [ hè mé shájá nū ]<sub>s</sub> hè kà nébá rù  
 1S if sell topic 1S will get money  
 PRO SUBORD V TOP PRO ASP V N  
 If I sell them, I would get money.

(335) [ pà sàpúwé sá mé tʃú ]<sub>s</sub> dí t<sup>h</sup>ò t<sup>h</sup>ʒ pà  
 1P.Poss brother.sister mind if unite found become up 1P.Poss  
 POSS N N SUBORD V V V V.DIR POSS  
 ʃì pà k̄ā  
 water 1P.Poss country  
 N POSS N  
 If our brothers and sisters' minds are united, let's found together our own  
 country.

### 6.3.3.5 Reason Clauses

Reason adverbial clauses are also composed of a dependent subordinate clause and an independent main clause. The subordinate conjunction that is used in reason clause is *pók<sup>h</sup>ʒ* 'as' where the topic marker *nū* optionally occurs clause final. An example can be seen in the following.

[*pók<sup>h</sup>ʒ*.....*nū*]<sub>S<sub>Sub</sub></sub> S<sub>Main</sub>

(336) [ *pók<sup>h</sup>ʒ* ʔà hé nū ] *hé tàṃá né*  
 as 3S say topic say not IMP.polite  
 SUBORD PRO V TOP V NEG IMP

As he said ,don't tell )it!(

### 6.3.3.6 Counter Expectation Clauses

Counter expectation clauses are used to denote a denial of expectation. The subordinator *metà* 'although' is used to express counter expectation clauses it appears clause final. The subordinate clause always precedes matrix clause as in (337) and (338).

[.....*metà*]<sub>S<sub>Sub</sub></sub> S<sub>Main</sub>



(337) [ ʔà ʔólòkwē métà ]<sub>s</sub> ʔà sāp<sup>h</sup>lō mē t̚  
 3S play although 3S.Poss mind happy not  
 PRO V SUBORD POSS N ADJ NEG  
 Although he plays, he is not happy.

(338) [ ʔà k̚ métà ] ʔà m̚p<sup>h</sup>à ʔá dá hí t̚  
 3S return although 3S.Poss parent be.exist at house not  
 PRO V SUBORD PRO N COP PREP N NEG

Although she returned, her parents were not home.

## 6.4 Summary

In this chapter, coordinate clauses and three kinds of subordinate clauses 1) complement clauses, 2) relative clauses, and 3) adverbial clauses were discussed. The constituent order for each type of clause was also described.

In coordinate sentences, coordinating connectives are used to connect two independent clauses. There is the optional *kó* ‘that’ complementizer in Kayah Monu complement clauses. Relative clauses in Kayah Monu are post-nominal. The relativizer *dá* is used to introduce a relative clause within an NP and resumptive pronouns are common in relative clause constructions.

Dependent adverbial clauses usually come before the independent main clauses. Temporal adverbial clauses such as: 1) ‘when’ clause, 2) ‘before’ clause, 3) ‘after’ clause, and 4) other temporal adverbial subordinate clauses were described. Result adverbial clause, cause adverbial clause, conditional clause, reason clause, and counter expectation clause were also briefly discussed.

The variations in subordinator positions with their related examples are discussed. They occur on both sides of subordinate clauses eg. *bá* ‘when’ occurs clause initial as in (316), temporal markers *k<sup>h</sup>ñs* ‘now’, *sàk<sup>h</sup>óló* ‘firstly’, and *k<sup>h</sup>ʔtànì* ‘today’ also appear clause initial as in (324) and (326), result subordinator *màtítènù* ‘because’, conditional subordinator *mé* ‘if’, and reason subordinator *p̚k<sup>h</sup>̚* ‘as’ stand clause initial as in (329), (334), and (336).

In contrast, *n̚k<sup>h</sup>̚* ‘before’ occurs inside the clause together with negation marker *t̚* ‘not’ in (319). The subordinator *ʔàk<sup>h</sup>̚* ‘while’ occurs clause final in (316) as well as *t<sup>h</sup>̚* ‘finish’ and *d̚* ‘and.then’ appear clause final sometimes with topic marker *nū* in (321) and (323). Cause subordinator *ʔàk<sup>h</sup>̚óʔàk<sup>h</sup>̚jè* ‘because.of’, and counter expectation subordinator *métà* ‘although’ occur clause final as in (331), and (337).

# Chapter 7

## Sentence Types

### 7.1 Introduction

This chapter looks at different sentence types in Kayah Monu. It provides several illustrative examples for declarative, imperative, and interrogative sentences and describes the patterns for each type. Most languages have specific grammatical patterns that are used to indicate which of these actions the speaker intends to perform: declarative for statements; imperative for commands, and interrogative for questions (Kroeger 2005: 196). Sentence final particles normally are added to declarative sentence to make them express some other illocutionary force.

### 7.2 Declarative (Statements)

In Kayah Monu, the most basic kind of sentence structure is a simple statement, a declarative sentence. The NP<sub>Obj</sub> follows both NP<sub>Sub</sub> and VP; PP and ClfP optionally occur at the end of the clause. The typical structure of a declarative sentence is schematized as below.

S: [NP<sub>Sub</sub> VP NP<sub>Obj</sub> (PP) (ClfP)]

Sentence (339) illustrates a simple declarative sentence in Kayah Monu. It consists of NP<sub>Sub</sub> *?àmúpwá* ‘the old man’, a verb *màt<sup>h</sup>ʒ* ‘build’, NP<sub>Obj</sub> *hí* ‘house’, PP<sub>Loc</sub> *dá lā kō* ‘in the field’ and ClfP *tà mē* ‘one/a house’.

(339) ?àmúpwá màt<sup>h</sup>ʒ hí dǎ lā kō tà mē  
old.man build house at field in one CLF.round.big  
N V N PREP N LCLZR NUM CLF  
The old man built a house in the field.

Declarative sentences have been extensively discussed in previous chapters.

## 7.3 Imperative (Commands)

Imperatives are clause construction types that directly command the addressee to perform some action. They are usually understood to refer to second person subjects. In Kayah Monu, the addressee who is being told to do something is usually omitted and the imperative can be strong or softened by changing intonation.

### 7.3.1 Regular Imperatives

A regular imperative is usually a declarative clause optionally without both addresser and addressee. Examples below show imperative sentences in Kayah Monu. All sentences are spoken strongly to express command.

(340) hè ʔá báʔù

come eat here

V V DEM.Loc

Come and eat!

(341) tʃó pwè kè tětā

go buy return property

V V V N

Go and buy things!

Sometimes proper nouns can occur in imperative clauses when the addressee is being told to do something with increased urgency or impatience as in (342).

(342) p<sup>h</sup>àbò mà p<sup>h</sup>wè p<sup>h</sup>wè

Phabaw do quickly quickly

NPROP V ADV ADV

Phabaw, hurry up!

A bare verb can also form an imperative structure. For example, *tʃó* ‘go’ in example (343) has only a verb to form an imperative clause and it was used with a strong voice in giving a command.

(343) tʃó

go

V

Go!

### 7.3.2 Prohibitive Imperatives

Prohibitive (negative imperatives) have the same form as positive imperatives, except that the clause includes the negation marker. The following examples (344) and (445) compare declarative and imperative clauses. In (344), the actor is giving quite strong command by using imperative negation *má* ‘not’ whereas in (345), it is not a prohibitive instead the addressee responds by using general negation marker *tə* ‘not’.

(344) mà **má** (strong command)

do **not**

V **NEG.IMP**

Don't do it!

(345) mà **tə** (refuse to do)

do **not**

V **NEG**

I won't do it!

### 7.3.3 Polite Imperatives

Another possible way of marking imperative sentences in Kayah Monu is by using special final imperative markers. The polite imperative is not necessarily used towards a speaker of higher status, but is used to demonstrate a kind of positive attitude towards the addressee. This is a softer, less direct form of command than the regular imperative and frequently used in hortatory discourse.

The polite imperative is marked by the particle *n̄* and *né*. Examples below show that the speaker can soften the force of an imperative with both final element imperative markers. The first one *n̄* seems to be a Burmese loan word.

(346) kànè?í hè **n̄**

remember 1S **ASRT**

V **PRO IMP**

Remember me please!



## 7.4 Interrogative (Questions)

Three basic types of interrogative sentence structures are found in Kayah Monu. The first is the yes-no question, the second is the content question, and the third is the disjunctive-negative question. These broad types are distinguished by the occurrences of sentence final interrogative marker *ʔɣà* for yes-no questions *lē* for content questions and *támè* ‘or’ for disjunctive questions.

### 7.4.1 Yes-No Questions

Yes-No questions are sometimes referred to as ‘closed questions,’ because set of possible answers is closed, containing just two members (*yes* and *no*) (Kroeger 2005: 203). In Kayah Monu, the interrogative particle *ʔɣà* occurs at the end of the clause to signal a yes-no question as the answer the speaker expects is either ‘yes’ or ‘no’. The following are examples of the interrogative yes-no structure.

(352) nà    p<sup>h</sup>áʔá t<sup>h</sup>è    hó    ʔɣà  
2S    cook    PERF    COMPL    QP  
PRO    V    ASP    ASP    Q  
Have you finished cooking?

(353) nà    sákànā    m̀̀ǹ̀    jé    ʔɣà  
2S    understand    Monu    language    QP  
PRO    V    NPROP    N    Q  
Do you understand Kayah Monu language?

This kind of question would have the answer "yes" or "no".

### 7.4.2 Content Questions

Content questions are sometimes referred to as ‘open questions,’ because the set of possible answers is open, with (theoretically) no limit to the number of potential responses and also called ‘Wh-questions’ (Kroeger 2005: 203). Two parts are required to make content questions in Kayah Monu. The first part is a question proform and the second part is the question particle *lē*. The content question particle *lē* optionally co-occurs with *m̀̀t̀̀t̀̀* ‘why’ and *m̀̀p̀̀è* ‘who’. As the question word identifies the sentence as a question, the final question particle is frequently omitted. Table 37 shows the interrogative proforms in Kayah Monu.

**Table 37 Interrogative Pro-forms in Kayah Monu**

Question Words	Interrogative proform
who	<i>mópè</i>
where	<i>bátè</i>
what	<i>títè</i>
when	<i>bák<sup>h</sup>ətè</i>
how	<i>hítè</i>
how much	<i>pwétè</i>
why	<i>màtítè</i>

Usually, the questions words are found clause final except *mópè* ‘who’ and *màtítè* ‘why’. If the question particle *lè* occurs, it is clause final after the question word. Each question word has a specific function. For the pro-forms, the positions given are strong preferences but not always the only option.

#### 7.4.2.1 Who

The use of *mópè* ‘who’ indicate that the speaker thinks that the referent they want to identify is human. In the following examples, the question word *mópè* ‘who’ occurs with the optional question particle *lè* at clause final. The final particle only appears in (357).

(354) *nà      mì    mí    mópè*  
 2S.Poss name be who  
 POSS N COP INTRG  
 What is your name?

(355) *?à    hénù   mí    mópè*  
 3S that be who  
 PRO DEM COP INTRG  
 Who is he/she?

(356) *mópè    hè    dá    búlá    k<sup>h</sup>ó*  
 who come at rice field on  
 INTRG V PREP N LCLZR  
 Who went to the rice field?

(357) nà kà ʔí mópè lē  
 2S will give who QP  
 PRO ASP V INTRG Q  
 Whom will you give it?

### 7.4.2.2 What

When the speaker thinks that the unknown referent is non-human, the question word *tìtè* ‘what’ is used. It usually occur clause final sometimes with future marker *hēpē* to show the future tense.

(358) hénù mí tìtè  
 that be what  
 DEM COP INTRG  
 What is that?

(359) pèwèpē nà kà mà tìtè hēpē  
 tomorrow 2S will do what SF.future  
 ADV PRO ASP V INTRG PRT  
 What will you do tomorrow?

### 7.4.2.3 Why

The question word *màtítè* ‘why’ usually appears clause initial, and the question particle *lē* is clause final. This question word is used when the speaker does not know the reason for some state or event and is requesting the hearer to provide that information.

(360) màtítè nà hē dǎ búlǎ kʰó tǝ  
 why 2S come at rice field to not  
 INTRG PRO V PREP N LCLZR NEG  
 Why don't you go to the rice field?

(361) màtítè nà pwè ʔá hú tǝ lē  
 why 2S buy eat rice not QP  
 INTRG PRO V V N NEG Q  
 Why don't you buy rice?



(362) màtítè nà hè tǝ lē  
 why 2S come not QP  
 INTRG PRO V NEG Q  
 Why don't you come?

#### 7.4.2.4 When

A speaker will choose the question word *bák<sup>h</sup>ətè* ‘when’ to request the specific time of an event. The future marker *hēpē* is added clause final for ‘when in the future’.

(363) nà tǝ dǝ mǎdǎlé bák<sup>h</sup>ətè  
 2S go at Mandalay when  
 PRO V PREP NPROP INTRG  
 When did you go to Mandalay?

(364) nà kǎ hè bák<sup>h</sup>ətè hēpē  
 2S will come when SF.future  
 PRO ASP V INTRG PRT  
 When will you come?

#### 7.4.2.5 Where

The place question word *bátè* ‘where’ is used when the speaker is uncertain of a location. It usually occurs clause final.

(365) nà ʔǎ bátè  
 2S stay where  
 PRO V INTRG  
 Where do you stay?

(366) k<sup>h</sup>ótànì nà tǝ bátè  
 today 2S go where  
 ADV PRO V INTRG  
 Where do you go today?

### 7.4.2.6 How

The manner question word *hítè* ‘how’ also always appears clause final.

(367) *hè bá mà hítè*  
1S must do how  
PRO MOD V INTRG  
How should I do (it)?

(368) *bá p<sup>h</sup>ǒʔá dì hítè*  
must cook cooked.rice how  
MOD V N INTRG  
How do (I) cook rice?

### 7.4.2.7 How many

Kayah Monu uses the same question word to request the quantity and number of referent. When the amount or the number of something is unknown, the quantity extent question word *pwétè* ‘how much’ or the number question word *pwétè* ‘how many’ are used and these are both the same.

(369) *ʔǒ dó pwétè*  
be.exist big how.many  
COP ADJ INTRG  
How many?

(370) *nà nē ʔǒ pwétè*  
2S.Poss year have how.many  
POSS N V INTRG  
How old are you? (Lit: How many years do you have?)

### 7.4.3 Disjunctive (Negative) Questions

Kayah Monu also has disjunctive questions that are more frequent in conversation than in monologues and narratives. This type of question is formed by combining two parts where the verb followed by the coordinator *tǎmè* ‘or’ or subordinator *mé* ‘if’ then the verb is repeated and optionally followed by negation marker. The schema for disjunctive (negative) question formation is as below.

S<sub>Disjunctive-Negative Question</sub>: [...V1 (təmè/mé) V1 (tə)]

The following examples show a disjunctive-negative question in Kayah Monu by using *təmè* 'or' and *mé* 'if'. The answer could be 'one of them' or 'both of them' or 'neither of them'.

(371) nà hébá múnù jə təmə hébá tə ʔyà  
 2S speak Monu language or speak not QP  
 PRO V NPROP N CONJ V NEG Q  
 Do you speak Kayah Monu or not?

(372) təlā nū wə mé wə tə dʒ bá tʰè pū já  
 place topic suitable if suitable not and.then must cut test SF  
 N TOP ADJ SUBORD ADJ NEG COORD MOD V V PRT  
 You must cut to test if the land is good enough for hill-side cultivation or not.

Sometimes the disjunction can involve an entire VP as in (xx).

(373) nà kà tʃó də klá təmə kə də hí ʔyà  
 2S will go at market or return at house QP  
 PRO ASP V PREP N CONJ V PREP N Q  
 Will you go to the market or return to the house?

## 7.5 Summary

In this chapter, three major sentence types, declarative, imperative, and interrogative were presented. Within each category several subtypes are identified. The interrogative forms for yes-no questions, content questions, and disjunctive-negative questions were also discussed.

# Chapter 8

## Conclusion

### 8.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings from previous chapters are summarized and suggestions for further research are provided.

### 8.2 Summary of Findings

This research is made up of eight chapters and is based on research carried out on the Taw Khu dialect in Kayah State, Myanmar.

Chapter one introduced the classification of the language, the people, geography, demography, general information, scope of the research, methodology, literature review on previous studies, and an overview of previous phonological study.

Chapter two described different types of major word classes, minor word classes, and morphological process. The grammatical basis for each word class was described, which included nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, demonstratives, classifiers, numerals, quantifiers, preposition and relativizer, localizers, conjunctions, question words, particles, and directional verbs.

Verbs were divided into main verbs and auxiliaries which occur with the main verbs. Some auxiliaries appear regularly after the verbs and others before the verb. Directional verbs occur as helping verbs to the main verb to show the direction of the actor. Adjectives were discussed to be similar to verbs in negation and modification by post-verbal auxiliaries. But adjectives are distinct from verbs in *tà*-adjective nominalization, the position of modifying head noun in NP, the use of the relativizer *dá* with modifiers, and the comparative and the superlative constructions. Adverbs typically follow the verb and modify the verb, adjective or another adverb.

Reflexive and reciprocal pronouns follow the main verb to form reflexive or reciprocal clauses. Demonstratives are used to point out a particular thing and they usually follow the head noun, and can be linked by a copula. Conjunctions link two words, phrases or clauses and the question words sometimes occur as discontinuous forms. Final particles distinguish illocutionary forces such declarative, imperative,

interrogative by following each. Classifiers are divided into a number of different subclasses based on grammatical distribution. Auto-classifiers are also nouns. The general locative preposition *dá* always precedes the noun to express the general location and the localizers are obligatory occur at final position to point out a specific place.

Chapter three described noun phrase structure. NP can be head nouns preceded by an optional possessive noun phrase and followed by optional adjectives, numeral, quantifier, classifier, demonstrative, and topic marker. In appositional noun phrases, the specific noun phrase follows the general noun phrase. Coordinate noun phrases consist of two similar head constituents joined by a conjunction. Classifiers accompany nouns to mark a specific class of nouns and form classifier phrases. The quantifier phrase or classifier phrase are optional. The classifier phrase sometimes can displace to a sentence final position.

Chapter four provided the structures of the verb phrase. The verb phrase optionally starts with an auxiliary (AUX<sub>1</sub>) which is followed by the head verb (V\*), and an auxiliary (AUX<sub>2</sub>) usually aspect marker, and lastly by an optional constituent (XP), which is often adverbial. Finally a negation marker may appear. Adverb phrases always follow the predicate. Multiple verb constructions consist of the combination of two or more verb roots. In a multiple verb construction, usually the first verb is a head. They express one simple event or a complex event. Different types of multiple-verbs constructions such as simultaneous, sequential, resultative, and directive were discussed.

Chapter five presented simple clauses. Equative clauses, existential clauses, possessive clauses, locative clauses, and attributive clauses are all kinds of non-verbal clauses. They are typically composed of a noun phrase followed by a copula and an optional copula complement. For verbal clauses, the subject is almost always obligatory. There are three different copulas '*mí*', '*ʔá*', and 'zero' in Kayah Monu. A benefactive constituent can follow or precede the indirect object constituent. Time constituents can appear at both initial and final of the sentence. A location constituent is an oblique argument; they usually occur at the end of the sentence and often a localizer is obligatory. Instrument constituents occur in transitive and ditransitive clauses. Unlike the beneficiary, there is no localizer or marker next to the instrument.

Chapter six analyzed complex clauses in Kayah Monu. Coordinate clauses are two independent clauses and can be joined by coordinating connectives such as *dá*

‘and.then’, and *támè* ‘or’. If the subjects of both clauses are the same, the subject is not normally mentioned in the latter sentence. There is a complementizer for object complements and sometimes they look similar to multiple verbs construction. Kayah Monu has postnominal relative clauses and the relativizer follows any attributive modifying the head noun to indicate a relative clause. There is no specific relative pronoun instead the relativizer *dá* (same as the preposition *dá*) is used to modify the head noun. Adverbial conjunctions (subordinating conjunctions) are used to introduce adverbial clauses or follow them.

Chapter seven described sentence types and there are different types such as declarative, interrogative, and imperative. Sentence final particles are normally added to declarative sentence to create some other illocutionary force. There are three basic types of interrogative sentences: yes-no questions, content questions, and disjunctive-negative questions. These broad types are distinguished by the occurrences of sentence final interrogative marker *ʔà* for yes-no questions *lè* for content questions and *támè* ‘or’ for disjunctive question.

### 8.3 Further Research

A grammatical analysis of a language is never perfect. This section provides applicable suggestions that still need further research. Verb and adjective can only be separated on some tests, but most tests do not make this separation. Therefore, it is recommended to do further study on distinguishing verbs and adjectives because at clause and sentence level the distinction between these two is weak.

It is also recommended to do further investigation on the word *ʔà*. It functions as adjective nominalizer, third person singular pronoun and sometimes it is not clear that whether it is prefix or not.

The two aspect markers *t<sup>h</sup>ə* ‘perfective’ and *hó* ‘completive’ appearance in the verb complex need to be explained in more detail. The role of *dá* needs more research as it can function as a locative preposition by preceding a noun, as a relativizer following the head noun in relative clause, and as temporal preposition appear at start position introducing adverbial time clause.

Classifier usages and the displacement of classifier phrases also need more data and research. For simple and complex sentences, the most interesting area to focus on is subject-verb intransitivity and their alternation into verb subject sentences.

The discourse-pragmatics with a discussion of topic, focus and various discourse markers are also invaluable features for further research. As this thesis is an initial work on the descriptive grammar of Kayah Monu, many features may need to be investigated in more detail.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Benedict, Paul K. 1972. *Sino-Tibetan: A conspectus*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bradley, David. 1997. *Tibeto-Burman languages and classification*. *Tibeto-Burman Languages of the Himalayas*, Papers in Southeast Asian Linguistics 14, ed. by David Bradley, 1-72. Canberra: Australian National University. [Pacific Linguistics A-86].
- Bryant, John. 2003. *Kayah Li Grammar: Mumbo-Jumbo Free*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Bryant, John & Reh, Myar. 2005. *Kayah Li: A Descriptive Grammar Summary*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Dixon, R. M. W. 2010. *Basic Linguistic Theory*. Vol 2 Grammatical topics. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Egerod, Søren C. 1974. *Sino-Tibetan languages*. *Encyclopedia Britannica* 16:796-806.
- Givon, Talmy. 2001. *Syntax: An Introduction*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Hartmann, Helga So. 2008. *A Descriptive Grammar of Daai Chin*. Doctoral Dissertation, University of London.
- Haspelmath, Martin. 2007. *Coordination*. In *Language typology and syntactic description: Complex constructions*, ed. Timothy Shopen, 2: 1-15. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hsar Shee, Naw. 2008. *A Descriptive Grammar of Geba Karen*. Chiang Mai: Payap University. Master's thesis.
- Jones, Robert B, Jr. 1961. *Karen linguistic studies: Description, comparison and texts*. Berkeley: University of California Press.



- Kauffman, William G. 1993. *The great tone split and central Karen*. Grand Forks: University of North Dakota MA thesis.
- Kroeger, Paul R. 2005. *Analyzing Grammar: An Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lambrecht, Knud. 1994. *Information structure and sentence form*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Manson, Kenneth Neil. 2010. *A Grammar of Kayan, a Tibeto-Burman language*. PhD Thesis, La Trobe University.
- Matisoff, James A. 1991. *Sino-Tibetan linguistics: present state and future prospects*. Annual Review of Anthropology 20:469-504.
- Myar Reh, Myar Doo. 2004. *A Phonological Comparison of Selected Karenic Language Varieties of Kayah State*. Payap: Master's Thesis.
- Peter Ko Doe Ri, U & Mateo Ket Ri, U. 2000. *A History of Kayah Monu*. Loikaw: Kayah Monu Research Committee.
- Shopen, Timothy. 2007. *Language Typology and Syntactic Description*. Vol I. Clause Structure. 2<sup>nd</sup> Edit. Cambridge University Press.
- Shopen, Timothy. 2007. *Language Typology and Syntactic Description*. Vol III. Grammatical Categories and the Lexicon. 2<sup>nd</sup> Edit. Cambridge University Press.
- Solnit, David. 1997. *Easter Kayah Li: Grammar, texts, glossary*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Watters, David E. 2004. *A Grammar of Kham*. Cambridge University Press.

#### **Online Resources:**

Joshua Project: 'Manumanaw'

<http://www.joshuaproject.net/languages.php?rol3=kxf> (accessed August 3<sup>rd</sup>, 2012)

Multitree: A Digital Library of Language Relationships, 'Karen Manumanaw'

<http://multitree.org/codes/kxf.html> (accessed August 5<sup>th</sup>, 2012)

## APPENDIX A

### EARTHWORM AND TERMITE

1 dó nihānīnó ?àmúpwá ?àpə?àp<sup>h</sup>á ?ó tà pwà  
 when long.time.ago old.man powerful be.exist one CLF.human  
 PREP ADV N ADJ COP NUM CLF

Long time ago, there was a powerful old man.

2 ?à bó lẹ tậ<sup>h</sup>ótậwè ?ó kàní prò  
 3S create down animal be.exist two CLF.generic  
 PRO V V.DIR N COP NUM CLF

There were two kinds of animal he created.

3 ?à ló tjó kó ?à hīp<sup>h</sup>ù ?ó tà prò  
 3S crawl go with 3S.Poss belly be.exist one CLF.generic  
 PRO V V APPL PRO N COP NUM CLF

One animal crawls and goes with its belly.

4 ?à tjó kó ?à k<sup>h</sup>əlèpẹ mí tà prò  
 3S go with 3S.Poss leg be one CLF.generic  
 PRO V APPL PRO N COP NUM CLF

One animal goes with its foot.

5 bánù ?àk<sup>h</sup>ā ?à tjólēlù pẹ ?àk<sup>h</sup>ā  
 that while 3S travel still while  
 DEM SUBORD PRO V ASP SUBORD

At that time, he (old man) is still travelling.

6 ?àmúpwá hé ?àsè kó k<sup>h</sup>òns nū sè bá ?ómi?óklù tậlā tà  
 old.man say 3P that now topic 2P must settle place one  
 N V PRO COMPZR ADV TOP PRO MOD V N NUM  
 kò  
 CLF.land  
 CLF

The old man said to them, "Now, you have to settle at a specific place."

7 ʔàmúpwá hé kó kʰɔ́nɔ́ pà bá sàtʰɔ́ bá lẹ̀ hākʰō tàkípʰú  
old.man say that now 1P must start create down soil few  
N V COMPZR ADV PRO MOD V V V.DIR N QUANT

The old man said, "Now, we must start to create a few of soil."

8 ʔà nē sàtʰɔ́ bá wī kó tʰájóʃkè  
3S order start create first with earthworm  
PRO V V V ADV APPL N

He (the old man) orders the earthworm to start create the soil first.

9 ʔà bá tʰə hó nū ʔàmúpwá tʃó kéké já  
3S create PERF COMPL topic old.man go look SF  
PRO V ASP ASP TOP N V V PRT

When he (earthworm) finishes creating the soil, the old man goes to check it.

10 ʔà tà bāwə ʔà sāpʰlō tẹ́ dɣ ʔàmúpwá nē bá tàplēsə  
3S.Poss thing please 3S.Poss mind not and.then old.man order create again  
PRO N V PRO N NEG COORD N V V ADV  
kó pùʔù  
with termite  
APPL N

His (of earthworm) thing (creating soil) does not please his (the old man's) mind then the old man orders termite to start create the soil again.

11 dɣ ʔà dī bá tàplēsə pùʔù hākʰō  
and.then 3S allow create again termite soil  
COORD PRO V V ADV N N

He (the old man) again allows termite to create the soil.

12 dɣ ʔà bá tʰə hó ʔàmúpwá tʃó kéké só já  
and.then 3S create PERF COMPL old.man go look again SF  
COORD PRO V ASP ASP N V V ADV PRT

When he (termite) finished creating (the soil), the old man went to check it again.

13 ʔàplèʔàwā hó dʒ ʔà bémēbéklə kè kó pùʔù bá  
 give.finishing.touch COMPL and.then 3S nominate PERF with termite create  
 V ASP COORD PRO V ASP APPL N V

hāk<sup>h</sup>ō hó

soil COMPL

N ASP

After giving finishing touch then he (the old man) nominates termite to create the soil.

14 dʒ t<sup>h</sup>àjǎʃikə sāp<sup>h</sup>lō mē pē pùʔù tǝ dʒ ʔá lǎlǎtēbá  
 and.then earthworm mind happy for termite not and.then eat completely  
 COORD N N ADJ LCLZR N NEG COORD V ADV

pùʔù hāk<sup>h</sup>ō

termite soil

N N

The earthworm does not happy and then he (earthworm) completely eats the termite's soil.

15 t<sup>h</sup>àjǎʃikə ʔáʔitǝ hènè hāk<sup>h</sup>ō tǝlǝ k<sup>h</sup>ònó  
 earthworm eat continue soil until now  
 N V ADV N SUBORD ADV

The earthworm continues eating the soil until now.

## APPENDIX B

### HOW TO COOK RICE?

1 bá p<sup>h</sup>ǒǒá dì hítè  
 must cook cooked.rice how  
 MOD V N INTRG

How to cook rice?

2 k<sup>h</sup>ǒnǒ hè kà p<sup>h</sup>ǒǒá dì tà kàpù  
 now 1S will cook cooked.rice one pot  
 ADV PRO ASP V N NUM N

Now, I will cook a pot of rice.

3 sàk<sup>h</sup>ǒlǒ pà bá tǒ p<sup>h</sup>í bú  
 first 1P must go take rice.unthreshed  
 ADV PRO MOD V V N

Firstly, we must go to take paddy.

4 t<sup>h</sup>è hó nū pà bá lòk<sup>h</sup>wè já kó lùmú tǒmè mí  
 PERF COMPL topic 1P must dry SF with sun or fire  
 ASP ASP TOP PRO MOD V PRT APPL N CONJ N

After that we must dry (the paddy) with sun or fire.

5 ǒà k<sup>h</sup>wè t<sup>h</sup>è hó nū bé nù já dǒ fútǒ kō fíjǎ kó  
 3S dry PERF COMPL topic put go.in SF at mortar in pound with  
 PRO ADJ ASP ASP TOP V V.DIR PRT PREP N LCLZR V APPL  
 klí  
 pestle  
 N

After (the paddy) had dried then put into mortar to pound with pestle.

6 wǒ t<sup>h</sup>ǒ já dǒ dǒkò kō  
 scoop up SF at round.bamboo.tray in  
 V V.DIR PRT PREP N LCLZR



If (you are) doen then put (them) into basket.

14 ʃúkē mí tʰə dā tʰɔ̄ dɪʃi dá lúsú kʰó  
start.fire fire PERF put up clean.water at oven on  
V N ASP V V.DIR N PREP N LCLZR

Start the fire then put clean water on the oven.

15 ʃi kō pʰlɔ̄ tʰə hó nū kùtʰɔ̄ hú  
water hot boil PERF COMPL topic put.in rice  
N ADJ V ASP ASP TOP V N

When the water is hot and boiled then put in rice.

16 kʰlɪkʰū já tʰə wìsú já kó dɪdè  
mix SF PERF mix SF with flat.wooden.ladle  
V PRT ASP V PRT APPL N

It must be mixed and then mix using flat wooden ladle.

17 kòwò tʰɔ̄ míkló tʰə tʃó lɛ̄tɛ̄ tɛ̄sí já  
pile up charcoals PERF lift down dry SF  
V V.DIR N ASP V V.DIR V PRT

Pile up charcoals then lay down to dry water.

18 tɛ̄sí tʰə tʰó tàwí sɪpɔ̄ já  
dry PERF pull turn dry SF  
V ASP V V V PRT

When the water is dried, turn around (the pot) to dry again.

19 ʔà sí hó dɻ tʃó tʰɔ̄ já  
3S dry COMPL and.then lift up SF  
PRO V ASP COORD V V.DIR PRT

When it (the water) is dried then lift up (the pot of rice).

20 mà hénù ʔà tʰò tʰɔ̄ kè dì ʔàbó tà kàpùr hó  
do that 3S become up PERF cooked.rice white one pot COMPL  
V DEM PRO V V.DIR ASP N N NUM N ASP

By doing that it becomes a pot of white cooked-rice.

## APPENDIX C

### HOW TO PREPARE A RICE-FIELD?

1 t<sup>h</sup>è hú klà hítè

cut rice field how

V N N INTRG

How to prepare a rice-field?

2 sàk<sup>h</sup>ōlō tǔó kébá hāk<sup>h</sup>ō

first go search land

ADV V V N

Firstly, (you must) go to look a land (to cultivate).

3 tǎlā nū wó mé wó tǔ dǔ bá t<sup>h</sup>è pū já

place topic suitable if suitable not and.then must cut test SF

N TOP ADJ SUBORD ADJ NEG COORD MOD V V PRT

You must cut to test if the land is good enough for hill-side cultivation or not.

4 t<sup>h</sup>è pū t<sup>h</sup>è t<sup>h</sup>è hènè já lòk<sup>h</sup>wè já

cut test PERF cut continue SF dry SF

V V ASP V ADV PRT V PRT

After cutting to test the land then continue to clean and then dry it.

5 lòk<sup>h</sup>wè t<sup>h</sup>è jú mí jú t<sup>h</sup>è wó pwá wó t<sup>h</sup>è t<sup>h</sup>é pwá

dry PERF fire fire fire PERF clean.up farm clean.up PERF harrow farm

V ASP V N V ASP V N V ASP V N

After drying (the land), start fire (it) then clean the farm, then harrow that farm.



6 tʃó mìmī tʰə nū kľ̩ mìmə̌ kľ̩ mìmə̌ tʰə kľ̩  
 weed young.grass PERF topic hoe coarse.grass hoe coarse.grass PERF hoe  
 V N ASP TOP V N V N ASP V  
 mìnɔ̌də̌ kľ̩ mìnɔ̌də̌ tʰə kľ̩ mìnɔ̌jɔ̌  
 young.grass hoe young.grass PERF hoe mature.grass  
 N V N ASP V N

After weeding the weeds, hoe the coarse grass again then hoe the young grass and then hoe the mature grass.

7 kľ̩ tʰə mìnɔ̌jɔ̌ pʰē já  
 hoe PERF mature.grass remove SF  
 V ASP N V PRT

After finishing to hoe the mature grass then remove to throw away them all.

8 pʰē tʰə hó nū bú mī hó  
 remove PERF COMPL topic rice.unthreshed ripe COMPL  
 V ASP ASP TOP N ADJ ASP

If the mature grass were removed away then the unthreshed rice is ripe.

9 kʰənɔ̌ ká bú ʔàní hó  
 now reap rice.unthreshed ready COMPL  
 ADV V N ADJ ASP

Now, the unthreshed rice is ready to reap.

10 ká tʰə kē̌mī já  
 reap PERF tie up SF  
 V ASP V PRT

After reaping, tie them into bundles.

11 kē̌mī tʰə lōʔā ť̩  
 tie up PERF dry bundle  
 V ASP V N

After tying (them), dry the bundles of unthreshed rice.

12 lō?ā tō t<sup>h</sup>ə ?ó plú já  
 dry bundle PERF collect gather SF  
 V N ASP V V PRT

After you have dried the bundles of unthreshed rice, collect (them).

13 ?ó plú t<sup>h</sup>ə p̄́ bú  
 collect gather PERF beat rice.unthreshed  
 V V ASP V N

After collecting them, beat the unthreshed rice.

14 p̄́ bú t<sup>h</sup>ə mà s<sup>h</sup>ó já  
 beat rice.unthreshed PERF do thresh SF  
 V N ASP V V PRT

After beating, thresh them.

15 mà s<sup>h</sup>ó já t<sup>h</sup>ə k̄́ nú bú t̄́ kō  
 do thresh SF PERF pour put rice.unthreshed basket in  
 V V PRT ASP V V N N LCLZR

After threshing (the unthreshed rice), pour to put into the basket.

## APPENDIX D

### THE HAPPIEST DAY

1 ʔàmè lú lùmūnì tà nì  
 happy most day one CLF.day  
 ADJ ADV N NUM CLF

The happiest day.

2 pà kòjò tʃó wóʔá nóʔò tàmì tà nì  
 1P.Poss people go hunt each.other prey one CLF.day  
 PRO N V V RECP N NUM CLF

One day, our people went for a hunting.

3 pà kòjò plú nóʔò dʒ tʃó dó mì klà .  
 1P.Poss people together each.other and.then go at forest among  
 PRO N ADV RECP COORD V PREP N LCLZR

Our people gathered together then (we) went into the forest.

4 wépwá ʔá dó ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ó dʒ wépwá dāsijā p<sup>h</sup>itʃá dʒ wó t<sup>h</sup>ó  
 man stay at place.above and.then man warn child and.then chase out  
 N V PREP N COORD N V N COORD V V.DIR

tàmì

prey

N

The men took up a place above and warned the children then (they) chased the prey.

5 tàmì hát<sup>h</sup>ó dʒ wépwá k<sup>h</sup>á já  
 prey out and.then man shoot SF  
 N V.DIR COORD N V PRT

When the prey came out, men shot it.

6 dʒ ʔà sì hó dʒ wépwá kó pʰitʃá ké já dʒ mà ʔá  
 and.then 3S die COMPL and.then man and child see SF and.then do eat  
 COORD PRO V ASP COORD N CONJ N V PRT COORD V V

já  
 SF  
 PRT

When it (prey) was died and both men and children saw it, then (they) cut up its meat to eat.

7 bé nóʔò hàpū dʒ pà kẹ wówó nóʔò .  
 divide,up each.other meat and.then 1P return joy each.other  
 V RECP N COORD PRO V N RECP

(We) divided up meat then we returned with joy.

8 dʒ pà kẹ tọ́ dọ́ dè tʰù dʒ pà sálésálò  
 and.then 1P return arrive at village around and.then 1P rejoice  
 COORD PRO V V PREP N LCLZR COORD PRO V

We returned and arrived near the village then we rejoiced.

9 kútàwò ʔūtū kẹ́ dọ́ dè kō  
 shout.loudly blow return at village in  
 V V V PREP N LCLZR

(We) shouted, blew loudly and returned to enter into the village.

10 pà pʰí kẹ́ tājì dʒ pà kẹ́ ʔí tājì  
 1P take return meat and.then 1P return give meat  
 PRO V V N COORD PRO V V N

We brought back the meat and returned to share it (with others).

11 dʒ ʔàmè dʒ hẹ́ mǎ kó hẹ́ pʰó sálésálò wówó nóʔò  
 and.then happy and.then 1S.Poss wife and 1S.Poss child rejoice joy each.other  
 COORD ADJ COORD PRO N CONJ PRO N V N RECP

kʰótànì  
 today  
 ADV

Today, not only my wife but also my kids rejoiced with joy.

12 lúmū k<sup>h</sup>ɔ́nɔ́ tà nì pà mà nébá tàmì sálésálò  
 day now one CLF.day 1P do get prey rejoice  
 N ADV NUM CLF PRO V V N V

This is the day we rejoiced for getting prey.

13 mà hénù ḍ́ h̄è ʃɪpènà p̄è p̄ē tà k<sup>h</sup>ɔ́ t̄ɔ́  
 do that and.then 1S forget able.can still one CLF.time not  
 V DEM COORD PRO V MOD ASP NUM CLF NEG

By doing that, I can still never forget about that day.

## APPENDIX E

### A DIFFICULT LIVING

1 tậ<sup>h</sup>í?áwè?á dó ?àtjē?àtjó  
 living that difficult  
 N REL ADJ

The difficult living.

2 tậ?às<sup>h</sup>ó?àk<sup>h</sup>ā k<sup>h</sup>ò<sup>n</sup>ó nū ?àpō?às<sup>h</sup>à tjetjēpòpò dó hè jā  
 time now topic difficult really at 1S for  
 N ADV TOP ADJ ADV PREP PRO LCLZR

Nowadays, it is really difficult for me.

3 tậ mậ<sup>h</sup>ó ?à<sup>n</sup>á hé?ù nū dý hè sāp<sup>h</sup>lō pjé kè  
 thing happen itself this topic and.then 1S.Poss mind be.destroyed PERF  
 N V PRO.RFLX DEM TOP COORD PRO N V ASP

(When) it happened like this then I was very disappointed (Lit: my mind was destroyed).

4 dý hè tậtjótújábák<sup>h</sup>ó<sup>b</sup>á ?àkō hè kėjí<sup>b</sup>á hénù ?àk<sup>h</sup>ó?àk<sup>h</sup>jè hè  
 and.then 1S experience in 1S encounter that because.of 1S  
 COORD PRO N LCLZR PRO V DEM SUBORD PRO  
 sáplá tjetlèwá  
 dejected deeply  
 ADJ ADV

Because of encountering that (difficult) experiences, I am deeply dejected.

5 k<sup>h</sup>ò<sup>n</sup>ó hè kà jèbè?í kó hè tậtjótújábák<sup>h</sup>ó<sup>b</sup>á tà tjó  
 now 1S will tell about 1S.Poss experience one CLF.non-human things  
 ADV PRO ASP V APPL PRO N NUM CLF

Now, I will tell about my one experience.

6 hɛ̀ sàtʰɔ́ hɛ̀ tʰɛ̀ hú klà tà klɔ̀  
 1S start come cut rice field one CLF.land  
 PRO AUX V V N N NUM CLF

I start come to cut a rice field

7 hɛ̀ tʰɔ́ klɔ̀ sá dʒ́ hɛ̀ lɔ̀tɛ̀ k̄ā kɛ̀ hɛ̀ kʰəl̀pɔ̀  
 1S climb.up cut tree and.then 1S down break PERF 1S.Poss leg  
 PRO V V N COORD PRO V.DIR V ASP PRO N

I climb up to cut a tree and I fell down then my leg was broken

8 dʒ́ hɛ̀ klɔ̀nú pɛ̀ hɛ̀ mì tɔ̀ .  
 and.then 1S hoe able.can 1S.Poss grass not  
 COORD PRO V MOD PRO N NEG

And I am not able to hoe the grass.

9 hɛ̀ bú wɛ̀ pɛ̀ tɔ̀  
 1S.Poss rice.unthreshed beautiful still not  
 PRO N ADJ ASP NEG

My unthreshed rice still not good at all.

10 hɛ̀ bú sá pɛ̀ tɔ̀  
 1S.Poss rice.unthreshed bear.fruit still not  
 PRO N V ASP NEG

My unthreshed rice still not bear fruit.

11 hɛ̀ məʔánú pɛ̀ hɛ̀ bú tɔ̀  
 1S do.sth.for.living able.can 1S.Poss rice.unthreshed not  
 PRO V MOD PRO N NEG

I am not able to work on my unthreshed rice field for living.

12 dʒ́ hɛ̀ kɛ̀lá ʔá kɛ̀lá ʔɔ́ kɛ̀ tɔ̀ ʔɔ́ pɛ̀ dɔ́ hɛ̀ j̄ā tà  
 and.then 1S try eat try live PERF thing have still at 1S for one  
 COORD PRO V V V V ASP N V ASP PREP PRO LCLZR NUM  
 tʃ́ó tɔ̀  
 CLF.non-human things not  
 CLF NEG

And then I try to earn still nothing is being still with me.

13 d̥ɣ      hɛ   tʃɛ   hɛ   tʃɔ   hãwĩʃɛwɛ   kɛ   ʒá  
 and.then 1S   hard 1S   hard   poor        PERF SF  
 COORD PRO ADJ PRO ADJ ADJ        ASP PRT

Even though I (tried) hard, (I) was still poor.

14 hɛ      sãplã      dómàtì   hɛ      sájù   ʔó   tʰòpwà   pɛ̃      dɔ      hãkʰò   bɛkʰó      tɔ̃  
 1S   dejected very   1S   want live alive   still   at   soil   on   not  
 PRO ADJ    ADV    PRO V    V    V        ASP PREP N    LCLZR NEG

I am very dejected so I do not want to stay to be still alive on the earth.



## APPENDIX F

### IMAGINE BEING A RICH PERSON

1 kènè dójó ná  
 imagine rich body  
 V ADJ N

Imagination of being a rich person.

2 hè kènè tàsájù ?à ?ó tà tʃó  
 1S imagine intense.desire 3S have one CLF.non-human things  
 PRO V N PRO V NUM CLF

I imagine and I have one intense desire that I want to be.

3 hè sájù mà t<sup>h</sup>ò t<sup>h</sup>ó já  
 1S want do become up SF  
 PRO V V V V.DIR PRT

I want to do to become true.

4 hè sà<sup>t</sup> s<sup>h</sup>ú p<sup>h</sup>àlà tà kl̩  
 1S start plant Phala one CLF.land  
 PRO V V NPROP NUM CLF

I start to plant a plot of Phala.

5 tà nē kó tà nē bé tàsá  
 one year and one year pick fruit  
 NUM N CONJ NUM N V N

I pick the fruits year by year

6 hè mé s<sup>h</sup>ájá nū hè kà nébá rù  
 1S if sell topic 1S will get money  
 PRO SUBORD V TOP PRO ASP V N

If I sell them, I would get money.

7 tà nē kó tà nē hē rù kà ʔó dót<sup>h3</sup> hēpē  
 one year and one year 1S money will have grow SF.future  
 NUM N CONJ NUM N PRO N ASP V V PRT

I will have a lot money to become growth year by year.

8 tà nē ʔàk<sup>hā</sup> hē pwènū tētā ʔó dówè hēpē  
 one year while 1S buy property have many SF.future  
 NUM N SUBORD PRO V N V QUANT PRT

One year, I will buy many properties for me.

9 tà nē sú ʔàmè hē tà nē sú hē dót<sup>h3</sup>  
 one year increase happy 1S one year increase 1S grow  
 NUM N V ADJ PRO NUM N V PRO V

Year by year, my happiness will increase.

10 hē sálésálò hēpē  
 1S rejoice SF.future  
 PRO V PRT

I will also rejoice.

11 hē pwè níbá pó mètākā hēpē  
 1S buy own additional car SF.future  
 PRO V V ADJ N PRT

I will additionally buy and own a car.

12 hē mé pwènū t<sup>hè</sup> mètākā nū hē kà tʃó màkú?á tʃò hēpē  
 1S if buy PERF car topic 1S will go trade able.can SF.future  
 PRO SUBORD V ASP N TOP PRO ASP V V MOD PRT

If I have bought a car, I would be able to go for a trade.

13 tà mākú mé ní hē màt<sup>h3</sup> hí ʔàmè dó dómàtì tà  
 trading if succeed 1S build house CLF.round.big big very one  
 N SUBORD V PRO V N CLF ADJ ADV NUM  
 mē hēpē  
 CLF.round.big SF.future  
 CLF PRT

If my trading succeed, I will also build a very big house.

14 hè kó hè mā kó hè p<sup>h</sup>ó hè l̩ ʔámǎʔábá  
 1S and 1S.Poss wife and 1S.Poss child 1S.Poss grand.children content  
 PRO CONJ PRO N CONJ PRO N PRO N ADJ

tʃótʃópwàpwà hēpē .

forever SF.future

ADV PRT

I and my wife with my children and grandchildren will stay together in contentment forever.

## APPENDIX G

### FUTURE GROWTH

1 dó t<sup>h</sup>ɔ́ t<sup>h</sup>ò t<sup>h</sup>ɔ́ hɛ́ dɔ́ ʔàlèmə́  
 big up become up come that future  
 ADJ V.DIR V V.DIR V REL ADV

The Future which becomes growth.

2 k<sup>h</sup>òńɔ́ nū pà sàpúwé sá mé tʃú mók<sup>h</sup>ó tēprò tòt<sup>h</sup>ó t<sup>h</sup>ɔ́  
 now topic 1P.Poss brother.sister mind if unite sky collapse support above  
 ADV TOP PRO N N SUBORD V N V V LCLZR  
 hāk<sup>h</sup>ò tētʃò póméʔí  
 earth prolapse grasp  
 N V V

Nowadays, if our brothers and sisters' minds are united, we can support sky even it collapse, we can grasp the earth even it prolapse.

3 pà sàpúwé sá mé tʃú dí t<sup>h</sup>ò t<sup>h</sup>ɔ́ pà ʃí  
 1P.Poss brother.sister mind if unite establish become up 1P.Poss water  
 PRO N N SUBORD V V V V.DIR PRO N  
 pà kǎ  
 1P.Poss country  
 PRO N

If our brothers and sisters' minds are united, let's found together our own country.

4 pà mí kòjò tà mū tà tʃó  
 1P be people one group one CLF.non-human things  
 PRO COP N NUM N NUM CLF

We are a kind and a specific group of people.

5 pà kà ʔā pàná múnù ʔà p<sup>h</sup>ó  
 1P will call ourselves Monu 3S.Poss child  
 PRO ASP V RECP NPROP PRO N

We would call ourselves Monu's people.

6 pà ʔá dǎ pʰə̀b̀b̀ sʰá lè pà ʔá dǎ pʰə̀b̀b̀ sʰá  
1P be.exist at Pha Baw mountain beside 1P be.exist at Pha Baw mountain  
PRO COP PREP NPROP N LCLZR PRO COP PREP NPROP N  
kʰɔ̃  
foot.base  
LCLZR

We stay beside and at the foot of the Pha Baw mountain

7 pà m̀ǹǹ k̄á mí k̄á ʔàmè  
1P.Poss Monu country be country happy  
PRO NPROP N COP N ADJ

Our Monu land is a happy land. Our Monu land is a rich land.

8 pà m̀ǹǹ k̄á mí k̄á dójɔ̃  
1P.Poss Monu country be country rich  
PRO NPROP N COP N ADJ

9 pà bé tʰɔ̃ ʃimə̀k̄apʰà  
1P put up leaders  
PRO V V.DIR N

We nominated our leaders.

10 k̄á pʰə̀ dǎ ʔətʰɔ̃ tʰə̀ ʃimə̀k̄abá  
country king big rise PERF progress  
N N ADJ V ASP V

After the great king had risen, the land become progress.

11 m̄í p̄í dǎ k̀ǹn̄ jé sì dǎ m̀p̀wá  
fire run.out at jungle language die at aged.people  
N V PREP N N V PREP N

As fire ran out in the jungle, language will die at old age.

12 jé ʔótʰɔ̃ dǎ ʃil̄ak̄á k̄o  
language arise at community in  
N V PREP N LCLZR

Language has arisen in the community.

13 bósó                      lélú   l̩t̩ē   kō   bósó                      p̩p̩ē   nà   kō   mí  
 have.relationship.with   firefly   down   hole   have.relationship.with   butterfly   2S   hot   fire  
 V                              N        V.DIR   N    V                              N        PRO   ADJ   N

If you have relationship with firefly, you will down in a hole; if you have relationship with butterfly, you would being hot by fire.

14 tèsē   p<sup>h</sup>ó   ná   p<sup>h</sup>ú   kó   ʃɪ   kòshò   p<sup>h</sup>ó   ná   wè   kó   há  
 horse   child   body   clean   with   water   elephant   child   body   beautiful   with   soil  
 N        N        N        V        APPL   N        N            N        N        ADJ        APPL   N

Baby horse body is being cleaned with wather, baby elephant's body is being beautiful with soil.

15 p<sup>h</sup>ómó   séré   t<sup>h</sup>ò        k̩éʔí        ʔà        d̩ə        p<sup>h</sup>ók<sup>h</sup>ò   tʃ̩t̩<sup>h</sup>ó   k̩éʔí        ʔà  
 daughter   clever   climb.up   look.after   3S.Poss   village   son        bright   look.after   3S.Poss  
 N            ADJ    V            V            PRO    N        N            ADJ    V            PRO

k̩ā

country

N

A clever daughter will get up to look after her village while bright son will take care of his country.

16 p<sup>h</sup>ómó   séré   ʔà        hí        k̩à        ʃ̩ə        p<sup>h</sup>ók<sup>h</sup>ò   s̩àmà        ʔà        k̩ā        k̩ətr̩  
 daughter   clever   3S.Poss   house   will   clean   son        intelligent   3S.Poss   country   progress  
 N            ADJ    PRO    N        ASP   ADJ    N            ADJ        PRO    N            V

A clever daughter's house would be clean, while intelligent son's country would become progress.

## APPENDIX H

### ELICITED SENTENCES

#### Noun Phrases

1 ?à hí

3S.Poss house

PRO N

His house

2 ?à p<sup>h</sup>à hí

3S.Poss father house

PRO N N

His father's house

3 pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó ?à hí ?àli

male 3S.Poss house red

N PRO N ADJ

The man's red house

4 kòjò hénù ?à hí hénù

man that 3S.Poss house that

N DEM PRO N DEM

That man's that house

5 hí hé?ù

house this

N DEM

This house

6 hí hénù

house that

N DEM

That house

7 hí hénù ʔə dónù  
house that be.exist there  
N DEM COP DEM.Loc

That house is (way) over there

8 hí dówè  
house many  
N QUANT

many houses

9 hí tàkíp<sup>hú</sup>  
house few  
N QUANT

few houses

10 hí tàkí tàkí  
house few few  
N QUANT QUANT

some houses

11 hí lóbò  
house all  
N QUANT

every house

12 hí lóbò  
house all  
N QUANT

all houses

13 hí ʔàlì hénù dówè  
house red that many  
N ADJ DEM QUANT

many of those red houses

14 hí ʔàlì  
house red  
N ADJ

red house



15 hí ʔàlì hénù  
house red that  
N ADJ DEM

that red house

16 hí ʔàlì ʔàsà  
house red new  
N ADJ ADJ

the new red house

17 hí hénù dó k<sup>h</sup>lò hí héʔù  
house that big more.than house this  
N DEM ADJ ADV N DEM

that house is bigger than this house

18 ʔà ʔé dó hí ʔàdó kàtù ʔàkō  
3S be.exist at house big most in  
PRO COP PREP N ADJ ADV LCLZR

he lives in the biggest house

19 p<sup>h</sup>itʃá wótāló  
child very.many  
N ADV

very many kids (a lot of kids)

20 ʔà hí dó  
3S house big  
PRO N ADJ

his big house

21 ʔà p<sup>h</sup>à ʔà hí dó  
3S.Poss father 3S.Poss house big  
PRO N PRO N ADJ

his father's big house

22 hí sù mè  
house three CLF.round.big  
N NUM CLF

three houses

23 hí hénù sù m̀è  
 house that three CLF.round.big  
 N DEM NUM CLF

those three houses

24 hí ?àlì sù m̀è  
 house red three CLF.round.big  
 N ADJ NUM CLF

three red houses

25 hí ?àlì dó sù m̀è  
 house red big three CLF.round.big  
 N ADJ ADJ NUM CLF

three big red houses

26 ?à hí ?àlì dó sù m̀è  
 3S.Poss house red big three CLF.round.big  
 PRO N ADJ ADJ NUM CLF

his three big red houses

27 ?à p<sup>h</sup>à hí ?àlì dó sù m̀è hénù  
 3S.Poss father house red big three CLF.round.big that  
 PRO N N ADJ ADJ NUM CLF DEM

his father's three red big houses

28 tʃùb̀ò ?ó dó sàbwé k<sup>h</sup>ó nū ?à làk̄ā  
 pencil be.exist at table on topic 3S.RSMP break  
 N COP PREP N LCLZR TOP PRO.RSMP V

The pencil on the table is broken.

29 jí ?ó dó wē kō  
 dog be.exist at yard in  
 N COP PREP N LCLZR

The dog in the yard.

30 mík<sup>h</sup>ò?ó ?à k<sup>h</sup>òk<sup>h</sup>ī t<sup>h</sup>ʃ  
 cat 3S.Poss teeth ADJ  
 N PRO N

The cat with sharp teeth

31 pwàk<sup>hó</sup> kó pwàmó

male and female

N CONJ N

the boy and the girl

32 pwàk<sup>hó</sup> kó pwàmó

male and female

N CONJ N

the boy and girl

33 hè tʃúmúplẹ̀

1S.Poss finger

PRO N

my finger

34 hè sẹ́bé

1S.Poss bicycle

PRO N

my bicycle

35 hè mọ̀

1S.Poss mother

PRO N

my mother

36 tʃúmúplẹ̀ hénù s<sup>h</sup>à

finger that hurt

N DEM V

that finger hurt

37 sẹ́bé hénù ʔàsà

bicycle that new

N DEM ADJ

that new bicycle

38 mọ̀ hénù ʔà wétẹ́sí

mother that 3S.RSMP pretty

N DEM PRO.RSMP ADJ

that mother is nice

39 pwàk<sup>hó</sup> dǎ ʔà hè ʔí hè ʃì lǝ dǎ jǝkūkā  
 male that 3S.RSMP come give 1S water down at Yangon  
 N REL PRO.RSMP V V PRO N V.DIR PREP NPROP

the man who brings me water went down to yangon.

40 pwàmó dǎ ʔà t<sup>h</sup>úplē hè hí  
 female that 3S.RSMP clean 1S.Poss house  
 N REL PRO.RSMP V PRO N

the woman who cleans my house

41 pwàk<sup>hó</sup> dǎ ʔà ná dǎ dǎ ʔà hè ʔí hè ʃì sǎ  
 male that 3S.Poss body big that 3S.RSMP come give 1S water CLF.human  
 N REL PRO N ADJ REL PRO.RSMP V V PRO N CLF

sù

three

NUM

the three big men who bring me water

42 pwàk<sup>hó</sup> dǎ ʔà ná dǎ dǎ ʔà hè ʔí hè ʃì nū  
 male that 3S.Poss body big that 3S.RSMP come give 1S water topic  
 N REL PRO N ADJ REL PRO.RSMP V V PRO N TOP

sǎ sù tǝǝ dǎ klá kō

CLF.human three go at market in

CLF NUM V PREP N LCLZR

The three men who are big (and) bring me water went to the market.

### NP Appositive

1 hè k<sup>h</sup>ə p<sup>h</sup>àlú ʔà mí tǝǝ sàrà  
 1S.Poss friend Phalu 3S.RSMP be school teacher  
 PRO N NPROP PRO.RSMP COP N N

my friend, Phalu, is a teacher

2 mótú ʔà wē ʔà p<sup>h</sup>óʔá hásí wí  
 Motu 3S.Poss wife 3S.RSMP cook curry delicious  
 NPROP PRO N PRO.RSMP V N ADJ

Motu, his wife, cooks good curry

3 pwàk<sup>hó</sup> ?à nū  
 male 3S.RSMP topic  
 N PRO.RSMP TOP

.....he is ,the man

### PP Location

1 ?à kéfí t<sup>hó</sup> dǎ wē kō  
 3S see pig at yard in  
 PRO V N PREP N LCLZR

He saw the pig in the yard.

2 p<sup>h</sup>itfǎ pwàk<sup>hó</sup> k<sup>h</sup>lé nù dǎ hìdē kō  
 child male run go.in at house in  
 N N V V.DIR PREP N LCLZR

The boy ran inside of the house.

3 t<sup>hó</sup> ?ǎ dǎ wē ?àkō  
 pig be.exist at yard in  
 N COP PREP N LCLZR

The pig is in the garden.

4 lì tà bá ?ǎ dǎ sàbwé k<sup>hó</sup>  
 book one CLF.flat be.exist at table on  
 N NUM CLF COP PREP N LCLZR

The book is on the table.

5 pwē ?ǎ dǎ jōkūkā .  
 party be.exist at Yangon  
 N COP PREP NPROP

The party is in Yangon.

6 p<sup>h</sup>itfǎ ?ǎ dǎ hìdē kō  
 child be.exist at house in  
 N COP PREP N LCLZR

A child is in the house.

7 dī            ʔó        dǎ        sàbwé kʰó  
 cooked.rice be.exist at     table    on  
 N            COP    PREP N     LCLZR

Cooked rice is on the table.

8 pʰitʃǎ tʰò        dǎ        kʰólō    kʰó  
 child climb.up at     mountain on  
 N     V        PREP N        LCLZR

The child climb up to the mountain.

9 pʰitʃǎ tʰò        dǎ        sǎ    kʰī  
 child climb.up at     tree top  
 N     V        PREP N     LCLZR

The child climb up to the top of tree.

10 tʰòpʰàtī ʔó        dǎ        sǎ    kʰī  
 bird     be.exist at     tree top  
 N        COP    PREP N     LCLZR

The bird is on the top of tree/ there is a bird on the top of tree.

11 pʰitʃǎ ʔó        dǎ        hí     là  
 child be.exist at     house under  
 N     COP    PREP N     LCLZR

The child is under the house.

12 pʰitʃǎ ʔó        dǎ        hí  
 child be.exist at     house  
 N     COP    PREP N

The child is at home.

13 sǎ    ʔó        dǎ        kʰólō    là  
 tree be.exist at     mountain under  
 N    COP    PREP N        LCLZR

The tree is under the mountain/ there is a tree under the mountain.

14 ʔà    kéjí tʰó ʔó        dǎ        wē    kō  
 3S    see pig be.exist at     yard in  
 PRO V    N    COP    PREP N     LCLZR

He saw the pig is in the yard.

15 p<sup>h</sup>í t<sup>h</sup>ó bólò d́ tē kō  
 take up ball at box in  
 V V.DIR N PREP N LCLZR

Take the ball out of the box.

### PP Prepositional Modification

1 tǔbò ʔ́ d́ sàbwé k<sup>h</sup>ó ʔà làkā  
 pencil be.exist at table on 3S.RSMP break  
 N COP PREP N LCLZR PRO.RSMP V

the pencil on the table is broken

2 jí ʔ́ d́ wē kō  
 dog be.exist at yard in  
 N COP PREP N LCLZR

the dog in the yard

3 mík<sup>h</sup>òʔ́ ʔà k<sup>h</sup>òk<sup>h</sup>ī t<sup>h</sup>ó  
 cat 3S.Poss teeth sharp  
 N PRO N ADJ

the cat with sharp teeth

4 nà tàhéba mík<sup>h</sup>òʔ́ ʔàwēkè nū sáphlópa  
 2S.Poss story cat subject.matter topic interesting  
 PRO N N N TOP ADJ

your story about the cat is interesting

5 t<sup>h</sup>àkàbè ʔ́ d́ hākō kō là ʔà hámèʔ́  
 bear be.exist at cave hole under 3S.RSMP sleep  
 N COP PREP N N LCLZR PRO.RSMP V

the bear in the cave slept

6 bālētǎwè d́ nà mǎ lò háphó d́ k<sup>h</sup>òtǎ k<sup>h</sup>ó  
 dish at 2S.Poss mother from break at floor on  
 N PREP PRO N LCLZR V PREP N LCLZR

the dish from your mother broken on the floor

### PP Instrumental

1 ʔà mà sì tʰó kó t̚pʰō  
3S do die pig with knife  
PRO V V N APPL N

He killed the pig with a knife.

2 ʔà p̄ē jí kó n̄p̄ù  
3S beat dog with stick  
PRO V N APPL N

She swatted the dog with a stick.

3 ʔà kó ʔà pʰó t̚sɔ́ dɔ́ mì klà  
3S and 3S.Poss child go at forest among  
PRO CONJ PRO N V PREP N LCLZR

He and his son went into the forest.

### PP Benefactive

1 ʔà pʰóʔá hásí fē jì dɔ́ jí t̚m̄è ʔà j̄ā  
3S cook curry chicken meat at guest for  
PRO V N N N PREP N LCLZR

She cooked chicken curry for the guests.

2 ʔà bú t̄ú sɔ́ dɔ́ pà j̄ā  
3S cut wood at 1P for  
PRO V N PREP PRO LCLZR

He cut the wood for us.

3 h̄è ʔí pʰà l̄ú ʔà m̄é r̄ù k̄à ní jí bá  
1S give Phalu 3S.RSMP mother money two ten CLF.flat  
PRO V NPROP PRO.RSMP N N NUM NUM CLF

I gave Phalu's mother twenty kyat.

### Causal

1 ʔà sì kó mí ʔè ʔè d̄i ʔé t̚s̄h̄ā  
3S die with be AIDS disease  
PRO V APPL COP NPROP N



He died of AIDS.

2 ʔàsè lók<sup>h</sup>è hàwíʃèwè màtītènù ʔà ʔó sék<sup>h</sup>á  
3P poor because 3S drink alcohol  
PRO ADJ SUBORD PRO V N

They were poor because he drank alcohol.

3 ʔà tʃó tèt<sup>h</sup>è màtītènù wó ʔó  
3S go away because snake be.exist  
PRO V V.DIR SUBORD N COP

She fled because there was a snake.

### Causatives

1 ʔà mà k<sup>h</sup>lé jí kè ʃí  
3S do run away PERF dog  
PRO V V V.DIR ASP N

He made the dog run away.

2 kálisá mà kḗ kè só hó  
wind do break PERF tree COMPL  
N V V ASP N ASP

The wind broke the tree.

3 ʔà mḗ mà sì kè wó tà bò dḗ mípò kō  
3S.Poss mother do die PERF snake one CLF.long and thin at kitchen in  
PRO N V V ASP N NUM CLF PREP N LCLZR

hó

COMPL

ASP

His mother killed a snake in the kitchen.

4 ʔà nḗ tʃḗbó ʔà p<sup>h</sup>ópwàmó sésá  
3S order wash 3S.Poss daughter fruit  
PRO V V PRO N N

He ordered his daughter to wash the fruit.

5 mí kō háp<sup>h</sup> kè kàpùr hó  
 fire hot break PERF pot COMPL  
 N ADJ V ASP N ASP

Fire did heat and cracked the pot.

6 ?à nē hámè?é ?à p<sup>h</sup>ópwàk<sup>h</sup>ó dó ?àk<sup>h</sup>lē  
 3S order sleep 3S.Poss son at out  
 PRO V V PRO N PREP LCLZR

He ordered his son to sleep outside.

7 ?à nē ?à p<sup>h</sup>ópwàk<sup>h</sup>ó hámè?é dó ?àk<sup>h</sup>lē  
 3S order 3S.Poss son sleep at out  
 PRO V PRO N V PREP LCLZR

He ordered his son to sleep outside.

### Description/Attributive

1 ?à nū phìtǎ  
 3S topic young  
 PRO TOP ADJ

He is young (person).

2 sàk<sup>h</sup>ósá hénù mī hó  
 mango that ripe COMPL  
 N DEM ADJ ASP

That mango is ripe.

3 fī nū ?àkòtǎ  
 water topic cold  
 N TOP ADJ

.The water is cold

4 fī nū ?àkòtǎ tǎ  
 water topic cold not  
 N TOP ADJ NEG

The water is not cold.

5 ʃi mí ʔàkòtʃó  
water be cold  
N COP ADJ

The water is cold.

6 \* ʔà nū phìtʃá tọ  
3S topic young not  
PRO TOP ADJ NEG

He is not young.

### Existential

1 dónù kàpwàkō  
there forest  
DEM.Loc N

There is a forest.

2 dónù lì tà bá  
there book one CLF.flat  
DEM.Loc N NUM CLF

There is a book.

3 báʔù lì tà bá  
here book one CLF.flat  
DEM N NUM CLF

Here is a book.

### Identification/Equative

1 hè k<sup>h</sup>ə ʔàp<sup>h</sup>ú kàtù mí p<sup>h</sup>àlú  
1S.Poss friend close most be Phalu  
PRO N ADJ ADV COP NPROP

My closest friend is Phalu.

2 hè ʔá wí kàtù mí m̀k<sup>h</sup>ésá  
1S eat delicious most be pineapple  
PRO V ADJ ADV COP N

My favorite food is pineapple.

3 \* hè ʔá wí kàtù mí m̀kʰésá p̄ē  
1S eat delicious most be pineapple still  
PRO V ADJ ADV COP N ASP

My favorite food is pineapple.

4 śsá héʔù nū mí j́sá  
fruit this topic be banana  
N DEM TOP COP N

This (type of) fruit is banana.

5 pʰàb̀d̀ mí h̀è pʰà  
Phabaw be 1S father  
NPROP COP PRO N

Phabaw is my father.

6 h̀è mí t̄j̄ò s̀àrà tà pẁà  
1S be school teacher one CLF.human  
PRO COP N N NUM CLF

I am a teacher.

7 p̀à bú klà nū ʔà ʔ́ó d́ó sʰ́ó kʰ́ó  
1P rice.unthreshed field topic 3S.RSMP be.exist at mountain on  
PRO N N TOP PRO.RSMP COP PREP N LCLZR

Our rice field is on the mountain.

8 ʔà nū h̀è kʰ̀ə  
3S topic 1S.Poss friend  
PRO TOP PRO N

She is my friend.

9 \* ʔà nū h̀è kʰ̀ə t̄́  
3S topic 1S.Poss friend not  
PRO TOP PRO N NEG

She is not my friend.

10 ʔà nū h̀è kʰ̀ə ʔ̀àmē t̄́  
3S topic 1S.Poss friend right not  
PRO TOP PRO N ADJ NEG

She is not my friend.

### VP Intransitive

1 hè kà̀nèʔí ʔàsè  
1S remember 3P  
PRO V PRO

I remember them.

2 jí sì kè hó  
dog die PERF COMPL  
N V ASP ASP

The dog just died (recently).

3 ʔàpwàk<sup>hó</sup> p<sup>h</sup>ítʃá hámèʔó  
boy child sleep  
N N V

The boy is sleeping.

4 ʔà hámèʔó sápwé  
3S sleep snore  
PRO V V

He is snoring.

5 kàpùr háp<sup>hó</sup> kè hó  
pot break PERF COMPL  
N V ASP ASP

The pot just broke.

6 ʔà mà háp<sup>hó</sup> kàpùr  
3S do break pot  
PRO V V N

The pot is broken.

7 jí nùmó  
dog stink  
N V

The dog stinks.

8 ʔàpwàk<sup>h</sup>ó p<sup>h</sup>ó ʔàná kō  
 boy child body hot  
 N N N ADJ

The boy is hot.

9 ʔàpwàk<sup>h</sup>ó p<sup>h</sup>ó ʔàná kō tẹ  
 boy child body hot not  
 N N N ADJ NEG

The boy is not hot.

### VP Transitive

1 kòjò tà pwà bú tú kè sá  
 man one CLF.human cut PERF tree  
 N NUM CLF V ASP N

The man cut the tree.

2 p<sup>h</sup>ítjǎ ʔá kè t<sup>h</sup>è dì hó  
 child eat PERF PERF cooked.rice COMPL  
 N V ASP ASP N ASP

The children ate the rice.

3 dè pòkǎ pē jí  
 village head.man beat dog  
 N N V N

The headman hit the dog.

4 ʔàmúpwǎ màt<sup>h</sup>ó hí dǎ lā kō tà mè  
 old.man build house at field in one CLF.round.big  
 N V N PREP N LCLZR NUM CLF

The old man built a house in the field.

### VP Ditransitive

1 ʔàpwàk<sup>h</sup>ó ʔí pwàmó ʔà lì tà bá  
 boy give female 3S.Poss book one CLF.flat  
 N V N PRO N NUM CLF

The boy gave the girl his book.

2 ?àpwàk<sup>hó</sup> ?í lì tà bá dǎ pwàmó ?ú  
boy give book one CLF.flat at female to  
N V N NUM CLF PREP N LCLZR

The boy gave a book to the girl.

3 ?àpwàk<sup>hó</sup> wí pwàmó kó bǎlò  
boy throw female with ball  
N V N APPL N

He threw her with the ball.

4 ?àpwàk<sup>hó</sup> wí tǎjǎ bǎlò dǎ pwàmó ?ú  
boy throw go ball at female to  
N V V N PREP N LCLZR

He threw the ball to her.

5 pwàmó ?í pwàk<sup>hó</sup> bǎlò dǎ pà jǎ  
female give male ball at 1P for  
N V N N PREP PRO LCLZR

The girl gave the boy a ball for us.

### VP Auxiliaries

1 ?à tǎjǎpwé ?á dǎ  
3S try eat cooked.rice  
PRO V V N

He tried to eat the rice.

2 ?à sǎ ?á dǎ  
3S want eat cooked.rice  
PRO V V N

He wanted to eat the rice.

3 ʔà sájù ʔà p<sup>h</sup>ópwàk<sup>h</sup>ó ʔá dì  
 3S want 3S.Poss son eat cooked.rice  
 PRO V PRO N V N

He wanted his son to eat the rice.

4 ʔà sájù ʔà p<sup>h</sup>ópwàk<sup>h</sup>ó tʃépwé ʔá dì / ʔà sájù nē  
 3S want 3S.Poss son try eat cooked.rice 3S want order  
 PRO V PRO N V V N PRO V V

tʃépwé ʔá ʔà p<sup>h</sup>ópwàk<sup>h</sup>ó dì  
 try eat 3S.Poss son cooked.rice  
 V V PRO N N

He wanted his son to try to eat the rice.

5 nà tēbá ʔá dì  
 2S must eat cooked.rice  
 PRO MOD V N

You should eat the rice.

6 ʔà bá ʔá dì  
 3S must eat cooked.rice  
 PRO MOD V N

She must eat the rice.

7 ʔà kà ʔá dì hēpē  
 3S will eat cooked.rice SF.future  
 PRO ASP V N PRT

She will eat the rice.

8 ʔàpwàk<sup>h</sup>ó d́ ʔà<sup>h</sup>ó ʔà bé t<sup>h</sup>ó tʃò sésá d́ sémú  
 boy that tall 3S.RSMP pick up able.can fruit at tree  
 N REL ADJ PRO.RSMP V V.DIR MOD N PREP N

lò

from

LCLZR

The tall man, he is able to pick the fruit from the tree.



### VP Manner

1 jí k<sup>h</sup>lé p<sup>h</sup>wè p<sup>h</sup>wè  
dog run quickly quickly  
N V ADV ADV

The dog ran quickly.

2 ʔà p<sup>h</sup>óʔá hásí tèt<sup>h</sup>ótàlǝ  
3S cook curry carefully  
PRO V N ADV

She cooked the meat carefully.

3 ʔà k<sup>h</sup>lé tʃó p<sup>h</sup>wè p<sup>h</sup>wè  
3S run go quickly quickly  
PRO V V ADV ADV

He runs quickly.

### VP Motion

1 ʔàpwàmó tʃó t<sup>h</sup>è dó klá kō hó  
woman go PERF at market in COMPL  
N V ASP PREP N LCLZR ASP

The woman went to the market.

2 jí k<sup>h</sup>lé hè dó k<sup>h</sup>àmūk<sup>h</sup>əlè  
dog run come at forest  
N V V PREP N

The dog ran to the forest.

3 ʔà bé t<sup>h</sup>ó kè lì dó sàbwé k<sup>h</sup>ó  
3S put up PERF book at table on  
PRO V V.DIR ASP N PREP N LCLZR

He put the book on the table.

4 jí k<sup>h</sup>lé tēp<sup>h</sup>è kè kó kálèp<sup>h</sup>ó  
 dog run away PERF with tiger  
 N V V.DIR ASP APPL N

The dog ran from the tiger.

5 ʔà ʔó dǎ mók<sup>h</sup>ó ʔà kẹ lẹ  
 3S be.exist at sky 3S.RSMP return down  
 PRO COP PREP N PRO.RSMP V V.DIR

He descended from the heaven.

6 bétǎ jésú kẹ t<sup>h</sup>ó kè dǎ mók<sup>h</sup>ó  
 Lord Jesus return up PERF at sky  
 N NPROP V V.DIR ASP PREP N

Lord Jesus ascended to the heaven.

7 ʔà hát<sup>h</sup>ó tǎ kè dǎ hí  
 3S out go PERF at house  
 PRO V.DIR V ASP PREP N

He went out from the house.

8 ʔà nù dǎ hídē kō  
 3S go.in at house in  
 PRO V.DIR PREP N LCLZR

He enter to the house.

9 ʔà kẹ wōkī wē kō  
 3S return cross yard in  
 PRO V V.DIR N LCLZR

He cross through the yard.

10 ʔàsè tǎ t<sup>h</sup>ó tē  
 3P lift up box  
 PRO V V.DIR N

They lift up the box.

11 ?à tʃó lɛ̄tɛ̄ ðì kàpùr  
 3S lift down cooked.rice pot  
 PRO V V.DIR N N

She lifts down the pot of rice.

12 ?à tʃó kɛ̄ nù tɛ̄ dó hìdɛ̄ kō  
 3S lift return go.in box at house in  
 PRO V V V.DIR N PREP N LCLZR

He carry the box into the house.

13 ?à lɛ̄ hát<sup>h</sup> kɛ̄ ʃì dó ʃì kò kō  
 3S pour out PERF water at water bottle in  
 PRO V V.DIR ASP N PREP N N LCLZR

She pour out water from the bottle.

14 ?à sáphlódo dʒ wí lɛ̄tɛ̄ kɛ̄ lì  
 3S angry and.then throw down PERF book  
 PRO ADJ COORD V V.DIR ASP N

He was angry and threw the book down.

### AP Adjectives-simple

1 hí ?àlì  
 house red  
 N ADJ

red house

2 hí ?àlì hénù  
 house red that  
 N ADJ DEM

that red house

3 hí ?àlì ?àsà  
 house red new  
 N ADJ ADJ

the new red house

4 p<sup>h</sup>ítǫ́ pwàk<sup>h</sup>ó kàtǫ́kàbá sǫ́ sù  
child male cold CLF.human three  
N N ADJ CLF NUM

the three cold boys

5 hí ʔàlì ʔàsà sù mèn  
house red new three CLF.round.big  
N ADJ ADJ NUM CLF

the three red new houses

6 dítǫ́ ʔàlì ʔàsà ʔàkǫ́  
spoon red new hot  
N ADJ ADJ ADJ

the red new hot spoon

### AP Adjective-complex

1 p<sup>h</sup>àlú hébá dó k<sup>h</sup>lò p<sup>h</sup>àbò  
Phalu speak big more.than Phabaw  
NPROP V ADJ ADV NPROP

Phalu speaks more than Phabaw.

2 ʔà ʔó dó hí ʔadó kàtù ʔàkò  
3S live at house big most in  
PRO V PREP N ADJ ADV LCLZR

he lives in the biggest house

3 sèbà dó ʔàkǫ́ lidé / dílé  
glass that hot very very  
N REL ADJ ADV ADV

the very hot glass

4 p<sup>h</sup>itfá wótáló

child very.many

N ADV

very many kids (a lot of kids)

5 ?à hí m̀è dó

3S.Poss house CLF.round.big big

PRO N CLF ADJ

his big house

6 ?à p<sup>h</sup>à ?à hí m̀è dó

3S.Poss father 3S.Poss house CLF.round.big big

PRO N PRO N CLF ADJ

his father's big house

7 hí ?ádó

house big

N ADJ

big house

8 ?à hí ?àsà ?ádó

3S.Poss house new big

PRO N ADJ ADJ

his new big house

9 h̀è mí ?ádó

1S be big

PRO COP ADJ

I am big

### Adv P Temporal

1 pwē ?ó p̀èẁèp̀ē

party be.exist tomorrow

N COP ADV

The festival is tomorrow.

2 t̩dót̩sé kʰót̩nì

exam today

N ADV

The exam was today.

3 bá h̩ è k̩ t̩ d̩ hí ʔàkʰā ʔà díʔá p̩ ʔà  
when 1S return arrive at house while 3S feed still 3S.Poss  
SUBORD PRO V V PREP N SUBORD PRO V ASP PRO

pʰó d̩

child cooked.rice

N N

When I arrived home, she still was feeding her baby.

4 bá h̩ è k̩ t̩ ʔàkʰā ʔà t̩ d̩ tʰə ʃì hó  
when 1S return arrive while 3S go draw PERF water COMPL  
SUBORD PRO V V SUBORD PRO V V ASP N ASP

When I arrived, he had already drawn the water.

5 h̩ è k̩ t̩ ʔàkʰā ʔà klé ʔá d̩  
1S return arrive while 3S about.to eat cooked.rice  
PRO V V SUBORD PRO ASP V N

When I arrive, he is near to eat rice.

6 bá h̩ t̩ tʰó t̩ ʔàkʰā ʔà pʰóʔá p̩ d̩  
when 1S go up school while 3S cook still cooked.rice  
SUBORD PRO V V.DIR N SUBORD PRO V ASP N

When I went to school, she still is cooking rice,

7 ʔà hám̩əʔé nókʰə t̩ nū ʔà t̩ʔàbà  
3S sleep before not topic 3S.RSMP pray  
PRO V SUBORD NEG TOP PRO.RSMP V

Before he sleeps, he prays.

8 nà mà tàmà nók<sup>h</sup>è tọ nū kènè wó wó  
 2S do work before not topic think suitable suitable  
 PRO V N SUBORD NEG TOP V ADJ ADJ

Before you work, think carefully.

9 dó hè p<sup>h</sup>ítjǎ ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā hè ʔó dó k<sup>h</sup>ē kǎ  
 when 1S child while 1S live at China country  
 PREP PRO N SUBORD PRO V PREP NPROP N

When I was a child, I lived in China.

10 hè ʔó dó k<sup>h</sup>ē kǎ dó hè p<sup>h</sup>ítjǎ ʔàk<sup>h</sup>ā  
 1S live at China country when 1S child while  
 PRO V PREP NPROP N PREP PRO N SUBORD

I lived in China when I was a child.

#### Adv P Time/Manner

1 ʔà kà tǔó hēpē tàʔəbí  
 3S will go next week  
 PRO ASP V ADV N

He will leave next week.

2 ʔà hè tọ pèhánó  
 3S come arrive yesterday  
 PRO V V ADV

She arrived yesterday.

3 ʔà sáphlódo nótfáká hè  
 3S angry extremely 1S  
 PRO ADJ ADV PRO

He extremely angry at me.

4 k<sup>h</sup>ótàni hè kà t<sup>h</sup>òwākā tǔó pēlē  
 today 1S will attend school maybe  
 ADV PRO ASP V N ADV

Today, maybe I will attend the school.

5 ?à hé tậwétậkề nū ?àmē wáhó  
3S say subject.matter topic right probably  
PRO V N TOP ADJ ADV

The subject matter that he said is probably right.

6 hề tậ ?àmē nū hề hé bū kálề  
1S thing right topic 1S say certainly SF.affirmative  
PRO N ADJ TOP PRO V ADV PRT

I certainly can say this is mine.

7 ?à hébá p<sup>h</sup>wề dríllề  
3S speak quickly very  
PRO V ADV ADV

He speaks very quickly.

8 ?à tǰóklé ?àjò tǰōprōtǰílề  
3S walk slow very  
PRO V ADJ ADV

She walks very slowly.

9 ?à hébá jò jò  
3S speak slowly slowly  
PRO V ADV ADV

She speaks very slowly

10 p<sup>h</sup>àbò nū ?à k<sup>h</sup>lé jí k<sup>h</sup>lò p<sup>h</sup>àlú  
Phabaw topic 3S.RSMP run away more.than Phalu  
NPROP TOP PRO.RSMP V V.DIR ADV NPROP

Phabaw runs further than Phalu.

11 ?à k<sup>h</sup>lé dó kàtù bò  
3S run big most SF.affirmative  
PRO V ADJ ADV PRT

He runs the most.



12 hè kʰə́ dɔ́ ʔà kʰlé jí kà̀tù mí pʰà̀bò  
 1S.Poss friend that 3S run away most be Phabaw  
 PRO N REL PRO V V.DIR ADV COP NPROP

My friend who runs the most is Phabaw.

13 ʔà rù ʔə́ wó kʰlò hè  
 3S.Poss money have plenty more.than 1S  
 PRO N V ADJ ADV PRO

He has lots of money rather than me.

14 pʰà̀bò pə́jǎ pʰà̀lú  
 Phabaw hit Phalu  
 NPROP V NPROP

Phabaw hits Phalu.

### Extra Notes

1 pà m̀nùnù kǎ́ mí kǎ́ dójó pē  
 1P.Poss Monu country be country rich still  
 PRO NPROP N COP N ADJ ASP

Our Monu land is a rich land.

2 \* tǎpʰíʔáwèʔá dɔ́ ʔà̀tʃēʔà̀tʃó tǣ  
 living that difficult not  
 N REL ADJ NEG

The living is not difficult.

3 dè sù dè  
 village three village  
 N NUM N

three villages

4 ʃì lì bē  
 water four CLF.cup  
 N NUM CLF

four cups of water

5 sùbò            sù    mē  
water.container three CLF.round.big  
N                NUM CLF

three water containers

6 bú                sù    pó  
rice.unthreshed three CLF.measure  
N                NUM CLF

three baskets of paddy

7 bú                tà    pló  
rice.unthreshed one    heap  
N                NUM N

a heap of paddy

8 ʔèsá lì        ʔé  
salt four CLF.measure  
N NUM CLF

four packs of salt

9 jí sù        dò  
dog three CLF.four legs animals  
N NUM CLF

three dogs

10 jí ʔàdò                sù    só  
dog Clf.four legs animals three pair  
N CLF                NUM N

six dogs

11 tị kàní bá  
fish two CLF.flat  
N NUM CLF

two fishes

12 sék<sup>h</sup>á kàní pọ̀  
alcohol two CLF.measure  
N NUM CLF

two bottles of alcohol

13 híjǎk<sup>h</sup>ǎ tǎ pụ̀  
trouser one CLF.clothes  
N NUM CLF

a trouser

14 sébé tǎ k<sup>h</sup>ó  
bicycle one CLF.vehicles  
N NUM CLF

a bicycle

15 dítǎ sù bá  
spoon three CLF.flat  
N NUM CLF

three spoons

16 sǎ tǎ bè  
tree one CLF.tree  
N NUM CLF

a tree

17 sǎ tǎ bò  
tree one CLF.long and thin  
N NUM CLF

a tree

18 hí dǎ ʔàmè lì só  
house big CLF.round.big four pair  
N ADJ CLF NUM N

eight houses

19 ʔá māmābábá né  
stay polite.gentle IMP.polite  
V ADJ IMP

Be polite/ be gentle!

20 ʔá māmābábá nō  
stay polite.gentle IMP.polite  
V ADJ IMP

Be polite/ be gentle!

21 pà tʃó ló  
1P go HORT  
PRO V IMP

Let us go!

22 pà tʃó mó  
1P go HORT  
PRO V IMP

Let us go!

23 kànèʔí hē nō  
remember 1S IMP.polite  
V PRO IMP

Remember me please!

24 mà mǎ  
do not  
V NEG

Don't do it!

25 pāk<sup>h</sup> ʔà hé nū kó hé mǎ né  
as 3S say topic that say not IMP.polite  
SUBORD PRO V TOP COMPZR V NEG IMP

As he said, don't tell (it)!

26 p̄ɔk<sup>h</sup>ɔ̄      ʔà    hé nū    hé tàmá né  
 as            3S    say topic say not    IMP.polite  
 SUBORD PRO V TOP V NEG IMP

!(it)t tell 'don ,As he said

27 hè      ʔá báʔù  
 come eat here  
 V    V DEM

Come and eat!

28 tʃó pwè kè    tětā  
 go buy return property  
 V V V N

Go and buy things!

29 mà hénù né  
 do that IMP.polite  
 V DEM IMP

Do like that!

30 p<sup>h</sup>àbò    mà p<sup>h</sup>wè    p<sup>h</sup>wè  
 Phabaw do quickly quickly  
 NPROP V ADV ADV

Phabaw, hurry up!

31 ʔówé          sókànó  
 exclamation brain  
 IMP N

Oh my God!

32 ʔó            tìtè  
 exclamation what  
 IMP INTRG

Oh! what!

33 ʔá ʔà s<sup>h</sup>à  
 exclamation 3S hurt  
 IMP PRO V

Oh! it's hurt.

34 ʔà ʔó dó jōkūkā ʔà hè  
 3S live at Yangon 3S come  
 PRO V PREP NPROP PRO V

He came from Yangon.

35 ʃi mə kə p<sup>h</sup>à  
 water mother country father  
 N N N N

king/ leader

36 ʔà mə ʔà p<sup>h</sup>à  
 3S.Poss mother 3S.Poss father  
 PRO N PRO N

his parent

37 ʔà kéʃi lə tɔ́ dó ʃi kō  
 3S see down fish at water in  
 PRO V V.DIR N PREP N LCLZR

He saw (down) fish in the water.

38 hè kànéʔí t<sup>h</sup>ó tàkí tàkí  
 1S remember up few few  
 PRO V V.DIR QUANT QUANT

I remember (up) a little bit.

39 hè tʃúmúplə s<sup>h</sup>à  
 1S.Poss finger hurt  
 PRO N V

My finger hurts.

40 ʔàs<sup>h</sup>à hè tʃúmúplé

hurt 1S.Poss finger

V PRO N

My finger hurts.

41 pà mà sì ʔàsè

1P do die 3P

PRO V V PRO

We kill them.

42 ʔà p̄ t̄àʔó jí

3S beat alone dog

PRO V PRO.RFLX N

He himself hits the dog.

43 ʔà p̄ t̄àʔó só jí

3S beat alone again dog

PRO V PRO.RFLX ADV N

He himself hits the dog again.

44 ʔà ʔá jò ò

3S eat slowly cooked.rice

PRO V ADV N

He eats rice slowly.

45 ʔà ʔá ò jò

3S eat cooked.rice slowly

PRO V N ADV

He eats rice slowly.

46 nà kà tʃó dó klá t̄mè k̄é dó hí ʔà

2S will go at market or return at house QP

PRO ASP V PREP N CONJ V PREP N Q

Will you go to the market or return to the house?

47 nà hébá m̀ǹǹ j́ t̀m̀m̀ hébá t̀ ʔ̀yà  
 2S speak Monu language or speak not QP  
 PRO V NPROP N CONJ V NEG Q

Do you speak Kayah Monu or not?

48 k̀h̀s̀s̀d̀d̀ ʔ̀í h̀è  
 please give 1S  
 IMP V PRO

Give me please!

49 ʔ̀à k̀éj́ j́ ʔ̀á wó  
 3S see dog bite snake  
 PRO V N V N

He saw the dog bite the snake.

50 ʔ̀à t̀j̀épwé mà ʔ̀àk̀h̀óʔ̀àk̀h̀j̀è ʔ̀à r̀ù ʔ̀ó d̀ówè  
 3S try do because.of 3S.Poss money have many  
 PRO V V SUBORD PRO N V QUANT

Because of trying to work (hard), he has money a lot.

51 ʔ̀à ʔ̀ólòkwē métà ʔ̀à s̀āp̀h̀l̀ō m̀ā t̀j̀  
 3S play although 3S.Poss mind happy not  
 PRO V SUBORD PRO N ADJ NEG

Although he plays, he does not happy.

52 h̀è ʔ̀ó d̀ó j̀ōk̀ūk̀ā métà ʔ̀à ʔ̀ó d̀ó k̀h̀ē k̀ā  
 1S be.exist at Yangon although 3S be.exist at China country  
 PRO COP PREP NPROP SUBORD PRO COP PREP NPROP N

I live in Yangon but he lives in China.

53 ʔ̀à k̀è métà ʔ̀à m̀áʔ̀p̀h̀à ʔ̀ó d̀ó hí t̀j̀  
 3S return although 3S.Poss parent be.exist at house not  
 PRO V SUBORD PRO N COP PREP N NEG

.her parents were not home ,Although she returned



54 hɛ̀ màtʰɔ́ hí ʔàmɛ̀ dó dó tà mɛ̀  
 1S build house CLF.round.big big big one CLF.round.big  
 PRO V N CLF ADJ ADJ NUM CLF

I build a very big house.

55 hɛ̀ tʃɛ́pwé dómàtì  
 1S try very  
 PRO V ADV

I try a lot.

56 \* ʃí nùmɔ́ dó ʔá hɛ̀  
 dog stink big bite 1S  
 N V ADJ V PRO

The old stink dog bit me.

57 ʃí dó \*(dó) nùmɔ́ ʔá hɛ̀  
 dog big that stink bite 1S  
 N ADJ REL V V PRO

The old stink dog bit me.

## **RESUME**

Name: Wai Lin Aung

Date of Birth: 24 February 1981

Place of Birth: Myanmar

Institutions Attended: 2005, B.A. (English), University of Distance Education,  
Taunggyi University, Myanmar.

2008, M.Div (Master in Divinity), Myanmar Institute of Theology, Yangon, Myanmar

2013, M.A. Linguistics, Payap University, Chiang Mai, Thailand