# A grammar of the Kadu (Asak) language 

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#### Abstract

This thesis is a grammatical description of Kadu-a Tibeto-Burman language spoken in Katha district of Sagaing division, Myanmar.

It contains eleven chapters. Chapter 1 is an introduction to the language and its speakers. Chapter 2 is an outline of the phonological structure of Kadu. Chapter 3 looks at the word classes and word-forming processes. Chapters 4 to 6 look at nominal aspects of the grammar. Chapter 4 discusses the structure of the noun phrase, while the well-developed system of numeral classifiers in Kadu is discussed in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 looks at case marking postpositions.


Chapter 7 looks at the elements that make up the verb complex in Kadu. It discusses postverbal modifiers such as auxiliary verbs, verbal particles, and modal auxiliaries. Clause final particles and aspectual particles are also looked at in this chapter.

Chapter 8 looks at the general structure of the clause. The structures of interrogative and negative clauses are discussed in Chapters 9 and 10 respectively. Chapter 11 looks at complex structures. It covers topics such as subordination, coordination, and narrative structures.

## Statement of authorship

"Except where reference is made in the text of the thesis, this thesis contains no material published elsewhere or extracted in whole or in part from a thesis submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma.

No other person's work has been used without due acknowledgment in the main text of the thesis.

This thesis has not been submitted for the award of any degree or diploma in any other tertiary institution."

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## List of Abbreviations and Conventions

| $*$ | ungrammatical | IMMF | immediate future |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | reconstructed forms | IMP | imperative |
| $\#$ | syllable boundary | INTRUSIVE intrusive particle |  |
| $\S$ | section | IPA | International Phonetic Alphabet |
| $/ /$ | phonemic transcription | IRLS | irrealis |
| $<>$ | transliteration of written | L.SUFF | loan verbal suffix |
|  | Burmese | Lit. | literally |
| l | derived from | LOC | locative |
| [ ] | phonetic transcription | LOCN | locational noun |
| A.AG | anti-agentive | MIR | mirative |
| ABL | ablative | NEG | negator |
| AKYS | Aung Kyaw Seing | NOM | nominaliser |
| ALL | allative | NP | noun phrase |
| ATT | attributive | ONMT | onomatopoeic word |
| ATTW | Attendant word | PART | particle |
| AUX | auxiliary | PL | plural |
| BEN | benefactive | PN | proper noun |
| CFP | clause final particle | PTB | Proto-Tibeto-Burman |
| CLF | classifier | PURP | purposive |
| CLT | class term | Q | question particle |
| COM | comitative | RLS | realis |
| COMP | compound | SAP | speaker attitude particle |
| CONJ | conjunction | SG | singular |
| COS | change of state marker | SIL | Summer Institute of Linguistics |
| DEM | demonstrative | SUBD | subordinator |
| DIM | diminutive | SUFF | suffix |
| DIR | directional | SUPL | superlative |
| EMPH | emphatic | TB | Tibeto-Burman |
| EUPH | euphonic | TOP | topic |
| EXCL | exclamatory | VCX | verb complex |
| FINALLY | finality particle | VSM | verb sentence marker |
| HORT | hortative | WH | wh-question word |
| HS | hearsay |  |  |

Burmese words are often cited in this thesis. In describing those Burmese words, I have adopted standard transliteration used in the Myanmar-English Dictionary, Myanmar Language Commission 2008. These are shown below.

## Consonants

| $m$ | k [k] | 2 | $\mathrm{hk}\left[\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}\right]$ | n/20 | g [g] | c | ng [ n ] |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\odot$ | s [s] | 2 | hs [ $\mathrm{s}^{\mathrm{h}}$ ] | @/Q | z [z] | 已 | nj [ n ] |
| $\infty$ | t [t] | $\infty$ | ht [ $\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}}$ ] | 3/8 | d [d] | $s / m$ | n [n] |
| u | p [p] | ${ }^{6}$ | $\mathrm{hp}\left[\mathrm{p}^{\mathrm{h}}\right.$ ] | -/ヵ | b [b] | ${ }^{\bullet}$ | m [m] |
| $\omega$ | j [j] | १ | r [r] | ৩/g | 1 [1] | $\bigcirc$ | w [w] |
| 00 | th [t] | $\infty$ | h [h] | ง | sh [5] |  |  |

## Medial Consonants



Vowels and Tones

|  | creaky |  | $\underline{\text { mid }}$ |  | low |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /i/ | $\bigcirc$ | i. | $\bigcirc$ | i | ${ }^{\text {Q }}$ | i: |
| /e/ | 6- | ei. | 6- | ei | 6-\% | ei: |
| $1 \mathrm{\varepsilon} /$ | $\bigcirc$ | e. | -w | e | - | e: |
| /a/ | - | a. | $\rightarrow$ | a | -\% | a: |
| /u/ | ¡ | u. | $u^{-}$ | u | $\pi{ }^{-8}$ | u: |
| /0/ | $\bigcirc$ | ou. | $\bigcirc$ | ou | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ | ou: |
| /0/ | 6-? | o. | 6-5 | 0 | 6-3 | o: |
| /2/ |  | ' |  |  |  |  |

## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins by explaining the aims and scope of this thesis and the data and its presentation. Subsequently, it looks at general background information of the language community. It is organised in the following order: 1.1 Aims and scope, 1.2 The data and its presentation, 1.3 The land, 1.4 The people and their language, and, finally, 1.5 Previous research.

### 1.1 Aims and scope

The analysis is designed to serve three main purposes. First, it is designed to serve as documentation of this endangered language in a systematic way, including phonemic analysis, syllable structure, tone, morphophonemics, and grammatical description. Second, it is designed to serve as a reference for linguists, anthropologists, and other scholars engaged in language research or with other interests in the language and culture of the Kadu. Third, it is designed to serve as a foundation for the development of a Kadu writing system and teaching materials to aid in the preservation and maintenance of the Kadu language for the benefit of future generations of Kadu people.

### 1.2 The data and its presentation

This study is the result of about seven months of fieldwork in the Kadu-speaking areas. The primary focus in this research is the Kadu dialect spoken in Settau village, Banmauk Township, Katha District, Sagaing Division, Myanmar. Although there are some slight differences of accent or speed of speech in how their language is spoken in different areas, the differences are so trivial that the Kadu use their own speech variety to communicate with people from other villages and understand everything. The Settau variety was selected for the following reasons. First, according to a sociolinguistic survey reported in Sangdong 2008, the speakers of Kadu reported that Kadu dialects spoken across the region are very similar. Therefore, selecting one variety of Kadu to describe will benefit the entire Kadu population and will undoubtedly broaden linguistic studies in this extremely interesting and long-neglected area of the linguistic world. Secondly, Settau is not only the largest existing Kadu village but also one where the language vitality is high. Thirdly, geographically it is not very far-just two miles-from Banmauk Township.

This work primarily uses three kinds of data: library-based data for theoretical studies, recorded wordlists, and language texts. First, all the available sources on Kadu, both in English and Burmese, were studied. Next, a wordlist of over 1000 items was collected from the Settau Kadu speakers. These words were transcribed and analysed using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) to determine syllable structure, phonemes, tones, stress, and intonation. Third, several texts were also recorded-primarily from the Settau
speakers and from speakers from other locations as well. These texts were doublechecked and interlinearised with the help of two chief language consultants. Data was also collected during intimate contact with the language in the natural setting of actual day-to-day use.

This thesis uses about seven hours of recordings (see Appendix B). All the recordings, both the wordlist and the texts, were done under non-laboratory conditions using the following equipment: Zoom H4, Zoom H4n, and an external Sony ECM-44B electret condenser microphone. The data was compared and double-checked with two other Kadu speakers from the same village.

The recorded texts were then broken down into clauses using the free digital audio editor Audacity 1.2.6. After that, three of my chief language consultants who were literate in Burmese used Burmese script to transcribe them. There were many shortcomings and difficulties encountered during this process-one of the reasons being a huge phonological gap between literary and colloquial Burmese. To Kadu language consultants, this is particularly true when it comes to representing Kadu final consonant sounds. For instance, written Burmese makes distinctions between final bilabial and alveolar nasals, however, in colloquial styles these distinctions are not heard. Therefore, Kadu speakers puzzle over which Burmese symbol to use when representing the sound of the final bilabial nasal consonant. This is just one illustration of the difference between written and colloquial Burmese. However, we continued using Burmese script
in spite of many drawbacks. Our main reason for doing this was just to get a general idea of the text. Those texts were later put into a language database, first in Toolbox database software and later SIL Fieldworks version 6.0.5, using a Roman-based orthography I developed in order to see the Kadu sound and grammar patterns accurately and to extract a glossary. Example sentences extracted from those recorded texts are cited in this thesis, as in the following example.
(1) ngaká phónshā wánpán kámpán īplakáé (18:17)

$$
\begin{array}{rlrll}
\text { ngā }=\text { ká } & \text { phón-shā } \quad \text { wán }=\text { pán } & \text { kám }=\text { pán īp } & \text { laká }=\text { é } \\
\text { 1SG }=\text { TOP } \text { wood-small chop }=\operatorname{COS} & \text { lay } & =\operatorname{COS} \text { sleep } & =\mathrm{MIR}=\text { SAP }
\end{array}
$$ 'I cut the small trees, lay (them) down, and slept (there).

The first line in italics gives the natural utterance. Spaces mark phonological words. The example is represented with two numbers in brackets: one at the beginning and the other at the end. The first bracketed number at the start of the sentence provides an example number used throughout this thesis. The other bracketed number, which contains two numbers separated by ' $\because$ ' (colon) at the right end provides the source from which this example was extracted. The first number represents the number of the text and the second number represents the clause or sentence within that text. All my recorded language data texts are simply named as Text 01 and Text 02, etc. (The list of texts that were used for this thesis is given in Appendix B).

The second line provides the morpheme break-down and the third line gives morpheme-by-morpheme English glosses. Most, if not all, grammatical morphemes are abbreviated
using Small caps. The representations of these abbreviated forms are presented in the list of abbreviations and conventions on page xviii. The colon ' $:$ ' is used for a contracted syllable which contains two grammatical categories. For example, the term píng is analysed as a contraction of ìng, a directional verbal particle, plus pán, a change of state aspectual particle. In this case, it will be glossed as ' $\operatorname{DIR}_{2}$ : $\operatorname{COS}^{\prime}$.

In the English free translation in line four, items in brackets are added simply to provide the English words that are not overtly expressed in Kadu. Some Kadu morphemes are not possible to gloss with a single word. In that case, English glosses which contain more than one word have a dot '. ' instead of a space within the gloss (See line three in example (2)).

## (2) ínnúkànghàpánták ngaúpánkaú (18:31)

ín-núk-àng-hà = pán = ták ngaú =pánkaú
NEG-flame-DIR 1 -know.how $=\operatorname{COS}=$ HS say $=$ as.it.is.the.case
'As it is the case that (it) didn't flame,'

However, standard hyphenated English words such as 'sister-in-law' will be used as is. In cases where items in English and Kadu correspond, in general, but have divergent semantic details, the difference is left for the reader to infer from the context. For example, words such as phī 'to wash one's face', phaú 'to wash vegetables', chī 'to wash clothes', kazeú 'to wash vegetables with a basket', and sin 'to wash one's hand' are all glossed with a single word 'wash' in English. Conversely, hing 'third person
singular' in Kadu has no gender distinction. In this case, it will be glossed as '3sG' and in the English free translation it will be indicated either as 'he' or 'she' because it is normally obvious from the context whether the person referred to is male or female.

### 1.3 The land

This section describes the geographical and demographical setting of Kadu, discussed in two sections: 1.3.1 Kadu in the larger context and 1.3.2 Kadu in the immediate context.

### 1.3.1 Kadu in the larger context

Myanmar, formerly known as Burma, is one of the largest countries in Southeast Asia. It lies on the western edge of the large peninsula that used to be known as Indo-China and is now called Mainland Southeast Asia. The country is cut off from the outer world by hills in the North, West, and East and the sea on the South. It is probably one of the most culturally and linguistically rich and diverse regions in all Asia. According to a Myanmar Ministry of Foreign Affairs July, 2003 report, the population of Myanmar is estimated at over 52.4 million with 135 national races. Many small speech groups of a few thousand people still maintain their mother tongues in every-day life in many parts of the country. The country is bordered by China on the Northeast, Tibet on the North, India on the Northwest, Bangladesh on the West, Laos and Thailand on the East, and the Bay of Bengal and the Andaman Sea on the South and Southwest. Therefore,

Myanmar is not only a fascinating place for linguistic studies but also is positioned at the heart of the cultural-geographical crossroads of East, South and Southeast Asia (See Figure 1).


Figure 1: Map of Myanmar and surrounding countries
"The country lies between longitude $92^{\circ}$ and longitude $102^{\circ}$ east and between latitude $10^{\circ}$ and latitude $29^{\circ}$ north. Most of the country falls within the tropics, and the climate, flora, and fauna of the plains are accordingly tropical" (Donnison 1970: 22-27). The
country has two basic political delimitations: states and divisions. There are seven states, which are named after seven major races: Kachin, Kaya, Karen, Chin, Mon, Rakhine, and Shan. There is an equal number of divisions: Ayeyawaddy, Bago, Magway, Mandalay, Sagaing, Thnintharyi and Yangon, most of which are in lowland areas and predominantly populated by ethnic Bamar/Burmese. Most of the states, on the other hand, are sparsely populated and are on highlands. The country is proud to embrace languages of the Austro-Asiatic, Tai-Kadai, Austronesian, and Tibeto-Burman families. The linguistic diversity is fascinating but seriously understudied. Thus, it attracts and invites modern scholars of linguistics and anthropology.

Sagaing Division, where this research took place, is the largest division in the country (See Figure 2). It is home to many Tibeto-Burman (TB) languages such as Bamar, Chin, Naga, and Kadu. Many Tai/Shan speaking people, particularly Tailiang (Red Shan), are also found in this state. It is bordered by Arunachal Pradesh of India on the North; Nagaland and Manipur states of India, and Chin state of Myanmar on the West; Magwe and Mandalay divisions on the South; Shan state on the East; and Kachin state on the Northeast. The northern part is mountainous and home to many Naga languages. The southern part, however, is relatively flat and home to Bamar, Karen, Tai and Mon speakers. The majority of the population in this division are Bamar speakers. In the southwest part, the area adjacent to Chin state, several Chin languages are spoken. The central part has been home to the Kadu and their related speech varieties for centuries.

The Chindwin is the main river in this division. Its source is in Kachin state in the north and it flows into the country's principal river, the Irrawaddy, in the south. Agriculture is the chief occupation. The leading crops, as in many parts of the country, are rice, wheat, corn, sesame, peanuts, cotton, and tobacco. The division is one of the leading producers of wheat in Myanmar. Myanmar's most significant border trade post with India, Tamu, is in this division. Many products of India and Myanmar are exchanged through this post. Figure 2 shows a map of the Sagaing division. The shaded area represents the extent of the historical homeland of the Kadu, according to their oral history (Luce 1985:36).

Many parts of Sagaing division, including the Kadu areas, are still poor in terms of communication and transportation. For example, there are no proper roads which connect major towns in the Naga language speaking areas. People still rely on the Chindwin river, which is navigable by small motor boat throughout the year. Difficulties in communication and transportation in the hill areas range from less serious to extreme, and probably account for much of the linguistic diversity we find. As in the case of the Kadu, many language groups in Myanmar remain accessible only by foot to this day.


Figure 2: Map of Sagaing Division

### 1.3.2 Kadu in the immediate context

The speakers of the Kadu language live in Banmauk, Indau, and Pinlebu, which are three townships in Katha District, Sagaing Division, Myanmar (see Figure 3 and Figure 4). Among these three, Banmauk has the largest Kadu population and Pinlebu has the smallest Kadu population. See Figure 3 for a rough hand-drawn map showing the township boundaries. The current Kadu populated area is highlighted in gray.


Figure 3: The current Kadu populated areas

All three townships are adjacent to and just west of the north-south MandalayMyitkyina railroad, and about halfway between those two cities. The MandalayMyitkyina railway tracks pass through Indau Township, so Indau has become a gateway to reach the Kadu community. Travelling to these areas, one must rely on MandalayMyitkyina trains. There are a couple of trains that depart from each location every day. All trains departing Mandalay leave at different times in the afternoon. Travelling by train to the Kadu community is not convenient, as most of the trains reach Indau between 1 and 4 am.

There are some buses which run regularly between Indau and Banmauk but transportation to villages around these townships is still very poor. Most of the roads are just dirt tracks so they are dusty during the dry season and muddy during the wet
season. Ox carts (and in some area, horses), are still the main means of transportation but motor bikes from China are becoming an important means of local transportation. A lot of people travel on foot even for 10-15 miles. For example, for Kadu high school students, walking two to three miles during the school day is not considered a long distance. Nowadays, some of the roads have been upgraded to allow motor bikes to travel throughout the year.


Figure 4: Geographical location of Banmauk, Pinlebu, and Indau Townships

Although the Kadu language speaking area falls in the tropical zone, it has cool, pleasant weather most of the year. The coldest months are November through January. The rainy season is May through October. The heaviest rain is usually expected in June and July. Rain in the dry season is rare.

Settau village, where most of the data used in this thesis was collected, is situated just about two miles west of Banmauk Township. It is inhabited purely by Kadu, except for a few intermarriages with other speakers. The elders from the village told me that the village was founded by their forefathers who migrated from Taungmau village in the 1780s. According to one of the recorded texts which explains the origin of Settau Kadu, there are two hypotheses regarding how they got this name.

The first hypothesis is that it may have come from a Burmese term rex which may be literally translated as a place plentiful with fowl. According to Kadu elders, when the people first moved into the area, there may have been a lot of wild
 (3) below.
(3) zayàyítá kóngyóyósàpè pòkháū ngaúkà cíceū paútamā ngaúlakàé (10:25)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { zayà }=\text { yí }=\text { tá kóng-yóyó-sà } & =\text { pè pòkhá-ū } \\
\text { some }=\text { also }=\text { EMPH hill-simple-DIM } & =\text { LOC forest-fowl } \\
\text { ngaúkà cíceū paú-ta } \quad=\text { mā ngaú } & =\text { lakà }=\text { é } \\
\text { as.for very plenty-L.SUF }=\text { RLS say } & =\text { MIR }=\text { SAP }
\end{array}
$$

'Some (people) said in that little hill there were plenty of wildfowl, it is said.
 a Burmese term, which literally means 'muddy place'; see example (4) below.
(4) zayàyítá pwát ngāmāyítá ngaúcímā (10:44)
zayà $=$ yí $=$ tá pwát $n g \bar{a}=m \bar{a}=y i ́=t a ́ \quad$ ngaú-cí $=m \bar{a}$
some $\quad=$ also $=$ EMPH mud exist $=$ RLS $=$ also $=$ EMPH say - PL $\quad=$ RLS
'Some, as well, said there was mud.'

Many local leaders favor the first hypothesis.

### 1.4 The people and their language

This section looks at the general background of the people and their language, presented in the following order: 1.4.1 The people, 1.4.5 Language context and language contact, 1.4.2 Education, 1.4.3 Livelihood, and 1.4.4 Religion and spiritual life.
1.4.1 The people

The Kadu, who called themselves "Asak", are well known among their neighbors for their hospitality. No traveler arriving in a village unannounced or a sick or old person will lack a roof or a meal. Partly it is the attitude of their Buddhist religion and partly it is the character of the people. The Kadu population in Banmauk Township is estimated to be at least 30,000 by the local Kadu leaders. There are also Kadu villages in Indau and Pinlebu Townships and elsewhere, but it is not known how many Kadu live in these places. The pronounciation of the word "Sak" in Burmese is 'Thet'. Taylor (1922) claimed that the Sak inhabited the upper part of the Irrawaddy valley and might have
also spread into Manipur and become the ancestors of the Andro and Sengmai tribes. Luce (1985:36) confirms this claim and says that the Sak languages were "once spread over the whole north of Burma, from Manipur perhaps to northern Yunnan." Luce considers the Kadu to be the earliest settlers of the region, saying "a sure sign of antiquity is when one finds a language, unmistakably fragmented, spoken by minorities in remote places, widely separated from each other by major languages." Linguistically, there is a strong connection between Kadu and the Thet or Sak, who are scattered parts of Rakhine State and also across the Bangladesh border (Ah Ko Saw 1988:1). They are also sometimes refer to as "Thau Kadu" and "Thet Kadu" (Nu Nu 1991:3). The native speakers of Sak in Bangladesh often refer to themselves as Chak or Chakma, however,linguistically, the Chak is a distinct group from Chakma (Maggard 2007:1). The Chak are unmistakably kin of the Kadu. Many Kadu leaders also acknowledge this fact.

The Kadu, under the name Kantu, were the dominant group in the os $m$ més Tagaung kingdom $^{1}$ of upper Burma (Ah Ko Saw 1975:12; Bradley 2002:86). The local people explained to me that the word Tagaung, with high tone on the second syllable, came from ta-kaūng 'leg-step on' which literally means the stepping place in Kadu. Even today, Kadu use this expression to indicate a place belonging to someone. However,


[^0]<mrangma asa.takong:ka.> which literally means Bamar begins from Tagaung. I leave it to the historians to do further research on the historical birthplace of the Kadu due to limited time and space, except for briefly looking at some available historical sources of the Kadu migration into Burma.

Than Htun (2003) suggested that they may have migrated into Burma in the $4^{\text {th }}$ century from the North and their dominant power in upper Burma was weakened by the migration wave of the ancestors of the Bamar ${ }^{2}$ in about the $9^{\text {th }}$ century. Before the Burmese intrusion, the Kadu had a long history of contact with the people called Pyu ( Nu Nu 1991 ). Luce (1985) suggests that the Kadu migrated into Myanmar before the Pyu, however, some claim that they came into Myanmar following the Pyu (Ah Ko Saw 1975:11). When the Chin entered the Chindwin valley, the Kadu were split into two groups and the fall of Kadu was completed by the Shan, who rushed in torrents into Myanmar when the area now known as Yunnan in China was seized by the Mongols in the $13^{\text {th }}$ century (Luce 1985:43). This once strong and powerful dominant people of upper Burma are now scattered in and around Katha district, Sagaing Division, and the north of Rakhine State ${ }^{3}$. They struggle for the survival of their language and culture in the midst of very strong influences from Burmese and Shan.

[^1]The Kadu in Katha District may be further roughly grouped into three groups: Settau, Mauteik, and Maukhwin. The Settau, also known as Kwan Kadu, are the largest Kadu speaking group. The majority of Settau Kadu live in Banmauk Township. The second largest group is Mauteik, also known as Tapan Kadu. They live scattered around Indau Township. The Maukhwin Kadu group, the smallest Kadu speaking group, is mainly found in the southwest of Banmauk Township.


Figure 5: Classification of the Kadu varieties based on their recent migration

All three Kadu groups trace their recent migration from Maukhwin village in Pinlebu Township. One of the story tellers begins the Kadu migration story with (5):
(5) azák azáq maūkhwinnkáqták máttaúpeúcí (10:01)
azák azáq maūkhwīn = káq = ták mát-ta-peú-cí
PN begin Maukhwin = LOC = HS note-L.SUFF-keep-PL
'Keep note that Kadu begins from Maukhwin.'

Maukhwin village is situated at the northeast corner of Pinlebu Township. During my fieldwork, I, along with one of my chief language consultants, visited some of the old

Kadu villages in Pinlebu Township, including Maukhwin. Unfortunately, no one speaks Kadu in that village anymore. It is unclear whether people have switched to speaking Burmese or Burmese people later moved in. According to the story, some of the people from Maukhwin village moved to a place called Maulin-Maukha, a place where they produced abundant salt. From there, some of them moved south and founded two villages: Taungmau and Myautmau. Presumably the split into three main Kadu branches begins from there. Kadu who live in villages around Banmauk Township claim that they are the descendants of Taungmau village. They refer to themselves as Kwan or Kun Kadu. On the other hand, Kadu who live in villages around Indau Township claim that they are the descendants of Myautmau village. They refer to themselves as Mauteik Kadu or Tapan Kadu. The people who remained in Maukhwin village later moved into the southwest of Banmauk Township and become known as Maukhwin Kadu. Among the three groups, Maukhwin Kadu has the smallest population. Their current location, known as Anauktan-ngaywa (Lit. western five villages), is about 30 miles west of Banmauk Township. They live in close proximity to the Kanan ethnic group.

The name Sak or Thet is used in at least three ways in the literature. First, it refers to the Sak that live in the north of Rakhine State and eastern Bangladesh (Bradley 1997:25; Lewis 2010). This name also refers to "ancient Saks", one of the first ethnic groups to inhabit Myanmar, and the ancestors of the Kadu and Kanan (Luce 1985:3640). It is also the term the Kadu in Katha District use to refer to themselves.

Alternate names for the Kadu include Asak, Gadu, Gannan, Kado, Kadu-Gannan, Kato, Katu, Kudo, Mawteik, Puteik, Sak, That, Thet, Woni (Paul 2009).

### 1.4.2 Education

Traditionally, the education of Kadu children was limited to male children only. It began at the Buddhist monasteries when the male children were sent at an early age to study Buddhism. They were to remain there for three to six years. The children learned not only their religious practices but also learned to read and write Burmese. Women didn't have this privilege, therefore, nearly all of the older women are illiterate. A few decades ago government-funded standard education was introduced to the Kadu villages. Many primary schools were established in the region and opened opportunities for both male and female children.

The language of instruction at school is Burmese. Today, almost all the children go to school and learn to read and write Burmese. Settau village has a middle school and most of the children from Settau and nearby villages go to that school. The children who complete middle school go to Banmauk for high school, which is about 2 miles away from Settau village.

Local leaders from Settau village reported a continuously high drop-out rate at the high school level among the Kadu children. One of the reasons, they believe, is that most of the children cannot cope with the school education because teaching in the schools is all
in Burmese and the Burmese proficiency among the Kadu children is relatively low. Another reason for the high drop-out rate is the fact that the Kadu are poor and the schools charge various fees to support the teachers. As they live in a remote setting, it is difficult to find qualified school teachers. Also, education is still not a vital part of Kadu culture, so most of the young people quit school after completion of primary school.

### 1.4.3 Livelihood

The Kadu homeland is a rich land in which there is plenty of food and starvation is not known. Paddy rice is the main crop grown in the region and all the Kadu people practice a similar type of cultivation. The Kadu are hard working and expert rice growers. They practice both wet rice field and slash and burn cultivation. Both Kadu men and women are involved in paddy rice production. The cultivation of rice involves intensive and extremely arduous work from the time the monsoon rains soften the ground sufficiently to permit plowing and planting until the crop is reaped in the winter. Men do most of the plowing and the clearing of the fields, whereas women hoe the fields, spread the seeds, and transplant the rice seedlings. Planting of rice has to be done by hand, bent almost double, in tropical rain. Apart from paddy field planting, men are also responsible for gathering wood and building houses. Women, on the other hand, cook and do most of the housework. Traditionally, it is the responsibility of the women to weave and sew cloth. However, as modern clothing is available at cheap prices in nearby markets, traditional weaving is becoming a lost art among the Kadu women.

Modern methods of cultivation have had little effect on this area and they still use the old traditional ways of cultivation. Cotton and tea are also grown. Tea is used for drinking and welcoming guests. In addition, sesame, chili peppers, beans, tobacco, onions, garlic, eggplant, tomatoes, gourds, pumpkins, cucumbers, and many other varieties of vegetables are grown in the fields. A wide variety of fruits, mushrooms, roots, leaves, and other wild vegetables are also gathered from nearby forests.


Figure 6: Paddy field cultivation in the Kadu region

As the population increased over time, the land in the lowlands could not provide sufficient food for the people and this forced the local people to extend their fields up into the hills and to practice slash and burn cultivation.

The most important domestic animals are the cow and water buffalo in terms of the people's livelihood. They are the main means used to plow wet rice fields and carry goods. Other traditional domestic animals include chickens, ducks, and pigs, which provide meat for the family.

Young people, typically, leave their villages and go to nearby townships to earn money after the planting season is over. Some of the Kadu people travel all the way to the Chindwin river area and to northern Myanmar to labor in the private gold and jade mining businesses.


Figure 7: A typical Kanan house in Nanza village

Most of the Kadu villages are located on spurs of hills just above the valley floor. The main road generally cuts through the middle of the village and houses are built on both sides of the road. As the area is abundant with teak (Tectona grandis), most of the Kadu houses are built with invaluable teak, or of a kind of ironwood tree que.mo울 [prangkatou:](prangkatou:) (Xylia dolabriformis) and bamboo. Thatch roofing is common, however, zinc roofing is becoming more common. Most of the houses are built on stilts and the area under the house is left open to keep the family's animals and firewood. For some people, this place is used for weaving and storing some of the family's property.

Modern Kadu houses are rectangular with wooden siding and high roofs. The older Kadu said that their traditional house was identical with Kanan houses with a more oval shape and low hanging roof. The traditional Kadu house was built without using a single nail. They use a locking joints system. Traditional construction of a house used cane/rattan and a thin strip of bamboo as rope, thatch for roofing, and timber or bamboo frames for partitions.

The fireplace, which is the central point of the main room, has a large circular three or four legged iron potholder. The main room is used as a kitchen and common room and there are also one or two bedrooms where people sleep on the wooden floor on mats made of straw with pillows made of wood. The typical house also has a veranda at the back, which is used for drying paddy, corn, or other items and as a chatting place during the warm season. The house is generally occupied by an extended family. They live closely with their kin, with marriageable women leaving for other villages and women from other villages marrying in. Monogamy has been practiced in the Kadu community for many centuries.

### 1.4.4 Religion and spiritual life

The Kadu, like most of the neighboring peoples, Kanan, Shan, and Burmese, have been practicing Buddhism for centuries. They are almost exclusively Buddhists. The exact time the Kadu converted to Buddhism is not clearly known. They first practiced

Mahayana Buddhism and probably had converted to Theravada Buddhism during the reign of Anawrahta (1044-1086 AD) or earlier (Maung Kyan Shin 1994:238-240). Luce (1985) and Than Htun (1994) suggested a much earlier date by saying that one of the early groups entering Burma, the Pyu, who, probably in AD 638, founded the first great Buddhist capital in Burma, had been converted to Buddhism by the Sak (Thet).


Figure 8: A monastery in Settau village

The Kadu are devoted to their religious teachings and believe that their good merit will bring good fortune and a better life in the next life cycle. The enormous monasteries are one of the signs of their generous almsgiving and devotion to their religion. The monks not only play important roles in religion but also within the social structure, from
 one of the most important religious activities among the Kadu. Unlike the Burmese, they conduct combined community novitiations, including over 30 novices in one
ceremony that normally takes place during the summer and lasts 4-5 days. During this ceremony, the whole community comes together and shares the tasks for the success of the ceremony.

Although Buddhism is a very real part of their daily life, the Kadu are strongly superstitious people, as well. Among the Kadu there is a widespread belief in the existence of spirits (both good and evil) and many elements of animism have been mixed into their Buddhism. They believe good Nats (spirits) bring prosperity and bad Nats bring misfortune. They are scared of bad Nats and sacrifice chickens, eggs, fermented fish, fresh fish, and flowers in order not to bring calamities upon themselves. Some portions of each meal are sacrificed to the good Nats to bring good merit. Kadu people believe that everything they see is possessed by some kind of Nat. Even today, they still make sacrifices during their travels to please Nats at nearby shrines for protection from the danger of wild animals such as wild tigers and bears. They believe that only with the permission of the Nat can one get bitten by wild animals.
 Kadu villages make sacrifices to this Nat at least once a year. It is a title in Burmese which may be translated ([moung:toung](moung:toung) 'a mountain's name' <hrang> 'master' [kri:](kri:) 'big') as the master ruler of the Maindung mountain. According to some local leaders, his real name was euhám. In the story recorded about this man, he was a lazy and good-for-nothing type of person. However, fortunately, he happened to get a magical drum
which fulfilled all his desires and wishes and he later became a very powerful man.
When he died, he was considered a supernatural being and the Kadu worship him even today. Look at the example below extracted from a story about euhám.
(6) maléq maítìng ashīncíká àngpanáq zī sétcā lùànghaíkkáq hīngká lakò hamán thànglatá. (08:127)

| maléq maítùng | ashīn-cí $=$ ká àng $=$ panáq zī-seútcā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 PL PN | lord-big $=$ TOP that $=$ NOM drum-magical.weapon |


| lū-àng haíkkà hīng | $=$ ká lakò hamán thà-àng | $=$ tá |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| get-DIR $_{1}$ | and.then | 3 SG | $=$ TOP SAP | Spirit | be-DIR $_{1}$ | $=$ EMPH |

'As for our Maitung master, he became a spirit/Nat when he got a magical drum.'

Besides this Nat, there are also regional, village, and house guardian Nats. When someone from the household gets sick, sacrifices are made to the mángtúng 'house Nat' for the remedy. Making sacrifices to the house Nat is the duty of the oldest female in the family. Another Nat that is very common among the Kadu community is a compound guardian Nat called cè̀ $\begin{gathered}\text { or caì. }\end{gathered}$

### 1.4.5 Language context and language contact

The Kadu have a long history of contact with different peoples. It may be because of these historical contact patterns that some groups such as the Chin, the Jingphaw, and the Shan claim that the Kadu are related to them. These claims are not made based on linguistic evidence but are, rather, motivated by political gains.

Houghton (1893) made an interesting remark about the Kadu and their language: "who the Kadu were originally remains uncertain, but now they are little more than Burmese and Shan half-breeds with traces of Chin and possibly Kachin ${ }^{4}$ blood. If they ever had a distinct language it is now extinct or has been modified so much by all its neighbours as to be little better than a kind of Yiddish." I found a similar attitude when meeting with Shan speakers in the Homalin and Myitkyina areas, some of whom were claiming that the Kadu-Kanan are part of the Shan, and referred to them as Shan-Kadu. Many Jingphaw speakers also made a similar claim that the Kadu are related to them. Some Kadu talk about a relationship with the Jingphaw as cousins. I, being one of the ethnic minorities within the Kachin, was warmly welcomed in many villages, and was considered one of their kin. I have no knowledge or time to work out the Kadu relationship with the Chin but I must admit that the Kadu lexicon contains many words

[^2]cognate with both Shan and Jingphaw. However, looking at other linguistic features, Kadu is quite distant from Shan, however, the numerals one to ten (§3.2.2) and some kinship terms (§3.1.1.2.6) are certainly loanwords from Shan. It is highly possible that the presence of the Shan numbers in Kadu is the result of the Shan economic domination in the area for a long period. The Shan are the people who run the five-day bazaars, so all Kadu and Kanan counting is in Shan (Luce 1985:35). However, today the Kadu are shifting toward the Burmese counting system. Upon reaching the Kadu area, I found out that there are many Kadu words which are clear cognates with Jingphaw.

Linguistic relationships between Jingphaw and Kadu still need to be established.
However, lexical and syntactic similarities between Jingphaw and Kadu are much more promising than with the Shan. The Burma Gazetteer (1900) also suggested that Kadu and Jingphaw are of the same stock. It says regarding the relationship of Jingphaw and Kadu, that "the Kadu came from the Pagan country before it fell from its position as the capital province. They gradually scattered. Those who ascended to the hills are called Kachins; those who settled in the plains became Kadu. They were all, however, of the same race and spoke the same tongue" (Gazetteer 1900:575). Just for the sake of comparison, I have compared some of the Kadu lexical items that are similar to Jingphaw (see Table 1 and Table 2). Jingphaw wordlist items are written in the standard orthography. The tones in Jingphaw are unmarked. The diacritic ' - ' marks a short vowel [ə].

| Kadu | Jingphaw | Gloss | Kadu | Jingphaw | Gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ashì | lăsi | be skinny | phí | hpai | sling/carry |
| haláp | kăhtap | stack | phūn | hpun | wrap |
| hamúk/kamúk | npu | under | $p \bar{u}$ | pru | emerge |
| hāp | hkrap | weep | sák | sa | send |
| $k \bar{u}$ | lăgu | steal | thin | dip | press |
| lā | la | take | thū | htu | pound |
| $1 \bar{u}$ | lu | get | tī | dwi | sweet |
| māt | mălap | forget | $\bar{u}$ | lu | drink |
| mí | mări | buy | $y \bar{p} p$ | rap | cross |
| nám | mănam | smelly | yīm | rim | catch |
| ní | măni | laugh | $z \bar{a} p$ | tsap | stand |

Table 1: Comparison of Kadu and Jingphaw verbs

| Kadu | Jingphaw | Gloss | Kadu | Jingphaw | Gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ahà | n̆hka | chin | mán | man | face |
| $\bar{a} n$ or $\bar{a} m$ | mam | paddy | phón | hpun | tree or wood |
| asák | ăsak | life/age | salaú | sau | cooking oil |
| awà | ăwa | father | san | shan | meat |
| $c \overline{1}$ | gwi | dog | sàt | shăt | husked rice |
| haláng | mărang | sky/rain | satá | shăta | moon |
| halí | hka li | rice seedling | swá | ăwa | tooth |
| $k a ̄$ | ga or ăga | earth, soil | tacī | măgyi | thigh |
| kaphú | lăpu | snake | tāk | lăta | hand |
| kasát | tsap | bear (animal) | tapaúk | lăbawp | calf (body part) |
| kayù | yu | rat | $\bar{u}$ | u | chicken |
| kweu | woi or ăwoi | monkey | Wān | wan | fire |
| maeú | moi | long ago | $z u \bar{n}$ | jum | salt |

Table 2: Comparison of Kadu and Jingphaw nouns

The Kanan, who live along the Mu River to the southwest of the Kadu villages in Banmauk Township, are geographically the closest kin of the Kadu. The Kanan have
always been classified as a subgroup of Kadu and often associated under the name Kadu-Kanan. The Ethnologue (Lewis 2010) and many other sources group Kadu and Kanan together as one language. Culturally and linguistically they share many similarities and both people groups recognised these facts. Dawkins 2006 reported that there is a high degree of lexical similarity between Kadu and Kanan (see also Table 3 on page 34). Based on the statistics of 100 lexical items, the similarity between Kadu and Kanan varieties ranges from 82 to $92 \%$ (Dawkins 2006:14). Among the Kadu, the Maukwin Kadu have closer contact with the Kanan, as they live in closer proximity to the Kanan. The Kanan villages are located in very remote settings accessible only by foot for most of the year. The Kanan region in Banmauk Township is made up of 24 villages, (see Figure 5).


Figure 9: Kanan villages (from Dawkins 2006)

The Kadu lexicon also includes a massive number of loanwords from Burmese. The reason, obviously, is Burmese domination through religious (Buddhist) and government schools and Burmese mass media. Today, most of the Kadu, regardless of gender or age, with the exception of older people from remote villages, are bilingual in Kadu and Burmese. The Kadu people used to have a negative attitude toward the national language, Burmese. However, due to more freedom of travel, contact with outsiders,
and the education system, this attitude is changing and today Kadu are becoming more and more bilingual in Burmese. Burmese words are frequently used either for the names or ideas introduced by modern civilization or because they are considered more elegant. Burmese influence on the Kadu is so great that we not only find an extremely large number of Burmese loanwords in the Kadu lexicon, but also, typologically, Kadu is becoming more like Burmese. This may be due to superstratum influence (see LaPolla 2009). Similarity of the structure of Kadu with Burmese is shown in (7). Notice in the example below, although the forms of the words are different the structure is the same.

$$
\begin{array}{lllllll}
\text { (7) Burmese: } & \text { mi: hrou. } & \text { =pri: prei:-hta: louk } & \text { =te } & \text { =te. } \\
\text { Kadu: } & \text { wān sút } & =\text { pán kát -peú } & \text {-àng }=\text { mā }=\text { ták } \\
& \text { fire start.fire }=\operatorname{Cos} \text { run -keep }-\operatorname{DIR}_{1}=\text { RLS }=\text { HS } \\
& \text { '(She) burnt and ran away (from him), it is said.' }
\end{array}
$$

A full explanation of Kadu's relationship with the Chin, Shan, Jingphaw, and Thet languages deserves a full-length study in its own right, but it would exceed my competence to attempt. However, Kadu is clearly a TB language and it deserves to be respected in its own right. Brown (1920) recognized the distinct vocabulary of Kadu belonging to the Tibeto-Burman family and further said that the structure and sound system of Kadu greatly resemble those of Burmese.

Some more examples of lexical comparison with other TB languages are presented in Table 3. Bodo and Eastern Naga data was taken from Burling (1983). The data from Burling (1971) is presented with a " ^' diacritic mark. The data from van Breugel
(2008) is represented with a superscript ' $s$ '. ' $x$ ' means no data is available. The Sak data are presented in two columns; one from Luce (1985) represented as $S a k^{\mathrm{L}}$. and the other from Bernot (1966), represented as $\mathrm{Sak}^{\mathrm{B}}$. The Andro data was taken from Grierson (1928). The Kadu, Kanan, and Jingphaw data are my own. The PTB forms are from Matisoff (2003).

| Gloss | Kadu | Kanan | Sak ${ }^{\text {L }}$ | $\mathrm{Sak}^{\text {B }}$ | Andro | Jingphaw | Boro | Atong | Garo | Konyak | Tangsa | PTB |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sun | səmik | səmi? | tsăme? | čami | chamit | tçan | san | raysan | sal | wanghi | rangsal | *nəy, *ka, *ring |
| moon | $\mathrm{s}^{\mathrm{h}}$ əta | səta | s'ăda | Өada | sat'a | Sota | X | jajong ${ }^{\text {s }}$ | jajon | linyu | japi | $*_{\text {s/g-la }}$ |
| rain | holay | holay | hravehe? | hran̊hre? | X | $\mathrm{mray}^{3}$ | saray | raywa | mikka^ | X | rangche | *r-wa |
| fire | wan | wan | vai | wan | wàl | wan | o?r | wa?r | wa?l | vun | wal | *mey, *war |
| egg | toti | ti | ătji | kyi | X | udi | dau?dəi | dauPdəi | do?ci | X | woci | $*_{\text {t }}(\mathrm{w}) \mathrm{i}(\mathrm{y})$ |
| earth, soil | ka | ka | ka | ka | X | ga | ha? | ha? | a? | ka | hah | *r-ka |
| flower | рәра | рәра | ǎpæ | apən̊ | X | nompan | biPbar | bar | bibal | jupiang | pilpung | *ba:r |
| salt | sum | sum | tsəy | cin | X | tcum | sem | səmP ${ }^{\text {s }}$ | X | hum | sim | *gryum |
| ripe | min | mıy | me; ăme | X | X | $\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{j}}$ in | gumun | mən ${ }^{\text {s }}$ | min | X | X | $*_{\text {s-min }}$ |
| dog | tçi | tci | kvum | kvu/s'r | ki | gwi | x | gəi? | acak ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | kui | hi | ${ }^{*}{ }^{\text {w }}$ \% ${ }^{\text {d }}$ |
| snake | kəp $^{\text {h }}$ u | $\mathrm{krp}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{u}$ | kăf $\gamma$ | kafi | x | ləpu | zi-bau | dəbau | cipbu | pu | puh | $*_{\text {s-b-ruil }}$ |
| house | tcim | tcim | x | kin | kem | nota | no? | nok | nok | nok | X | *kyim ~*kyum |
| finger | takci | takSi? | taji | ta?kyun | X | lataq | yaosi | chaksi ${ }^{\text {s }}$ | jaksi | yashao | jaksi | *m-yuy/ *yuy |
| water | w $\varepsilon$ | we | 0 | u/i | me | $\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{a}$ ? | dəi | dəi | ci | yiang | jung | *ti(y) |
| eat | jok | jauk | $\mathrm{tsa}^{3}$ | ca | šai | sha | za? | sa? | ca? | ha | sat | *?am |
| sit | $\mathrm{t}^{\text {h }}$ ¢ | $\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}}$ วท | to | tun | ton | duy | X | mup ${ }^{\text {s }}$ | asoy | X | tong | $*_{\text {m-d/tuy }}$ |
| kill | tanci | kap i | X | X | X | sat | X | so?ot ${ }^{\text {s }}$ | so?ot | X | tikduk | *g-sat |
| father | әwa | әwa | ăva | ava | àpà | әwa | pi2-pa | a-wa | pagipa | pa | wa | *p ${ }^{\text {w }}$ a |

Table 3: Comparison of Luish wordlists with other Sal TB languages and PTB forms

### 1.5 Previous research and linguistic classification

A partial record of languages in the Luish/Sak group has been done by linguists in the past few decades but no languages in this language group have been studied and classified well in the field of linguistics. Linguistically, Kadu is poorly described.

Brown (1920) wrote about Kadu and presented a brief description of its sound system. Brown appears to be the first one to acknowledge Kadu as a distinct language belonging to the Tibeto-Burman family: "clearly it is not a jargon of Burmese, Shan, and Kachin, but a member of the Tibeto-Burman family of legitimate and respectable descent." Brown (1920:12), however, suggested that Kadu closely resembles the Burmese structure and sound system. Prior to him, Houghton (1893), and a few decades later, Leach (1959), treated the Kadu and their language as mere hybrids. Houghton compared some vocabularies, and assigned Kadu to the Kachin-Kaga branch of the Tibeto-Burman family, and went on to say that its nearest relative was Sak. In his paper "Kadu and its relatives", he presented some comparative vocabulary of Kadu and of Andro and Sengmai. Some of the vocabulary items in common with these languages are characteristic of the Tibeto-Burman family of languages.

Brown described the Kadu sound inventory as consisting of (26) consonants and (11) vowels (Table 4). It is probably a phonetic representation of the Kadu sounds. The super-script symbols [ ${ }^{\mathrm{p}},,^{\mathrm{t}},{ }^{\mathrm{k}}$ ] presented in the table are unreleased stops that appear only syllable finally and are in free variation with [ $p, t$, and $k$ ] elsewhere. Aspiration is
marked with the symbol (' ). Brown recognized various dialects of Kadu and said Kanan is a variety of Kadu.

|  | Labial. | Dental. | Palatalized dental. | Palatal. Velar. | Glottal. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 咸 } \\ & \text { Plosive . . } \\ & \text { Nasal . } \\ & \text { Lateral . } . \\ & \text { Oig } \\ & \text { Fricative } \\ & \text { Semi-vowel } \end{aligned}$ | $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{p}^{6}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{~b}$ <br> m <br> w | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{c}}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{~d} \\ \mathrm{n} \\ 1 \\ \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{~s}^{‘}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{f} \end{gathered}$ | t, d | $\begin{gathered} \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{c}}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{~g} \\ \mathrm{y} \\ (\mathrm{w}) \end{gathered}$ | $?$ |
|  | f(u) $1(\mathrm{u})$ (o) (0) |  |  |  |  |

Table 4: Brown's phonetic description of Kadu sounds

Grierson (1921), another early linguist, assigned the Kadu language to the Lui or Loi ${ }^{5}$ group. He said, regarding this group "... there are certain servile tribes named Lui or Loi, who have languages of their own, which are quite distinct from Meitei, and, indeed, from any other form of speech found in the State of Manipur." He compared some wordlist items and concluded that Kadu is closely connected with Andro (Undro) and Sengmai, omitting Chairel, and called them the Lui or Sak group. However, he was uncertain about whether these languages still existed in Manipur. Regarding the existence of these languages he said "I have spoken of these Loi languages as if they

[^3]were current at the present day; but this is a matter of some doubt. During the last halfcentury the influence of Meit'ei has become widely spread over the whole State, and has apparently superseded them. For our present purposes we must therefore treat them as extinct" (Grierson 1921:39).

Benedict (1972), in his grouping of Sino-Tibetan, instead of presenting a conventional language tree, placed Kachin as the centre of the geographical and linguistic diversity in the family (See Figure 10). Although many researchers and scholars today will disagree with some of Benedict's sub-group alignments, in fact, it was a commendable initial effort that introduced many newly discovered languages and gave the insight that languages can overlap and can be difficult to group. Benedict grouped Luish and Taman together. Tamans are now probably extinct but Brown (1911) did record the existence of the Taman. The village called Tamanthi, home of the Tamans, still exists today. It is located on the west bank of the upper Chindwin River but currently the people who live in Tamanthi village are all Nagas. The reason for the disappearance of the Tamans is unknown.


Figure 10: Benedict's Sino-Tibetan grouping

Shafer (1955) classified Tibeto-Burman languages into four groups; Bodic, Baric, Burmic and Karenic. He assigned Kadu and Sak under the Luish branch of the Burmic division.


Figure 11: Shafer's classification of Luish within Tibeto-Burman.

Luce (1985) published wordlists for Sak, Kanan, Kadu, Andro, Sengmai, Chairel and Taman, which he called the "Sak group." It is probably the most extensive Kadu language data that was recorded in the past. Apart from Brown's and Luce's records, there is little or no mention of Kadu in the field of linguistic studies. Luce characterised the Kadu language as being "a remarkably pure, as well as old, Tibeto-Burman type of language. I can detect little, if any, admixture of Mon-Khmer, and not very much of Burmese" (Luce 1985:43). He states that there is a recognizable phonetic connection between the Sak of Rakhine State and the Kadu and Kanan of Sagaing Division.

Matisoff (2003) has a different grouping of Sino-Tibetan languages (See Figure 12). The Nungish and Luish languages are grouped with Jingphaw. This grouping, Jingphaw-Nungish-Luish, is somewhat similar to Benedict's grouping. He recognizes the Jingphaw language as having a special contact relationship with Northern Naga. However, he also acknowledges the comparative/historical research that still needs to be done on some of the Tibeto-Burman languages. "While some branches of the family are relatively well studied, ... we have nothing approaching well-worked out reconstructions for such key subgroups as Qiangic, Baic, Luish, and Nungish" (Matisoff 2003:8). Based on my knowledge of these languages, there is an unmistakable historical connection between Jingphaw and Kadu. However, as a native speaker of Rawang (a Nungish variety), I find the connection between Nungish and Luish less promising. The morphological relationships among these languages still need to be established in order to have a clear understanding of this grouping.


Figure 12: Matisoff's Sino-Tibetan grouping

David Bradley (2002), in his classification, sub-grouped Luish under the Sal branch, the term originally proposed by Burling (1983:4), and assigned Baric, Jingphaw, and KukiChin together with Luish to this group (See Figure 13). The name for this group is derived from the word for 'sun', which in these languages is san, sal, or jan, sometimes preceded by the syllable for 'sky', which sets this group apart from other TibetoBurman languages (Burling 1983:11). The Kadu word for the 'sun' is zamík [səmık]. We may correlate the initial minor syllable as a reduced syllable of san or sal. Burling (1983) has provided a list of comparative vocabulary items which include languages such as Boro, Garo, Atong, and Wanang of the Bodo-Garo group, and Konyak, Nocte, and Tangsa of the Northern Naga group. By comparing these lexical items, it is evident that there are many lexical similarities that Kadu shares with other Sal languages. See Table 3 and also the lexical comparison of Kadu and Jingphaw in Table 1 and Table 2.

However, careful morphological analysis is needed in order to have a clearer understanding of the position of both Luish within Tibeto-Burman and the position of Kadu within Luish. It is imperative to complete an adequate grammatical description and to do a survey among this family to establish the effective criteria for sub-grouping while these languages are still spoken.


Figure 13: Bradley's classification of Tibeto-Burman

Burling (2003) classified the Kadu as belonging to the Luish group of languages and assigned it under part of the Bodo-Konyak-Jingphaw super group of TB languages. as shown in Figure 14.


Figure 14: Burling's classification of Bodo-Konyak-Jingphaw languages

Some publications on the linguistic and socio-economic life of Sak/Thet of Rakhine State and Bangladesh have been done in different languages-Bernot (1967) in French, Thun Shwe Khain (1988) in Burmese, Huziwara (2008, 2009) in Janpanese and English, and Maggard (2007) in English. The Luish wordlist Bernot compiled and presented at the end of the book was useful for comparative purposes. Thun Shwe Khain (1988), a native speaker of Burmese, provides some useful information about the socio-economic life of the Thet. He has also provided accounts of their migration and language and said that during the $9^{\text {th }}$ century Kadu and Thet were once a single group and lived in Hukawng valley in the upper reaches of Uru river in Hukaung valley in Kachin State. He said, regarding the split and migration route of the Thet and Kadu:


 యుఃలuల్ల" "[The Thet group from the upper reaches of Uru river and Hukaung valley came down along the Chindwin river and reached Manipur and Bangladesh. The Kadu group, on the other hand, reached Tagaung and from there they scattered into Katha and Myitkyina" (Thun Shwe Khai 1988:7) my translation]

Thun Shwe Khain also provided some wordlists in his book. However, his transcription lacks final consonants except the glottal stop. He noticed regular sound correspondences of the Burmese $\gg / \mathrm{t} /$ and $ə / \mathrm{kh} /$ with Thet $\left[\mathrm{s}^{\mathrm{h}}\right]$ and [h], respectively. The same phenomenon is also attested in the Kadu of Katha District.

The most recent research on Sak has been done by Huziwara and SIL International, Bangladesh. Most of Huziwara's works are in Japanese and I was not able access most of it. The only English articles I could access were "Cak prefixes (2008)" and "Cak numerals (2009)." SIL International, Bangladesh, has done a socio-linguistic survey on the Sak in Bangladesh (see Maggard 2007). In that report, it is reported that Sak in Bangladesh often refer to themselves as Chak or Chakma, which are indeed linguistically non related-representing two very different languages families, the first being a тв language and the latter being Indo-Aryan (Maggard 2007:1). The report acknowledged that the Chak in Bangladesh are the result of migration from Myanmar. Just for the sake of lexical comparison between Kadu and Sak, I have extracted some
wordlists from Maggard (2007) and Bernot (1967) and presented them in Table 5 and Table 6. Kadu wordlist items are written using the tentative Kadu orthography I have developed for this thesis (see §2.6). The Sak wordlist is presented using IPA, as it was transcribed in the source. The tones are also left out from Bernot's data. " $x$ " means no data. Table 5 compares Kadu and Sak nouns.

| Kadu | Sak, Thet or Chak |  | Gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Maggard | Bernot |  |
| $\bar{a} n$ | an | an | rice (paddy) |
| ják | jak | yә? | today |
| kā | kəd3a | ka | soil |
| kabeù | kabıık | kabi | goat |
| kaphú | kafu | kafi | snake |
| kasà | kafa | ka a | tiger |
| kweú | kəvu | kıwu | monkey |
| papá | apaing | apən่ | flower |
| phún | phuyp ${ }^{\text {h }}$ ay | phan | tree/plant |
| satá | Səda | Өada | moon |
| tángngā | tagna | tana | fish |
| wān | vain | veñ | fire |
| zamík | tfomik | čami | sun |

Table 5: Comparison of Kadu and Sak nouns

Some verbs are also compared in Table 6. It must be noted that in Maggard (2007), most, if not all, the Chak verb forms are followed by the syllables, [he], [heka] or [ga].

These are probably verbal particles. In the comparison, I have omitted those verbal particles.

| Kadu | Sak, Thet or Chak |  | Gloss |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Maggard | Bernot |  |
| $\bar{i}$ | i/i | i | give |
| ip $p$ | ik | i | sleep |
| ká | ka | ka | hot |
| lā | la | naveṅ | take |
| lī | vain | veñ | come |
| $m a \overline{ }$ | aji/as ${ }^{\text {j }} \varepsilon$ | neñ | sell |
| mí | mir | mər | buy |
| nāng | lay | lañ | go |
| $\bar{o} m$ | tou | ča | do/make |
| shí | akimay | SI | die |
| tàk | ta? | ta? | weave |
| thúng | tuy | tun | sit |
| $\bar{u}$ | u | u | drink |
| yōk | fa | ca | eat |
| $y \bar{u}$ | X | yu | look at |

Table 6: Comparison of Kadu and Sak verbs

I conducted the first socio-linguistic survey of the Kadu and Kanan people in 2003-
2004. The purpose of that survey was to gain an overview of the sociolinguistic situation among these peoples. During the trip, I visited four Kadu villages in Banmauk Township and four Kanan villages. In each site, a 436-item wordlist was gathered and sociolinguistic questionnaires were administered to understand the language vitality, attitudes towards the mother tongue, and also other related varieties and languages.

Lexical similarity among all these varieties was found to be very high ( $89-99 \%$ ).
(Dawkins 2006).

Follow-up sociolinguistic surveys were conducted in 2006 and 2008. During these trips, several Kadu leaders were interviewed. The main purpose of those surveys was to know more about the sociolinguistic situation among the Kadu and Kanan peoples and to identify people's attitudes toward each other and attitudes toward their own speech varieties. I found that both Kadu and Kanan people felt their languages and culture were related to each other, however, they also indicated that they have identities as separate groups (Sangdong 2007). Among the Kadu there are some dialect differences. The Maukhwin Kadu dialect seems to be a little different from the Kwan or Kun and Mauteik Kadu. Further research among the Maukhwin Kadu is recommended.

## CHAPTER 2: PHONOLOGY

This chapter presents an overview of the phonological structures of Kadu. The discussion is arranged in the following order: 2.1 Phonemic inventory, 2.6 Practical orthography, 2.2 Consonants, 2.3 Vowels, 2.4 Distribution of consonant and vowel phonemes, 2.5 Tones, 2.6 Practical orthography, 2.7 Syllables, and, finally, 2.8 Other phonological processes. Transcription of phonemes will be provided using / /. For clarity, if the phonemic and orthographic representation (see §2.6) are different, the latter will be provided using $<>$ brackets.

### 2.1 Phonemic inventory

2.1.1 Consonants

The consonant phoneme inventory of Kadu consists of twenty consonants. The final consonants are restricted to the nasals $/ \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{y} /$, and voiceless stops $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k} /$, and $/ \mathrm{R} /$. They are listed in Table 7 according to place (in top row) and manner (in left column) of articulation. The description of the consonants is given in $\S 2.2$.

| Manner: | Place: |  | Bilabial | Dental | Alveo- <br> palatal | Velar |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | Glottal

Table 7: Kadu consonant phonemes

### 2.1.2 Vowels

This analysis proposes that Kadu has eight vowel phonemes as shown in Table 8.

|  | Monophthongs |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Front | Central | Back |  |  |  |
| Close | i |  | Diphthong |  |  |  |
| Flose mid | e |  | u |  |  |  |
| Front | Central | Back |  |  |  |  |
| Open-mid | $\varepsilon$ |  | 0 |  |  |  |
| Open |  | a |  |  |  |  |

Table 8: Kadu vowel phonemes

[^4]Seven vowel phonemes are monophthongs and one is a diphthong. All of the monophthongs can occur with the full set of final consonants. However, the diphthong is restricted to the final $/ \mathrm{k} /$ only. See the description of vowels in $\S 2.3$.

### 2.1.3 Tones

Kadu is one of the many tonal languages spoken in Southeast Asia. Such languages make use of pitch in one form or another to distinguish between words that would otherwise be homophonous. Burquest (1998:186) asserts that "languages which make use of differences in pitch to differentiate lexical items are commonly referred to as tone languages." In other words, the pitch of the word can change the meaning of the word. Tone languages are divided into two major types. Pike (1948:4-15) used the term "register tone languages", which require the syllable to reach a certain pitch height, and "contour tone languages", which require the syllable to be said with pitch movement. "Register tone" is also used for those with phonation differences, like Burmese. The Kadu language tonal system falls into the first category.

The three tonemic distinctions occurring in Kadu involve three pitch registers. See the detailed description of tones in $\S 2.5$.

### 2.2 Consonants

The consonants are discussed in the follow order: 2.2.1 Single consonants, 2.2.2
Consonant clusters, and finally 2.2.3 Illustration of consonant contrasts.
2.2.1 Single consonants

Descriptions of single consonant phonemes are presented in the following order: 2.2.1.1 Stops, 2.2.1.2 Affricates, 2.2.1.3 Fricatives, 2.2.1.4 Nasals, and 2.2.1.5 Approximants.
2.2.1.1 Stops

The Kadu stops series demonstrates four distinctive places of articulation; bilabial, dental, velar, and glottal stop. Three series of stops-bilabial, dental, and velar occur in initial position. These series have aspiration contrasts at each place. The glottal stop /q/, which is treated as a consonant, only occurs phonemically in coda position.

### 2.2.1.1.1 Voiceless unaspirated plosives

/p/ This phoneme is realised as a voiceless unaspirated bilabial plosive. When it occurs in syllable initial position with the low tone it may be realised as the allophone [b]. It is always realised as unreleased $\left[p^{\top}\right]$ in syllable final position. It
can occur in word initial, medial, and final positions. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (8).
(8) (a) word initially

| $p \bar{i}$ | 'smooth' |
| :--- | :--- |
| pīt | 'angle' |
| pāng | 'embark' |

(b) word medially

| apai | 'tip top' |
| :--- | :--- |
| papá | 'flower' |
| lapòk | 'bamboo' |

(c) word finally

| púp | 'suck (as candy)' |
| :--- | :--- |
| lāp | 'catch' |
| $k a \bar{p} p$ | 'peel' |

/t/ This phoneme is realised as a voiceless unaspirated dental plosive. When it occurs in syllable initial position with the low tone it may be realised as the allophone [d]. It is always realised as unreleased [ $\mathrm{t}{ }^{\text {}] ~ i n ~ s y l l a b l e-f i n a l ~ p o s i t i o n . ~ I t ~}$ occurs in word initial, medial, and final positions, as illustrated in (9).
(9) (a) word initially

| tí | 'penis' |
| :--- | :--- |
| taì | 'morning' |
| taū | 'wear' |

(b) word medially

| satá | 'moon' |
| :--- | :--- |
| tatī | 'egg' |
| katù | 'forehand' |

(c) word finally

| tāt | 'release' |
| :--- | :--- |
| teút | 'listen' |
| tút | 'cut' |

/k/ This phoneme is realised as a voiceless unaspirated velar plosive. When it occurs in syllable initial position with the low tone, it may be realised as the allophone [g]. It is also realised as unreleased [ $\mathrm{k}^{\top}$ ] in syllable-final position. It can occur in word initial, medial, and final positions. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (10).
(10) (a) word initially

| $k \bar{a}$ | 'soil' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $k \bar{u}$ | 'steal' |
| $k w e u ́ ~$ | 'monkey' |

(b) word medially

| lakò | 'mirative' |
| :--- | :--- |
| pakaút | 'ladle' |
| takà | 'rice seedling' |

(c) word finally

| caík | 'cross' |
| :--- | :--- |
| hamúk | 'under' |
| mōk | 'cook' |

/?/ This phoneme, represented as $\langle\mathrm{q}\rangle$ in my Kadu orthography, is realised as a voiceless glottal plosive. It is restricted in occurrence to syllable final position only. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (11).

| (11)cīnúq | 'earthworm' |
| :--- | :--- |
| îkúq | 'scarab beetle's egg' |
| panáq | 'nominaliser' |

### 2.2.1.1.2 Voiceless aspirated plosives

$/ \mathrm{p}^{\mathrm{h}} /$ This phoneme, represented as $<\mathrm{ph}>$ in my Kadu orthography, is realised as a voiceless aspirated bilabial plosive. It does not show any allophonic variation and can occur word initially and medially. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (12).
(12) (a) word initially

| phí | 'sling' |
| :--- | :--- |
| phú | 'silver/money' |
| phón | 'wood' |
| phít | 'sprinkle' |

(b) word medially

| kapheú | 'lizard |
| :--- | :--- |
| kaphú | 'snake' |
| taphā | 'foot' |

$/ \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}}$ / This phoneme, represented as <th> in my Kadu orthography, is realised as a voiceless aspirated dental plosive. It does not show any allophonic variation and can occur word initially and medially. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (13).
(13) (a) word initially

| theù | 'thick' |
| :--- | :--- |
| thī | 'scoop' |
| thām | 'near' |
| thōk | 'arrive' |

(b) word medially

| katháng | 'fire fly' |
| :--- | :--- |
| katháp | 'stack' |
| tathú | 'knee' |
| yathú | 'axe' |

$/ \mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}$. This phoneme, represented as <kh> in my Kadu orthography, is realised as a voiceless aspirated velar plosive. This phoneme appears mostly with Burmese loanwords, does not show any allophonic variation, and can occur word initially and medially. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (14).

| (14) | khō | \% < hkou> | 'pigeon' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | khwák | จโ์ <hkwak> | 'mug' |
|  | takhó | บัลั: [thuhkou:](thuhkou:) | 'thief' |
|  | takhin | วัač <thahkang> | 'master' |

### 2.2.1.2 Affricates

/tç/ This phoneme, represented as <c> in my Kadu orthography, is realised as a voiceless unaspirated alveo-palatal affricate. It does not show any allophonic variation and occurs word initially and medially. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (15).
(15) (a) word initially

| ceú | 'buffalo' |
| :--- | :--- |
| cī | 'dog' |
| caìk | 'mango' |
| céng | 'letter' |

(b) word medially
aсеи́ 'vomit'
ací 'elephant'
nacá 'carefully'
sací 'centipede’
$/ t \mathrm{c}^{\mathrm{h}} /$ This phoneme, represented as <ch> in my Kadu orthography, is realised as a voiceless aspirated alveo-palatal affricate. It does not show any allophonic
variation and can occur word initially and medially. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (16).
(16) (a) word initially

| chí | 'sour' |
| :--- | :--- |
| chī | 'excrement' |
| ch $\bar{o}$ | 'bamboo inner layer' |

(b) word medially

| achí | 'muntjac deer' |
| :--- | :--- |
| achì | 'chew' |
| achìn | 'shake off' |

### 2.2.1.3 Fricatives

$/ \mathrm{s}^{\mathrm{h}} / \quad$ This phoneme, represented as $<\mathrm{s}>$ in my Kadu orthography, is realised as a voiceless aspirated dental fricative. It does not show any allophonic variation and can occur word initially and medially. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (17).
(17) (a) word initially

| sā | 'son' |
| :--- | :--- |
| saú | 'collect' |
| sín | 'spicy' |
| sún | 'sew' |

(b) word medially

| kasà | 'tiger' |
| :--- | :--- |
| kasù | 'gibbon' |
| kasín | 'cold' |
| pasát | 'carp (fish)' |

/s/ This phoneme, represented as $\langle\mathrm{z}\rangle$ in my Kadu orthography, is realised as a voiceless dental fricative. It does not show any allophonic variation and can occur word initially and medially. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (18).
(18) (a) word initially

| $z \bar{a}$ | 'build' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $z i ́$ | 'finish' |
| zán | 'younger sister' |
| $z \bar{a} p$ | 'stand' |

(b) word medially

| mazí | 'gums' |
| :--- | :--- |
| kazeú | 'wash' |
| azàn | 'pity' |
| pazàt | 'crumble' |

/ $¢$ / This phoneme, represented as < sh > in my Kadu orthography, is realised as a voiceless alveo-palatal fricative and occurs word initially and medially. This tongue position is lower when occurring with low back vowels. This phoneme is illustrated in (19).
(19) (a) word initially

| shā | 'small' |
| :--- | :--- |
| shī | 'medicine' |
| shīm | 'cold' |
| shāng | 'novice' |

(b) word medially

| ashì | 'sister-in-law' |
| :--- | :--- |
| washì | 'comb' |
| lashíng | 'seabean seed' |
| mashaúk | 'since that time' |

/h/ This phoneme is realised as a voiceless glottal fricative. It can occur word initially and medially. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (20).
(20) (a) word initial

| hā | 'be hit' |
| :--- | :--- |
| heú | 'tell' |
| hīng | 'he/she' |
| hōm | 'confine' |

(b) word medially

| ahà | 'chin' |
| :--- | :--- |
| aheú | 'scratch' |
| kahún | 'termite' |
| pahángchāng | 'friend' |

This phoneme $/ \mathrm{h} /$, when preceded by stops $/ \mathrm{t} /$ or $/ \mathrm{k} /$, has the allophone $\left[\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}\right]$. I will use the post-verbal modifier háng, glossed as 'back' or 'again', to illustrate this. The examples in (21a) illustrate this term following open syllables and nasal finals. The examples in (21b) illustrate it following stop finals.
(21) (a) combining háng with open and nasal finals

| $l i ̄$ | + | háng | $>$ | lîháng | 'come back/again' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mí | $+$ | háng | $>$ | míháng | 'buy again' |
| $\bar{o} m$ | + | háng | $>$ | ōmháng | 'do again' |
| kaūng | + | háng | $>$ | kaūngháng | 'step on again' |
| combining háng with /t/ and /k/ stop finals |  |  |  |  |  |
| hit | + | háng | $>$ | hïtkháng | 'hook again' |
| kát | $+$ | háng | $>$ | kátkháng | 'run again' |
| yōk | $+$ | háng | $>$ | yōkkháng | 'eat again' |
| hák | $+$ | háng | $>$ | hákkháng | 'shout again' |

2.2.1.4 Nasals

The nasal phonemes occur at bilabial, dental, palatal, and velar places of articulation.
/m/ This phoneme is realised as a voiced bilabial nasal. It does not show any allophonic variation and can occur word initially, medially and finally. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (22).
(22) (a) word initially

| mā | 'sell' |
| :--- | :--- |
| meú | 'good' |
| mīn | 'awake' |
| mít | 'to love' |

(b) word medially

| amú | 'older brother' |
| :--- | :--- |
| kamà | 'wound' |
| hamúk | 'beneath, under' |
| samón | 'monk' |

(c) word finally

| $\bar{o} m$ | 'do, make' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\bar{u} m$ | 'swell' |
| ním | 'stay' |
| tām | 'search' |

/n/ This phoneme is realised as a voiced dental nasal. This does not show any allophonic variation and can occur word initially, medially and finally. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (23).
(23) (a) word initially

| $n a ́$ | 'be able' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $n \bar{q}$ | 'lazy' |
| $n \bar{o} m$ | 'soft' |
| $n \bar{o} p$ | 'bury' |

(b) word medially

| kaná | 'ear' |
| :--- | :--- |
| nanù | 'animal' |
| hanīng | 'they (3PL)' |
| panaù | 'mix' |

(c) word finally

| ān | 'paddy' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ín | 'negative particle' |
| kán | 'bite' |
| món | 'happy' |

/n/ This phoneme, represented as <ny> in my Kadu orthography, is realised as a voiced alveo-palatal nasal. It occurs in syllable initial position only. It frequently occurs in Burmese loanwords. The examples in (24a) illustrate /ny/ occurring in word initial position and the examples in (24b) illustrate some Burmese loanwords.
(24) (a) word initially

| nyón | 'to swallow' |
| :--- | :--- |
| nyeút | 'twist (rope)' |
| nyínphān | 'miss' |

(b) Burmese loanwords

| nyān | 'brain, wise' |
| :--- | :--- |
| nyeúp | 'clip' |
| nyít | 'squeeze' |

$/ \mathrm{y} / \quad$ This phoneme, represented as $<\mathrm{ng}>$ in my Kadu orthography, is realised as a voiced velar nasal. This does not show any allophonic variation and can occur word initially, medially, and finally. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (25).
(25) (a) word initially

| ngaú | 'say' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ngóm | 'keep in mouth' |
| ngàt | 'break' |

(b) word medially

| túngngú | 'bee' |
| :--- | :--- |
| tángngā | 'fish' |
| tūngngāk | 'to bow' |

(c) word finally

| míng | 'ripe' |
| :--- | :--- |
| tāng | 'knife' |
| sāng | 'enter' |

### 2.2.1.5 Approximants

Kadu has one lateral approximant phoneme and two central approximant phonemes. The articulation of the lateral approximant is apical alveolar, but it will be treated phonologically as dental to accord with the phonemes of other series having a dental articulation. The two central approximants are the palatal $/ \mathrm{y} /$ and the labial-velar $/ \mathrm{w} /$.

The palatal $/ \mathrm{y} /$ involves an articulation similar to the high front vowel $/ \mathrm{i} /$, with the front of the tongue close to the palate; the labial-velar $/ \mathrm{w} /$ is similar to $/ \mathrm{u} /$, with rounded lips and the back of the tongue raised toward the velum.
/1/ This phoneme is realised as a voiced dental lateral approximant. It does not show any allophonic variation and can occur word initially and medially. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (26).
(26) (a) word initially

| lā | 'take' |
| :--- | :--- |
| lī | 'come' |
| lōn | 'mud' |
| lúng | 'white' |

(b) word medially

| halá | 'husband' |
| :--- | :--- |
| kalùn | 'tree' or 'plant' |
| palán | 'middle' |
| salóng | 'mat' |

/y/ This phoneme is realised as a voiced alveo-palatal approximant [j]. It can occur word initially and medially. It also occurs as the second member of an initial consonant cluster (§2.2.2). See the illustrations of this phoneme in (27).
(27) (a) word initially

| yá | 'bright' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $y \bar{u}$ | 'look' |
| $y i ̄ m$ | 'catch' |
| yēk | 'hill field' |

(b) word medially

| nayá | 'new' |
| :--- | :--- |
| zayà | 'some' |
| ayàn | 'poor' |
| nayóng | 'great grandchild' |

/w/ This phoneme is realised as a voiced labio-velar approximant. It does not show any allophonic variation and can occur word initially and medially. See the illustrations of this phoneme in (28). It also occurs as the second member of an initial consonant cluster (§2.2.2).
(28) (a) word initially

| wá | 'jump down' |
| :--- | :--- |
| weú | 'water' |
| wān | 'fire' |
| wángshì | 'uncle' |

(b) word medially

| awā | 'father' |
| :--- | :--- |
| kawàn | 'immediate future marker' |
| nawáng | 'sister-in-law' |

There are not many consonant clusters attested in Kadu. The two glides $/ \mathrm{w} / \mathrm{and} / \mathrm{y} /$ may occur as initial consonants or as the second consonant in an initial cluster. See the distribution of consonant and vowel phonemes in $\S 2.4$. There are no final consonant clusters. The occurence of these two phonemes is also common in Burmese loanwords. They are treated as consonant clusters because in Burmese they were historically treated that way. The phoneme /w/ occurring as the second element in an initial consonant cluster is shown in (29a) and $/ \mathrm{y} /$ in (29b).
(29) (a) consonant clusters with $/ \mathrm{w} /$

| aswē | зә600 <ahswei> | 'friend' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| atwák | з๐¢ई <atwak> | 'for' |
| kókweū | ¢̊:mu์ [kou:kwe](kou:kwe) | 'worship' |
| sweú | ®̀ [swe:](swe:) | 'obsess' |
| thwáng | @č: [htwang:](htwang:) | 'carve' or 'clear' |

(b) consonant clusters with $/ \mathrm{y} /$

| myān | ©¢ $<$ <mran> | 'fast' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nyān | एつई్ఱ <njan> | 'brain' |
| nyī | $\sum^{2}<$ jil | 'younger brother' |
| pyān | OS¢ <pran> | 'happy' |

2.2.3 Illustration of consonant contrasts

The following minimal pairs demonstrate voiceless unaspirated vs. voiceless aspirated stop contrasts.

| /p/ vs. /ph/ | pí <br> paú | 'year' <br> 'dye' | phí <br> phaú | 'sling' <br> 'wash' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /k/ vs. /kh/ | teú | 'wait' | theú | 'thick' |
|  | tóng | 'big' | thóng | 'sit' |
|  | kán | 'bad' | khán | 'room' |
|  | 'body' | khō | 'pigeon' |  |

The following minimal pairs demonstrate contrasts between voiceless unaspirated stops.

| /p/ vs. /t/ | paū | 'collapse' | $t a \bar{u}$ | 'wear' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | káp | 'shoot' | kát | 'run' |
| /p/ vs. /k/ | $p \bar{u}$ | 'emerge' | $k \bar{u}$ | 'steal' |
|  | páp | 'been' | pák | 'vagina' |
| /p/ vs. /q/ | náp | 'strips' | anáq | 'this' |
|  | kúp | 'gulp down' | îkúq | 'beetle's egg' |
| /t/ vs. /k/ | $t \bar{a}$ | 'leg' | $k \bar{\square}$ | 'earth' or 'soil' |
|  | tút | 'cut' | kūt | 'play' |
| /t/ vs. /q/ | kūt | 'play | īkúq | 'beetle's egg' |
|  | leùtshíng | 'seabean' | aleúq | 'portion' |
| /k/ vs. /q/ | shîk | 'CFP' | īshíq | 'girl' |
|  | kōk | 'smear' | îkúq | 'beetle's egg' |

The following minimal pairs demonstrate contrasts between voiceless aspirated stops. As I have already mentioned, there are no native Kadu words that begin with $/ \mathrm{kh} /$.

However, with Burmese loanwords it appears frequently. I have included several here for comparison.

| /ph/ vs. /th/ | pheú <br> kaphú | 'carry' <br> 'snake' | theú <br> tathú | 'widen' <br> 'knee' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /th/ vs. /kh/ vs. /kh/ | phaú <br> phát | 'wash' | khā̄ <br> 'wither' | khát |

The following minimal pairs demonstrate aspiration contrasts between palatal-alveolar affricates and aspirated stops.

| /c/ vs. /ch/ | cī | 'dog' | chī | 'excrement' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cìt | 'pluck', | chít | 'hardly' |  |
| /ch/ vs. /ph/ | chí | 'sour', | phí | 'sling' |
|  | técháng | 'song' | sìnphāng | 'grubbing hoe' |

The following minimal pairs demonstrate contrasts between fricatives.

| /s/ vs. /z/ | sāā | 'son' | zā | 'be far' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sák | 'rest' | zák | 'be caught' |  |
| /s/ vs. /sh/ | sā | 'son' | shā | 'small' |
|  | sīm | 'mess' | shīm | 'cold' |


| /s/ vs. /h/ | $s \bar{a}$ | 'son' | $h a ̄$ | 'walk' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | sin | 'iron' | hīn | 'tease' |
| /z/ vs. /sh/ | zí | 'finish' | shí | 'die' |
|  | zīng | 'ask' | shīng | 'tie' |
| /z/ vs. /h/ | $z \bar{a}$ | 'be far' | $h a ̄$ | 'walk' |
|  | záng | 'put in' | háng | 'sharp' |
| /sh/ vs. /h/ | shā | 'small' | $h \bar{a}$ | 'walk' |
|  | shing | 'tie' | hīng | '2SG' |

The following minimal or near minimal pairs demonstrate phonemic contrasts between nasals which occur at four places of articulation; bilabial, dental, palatal, and velar.

| /m/ vs. $/ \mathrm{n} /$ | mí | 'buy' | ní | 'laugh' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nám | 'smelly' | nán | 'daughter-in-law' |  |

The phoneme /ny/ is attested occurring mostly with Burmese loanwords. See the illustrations of contrast between $/ \mathrm{m} /$ and $/ \mathrm{ny} /$.

| /m/ vs. /ny/ | meūt <br> mān | 'change' <br> 'distribute' | nyeút <br> nyān | 'sticky' <br> 'brain' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| /n/ vs. /ng/ | ná | 'able to' | ngá | 'steam' |
| zán | 'sister' | záng | 'put in' |  |
|  | nón | 'mix' | nyón | 'swallow' |
|  | nik | 'leech' | nyìt | 'quarrel' |

The following minimal pairs demonstrate phonemic contrasts between lateral and central approximants occurring word initially.

| /w/ vs. /l/ | weú | 'water' | leú | 'ox cart' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wā | 'plait' | lā | 'take' |  |
| /w/ vs. /y/ | weú | 'water' | yeú | 'get up' |
| wàk vs. /y/ | 'pig' | yàk | 'now' |  |
|  | lā | 'take' | yá | 'bring' |
|  | lēk | 'askew' | yēk | 'hill field' |

### 2.3 Vowels

As I have already stated in §2.1.2, there are eight vowel phonemes, $/ \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{e}, \varepsilon, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{o} /$ and /ai/, in Kadu which are represented as $<\mathrm{i}$, e, eu, a, u, o, au>, and <ai> in my orthographic representation. Seven are monophthongs and one is a diphthong. They can be further divided into three front vowels (§2.3.1), two central vowels (§2.3.2), and three back vowels (§2.3.3). The three front vowels are a close front unrounded vowel, a close mid unrounded vowel, and an open mid-front unrounded vowel. The three back vowels are a close back rounded vowel, a close-mid back rounded vowel, and an openmid back rounded vowel. The two central vowels include one monphthong and one diphthong. There is no phonological contrastive vowel length in Kadu. The syllables that have final stop codas tend to have shorter vowels than the syllables that have nasal codas. This vowel length variation differs from speaker to speaker. Generally a vowel in
a clearly closed syllable with high tone may be pronounced shorter than a vowel in a clearly open syllable.

### 2.3.1 Front vowels

The description of front vowel phonemes is presented in this section.
/i/ This phoneme is realised as a high front unrounded vowel. It has the allophone [r] when it occurs in syllables closed with stops. See the illustrations of this vowel in (30).
(30). (a) with open syllables

| $\bar{i}$ | 'give' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $m i ́$ | 'buy' |
| $t i ̄$ | 'sweet' |

(b) with closed syllables

| cīt | 'come close' |
| :--- | :--- |
| mít | 'love' |
| típ | 'pack' |

/e/ This phoneme is realised as a close-mid front unrounded vowel. It occurs both with open and closed syllables. However, it is never attested alone as a word, except in the exclamation é. This vowel becomes a front diphthong [ei] when it occurs in closed syllables with the final $/ \mathrm{k} /$ and in a few cases with $/ \mathrm{ng} /$. See the illustrations of this vowel phoneme in (31).
(31) (a) with open syllables

| até | 'sister' |
| :--- | :--- |
| salē | 'animal skin' |
| $t \bar{e}$ | 'plural marker' |

(b) with closed syllables

| ēk | 'wife' |
| :--- | :--- |
| nèk | 'heavy' |
| téng | 'transplant' |
| satēng | 'thatch' |
| phéng | 'full' |

/eu/ This phoneme is realised as a mid-open front unrounded vowel [ $\varepsilon$ ]. It can occur both in open and closed syllables. However, it is never attested occurring alone as a word except in the Burmese loanword eú 'that'. This phoneme does not show any allophonic variation. See the illustrations of this vowel in (32).
(32) (a) with open syllables

| ceú | 'buffalo' |
| :--- | :--- |
| heú | 'resin' |
| meú | 'good' |

(b) with closed syllables
heūn 'reluctant'
peùt 'lie'
teúp 'throw'

### 2.3.2 Low central vowels

The descriptions of the central vowel phonemes /a/ and /ai/ are presented in this section.
/a/ This phoneme is realised as a low central unrounded vowel. It occurs both in open and closed syllables. The vowel length tends to be shorter with final stops particularly with high tone. However, there is no evidence to suggest that there is any contrastive or meaningful difference in vowel length. It often appears in the initial weak syllable of sesquisyllabic words (§2.7.2). See the illustration of this vowel in (33).
(33) (a) with open syllables

| $a h \bar{a}$ | 'crab' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $k \bar{a}$ | 'soil' |
| $m \bar{a}$ | 'sell' |

(b) with closed syllables

| hān | 'flow down' |
| :--- | :--- |
| kám | 'lay' |
| sāk | 'itch' |

/ai/ This phoneme is realised as a diphthong which begins from a low unrounded central vowel and moves toward a high front vowel. It can occur in open syllables, with a restricted set of words with final $/ \mathrm{k} /$, and in a few cases with final $/ \mathrm{ng} /$. See the illustrations of this vowel in (34).
(34) (a) with open syllables

| apaí | 'tree top' |
| :--- | :--- |
| waí | 'rattan' |
| taì | 'morning' |

(b) with closed syllables

| caík | 'exchange' |
| :--- | :--- |
| haîk | 'ablative marker' |
| phaing | 'dam' |

### 2.3.3 Back vowels

/u/ This phoneme is realised as a back close rounded vowel. It doesn't show any allophonic variation. It can occur alone as a stem and also in open and closed syllables. See the illustrations of this vowel in (35).
(35) (a) with open syllables

| $\bar{u}$ | 'drink' or 'fowl' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $h \bar{u}$ | 'burn' |
| kasù | 'gibbon' |

(b) with closed syllables

| húp | 'peel' |
| :--- | :--- |
| katùng | 'see' |
| tūm | 'clench' |

/o/ This phoneme is realised as a back mid close rounded vowel. It doesn't show any allophonic variation and may occur in both open and closed syllables. This vowel appears the least of the seven vowels. See the illustrations of this vowel in (36).
(36) (a) with open syllables

| ch $\bar{o}$ | 'outer layer of bamboo' |
| :--- | :--- |
| pò | 'exist' |
| thō | 'push' |

(b) with closed syllables

| halóng | 'small mat' |
| :--- | :--- |
| hōk | 'pull off' or 'six' |
| zón | 'leak' |

/au/ This phoneme is realised as a back mid open rounded vowel. It does not show any allophonic variation and can occur in both open and closed syllables. See the illustrations of this vowel in (37)
(37) (a) with open syllables

| haū | 'strike' |
| :--- | :--- |
| maú | 'plump' |
| taù | 'perforate' |

(b) with closed syllables

| haút | 'dig (by animals)' |
| :--- | :--- |
| maún | 'pillow' |
| paúngká | 'basket' |

### 2.3.4 Illustration of vowel contrasts

The following minimal or near minimal pairs of words demonstrate vowel contrasts.

| /i/ vs. /e/ | tí thing | 'penis' <br> 'village' | até <br> thèng | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 'sister' } \\ & \text { 'deep' } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| /i/ vs. /eu/ | $\begin{gathered} \text { mí } \\ \text { hīn } \end{gathered}$ | 'buy' <br> 'tease' | meú <br> heūn | 'good' <br> 'reluctant' |
| /i/ vs. /a/ | $t i ̄$ ním | 'sweet' <br> 'stay' | $t \bar{a}$ <br> nám | 'leg' 'smelly' |
| /i/ vs. /u/ | $\bar{i}$ <br> míng | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 'give' } \\ & \text { 'ripe' } \end{aligned}$ | $\bar{u}$ múng | 'drink' 'hornet' |
| /i/ vs. /o/ | chī <br> halíng | 'true' <br> 'behind' | chō <br> halóng | 'bamboo skin 'small mat' |
| /e/ vs. /eu/ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { até } \\ & \text { sēt } \end{aligned}$ | 'sister' <br> 'sleeping area' | teú <br> seūt | 'wait' <br> 'scatter seed' |
| /e/ vs. /u/ | até sèk | 'sister' <br> 'person’ | tú <br> súk | 'language' <br> 'bark' |


| /e/ vs. /o/ | ēk | 'wife' | òkshī 'uncle' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| zèk | 'bite' | zōk | 'transplant' |

In summary, Kadu vowel phonemes are simple and this study proposes eight vowel phonemes. The only diphthong is $/ \mathrm{ai} /$; the rest are monophthongs. There are no vowel sequences in Kadu, therefore choosing $<\mathrm{au}>$ and $<\mathrm{eu}>$ to represent $/ \mathrm{\rho} /$ and $/ \varepsilon /$ does not cause any ambiguity. It is rare to find a vowel appearing alone as a stem, except for a few occurrences of $/ \mathrm{i} /$ and $/ \mathrm{u} /$, in this language. The vowel $/ \mathrm{i} /$ as a stem, as in $\overline{\bar{l}}$ 'give',
appeared only one time in my corpus. The vowel $\bar{u}$ appeared three times, two sharing the same tone as in $\bar{u}$ 'chicken' and 'drink', and the other with high tone $u$ 'deep'. The vowel /a/ is the most common vowel of all.

### 2.4 Distribution of consonant and vowel phonemes

Table 9 presents the distribution of initial consonants and vowels. The symbol "+" indicates occurrences, whereas, the highlighted blank indicates no occurrences. The symbol " + " in ( ) brackets indicates occurrences found only with loanwords. According to Table 9, we can conclude that $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{ph}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{h} /$, and $/ \mathrm{l} / \mathrm{can}$ occur with all the vowels while /th, $\mathrm{z}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{c} /$, and $/ \mathrm{y} /$ occur with all the monothongs. The consonants $/ \mathrm{kh} /$ and /ny/ occur mainly in Burmese loanwords except in nyón 'swallow', which does not resemble Burmese or Tai. The consonants $/ \mathrm{k} /$ and $/ \mathrm{ng} /$ do not occur with front vowels. The glide $/ \mathrm{w} /$ is not attested occurring with back vowels and $/ \mathrm{sh} /$ is not attested occuring with /eu, $\mathrm{u} /$, or /ai/.

|  | $\mathbf{i}$ | e | eu | a | $\mathbf{u}$ | $\mathbf{o}$ | au | ai |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathbf{p h}$ | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| th | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |  |
| ch | + | + |  | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | $(+)$ |  |
| kh |  | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | $(+)$ |  |
| p | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| t | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| c | + | + | + | + | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | $(+)$ | + |
| k |  |  |  | + | + | + | + |  |
| m | + | $(+)$ | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| $\mathbf{n}$ | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| ny | $(+)$ |  | $(+)$ | $(+)$ |  | + | $(+)$ |  |
| ng |  |  | $(+)$ | + |  | + | + |  |
| s | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | $(+)$ |
| sh | + | + |  | + |  | + | + |  |
| $\mathbf{z}$ | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |  |
| h | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| $\mathbf{w}$ | + | $(+)$ | + | + |  |  |  | + |
| $\mathbf{y}$ | + | + | + | + | + | $(+)$ | + |  |
| $\mathbf{l}$ | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |

Table 9: Distribution of initial consonants and vowels

The final consonants, as mentioned above, are restricted to the unaspirated stops $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}$, and $\mathrm{k} /$, and the nasals $/ \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n} /$, and $/ \mathrm{ng} /$ serial. Table 10 presents the distribution of final consonants and vowels in Kadu.

| $\mathbf{i}$ | e | eu | a | $\mathbf{u}$ | $\mathbf{o}$ | au | ai |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| + | + | + | + | + | + | + |  | p |
| + | + | + | + | + | + | + |  | t |
| + | + |  | + | + | + | + | + | k |
| + | + | + | + | + | + | + |  | $\mathbf{p}$ |
| + |  | + | + | + | + |  |  | m |
| + |  | + | + | + | + | + |  | n |
| + | + |  | + |  | + | + | + | ng |

Table 10: Distribution of final consonants and vowels

Referring to Table 10, it can be summarised that the vowel/e/ never occurs with $/ \mathrm{m} /$ or $/ \mathrm{n}$, the vowel /eu/ never occurs with $/ \mathrm{k} /$ or $/ \mathrm{ng} /$, the vowel $/ \mathrm{u} /$ never occurs preceding $/ \mathrm{ng} /$, and the diphthong /ai/ occurs only with consonant final $/ \mathrm{k} /$ and $/ \mathrm{ng} /$.

As mentioned above, the two approximants $/ \mathrm{y} /$ and $/ \mathrm{w} /$ can occur as the second member of initial consonant clusters (§2.2.1.5). The distribution of these two consonants is given in Table 11.

|  | -y | -w |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| ph | + | + |
| th |  | + |
| ch |  |  |
| kh |  | + |
| p | + | + |
| $\mathbf{t}$ |  | + |
| $\mathbf{c}$ |  | + |
| k |  | + |
| $\mathbf{m}$ | + | + |


|  | -y | $-w$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| n |  | + |
| ny |  |  |
| ng |  | + |
| s |  | + |
| sh |  | + |
| z |  | + |
| h |  |  |
| y |  | + |
| $\mathbf{l}$ |  | + |

Table 11: Distribution of the medials with different consonants

Table 11 shows that $/ \mathrm{y} /$ is restricted to occurring with the labials $/ \mathrm{ph} /, / \mathrm{p} /$, and $/ \mathrm{m} /$ and $/ \mathrm{w} /$ can occur with almost all the consonants except $/ \mathrm{ch} /$, /ny/, and $/ \mathrm{h} /$. It must be noted that most of the consonant clusters occur in Burmese loanwords.

The distribution of attested complex consonant onsets and vowels is illustrated in Table 12.

|  | i | e | eu | a | u | o | au | ai |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| phy | + | + | + | + |  |  |  |  |
| py |  |  |  | + | + | + | + |  |
| my | + | + | + | + |  | + | + | + |
| phw |  | + |  | + |  |  |  |  |
| thw |  |  |  | + |  |  |  |  |
| khw |  |  | + | + |  |  |  |  |
| pw |  |  | + | + |  |  |  |  |
| tw |  | + | + | + |  |  |  |  |
| cw |  | + | + | + |  |  |  |  |
| kw |  |  | + | + |  |  |  |  |
| mw |  | + |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| nw |  | + | + |  |  |  |  |  |
| sw |  | + | + | + |  |  |  |  |
| shw |  | + |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| zw |  |  | + |  |  |  |  |  |
| yw |  | + |  | + |  |  |  |  |
| lw |  |  |  | + |  |  |  | + |

Table 12: Distribution of initial consonant clusters and vowels

Table 12 shows that the cluster/py/ occurs only with the back vowels but/phy/ occurs only with the front vowels and $/ \mathrm{a} /$. The cluster $/ \mathrm{my} /$ occurs with all the vowels except
$/ \mathrm{u} /$. All other clusters tend to occur only with front vowels. The central low vowel is the most common vowel to occur with initial consonant clusters.

### 2.5 Tones

This thesis proposes that Kadu has phonemic contrasts between high, mid, and low tones occurring on all vowels and on all syllable types. Phonetically, the high toneme is realised at a pitch level of [ $\left.{ }^{55}\right]$ to $\left[{ }^{44}\right]$ or $\left[{ }^{45}\right]$ to [ $\left[44\right.$; the mid toneme has its focus at $\left[{ }^{33}\right]$, but may be as low as $\left[{ }^{22}\right]$ and the low toneme is realised at a pitch level ranging from $[22]$ to [ $\left.{ }^{11}\right]$. For the reason of simplification only one realisation is proposed for each toneme. Mid tone is the most common tone in this language.

In order to show three tonal distinctions, I have analysed two sets of tonal triplets-one with open syllable words and the other with closed syllable with nasal final words. However, I am not very certain about having three tonal contrasts with stop finals. I need to do further research and collect more data to prove whether we can establish three tonal distinctions or simply two with stop finals. All data for this analysis come from a male Kadu speaker, age 38, from Settau village. The pitch patterns are extracted using the Praat_win98. I have first analysed the pitch patterns of individual tones and shown the three constrastive three tonal pitch patterns at the end of this section.

### 2.5.1 High tone

The acute tone symbol, represented here with the low central vowel /á/, represents the high tone, as in atá $\left[\partial \operatorname{ta}^{55}\right]$ 'cooked rice'. The high-toned vowels are articulated with greater force of breath and are heard as tense and short (creaky phonation).

Phonetically, the high tone in monosyllablic (whether closed or open) words and the final syllable of multisyllabic words starts at $\left[{ }^{55}\right]$ and slightly falls down to $\left[{ }^{44}\right]$ at its end point (see Figure 15) or may start at $\left[{ }^{[44}\right]$ and go slightly higher to [ ${ }^{55}$ ] and fall slightly to [ ${ }^{44}$ ] as with an open syllable word há 'red' in Figure 16.


Figure 15: A pitch pattern of a closed syllable word with a high tone: sín 'spicy’


Figure 16: A pitch pattern of an open syllable word with a high tone: há 'red'

This tone can occur in both open and closed syllables. Some examples of high tone with open and closed syllables are given in (38).
(38) (a) high tone with open syllables

| ní | 'laugh' |
| :--- | :--- |
| heú | 'tell' |
| até | 'sister' |
| amú | 'older brother' |

(b) high tone with closed syllables

| míng | 'ripe' |
| :--- | :--- |
| káp | 'shoot' |
| halíng | 'behind' |
| samón | 'monk' |

### 2.5.2 Mid tone

The macron tone symbol $/ \overline{\mathrm{a}} /$ represents the mid tone as in $t \bar{a}\left[\mathrm{ta}^{33}\right]$ 'leg'. Phonetically, the mid tone $\left[{ }^{33}\right]$ starts at the middle of the voice range and may stay relatively the same through its end point as in Figure 18 or may go slightly lower as in Figure 17.


Figure 17: A pitch pattern of a closed syllable word with a mid tone: sinn 'iron'


Figure 18: A pitch pattern of an open syllable word with a mid tone,: hā 'bitter'

This tone can occur in both open and closed syllables. Some examples of the mid tone with open and closed syllables are given in (39).
(39) (a) mid tone with open syllables

| $\bar{u}$ | 'chicken' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $h e \bar{u}$ | 'climb' |
| $a h \bar{a}$ | 'crab' |
| halū | 'round (object)' |

(b) mid tone with closed syllables

| ann | 'paddy rice' |
| :--- | :--- |
| hīn | 'tease' |
| tāng | 'knife' |
| tōp | 'stab' |

2.5.3 Low tone

The grave tone symbol, /à/, represents the low tone as in achì $\left[\partial t \varphi^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{i}^{2}\right.$ ] 'chew'.
Phonetically, the low tone starts at a low position of the voice range $\left[{ }^{2}\right]$ and may fall slightly to extra low, $\left[^{1}\right]$, at the end point.


Figure 19: A pitch pattern of a closed syllable word with a low tone,: sìn 'heart'


Figure 20: A pitch pattern of an open syllable word with a low tone: hà 'heart'

This tone can occur in both open and closed syllables. Some examples of the low tone in open and closed syllables are given as (40).
(40) (a) low tone with open syllables

| neù | 'taro' |
| :--- | :--- |
| taì | 'morning' |
| ahà | 'chin' |
| takà | 'rice seedling' |

(b) low tone with closed syllables

| cìn | 'cucumber' |
| :--- | :--- |
| hàt | 'bed bug' |
| hamòk | 'sky' |
| kalàng | 'approximate' |

### 2.5.4 Illustration of tonal contrasts

Three tonal contrast distinctions are found in Kadu. Alhough the three tonal distinctions are much more common in open syllables, they are also found with closed syllables.


Figure 21: Pitch patterns of minimal tone triplets (closed syllable words)


Figure 22: Pitch patterns of minimal tone triplets (open syllable words)

Table 13 illustrates a set of minimal triplets with open syllables that demonstrate all three tone contrasts.

| High |  | Mid |  | Low |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| shí | 'die' | shī | 'medicine' | shì | 'four' |
| há | 'red' | hā | 'bitter' | hà | 'know how' |
| meú | 'good' | mē̄ | 'CLF.female' | meù | 'choose' |
| taú | 'carry' | ta $\bar{u}$ | 'wear' | taù | 'perforate' |
| tú | 'language' | tū | 'CLF.round' | tù | 'grow' |

Table 13: Kadu three-fold tonal contrasts with open syllables

The Table 14 illustrates a set of minimal triplets with nasal finals.

|  |  | High | Mid |  | Low |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| céng | 'letter' | cēng | 'rattan' | cèng | 'roll' |  |
| máng | 'daytime' | māng | 'pride' | màng | 'thing' |  |
| náng | 'compress' | nāng | 'go' | nàng | 'stiff' |  |
| pón | 'muddy' | pōn | 'teem' | pòn | 'shrivel' |  |
| sín | 'spicy' | sin | 'iron' | sìn | 'mind' |  |
| zán | 'sister' | zān | 'levitate' | zàn | 'mirror' |  |

Table 14: Kadu three-fold tonal contrasts with nasal finals

Some three-fold minimal contrasts with stop finals have also been attested. These are exemplified in Table 15.

| High |  | Mid |  | Low |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kák | 'want' | kāk | 'taut' | kàk | 'open up' |
| pók | 'help' | pōk | 'hatch' | pòk | 'CLF.bamboo' |
| káp | 'shoot' | kāp | 'beat' | kàp | 'prepare' |
| zúp | 'suck' | $z \bar{o} p$ | 'test' | zòp | 'join' |
| peút | 'eight' | peūt | 'overflow' | peùt | 'lie' |

Table 15: Kadu three-fold tonal contrasts with stop finals

### 2.6 Practical orthography

The Kadu have never had a writing system of their own. There are, however, a few selfappointed individuals who are making some attempts to develop a writing system. One individual based in Indau Township created a script largely based on phonetic symbols with a mixture of Roman letters (Figure 23). He probably used the Mauteik Kadu variety as the base for his orthography, as he belongs to that group. He has produced a
few reading materials based on this script, most of which are mere translations of Burmese phrases or comparisons of these two languages. It must be noted that there are a lot of controversies regarding this script in other Kadu communities.


Vowels


Figure 23: The script developed by HTMKY

Another person, who is a monk from Khonan village in Banmauk Township, has attempted to use Burmese script to write the Kadu language and published a vocabulary of Kadu. However, not long after that he created a unique script. This script, however, still has one symbol corresponding to each consonant in the Burmese orthography and he tried to impose it on Kadu. This script is simply a modification of the Burmese script. This script, as in Burmese, employs the Indic writing style. It contains graphs for initial consonants and superscripts and subscripts represent vowels and tones (Figure

24）．The upper chart in the figure shows the 33 Burmese consonants．The lower chart shows the corresponding 33 consonants proposed for Kadu．

|  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $m$ | 2 | $\bigcirc$ | ขు |  |
| － | $\infty$ | a | 9\％ |  |
| G | G | 2 | $v$ |  |
| $\infty$ | $\infty$ | 3 | $\bigcirc$ |  |
| 0 | $\bigcirc$ | 0 | $\infty$ |  |
| $\omega$ | ๆ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |
|  | 0 | E | 32 |  |
| mon：ળ్లే：（२२）ヘ్： |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | e | ¢ | vr |  |
| U | 20 | c | U | G |
| 9 | ¢ | c | ๆ | r |
| \％ | 万 | 9 | w | $0 D$ |
|  |  | $s$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |
| v | ข | U |  | 9 |
| 20 | ？ | ณ | 0 | $\pm$ |
|  | y | ह | か | c． |
|  |  | C | ゲ |  |

Figure 24：A script developed by NTL

For the purposes of simplicity，readability，and practical writing system development，I have constructed a Romanised orthography that I will use throughout the rest of this thesis．There are several factors involved when choosing these symbols．As I mentioned earlier，Kadu never has had a writing system of their own（many people still can＇t believe that their language can be written as others）and their literacy rate in the national language is considerably low．In addition，many Kadu have a very strong identity as Kadu and do not show a positive attitude toward the Burmese language． Therefore，choosing a Burmese based alphabet would not bring any motivation for the

Kadu people to learn to read and write. In addition, the literary style of Burmese does not accurately reflect colloquial style. The phonological difference between literary and colloqual Burmese is very large. Therefore, selecting Burmese script to represent Kadu will simply add much confusion. Some of the community leaders, seeing some other Romanised orthographies like Jingphaw and Rawang, requested their orthography be similar to those. They consider that Romanised alphabets have many advantages over other alphabets. Some of the reasons they mentioned were that they are easy to learn and they will have better access to computers, the internet, and type-writers, etc... Young educated people are more interested in learning English than Burmese. They said that they want their children to learn to read and write Kadu and also added that using a Romanised alphabet will allow them to bridge toward learning English, to some extent. All these factors led to selecting a Romanised alphabet to represent Kadu.

Table 16 below shows the consonant phonemes and their orthographic representation.

| Phoneme | Orthography |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{p}^{\mathrm{h}}$ | ph |
| p | p |
| $\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}}$ | th |
| t | t |
| t 6 | c |
| $\mathrm{tf}^{\mathrm{h}}$ | ch |
| $\mathrm{k}^{\text {h }}$ | kh |
| k | k |
| ? | q |
| m | m |


| Phoneme | Orthography |
| :--- | :--- |
| $n$ | n |
| $\eta$ | ng |
| $n$ | ny |
| s $^{\text {h }}$ | s |
| c | sh |
| s | Z |
| h | h |
| l | l |
| $j$ | $y$ |
| w | W |

Table 16: Orthographic representation of the Kadu consonant phonemes

Referring to Table 16, my consonant orthographic representation of Kadu corresponds well with their phonemes. For the purpose of writing convenience, for the phonemes /tc/ and $/ t \epsilon^{h} /$, ' $c$ ' and 'ch' were chosen. The glottal phoneme $/ R /$ is represented as ' $q$ '. As in many other Romanised orthographies the phonemes $/ \mathrm{y} /$ and $/ \mathrm{n} /$, are represented as ' ng ', and 'ny', respectively. An aspirated dental fricative phoneme $/ s^{h} /$ is presented as 's'. ' $z$ ' and 'sh' were chosen for the phonemes $/ \mathrm{s} /$ and $/ \mathrm{c} /$.

The Kadu vowel phonemes and their orthographic representations are as shown in Table 17.

| Phoneme | Orthography |
| :--- | :--- |
| i | i |
| e | e |
| $\varepsilon$ | eu |
| a | a |
| $\rho$ | au |
| o | o |
| u | u |
| ai | ai |

Table 17: Orthographic representation of Kadu vowels

Almost all of my vowel orthographic representations correspond well with the vowel phonemes. The only non-IPA orthographic representations are with the front and back mid open vowel phonemes $/ \varepsilon /$ and $/ \rho /$, which will be represented as 'eu' and 'au'.

The Kadu tone phonemes and their orthographic representations are as shown in Table 18.

| Phoneme | Orthography |
| :--- | :--- |
| high | - |
| mid | - |
| low | - |

Table 18: Orthographic representation of Kadu tones

The three tones-high, mid, and low-are represented with the diacritic marks ' ' ', ' ${ }^{\text {' }, \text {, }}$ and ' ', respectively. Henceforth, I will be using my orthographic representations unless it is necessary to provide phonetic [ ] transcriptions.

### 2.7 Syllables

This section presents two types of syllable structures attested in Kadu: major and minor (also called strong and weak) syllables. Major syllables are those capable of functioning as major word classes such as nouns and verbs. The major syllables have more complex nuclei and contrastive tones. However, minor syllables cannot function alone but must combine with some other major syllable and must always precede the major syllable. The syllable structure of Kadu can be represented as follows:

$$
\left(\mathrm{C}_{1}\right)\left(\mathrm{C}_{2}\right) \mathrm{V}\left(\mathrm{C}_{3}\right) \mathrm{T}
$$

Figure 25: Kadu syllable structure

Table 19 presents the six possible major syllable types in Kadu.

| 1. | VT | $\bar{i}$ | 'give' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2. | $\mathrm{VC}_{3} \mathrm{~T}$ | $\bar{i} p$ | 'sleep' |
| 3. | $\mathrm{C}_{1} \mathrm{VT}$ | lī | 'come' |
| 4. | $\mathrm{C}_{1} \mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{VT}$ | swá | 'tooth' |
| 5. | $\mathrm{C}_{1} \mathrm{VC}_{3} \mathrm{~T}$ | Ī̄n | 'mud' |
| 6. | $\mathrm{C}_{1} \mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{VC}_{3} \mathrm{~T}$ | swáng | 'master' |

Table 19: Kadu major syllable structures

Represented metrically, the canonical shape of the Kadu syllable has the following hierarchical structure. Optional constituents are enclosed in parentheses.


Figure 26: Metrical structure of the Kadu syllable

### 2.7.1 Major syllables

Major syllables can be further broken down into open and closed types. Open syllables are made up of an optional simple or complex consonant onset, an obligatory simple vowel nucleus, and a supra-segmental tone. In Kadu, neither the onset nor the coda are obligatory elements for a syllable to be well-formed. There are some instances of just a
vowel nucleus being a well-formed monosyllabic word and, therefore, by necessity, a well-formed syllable.

| \#V\# | $\bar{i}$ | 'give' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\bar{u}$ | 'chicken' or 'drink' |

The onset may be a single consonant or a cluster of two consonants. In either case, there are well-formed monosyllabic words without the coda, giving rise to two more types of well-formed syllables: simple onset CV\# and complex onset CCV\#.

| CV\# | lī | 'come' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $h \bar{a}$ | 'walk' |
| CCv\# | kweú | 'monkey' |
|  | swá | 'tooth' |

In initial position, the clustering of more than two consonants is not attested. Although many examples of consonant clusters have been attested in my corpus, a large number of them are clearly Burmese loanwords. The distribution of initial consonant clusters is discussed in §2.4. Some more examples of CCV\# types are exemplified in (41) with their Burmese origin.
(41) (a) consonant cluster with $/ \mathrm{w} /$

| kweú | 'monkey' |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pwá | 'multiply' | ¢0: | [pwa:](pwa:) |
| pweú | 'celebration' | ¢ | [pwe:](pwe:) |
| khwā | 'hoof' | ฉ๐ | <hkwa> |
| mwē | 'stir' | 60 | <hmwei> |

(b) consonant cluster with $/ \mathrm{w} /$

| ywā | 'village' | ข | <rwa> |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pyaū | 'happy' | sup | <pjo> |
| pyāng | 'outside' | U¢́c | <prang> |
| myān | 'quick' | OS | <mran> |
| myó | 'kind' | 風 | <mro.> |
| nweū | 'lineage' | su์ | <mwe> |

A few examples of initial consonant clusters with Shan loanwords have also been attested as exemplified in (42).

| Iūkkhwé | 'son-in-law' |
| :--- | :--- |
| zweú | 'scale' |

Closed syllables are made up of an optional simple or complex consonant onset, an obligatory simple vowel nucleus, a consonant coda, and a supra-segmental tone, thus giving rise to two types of closed syllables: VC\# and CVC\#.

| VC\# | íp | 'narrow' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | òk | 'grandfather' |
| ān | 'paddy rice' |  |
| CVC\# | yīm <br> mán <br> phaúk | 'catch' |
|  | 'face' |  |
|  | jump' |  |

As mentioned above, minor syllables cannot function alone. Minor syllables may have a wide range of consonant initials or simply a single vowel, the schwa [ə], which is represented as unmarked $<\mathrm{a}>$ in my analysis. It is an open and toneless syllable which can never occur as the final element of the word and must precede the major syllable, thus forming a sesquisyllabic (a syllable and a half) pattern. Minor syllables with consonant initial clusters are not attested. Diachronically, these minor syllables may have been full syllables with clear meanings, however, synchronically it is difficult to assign any sort of precise meaning or morphological function to these syllables. For example, we find the syllable ka- frequently appears with animals such as kasà 'tiger', kasàt 'bear', and kaphú 'snake'. It may, however, also occur in other contexts such as kahú 'hot', kahún 'termite', and kanà 'hurt', which are from different semantic domains. It is beyond my competence and beyond the scope of this study to clarify the diachronic meanings of these syllables. It would, indeed, be a fascinating topic for further research.

In minor syllables, the initials are generally restricted to $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t} . \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{w} /$, and $/ \mathrm{y} /$. The aspirated consonants $/ \mathrm{ph}, \mathrm{th}, \mathrm{ch}, \mathrm{kh} /$, and $/ \mathrm{sh} /$ are not attested in minor syllables in native Kadu words. However, there are two occurrences with the initial $/ \mathrm{ph} /$ as in phayá 'god' and phanaúk 'heel'. These are loanwords from Burmese Əొๆঃ [hpara:](hpara:) and uढpsर्ट <hpanong.>, respectively. The nominalised -al- infix also creates many minor syllables. For example, terms such as maleú 'good(ness)' and phaleú 'carrier'
are derived by -al- infixation from the verbs meú 'be good' and pheú 'to carry', respectively. See §3.1.1.2.10 for a more detailed discussion of -al- infixation. The following section illustrates minor syllables attested in Kadu.
a- This is the most common minor syllable of all and occurs in many different contexts. It is common to find this with higher status kinship terms (§3.1.1.2.6) which probably denote respect and authority. It has also been attested occurring with body parts and stative verbs. The $a$ - minor syllable is illustrated in (43).

| (43) | ahà | 'chin' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| asìn | 'liver' |  |
| awà | 'father' |  |
| achì | 'chew' |  |
| ací | 'elephant' |  |
| azàk | 'Kadu' |  |

ka- This is the second most common minor syllable. As mentioned above, it is common to find it appearing before the names of animals (§3.1.1.2.3). However, it can also occur in a wide variety of other contexts. The ka- minor syllable is illustrated in (44).

| (44) | kasà | 'tiger' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kalìng | 'two' |  |
| kaná | 'ear' |  |
|  | kamà | 'wound' |

ta- $\quad$ This is the third most common minor syllable. It is difficult to suggest a common meaning for this syllable, however, occurrences of this syllable with
nouns are much more common than with verbs. The ta- minor syllable is illustrated in (45).

| (45) tací | 'thigh' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tahaù | 'ladle' |
| taká | 'bridge' |
| talèt | 'bow (object)' |
| tamì | 'other people' |
| tapaúk | 'speak' or 'calf of leg' |

sa- This is the fourth most common minor syllable. As with ta- and ka-, it is difficult to identify a common meaning for this syllable. It can occur with both nouns and verbs. The $s a$ - minor syllable is illustrated in (46).

| (46) | sací |
| :--- | :--- |$\quad$ 'centipede'

pa- This is probably the fifth most common syllable. It appears mostly with nouns. With this syllable, it is also difficult to suggest a common meaning, however, in some cases it appears before the names of fish. For example, pacīsá 'loach fish', pazingzú 'dwarf fish', and pasàt 'carp fish'. The Kadu native word for fish is tángngā, within which the second syllable is clearly cognate with PTB *ya or *yya as reconstructed by Matisoff (2003:162). However, unlike in many
other TB languages, neither the term $n g \bar{a}$ or tángng $\bar{a}$ is used as a generic name for fish in taxonomic compounds. It may be simply due to the fact the word for fish is a two syllable word in Kadu. I suspect pa- occurring before the names of some fish may have derived from the Tai or Shan plaa $\sim$ paa. The pa- minor syllable is illustrated in (47).

| (47) | panaù |
| :--- | :--- |$\quad$ 'mix' $\quad$ pazèk $\quad$ 'fly (insect)'

na- This is the sixth most common minor syllable. It occurs mostly with nouns. It can also occur with kin terms (§3.1.1.2.6), particularly with lower status terms. The na- minor syllable is illustrated in (48).

| (48) | nacá |
| :--- | :--- |$\quad$ 'carefully' $\quad$| nahū | 'mid day' |
| :--- | :--- |
| nayá | 'new' |
| nayóng | 'great grandchild' |
| nashī | 'younger sibling' |

ma- This is the seventh most common syllable. It occurs mostly with nouns. The maminor syllable is illustrated in (49).

| (49) | maeú | 'long ago' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | macháng | 'unless' |
| malā | 'flesh' |  |
| mamá | 'maternal aunt' |  |
| mazí | 'mushroom' |  |

ha- This syllable occurs only with nouns, as illustrated in (50).

| (50) halí | 'boat' |
| :--- | :--- |
| haláng | 'sky' |
| halóng | 'small mat' |
| hamán | 'spirit' |
| hamòk | 'sky' |
| hanīng | '2PL' |
| hayák | 'so as to' |

la- This syllable appears only six times in my corpus: five times with nouns and once with the grammatical particle lamà ~ lakà 'mirative'. The la-minor syllable is illustrated in (51).

| (51) | lapā | 'rice field' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lapàng | 'cheek' |  |
| lapòk | 'bamboo' |  |
| lashíng | 'sea bean seed' |  |
| lamà | 'mirative marker' |  |
| lamaúng | 'mortar' |  |

wa- This syllable occurs five times in my corpus, always with nouns. The wa- minor syllable is illustrated in (52).

| (52) | washì | 'comb' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wasá | 'flotsam' |  |
| wasáp | 'sponge gourd' |  |
| waték | 'steam pot' |  |
| watòk | 'a type of tree' |  |

ya- This syllable occurs mostly with nouns; only one occurence with a verb, yalán 'be long', has been attested. Semantically, it seems to be appearing before lengthy objects. Words with ya- initial minor syllable are illustrated in (53).

| yahùng | 'water well' |
| :--- | :--- |
| yalū | 'vine' |
| yamā | 'crocodile' |
| yapá | 'shoulder' |

za- This syllable occurs with both nouns and verbs although occurrences with verbs are more common. Words with za- initial minor syllable are illustrated in (54).

| (54) zalá | 'be healthy' |
| :--- | :--- |
| zalaút | 'drift' |
| zalīn | 'frisky' |
| zamík | 'sun' |
| zanà | 'light' |

ca- This syllable is the least frequent of all. Words with ca- initial minor syllable are illustrated in (55).

| (55) caeú | 'yellow' |
| :--- | :--- |
| capū | 'a type of tree' |
| cahaúng | 'coriander' |

There are also synchronically analysable minor syllables. These syllables are a result of an initial syllable weakening process in polysyllabic words. These may be considered compounding reduction. ${ }^{7}$ In this process, the first major syllable of a polysyllabic word, (either analysable or unanalysable) is reduced to a minor syllable. For example, the minor syllable ta in taphā 'sole' comes from the synchronically retrievable word tā 'leg'. The initial syllable of other unanalysable polysyllabic words may also weaken, for example mīshī~mashī, 'sugarcane’, hùhú~hahú 'snail', and yīthú~ yathú 'axe’

Some words with two initial minor syllables have also been attested. Words with two initial minor syllables are given in (56).

| takalāt | 'root' |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tapalín | 'vibrate' |  |
| tatawā | 'animal' | $<$ Pali. dhadawa |
| sakalá | 'sound' or 'voice' |  |
| pathawī | 'universal' | $<$ Pali. pahtawi |

### 2.8 Other phonological processes

This section discusses phonological processes such as fusion and linking which can change the shape of the syllable structures in Kadu. Kadu, in general, does not permit vowel complexes consisting of more than one vowel. When two vowels or two syllables are juxtaposed, one of two phonological processes takes place-fusion or linking.

[^5]I will use the symbol (S) to refer to a syllable here. Vowel fusion occurs when the syllable $\left(\mathrm{S}_{2}\right)$, begining with a vowel is attached to an open syllable which has an identical vowel phoneme. The rule is $\mathrm{V}_{1}+\mathrm{V}_{2}=\mathrm{V}$. For example, when phà, a numeral classifier for 'bunch', is followed by the numeral one, à, the vowel of $\mathrm{S}_{2}$ is absorbed into the vowel of $\mathrm{S}_{1}$. Look at the example in (57).
(57) (a) salàshī phànaík lūìnglá (08:107)

| salà-shī | phà-à | $=$ naík | lū-ìng =lá |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| banana-CLF.fruit | CLF.bunch-one | $=$ only | get- DIR $_{2} \quad=$ NOM |  |

'I only got a bunch of bananas (nothing else).'
(b) címhà
cím-hà-à
house-CLF.building-one
‘One house’

In the examples in (57), in the gloss line, I have separated the fused forms to present the underlying morphemes. However, in actual speech they are heard as a single mora.

There is no lengthening of the vowels. The negative clitic =á, following a word with an identical vowel, also follows the same rule. Compare the two examples in (58).
(a) sāngpaláng saēktè alākáká (25:169)

| sāngpaláng | saēk $=$ tè | a-lā-kák | $=$ á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| king | daughter | $=$ A.AG | NEG-take-want |$=$ NEG

'I don't want to take (marry) the king's daughter.'
(b) aheúhà (25:52)

> a-heú-hà =á
> NEG-tell-know.how = NEG
> 'I can't tell or (I) don't know (what) to tell.'

The tone for the negative clitic is high, however, in fused form it doesn't retain its tone.
Similarly, the vowels of the two verbal directionals àng and ìng, when preceded by a word with an identical vowel, are absorbed into the preceding vowel and the tone. Thus, $h \bar{a}$ 'go' + àng ' $\mathrm{DIR}_{1}$ ' becomes hāng and mí 'buy' + ìng ' $\mathrm{DIR}_{2}$ ' becomes míng.

However, in cases where $\mathrm{S}_{1}$ ends with a high front vowel /i/ and $\mathrm{S}_{2}$ begins with a central low vowel /a/, in the fused form the vowel of $\mathrm{S}_{2}$ is retained. Thus, cí 'plural' + àng 'DIR ${ }_{1}$ ' becomes cáng, and zí 'finish' + àng ' $\operatorname{DIR}_{1}$ ' becomes záng. The examples in (59) illustrate this type of fusion.
weúkú pūcángthāmā(13:3)
weúkú pū-cí-àng = thāmā
bathe emerge-PL-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ HORT
'Let's go out for a bathe.'

What we have discussed so far is fusion of vowels when they occur next to each other. Fusion of $S_{1}$, an open syllable, with an $S_{2}$ which has an initial consonant has also been attested in Kadu. In this process, the resulting fused form is somewhat different in phonological shape. The rule is $S_{1}+S_{2}=S_{3}$. Consider the examples in (60).
(60) (a) ngātè atánshíshók (15:61)

| ngā | $=$ tè | a-tán-shí | $=$ sà | $=$ yók |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | $=$ A.AG | NEG-beat-die | = NEG.IMP | $=$ INTRUSIVE |

'Don't kill (beat to death) me yet.'
(b) azaúnzónshîk (18:105)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { a-zaún-zón } & =\text { sà } & \text { = zík } \\
\text { NEG-follow.after-CONTINUE }=\text { NEG.IMP } & =\text { FINALLY } \\
\text { 'Do not follow (it) anymore.' } &
\end{array}
$$

In the examples above, the negative imperative clitic sà is followed by CFPs yók 'INTRUSIVE' and zík 'FINALLY'. Here the vowel and coda of $\mathrm{S}_{2}$ are retained and the initial of the combined form is $/ \mathrm{sh} /$.

### 2.8.2 Linking

Consonant lengthening is attested with nasals. In this process, if $\mathrm{S}_{1}$ ends with a nasal and $S_{2}$ starts with a vowel, the final consonant of $S_{1}$ is lengthened. The examples in (61) illustrate this. Phonetic representations are presented in [ ] brackets. I use a single nasal (see line one) in my transcription.
(a) nímàngmā [nímmàngmā]

| ním-àng | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- |
| stay-DIR | $=$ |
|  | $=$ RLS |

'(He) stays/lives (there).'
(b) nímìngmā [nímmìngmā]

| ním-ìng | $=\mathrm{mā}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| stay-DIR |  |
|  | $=$ RLS |

'(He) stays/lives (here).'
(c) nāngàngmā [nāngngāngmā]
nāng-àng $=m \bar{a}$
go-DIR ${ }_{1} \quad=$ RLS
'(He) went (there).'

If $\mathrm{S}_{1}$ ends with $/ \mathrm{p} /$ or $/ \mathrm{t} /$ and $\mathrm{S}_{2}$ starts with a vowel, the two syllables are linked by inserting the homorganic nasals $/ \mathrm{m} /$ and $/ \mathrm{n} /$, respectively. The two examples in (62) illustrate this.
(62) (a) maeútóng laúkléyaúk ūhaū kápmàngmā (19:1)

| maeútóng | laúklé $=$ yaúk | ūhaū | káp-àng | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| long.ago | sling.shot $=C O M$ | owl | shoot-DIR | $=$ RLS |

'Long ago, (someone) shot the owl with a sling.'
(b) cúntóngpè thōkkón kátnàngpeúpán hīngká (12:57)
cún-tóng = pè thōk =kón kát-àng-peú = pán
island-big $=$ LOC arrive $=$ PURP $\quad$ run- DIR $_{1}$-keep $=\operatorname{COS}$
'(He) ran until he reached the island.'

If $S_{1}$ ends with one of the front vowels $/ \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{e} /$, or $/ \mathrm{eu} /$ and $\mathrm{S}_{2}$ starts with a vowel, the semi-vowel $/ \mathrm{y} /$ is inserted. See the illustrations in (63).
(63) (a) salàshī phà īyàngmā (08:123)

| salà-shī | phà-à | ī-àng | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| banana-CLF.fruit | CLF.bunch-one | give-DIR | $=$ RLS |

'(I) gave a bunch of bananas.'
(b) nāngyeún heúyàngkū (09:23)

| nāng | $=$ yeún | heú-àng |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 SG | $=\mathrm{u}$ |  |  |
| BEN | tell-DIR ${ }_{1}$ |  | $=$ IRLS |

(I) will tell (it) for you.'

However, if $\mathrm{S}_{1}$ ends with one of the back vowels $/ \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{o} /$, or $/ \mathrm{au} /$ and $\mathrm{S}_{2}$ starts with a vowel, the semi-vowel /w/ is inserted. See the illustrations in (64).
(64) (a) anáq zōkshīwaleútè ūwàng meúmā (12:33)

'Drink this milk. (It) is good.'
(b) hīng halá ngaúwàngmaták (24:3)

| hīng | halá | ngaú-àng | $=\mathrm{ma}=$ ták |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3SG | husband | say-DIR ${ }_{1}$ | $=\mathrm{RLS}=\mathrm{HS}$ |

'Her husband said, it is said.'

## CHAPTER 3: WORD CLASSES

This chapter presents what has been traditionally called parts of speech. Lexical word classes are presented in two sections: major and minor word classes. Subsequently, grammatical particles will be presented in a separate section.

### 3.1 Major word classes

The two main major word classes in Kadu, as in many other languages, are nouns and verbs.
3.1.1 Nouns

Syntactically nouns in Kadu can be followed by numeral classifier phrases to specify the type of referent (Chapter 5) or by various postnominal elements to indicate semantic roles such as an Agent, Patient (Chapter 6). There is no distinction of grammatical gender in nouns such as there is in Spanish. However, when reference to an animate noun does not provide gender, if need be, gender nouns such as pá 'female' and lā 'male' may follow the noun, as in acípá (elephant-female) 'female elephant' and $\bar{u} l \bar{a}$ (fowl-male) 'rooster'.

A noun can function as the head of an NP and also as a core or peripheral argument of a clause. In attributive or equational clauses it can function as the predicate of a clause (see §8.2.1).

Nouns in Kadu are an open class. They are a class of words which contains the names of most persons, places, and things (Schachter and Shopen 2007:5). They express the most concrete and time-stable concepts, e.g., 'mountain', 'rock', and 'house' (Payne 1997:33). Their bundled (co-experienced) properties, such as size, color, shape, or consistency thus change relatively slowly as individual features as well (Givón 2001:51). Abstract nouns such as freedom, love, experience, and anger are not attested in the Kadu noun class. They are, rather, expressed by verbs or adjectival verbs. In order to express an abstract noun concept, the verb must be nominalised, as in (65).
(65) (a) mítpanáq meúmā

| mít | $=$ panáq | meú | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| love | $=$ NOM | good | $=$ RLS |

'Love is good.' Or 'To love is good.'
(b) tínhaútpanáq ameúyá

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { tínhaút } & =\text { panáq } & & \text { a-meú-á } \\
\text { angry } & =\text { NOM } & & \text { NEG-good-NEG }
\end{aligned}
$$

'Anger is not good.' Or 'To be angry is not good.'

The following section on nouns is divided into two: 3.1.1.1 The structure of nouns and 3.1.1.2 Types of nouns.

### 3.1.1.1 The structure of nouns

The structure of nouns in Kadu may be simple or complex.

### 3.1.1.1.1 Simple nouns

Simple nouns are those treated as monomorphemic by the native speakers of Kadu.
Structurally, they may be monosyllabic, sesquisyllabic, or disyllabic words.
Monosyllabic nouns are the most common of all Kadu nouns. They cannot be further broken down into meaningful units. Some monosyllabic nouns are shown in (66).

| $c \overline{1}$ | 'dog' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $k \bar{a}$ | 'earth' or 'soil' |
| cím | 'house' |
| ceú | 'buffalo' |
| mōk | 'cow' |
| ngón | 'gold' |
| kweú | 'monkey' |
| maù | 'leech' |

Sesquisyllabic nouns, which make up the second largest noun type, are formed by a weak initial syllable plus a full syllable. We can further divide weak syllables into two: one that is analysable (§3.2.5), in which case the lexical meaning of one or both of the two morphemes is retrievable, and one that is not (§2.7.2). Some sesquisyllabic nouns are shown in (67).
(67)

| ací | 'elephant' |
| :--- | :--- |
| atá | 'cooked rice' |
| halá | 'husband' |
| haláng | 'sky' |
| lapòk | 'bamboo' |
| katòk | 'neck' |
| kaphú | 'snake' |
| malā | 'flesh' |
| sanú | 'roof' |

Disyllabic nouns are composed of two full syllables. They cannot be further broken down into meaningful units. They are always considered as a single monomorphemic unit by the speakers of Kadu. Some examples of disyllabic nouns are exemplified in (68).

| kānzū | 'mustard' |
| :--- | :--- |
| mánhá | 'summer' |
| sāngsūng | 'clothing' |
| yāmpū | 'banded snake head fish' |
| hūnzaú | 'spoon' |
| hānghák | 'toad' |
| haùheū | 'corn' |
| hānshí | 'cat' |
| kaúhán | 'otter' |

A few trisyllabic nouns have also been attested in Kadu, as exemplified in (69).

| pòkweúsút | 'some Ardsia shrubs' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ūpháksā | 'bat' |
| weūsāl̄̄ | 'Indian nightshade' |
| mùkchíthú | 'pennywort' |
| kwuèlākzīng | 'oyster' |

Nouns in the Kadu lexicon also include many loanwords from neighboring languages and are frequently used in day-to-day speech. The great majority of the loanwords come from Burmese and Shan, and loanwords from Pali have also been attested. Loanwords may be recognisable as being from a particular language, but it is not possible to break them down into meaningful morphemes in Kadu. Some Burmese loanwords are exemplified in (70).
leútsaūng
pōngzān
panyāshíq
amyóanweū
cùm
ēngthaūng
tānlyeút

| ヘగ์650xč <lakhsong> | 'gift' |
| :---: | :---: |
| ¢̊¢ <pumsam> | 'pattern' |
| טวอคิ <panjahri.> | 'wise man' |
|  | 'tribe' |
| றృई \llkjun> | 'slave' |
| 3ชญ์600x <eimhtong> | 'family' |
|  | 'regalia' |

Some Pali loanwords are exemplified in (71). Most of these loanwords are recent and came via Burmese. Notice in the examples below that there is a regular sound correspondence between /t/ in Kadu and /s/ in Pali. This historical sound change from $/ \mathrm{s} />/ \theta /$, $(/ \theta />/ \mathrm{t} /$ in Kadu $)$ and $/ \mathrm{r} />/ \mathrm{j} /$ in Burmese has been already identified (see

Bradley 1979). An exception to this is samón 'monk' or 'priest' which may be a direct, older loanword.
(71) Kadu Pali

| túkháq | /dukkha/ | 'suffering' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pātā | /bhasa/ | 'language' or 'religion' |
| katē | /koti/ | 'ten million' |
| yātanā | /ratana/ | 'jewel' |
| tānkā | /sangha/ | 'member of Buddhist order' |
| samón | /samana/ | 'priest' |
| myíttā | /metta/ | 'love' |

Shan loanwords are also attested. These Shan loanwords were identified with the help of my language consultants who understood some Shan. Interestingly, many Kadu kinship terms are Shan loanwords. Some Shan loanwords are exemplified in (72).

| kónthaūng | 'bachelor' |
| :--- | :--- |
| zaūpwá | 'chief' |
| meúzaúng | 'mother-in-law' |
| paīzaúng | 'father-in-law' |
| thīngpālá | 'village's chief' |
| heúttín | 'slipper' |

Some loanwords from English have also been attested. These loanwords came into the Kadu lexicon through school education or via Burmese. They are illustrated in (73).

| (73) | tivi | 'TV' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | vidio | 'video' |
|  | redio | 'radio' |
|  | keútseút | 'cassette' |
|  | beútayi | 'battery' |
|  | saún | 'speaker' (derived from sound box) |
|  | satí | 'steel' |
|  | paú | 'ball' |

### 3.1.1.1.2 Complex nouns

Complex nouns, unlike simple nouns, are polymorphemic. Most of the complex nouns come from the process of compounding. A compound is a word that is formed from two or more different morphemes, most frequently members of open lexical classes (Aikhenvald 2007:24). Kadu compound nouns are formed, as in many other languages, by two or more morphemes-either from the same or different lexical classes. The meaning of both words, in most cases, is clear to speakers of Kadu. There are three types of compounds: endocentric, exocentric, and coordinate compounds. Endocentric compounds ((Bauer 1988:35), as quoted in (Aikhenvald 2007:30)), denote a subclass of items referred to by one of their elements that can be treated as the head of the compound. Exocentric compounds denote something which is different from either of the components. Coordinate compounds consist of two juxtaposed nouns which refer to a unitary concept (Aikhenvald 2007:30-31). Most of the Kadu compound nouns exhibit endocentric and coordinate compounds. There are a few compound nouns in Kadu which may be analysed as exocentric compounds such as phaúk-caík (literally 'jump-
cross') 'locust' and yēk-zák (literally 'hill field-be caught') 'grass'. However, this kind of compound is not common in Kadu, therefore our attention in the following section will be given to subordinate and coordinate compounds in Kadu.

Aikhenvald identifies (1) phonological (2) morphological (3) morphosyntactic and (4) semantic criteria for distinguishing compounds from phrases. Phonologically, compounds often form one phonological word with a single stress pattern. Morphologically, compound words are overtly marked by particular morphemes. Morphosyntactically, case makers cannot be inserted between the components of a compound word. Semantically, compounds tend to have compositional meanings (Aikhenvald 2007:24-28).

In Kadu, as it is a fairly isolating language, compounds do not necessarily behave like a single phonological word. It is possible to have a short pause between the two components. However, morphosyntactically it is impossible to insert a case marker between these components. For example, the two words cím 'house' and $\bar{u}$ 'fowl' or 'chicken' are both free lexical morphemes. Therefore, they can be directly followed by the anti-agentive marker tè, as in (74).

## (74) (a) címtè mímā

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { cím } & =\text { tè } & \text { mí } & =\text { mā } \\
\text { house } & =A . A G & \text { buy } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'I buy the house.'
(b) ūtè mímā

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\overline{\mathrm{u}} & =\text { tè } & \text { mí }=\text { mā } \\
\text { fowl } & \text { =A.AG } & \text { buy } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'I buy the fowl/bird.'

However, when they are used as a compound noun cím $\bar{u}$ 'domestic chicken', which is a single word to the native speakers of Kadu, it is impossible to add the same antiagentive marker tè between the two syllables. See illustrations in (75). Example (75a) is grammatical but (75b) is not.

## (75) (a) címūtè mímā

cím-ū $=$ tè mí $=m a \overline{ }$
house-chiken $=$ A.AG buy $=$ RLS
'I buy a home grown chicken.'
(b) *címtèū mímā

Semantically, many of the Kadu compounds have a compositional meaning. For example, the word for 'parents' is ameūawà (ameū 'mother' + awà 'father'). Most Kadu compounds are of this type of 'binary noun compound'. However, there are also other compounds, for example, tací 'shin'. The first syllable is synchronically analysable as a reduced form of $t \bar{a}$ 'leg', however the second morpheme is not relatable to its lexical source. Therefore, we may define Kadu compounds loosely by adopting Matisoff's definition of Lahu compounds: "any polymorphemic structure in the nominal nucleus as a compound" (Matisoff 1973:54). Compounds in Kadu are presented in three
sections: subordinate compound nouns, coordinate compound nouns, and imitative compound nouns.

Subordinate compound nouns are composed of a head noun and an attributive member. The attributive member is either a noun or a verb. The attributive member modifies the head noun by making the meaning more specific. The attributive noun precedes the head noun and the attributive verb follows the head noun. NOUN + HEAD NOUN compounds are frequently found in the Kadu lexicon. As Kadu lacks a genitive marker, it is often difficult to distinguish between a NOUN + NOUN compound and a genitive construction. For example, hamán-zāng can be interpreted as a 'spirit-shelf' or 'spirit's shelf' and tamisā-cím as 'human-house' or 'human's house'. NOUN + NOUN compounds may be further divided into two: one that has an underlying classificatory pattern as 'specific + generic'.

In a NOUN + NOUN subordinate compound, the first member stands in a subordinate relationship to the second. The role of the first member of a compound word is to specify or narrow the reference. For example, tú 'language', is a generic term for language (any language), and can be modified by azàk 'Kadu' which narrows the reference to, specifically, the 'Kadu language'. Some more examples of NOUN + NOUN compounds with 'specific + generic' classificatory are given in (76).
cím-sèk
sateù-mūngkū
swá-sweū
wān-salí
weú-salí
thīng-palá
yēk-ān

| (house-person) | 'family member' |
| :--- | :--- |
| (lips-hair) | 'beard' |
| (tooth-tusk/fang) | 'eyetooth' |
| (fire-tongue) | 'flame' |
| (water-tongue) | 'wave' |
| (village-leader) | 'chief' |
| (hill field-paddy) | 'rice from hill field' |

Another type of compound noun has a verb modifying the head noun. This is done by either a non-nominalised verb directly following the head noun or by a nominalised verb or verb phrase immediately preceding the head noun, as in a relative clause structure. See derived nouns in §3.1.1.2.10 and relative clauses in §8.2.3. In the HEAD NOUN + VERB compound, the attributive verb slot mostly comes from stative verbs or adjectival verbs. Some examples of HEAD NOUN + VERB compound nouns are given in (77).

| kāntāt-ngá | (taro-steam) | 'steamed taro' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| púk-zalaút | (belly-drift) | 'diarrhea' |
| ū-kán | (fowl-bad) | 'wild fowl' |
| waleú-sín | (liquid-spicy) | 'liquor' |
| weú-lóm | (water-warm) | 'warm water' |
| ān-saú | (paddy-nutty taste) | 'sticky rice' |
| púk-theú | (belly-widen) | 'navel' |

Some VERB + HEAD NOUN compound nouns have also been attested in Kadu. The examples given in (78) may also be analysed as reduced relative clauses where the nominaliser panáq ~ pín (§8.2.3) is absent.

| míng-weú | (ripe-water) | 'pus' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| zít-weú | (urinate-water) | 'urine' |
| tòkweú | (?-water) | 'sweat' |
| zōk-kāntāt | (transplant-taro) | 'sweet taro' |

Compound nouns with VERB + VERB structures are not attested, except one word, lómhā 'warm clothes' (lóm 'warm' and probably hà 'know.how'), where neither of the components is a noun.

Coordinate compound nouns, also known as dyadic compounds (Evans 2006), consist of two juxtaposed nouns where neither member is subordinate to, nor modifies, the other and the two together refer to a unitary concept. For example, ameū-awà (motherfather) 'parents'. This is rather common with kinship terms in Kadu. Coordinate compounds nouns in Kadu are illustrated in (79).

| amú-nashī | (big brother-younger sibling) | 'brother siblings' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| até-nashī | (big sister-younger sibling) | 'sister sibling' |
| òkthaúng-athaúng | (father-in-law-mother-in-law) | 'parents-in-law' |
| mōksān-wàksān | (beef-pork) | 'meat' |
| atá-sapáksà | (cooked rice-curry) | 'food or dishes' |
| kasé-sāngsūng | (sarong-shirt) | 'clothing' |

Another type of compound noun is the imitative compound, which consists of two members: a noun member and an imitative member. Each member usually consists of two syllables. The first member can usually be used independently and has its own meaning, however, the second member can never be used independently. For example, the word satúng 'grandchild' can be followed by an expression such as sazáng which
has no semantic value in its own. These can be compared with 'expressive compounds' (Post 2006:278), and 'elaborate expressions' (Matisoff 1973:81). Matisoff noted that elaborate expressions are a typical construction of Southeast Asian languages in general. Many Kadu imitative compounds also contain four-syllable compound words, as in Burmese and Lahu. See the examples in (80).

(b) ò-lî-ò-lo
(Lahu: Matisoff 1973:82)
‘custom, tradition’
(c) cím-zaūk-cím-tōm (Kadu)
cím zaūk cím tōm
house on.top house under 'every where' (lit. on the top and below the house)

In Kadu, many sesquisyllabic or disyllabic nouns take imitative members, thus forming a four syllable word pattern. Three common patterns are found: A-B-A-C, A-B-C-B, and A-B-C-D. Imitative compound nouns in Kadu generally denote a generic or inclusive meaning. For example, when a disyllabic word paúngká 'basket' is imitated with paúngtù, it denotes various kinds of baskets.

The A-B-A-C pattern is the most common. In this process, the first syllable of the second member is a duplication of the first syllable of the first member. The second syllable of
the second member is euphonic. Some examples of the A-B-A-C pattern are given in (81).

| paúngká-paúngtù | 'baskets' |
| :--- | :--- |
| phaíkhū-phaíktā | 'carriers' |
| kángpè-kángná | 'deserted places' |
| satúng-sazáng | 'grandchild' |
| kamā-kapeút | 'wounds' |
| malíp-maláp | 'mushroom' |
| talát-talaú | 'vegetables' |
| ūzík-ūyá | 'birds' |
| talū-talā | 'tiny (stuff)' |

Some examples that have the A-B-C-B pattern, where the second and the fourth syllables are identical, have also been attested, as in (82).

| salān-palān | 'meat' |
| :--- | :--- |
| òkthaúng-athaúng | 'parents-in-law' |
| mōksān-wàksān | 'beef and pork' |
| ngónkā-phúkā | 'gold and silver' |

A few examples that have the A-B-C-D pattern, where none of the four syllables are identical, are also attested, as in (83). Although none of the initial consonants of both members are identical, in all examples the rhyme follows the A-B-A-B pattern.

(83) | nanū-sapú | 'animal' |
| :--- | :--- |
| tatū-sapú | 'seeds' |
| kapáng-saláng | 'emptied' | ,

### 3.1.1.2 Semantic classes of noun

Noun classes are presented in the following order: 3.1.1.2.1 Human, 3.1.1.2.2 Body parts, 3.1.1.2.3 Animals, 3.1.1.2.4 Plants and flowers, 3.1.1.2.5 Places, 3.1.1.2.6

Kinships, 3.1.1.2.7 Iconic nouns, 3.1.1.2.8 Location nouns, 3.1.1.2.9 Time nouns, and 3.1.1.2.10 Derived nouns.

### 3.1.1.2.1 Human

The Kadu call themselves azàk, but the etymology of this name is unknown. The term for 'human' is interesting. It is a compound of tamì 'other people' and $s \bar{a}$ 'child' (Lit. we may translate 'other people's child'). It contains the PTB etyma *mi 'person' and *tsa $\sim$ *za 'son' as reconstructed by Matisoff (2003:668). Some nouns used to refer to humans are given in (84).

```
halawà 'man'
tamìsā 'human'
ishíq 'girl'
tamì 'other people'
saék 'daughter'
ék 'wife' or 'woman'
sā 'child' or 'son'
```


### 3.1.1.2.1.1 Personal names

Most Kadu personal names consist of two or more syllables. Names with two syllables are the most common. If the name, particularly a female's name, has three syllables, the last syllable may be reduplicated and used alone to express an intimate relationship. For example, nínsúqkhaī may be called as khaïkhaī. Today, almost all the Kadu have adopted Burmese names to identify themselves. Therefore, most of the Kadu personal names, although each syllable may have a recognisable meaning in the source language, are not lexically analysable in Kadu. Some names of my language consultants are shown in (85) for illustration.

| Female name | Male name |
| :--- | :--- |
| é myét tū | aūng tán nweū |
| khīn yī | caū zē yaq |
| laq seīng | aūng teín |
| maq naíng | é maūng |
| nín zuq khaī | thún laq |
| maq buq | paq maūng |
| tén seīn | shwē maūng |
| tīn tīn laq | tīn maūng |

The Kadu, like the Burmese, do not have surnames nor birth order names like the Rawang or Jingphaw. Some personal names that are probably of Kadu origin are also attested. One of my language consultant's sons was named ngón-phéng-katàm (gold-full-beauty), which is not a common practice today among the Kadu. Some personal names in one of the recorded texts are probably Kadu, such as phákhūl̄̄ and phúlìthaú in (86). The lexical meanings of these names are not transparent.
phákhūlū phúlùthaū ngaúpanáq amúnashì eútpeúmaták (15:2)

| phákhūlū phúlūthaū | ngaú = panáq amú-nashì | eút-peú $=$ mā | = ták |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PN | PN | say $=$ NOM brothers | drop-keep $=$ RLS | $=$ HS | '(The two) brothers who were called Phakhulu and Phalutau, were left behind, it is said.'

I also collected some older personal names that were once reported to be common among the Kadu. These names are presented in (87).

| Female names | Male names |
| :--- | :--- |
| thaūlì | $x$ |
| thaúlò | càngthaù |
| máqthaū | phóthaù |
| sweúsà | sāsweúq |

All the names in (87) contain two syllables each. It is interesting to notice that in those names, the same syllable can be used for both male and female names. For example, the syllable thaū or thaù occurs both in male and female names. With male names it occurs in initial position, whereas, with female names it occurs following something. And, also, in the last set of names given in (87) the order is reversed. The third example in (87) contains two Burmese honorifics, maq and phó, female and male honorifics, respectively (§3.1.1.2.1.4).

### 3.1.1.2.1.2 Professional titles

There are not many professional titles in Kadu. Some professional titles, which are probably borrowed words, attested in Kadu are given in (88).
(88) zaúng
samón
meūshīláq
sàngpaláng
ósací
palá
swáng
'lord' or 'monk'
'monk'
'nun'
'king'
'teacher'
'leader' or 'elder'
'rich person' or 'business man'

### 3.1.1.2.1.3 Other peoples' names

Kadu terms for the peoples who live around them are as illustrated in (89). So far, I have not been able to relate any of these names to their lexical meanings.
hāháng
hàkheū
kapaú
kanán
khaūngsaī
pūháng
'Jingphaw’
'Chinese'
'Shan'
'Kanan'
'Chin'
'sub-clan of Kadu'

### 3.1.1.2.1.4 Honorifics

All the personal names mentioned in (85) above can be attached with Burmese general
 [hpou:](hpou:) for male speakers (see Okell 1969:99-100). My transcriptions of these honorifics in Kadu are máq, taū, kō, ú, and phó, respectively. These honorifics precede the personal names. It is interesting that the Burmese royal or honorific $\cos$ <to> (my transcription ta $\bar{u}$ ) which follows personal names or professional titles, is still used among the Kadu speakers in their day-to-day speech. It is particularly found with kinship terms such as saya-taū (teacher-honorific) 'monk', khameú-taū (fatherhonorific) 'father', meū-taū (mother-honorific) 'mother', and nyī-taū (brotherhonorific) 'younger brother'. The terms khameútā̄ and meūtaū, however, are never used in referring to one's own parents. They are used as a title to refer to a monk's father and mother. If the monk has resigned from the monkhood, these titles are no longer applicable to his parents. However, the use of these terms seems to be gradually disappearing as the younger generations are more and more exposed to colloquial Burmese. The use of ta $\bar{u}$ apart from those kinship terms mentioned above is rare.

The term swáng is used when addressing a supernatural being, such as a god or spirit. It is also used with an extremely respectable person, like a king or a monk, as exemplified in (90).

| phayáswáng | 'god' |
| :--- | :--- |
| hamánswáng | 'spirit' |
| samónswáng | 'monk' |
| sāngpalángswáng | 'king' |

When directly addressing someone with one of those titles mentioned above, the term swáng follows the second person pronoun, which may be translated into English as 'you, my lord' as exemplified in (91).
(91) nāngswáng panáqathá phóngtakó tóngkákláyeù (07:62)
nāng swáng panáq athá phóngtakó tong-kák = lá = yeù
2SG master DEM more glory.power big-want $=\mathrm{Q}=\mathrm{SAP}$
'Master, do you want to become more powerful than this?'

### 3.1.1.2.2 Body parts

Some body part terms occur with the initial minor syllables $a-$, $k a$-, and sa- as illustrated in (92a, b and c).

| (a) ahà | 'chin' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| asaìng |  |
| asìn |  |$\quad$| 'intestines' |
| :--- |
| (b) 'liver' |$\quad$| katòk |
| :--- |
| kapaūtī |
| kaaù |
| kaná |


| (c) sate $\bar{u}$ | 'lips' |
| :--- | :--- |
| satún | 'mouth' |
| sanàpòk | 'nose' |

Terms referring to the hand typically occur with the initial formative root ták 'hand', which is clearly a reflex of PTB *lak 'hand/arm' as reconstructed by Matisoff (2003:65), as in tákshī 'finger' and tákkasú 'elbow'. Similarly, terms related to the leg typically occur with the initial formative root ta-, which is a reduced form of $t \bar{a}$ 'leg' as in tapaúk 'calf' and taphā 'foot'. These kinds of structures are discussed in great detail in §3.2.5. Other minor syllables are ha- and la-, each occurring in one word as in haláng 'head' and lapàng 'cheek'. There are also body part terms that are monosyllabic. These are given in (93).

| pàng | 'pancreas' |
| :--- | :--- |
| púk | 'belly' |
| láng | 'body' |
| mán | 'face' |
| tí | 'penis' |
| pák | 'vagina' |

Some body part terms include the syllable hú. The etymology of this syllable is unknown. These body terms are exemplified in (94).

| sìnhú | 'heart' |
| :--- | :--- |
| halánghú | 'hair' |
| tahú | 'hand' |
| kathánghú | 'chest' |
| míkhú | 'eyebrow' |

### 3.1.1.2.3 Animals

Many terms denoting animals have been attested in Kadu. In general, names of common domestic animals such as cow and dog are monosyllabic, as illustrated in (95).

| $\bar{u}$ | 'chicken' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $c \overline{1}$ | 'dog' |
| wàk | 'pig' |
| mōk | 'cow' |

Three minor syllables that occur with animal and insect names have been attested in Kadu. They are $a$-, sa-, and ka- (§2.7.2) and the last is the most common. Animal names that occur with the minor syllable $a$ - are illustrated in (96).

| ací | 'elephant' |
| :--- | :--- |
| achí | 'muntjac deer' |
| ahā | 'crab' |

Mostly insect names occur with the sa-minor syllable, as illustrated in (97). An exception to this is sapù 'horse'.

| saceū | 'red ant' |
| :--- | :--- |
| sací | 'centipede' |
| salít | 'cockroach' |
| sapù | 'horse' |

A large number of names for wild animals, insects, and small reptiles occur with the kaminor syllable, as illustrated in (98).

| (98) | kasà | 'tiger' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kayù | 'rat' |  |
| kapí | 'mole(animal)' |  |
| kaphú | 'snake' |  |
| kapheú | 'monitor lizard' |  |
| kasàt | 'bear' |  |
| kasòk | 'frog' |  |
| kapeù | 'goat' |  |
| kahún | 'termite' |  |
| kalèt | 'cricket' |  |

Otherwise, many insect and animal names are made up of two or more major syllables.
These are illustrated in (99).
(99) (a) Disyllabic animal names

| túngún | 'bee' |
| :--- | :--- |
| zángkùk | 'lizard' |
| phónzìng | 'ant' |
| hāngháng | 'toad' |
| húyá | 'firefly' |
| taúktaù | 'gecko' |

(b) Trisyllabic or quadrisyllablic animal names

| zīngzùksá | 'dragonfly' |
| :--- | :--- |
| zákkalíng | 'grass lizard' |
| taùngsaùkmú | 'caterpillar' |
| katùzīpaūng | 'pangolin' |

Most bird names occur as a 'generic-specific/attributive' taxonomic compound, as in ūkán 'wild chicken' ( $\bar{u}$ 'generic-fowl' + kán 'attributive-bad'). For further discussion of taxonomic word formations see §3.2.5.

However, unlike in many neighbouring languages, names of fish in Kadu do not follow this taxonomic word formation pattern. The generic word for fish is tángngà < PTB *nga ~ *nya but ngà does not occur in taxonomic compounds. Instead, the Shan/Tai word pa< *plaa is used in some taxonomic compounds for fish names. Some fish names are as illustrated in (100).

| (100) | $y \bar{a} n p \bar{u}$ | 'snake headed |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | yānsapú | 'catfish' |  |
|  | pacissá | 'loach' |  |
|  | pazīngzú | 'dwarf catfish' |  |
|  | pasàt | 'carp' |  |
|  | paùkwá | 'barbus chola' | Cl:w [nga:lwa](nga:lwa) |
|  | aphú | '??' | d:066 (G) [nga:lamwei](nga:lamwei) |
|  | pòktùt | 'systomus' |  |
|  | atát | '??' |  |
|  | tītèsáq | 'catfish' | d.mpex: < nga:kri:> |

### 3.1.1.2.4 Plants and flowers

All plants generally take class terms kùn 'CLT.tree’ and pá 'CLT.flower’. Illustrations of many names of plants and flowers are given in the section on categorising class terms §3.2.5.2

### 3.1.1.2.5 Places

Most of the Kadu place names have at least two syllables. As the Kadu are immigrants to their present location, most of the place names are either of Burmese or Shan origin. The names of the Kadu villages around Settau are shown in (101). Alternate pronunciations in Kadu are given in ( ) brackets.
(101) (a) Kadu village names of Burmese origin

## leūnétcí (yànákcí)

pēgóng
aleūywā (pāngkáng)
kānywā
ashéqkóng
khōnán (khūnnán)
tayākóng (tóngyāyí)
nyaūngtāyā (pāngmanáq)

|  | <lenakkri> |
| :---: | :---: |
| sum§. | [peikong:](peikong:) |
| з๙๐์์จ | <alerwa> |
| n§ๆ | <kangrwa> |
| 369®¢์ | [ahrei.kong:](ahrei.kong:) |
| จัจ¢์ | [hkonang:](hkonang:) |
| -0usn¢: | [thajakong:](thajakong:) |
| gexcossus | <nyongthaja> |

[lenakkri:](lenakkri:) [peikong:](peikong:) <alerwa> <kangrwa> [ahrei.kong:](ahrei.kong:) [hkonang:](hkonang:) [thajakong:](thajakong:) <nyongthaja>

## (b) Kadu village names of Shan origin <br> náyaú (paúkmaí) <br> nānlín (nānnáng) <br> náyàkà <br> takhúktà (sakòttá) <br> pamūn (pūngmūng) <br> nānmúngkòng <br> kōpyīn (haūpén) <br> khamó

### 3.1.1.2.6 Kinship terms

All kinship terms in Kadu are nouns. Like other nouns they may be followed by numeral classifier phrases and other post nominal elements. Their primary meaning is to denote persons who are blood kin. These forms may be used with an extended meaning denoting someone who is not a blood relation in order to show respect and affection. In doing so the person is treated in speech as occupying a position comparable to that of a blood kin. For instance, while I was conducting my research in the Kadu community I became very close with one of my male language consultants who was about my father's age. In that situation, where I was treated as one of their kin it was inappropriate for me to address the man by his name or title. Therefore, we had to figure out a position comparable to that of a blood kin. In our case, the term wángshì, a term for one's own father's younger brother, was chosen, as he was younger than my
father. Likewise, if the addressee is a female in a comparable position, the term for female kin may apply to the situation.

In the following section, I will discuss the word structures of kinship terms.
Subsequently, I will divide those kinship terms based on kinship relations. Kadu kinship terms can be analysed as monosyllabic, sesquisyllabic, or disyllabic. The monosyllabic kinship terms are illustrated in (102).

| (102) yóng | 'brother (younger of female)' |
| :--- | :--- |
| zán | 'sister (younger of male)' |
| nán | 'daughter-in-law' |
| ék | 'wife' |
| ók | 'paternal grandfather' |

Sesquisyllabic kinship terms are interesting. There are three different minor syllables (a, $n a$, and $s a$ ) which attach to kinship terms and thus form sesquisyllabic words. The kinship terms with $a$ - minor syllable are well attested, crosslinguistically, among many TB languages (Post 2007:214; van Breugel 2008:128). Matisoff (1973:65) called this $a$ prefix a vocative of kinship terms and noted that it is widespread in TB languages and Chinese, as well. Kinship terms with the minor initial $a$ - syllable are also well attested in Burmese ${ }^{8}$ (Okell 1969:99). An interesting fact about this minor initial syllable $a$ - is that, both in Kadu and Burmese, it occurs only with kinship terms that refer to an older generation. Therefore, we can assume that this syllable functions to denote respect and

[^6]authority. It occurs with both genders. Kinship terms that have the $a$ - initial syllable are shown in (103).

| (103) awà | 'father' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ameū | 'mother' |
| até | 'older sister of male and female' |
| amú | 'older brother of male and female' |
| anaí | 'maternal grandmother' |
| ataū | 'paternal grandmother' |
| ashì | 'aunt (mother's older sister)' |

The second sesquisyllabic kinship term forming an initial syllable is $s a$-. Only two occurrences are attested in my corpus and both instances relate to younger relations, as in (104). It reflects the PTB word for 'child' ${ }^{*}$ tsa $\sim$ *za as reconstructed by Matisoff (2003:668).

| saék | 'daughter' |
| :--- | :--- |
| satúng | 'grandchild' |

The last sesquisyllabic kinship term forming an initial syllalbe is na-. Its lexical source is unknown. It occurs in terms for addressing someone from a younger generation, therefore, it probably denotes an affectionate relationship. Sesquisyllabic kinship terms that occur with the na- initial are illustrated in (105).
(105)
nashī
nayóng
'younger sibling' (same gender)
'great grandchild'

Other kinship terms are disyllabic terms as illustrated in (106).

```
(106)
òkshī
```

òknaí 'maternal grandfather'
wángshī 'father's younger brother'
paūzaúng 'father-in-law'
meūzaúng 'mother-in-law'
naūngzaúng 'wife's younger sister'

The Kadu kinship system is bilateral. Unlike a classificatory kinship system which distinguishes parallel and cross cousins ${ }^{9}$, the Kadu system is very similar to the Burmese kinship system. Even though, like Burmese, they distinguish paternal and maternal aunts and uncles, in actual practice both parents' kin are treated with equal respect.

It is also noticed that the Kadu kinship terminology is a mixture of terms that were originally Shan or Burmese. Some of the Shan terms may have arisen as a result of early contact with those peoples and some Burmese terms as a result of more recent contact. It is rather striking to see many Kadu in-law kinship terms that are similar to those of Shan (for example, paūzaúng 'father-in-law' and meūzaúng 'mother-in-law'. A study of Kadu kinship terms will, indeed, be interesting and will definitely provide invaluable information in regards to their contact and historical relationship with Tai/Shan and Burmese. In this research I have not attempted to compare or contrast

[^7]Kadu kinship terms with Tai or Burmese ones, as it is not the focus of this research.
However, for clarification I have added superscripts ${ }^{T}$ or ${ }^{B}$ for kinship terms that are similar or identical with Shna/Tai or Burmese, respectively. Consanguinal kinship terms are presented in (107).
(107) Consanguinal kinship terms

| ò ${ }^{\mathrm{T}}$ | 'paternal grandfather' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ataū | 'paternal grandmother' |
| òknaíT | 'maternal grandfather' |
| anaí | 'maternal grandmother' |
| awà | 'father' |
| ame $\bar{u}^{\mathrm{B}}$ | 'mother' |
| òkshī | 'father's older brother and step father' |
| wángshī | 'father's younger brother' |
| ashì | 'mother's older sister and step mother' |
| mamá | 'mother's younger sister' |
| amú | 'elder brother' |
| até | 'elder sister and wife of older brother' |
| nashī | 'younger sibling' |
| yóng | 'brother (younger of female)' |
| zán | 'sister (younger of male) |

Filial kinship terms are presented in (108).
(108) Filial kinship terms

| halá | 'husband' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\bar{e} k$ | 'wife' |
| sā | 'child or son' |
| saēk | 'daughter' |
| satóng | 'grandchild' |
| nayóng | 'great grandchild' |
| nūklán ${ }^{\text {T }}$ | 'nephew' or 'niece' |

Affinal kinship terms are presented in (109).
(109) Affinal kinship terms
paūzaúng ${ }^{\text {T }}$ 'father-in-law'
meūzaúng ${ }^{\mathrm{T}} \quad$ 'mother-in-law'
nán 'daughter-in-law'
nūkkhwé ${ }^{\mathrm{T}}$ 'son-in-law'
yaúkpháq ${ }^{\text {B }} \quad$ 'brother-in-law' ${ }^{10}$
nūktá ${ }^{\mathrm{T}} \quad$ 'brother-in-law, ${ }^{11}$
néng 'sister-in-law' ${ }^{12}$
naūngsaúng ${ }^{\mathrm{T}} \quad$ 'sister-in-law, ${ }^{13}$

[^8]There is one affix worth mentioning here. It is the form hé-, which can be prefixed to any kinship term to express an affectionate or intimate relationship. All of my informants agreed on where this term may have derived from. They told me that Kadu people are superstitious. When they go to the jungle, they believe that evil spirits can imitate the human language and deceive them, particularly, by imitating human names or kinship terms. The evil spirit then uses the personal names or kinship terms to call and mislead the person, which may result in the person being lost in the jungle and not finding the way home. Kadu believe that the only sound the evil spirit from the forest cannot pronounce is the sound hé. Therefore, they attach it before names or kinship terms to notify the hearer that it comes from a friend or kin. When the form hé is attached to a-prefix kinship terms, the weak syllable is obligatorily omitted, whereas there are no phonological changes with other fully disyllabic kinship terms. Look at some examples in (110).

(110) | héwà | 'father' |
| :--- | :--- |
| hémē̄ | 'mother' |
| hété | 'older sister of male and female' |
| hémú | 'older brother of male and female' |
| hénaí | 'maternal grandmother' |
| hénashī | 'younger sibling (same sex)' |
| hénayóng | 'grandchild' |.

### 3.1.1.2.7 Iconic nouns

Some of the nouns, particularly bird names, are iconic with the sound the birds make. They are exemplified in (111).

| (111)ūkatú | 'dove' |
| :--- | :--- |
| paūwaú | 'cuckoo bird' |
| títtīweúq | 'red-wattled lapwing bird' |
| cékcéksā | 'tailor bird' |
| naúkchìngkweú | 'mynah bird' |
| paūweú | 'hay trunk's flute' |

### 3.1.1.2.8 Location nouns

This section discusses location nouns (LOCN) attested in Kadu. They are also known as "relator nouns" (Starosta 1985:111-112) because they provide specific information about the location. LOCNs in Kadu have a similar role as the English prepositions 'in, at, to, on top of, and under' and occur immediately following the nP. They may be also be followed by postpositions (Chapter 6). The structure of NP + LOCN followed by pè marks a static location, by pà (optionally followed by pè ) which marks a locative source, and by haík which marks a locative goal. They may appear independently like other nouns and are clearly nouns as they can be marked by postpositions (see Chapter 1). In a few cases, they may also indicate temporal relations.

Kadu LOCNs are divided into three groups, adopting Wheatley's (1982) grouping of Burmese locational nouns: horizontal, vertical, and within and without LOCNs.

Horizontal LOCNs express locations such as 'in front of', 'beside', and 'behind'. Kadu horizontal locational nouns are presented in (112).

| (112) halíng | 'behind' |
| :--- | :--- |
| mán | 'in front' < 'face' |
| wánaúk | 'east' |
| wántòk | 'west' |
| címpák | 'south' |
| címmeù | 'north' |
| tahà | 'right side' |
| tapeū | 'left side' |

The terms indicating 'south' and 'north' are clearly conventionalised terms from the location of the house as they contain the initial syllable cím 'house'. The term címpák 'south' also means a corridor or a flat platform which is attached to the house for the purpose of drying paddy and other crops. Similarly, the term for 'north' points to a direction based on the position of the house. However, the lexical meaning for meù is unknown and at this point, unlike the term címpák, it is hard to establish the lexical meaning for címmeù. The terms for 'left' and 'right' are also conventionalised terms from the body part 'hand' as they contain the initial syllable ta- < tahú 'hand'.

The example below exemplifies the use of halíng as a head noun modified by the $3^{\text {rd }}$ person singlular pronoun, as is (113). The modifying pronoun, the speaker himself in (113b), is omitted. The example (113a) is an afterthought sentence (§8.1). Therefore, a locational phrase occurs after the verb complex.
(113) (a) nāngákzík hīnghalíngpèyeù (08:42).

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { nāng-à }=\text { zík } & \text { hīng } & \text { halíng }=\text { pè }=\text { yeù } \\
\text { go-EUPH }=\text { FINALLY } & \text { 3SG } & \text { behind }=\text { LOC }=\text { SAP }
\end{array}
$$

‘Go after/behind him.’
(b) hinngpè tátmí sanàmpánnaà halíngpà anyeùtōpmànglakáé

$$
\left.\begin{array}{llll}
\text { hīng }=\text { pè tātmí sanàn = pán = naà } \\
3 \mathrm{SG} & =\text { LOC torch snatch }=\operatorname{COS}=\text { only }
\end{array}\right] \begin{array}{lll} 
\\
\text { halíng } & =\text { pà an-yeù } & \text { tōp-àng } \\
\text { behind } & =\text { ALL DEM-manner } & \text { stab-DIR }
\end{array}
$$

'I snatched the torch from him and lit it behind (him) in this manner.'

Among the horizontal LOCNS mentioned in (112), only the term mán 'in front' is used to express a temporal relation. It is clearly derived from the word 'face', as in (114).
mán chīpókhalúksà ōmpánnaà līyákhángpánták (15:132)

| mán chīpókhalúk-sà | $\bar{o} m$ | $=$ pán $=$ naà |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| face | worriedly-DIM | make | $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only |

lī-à-háng = pán = ták
come-EUPH-back $=$ COS $\quad=\mathrm{HS}$
'With a gloomy/dejected face (he) came home, it is said.'

It expresses a locational meaning when it occurs immediately following another noun.
Look at the example in (115) provided by one of my informants.
(115) címmánpè thóngmā
cím mán $=$ pè thóng $=m a \overline{ }$
house face $=$ LOC sit $=$ RLS
'(He) is sitting in front of the house.'

It is also used to express a temporal relation such as 'in the future' as illustrated in
(116) kōká mánpàpè maninngyeù ōmyōkàngthàkū ngaúpanáqtè (17:49)
kō = ká mán = pà = pè mà-nīngyeù
self $=$ TOP face $=$ ALL $=$ LOC wH-manner
$\overline{\mathrm{o} m}$ yōk-àng-thà $=$ kū ngaú = panáq $=$ tè
make eat-DIR ${ }_{1}$-must $=$ IRLS say $=$ NOM $=$ A.AG
'As for me, the thing I will have to do for a living in the future ..,'

Although it is not common to find lexical overlap between nouns and verbs in Kadu, in the example in (117) the word mán is used as a verb meaning 'facing'.

## (117) ngāká wānpōtpà mánpán īplaká (18:84)

ngā = ká wānpōt = pà mán = pán īp = lakà
$1 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{TOP} \quad$ fire.place $=\mathrm{ALL} \quad$ face $=\operatorname{COS} \quad$ sleep $=$ MIR
'I slept facing the fire-place.'

Althought the term halíng 'behind' is never attested in my corpus expressing a temporal relation, my language consultants suggested that it is possible to say halingsatá (behind-month) 'last month'. Instead, semantically similar, the Burmese term naúk
is freely used to express the temporal meaning 'after that' or 'later'. To illustrate this I have given Burmese examples in (118). Example (118a) provides locational usage of the term naúk and (118b) provides its usage for temporal relations.


| hkangbra: | nok | $=$ hma | hri.=te |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2SG | behind | $=$ LOC | exist=RLS |

'It is behind you.'

bwe. ra.-pri: =te. nok ma-twei.-kra.-to. =bu:
degree get-finish $\quad=$ NOM behind NEG-meet-PL-PART $=$ NEG '(We) haven't met since (we) graduated.'

The use of naúk in Kadu, expressing the temporal relation 'later' or 'after that', is illustrated in (119).
ngātè azànpánnakà ōmcíyóklé naúktèká līcípánták (24:58)

"'Do/help if you (plural) pity me" later (some people) came, it is said.'

Vertical LOCNS express locations such as 'top', 'below', 'over', and 'above'. The Kadu vertical location nouns attested are illustrated in (120).

| (120) | zaūk | 'on top' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | kamúk ~ hamúk | 'underneath' |
|  | haláng | 'upper area/ head side' |
|  | talà | 'down the road or river' |
|  | tōm | 'below' |
|  | aūksweú | 'place below another' |

The terms mentioned in (120), like horizontal location nouns, may be optionally modified by another noun to indicate specific location. However, unlike mán 'in front of', none of these terms express temporal relations. The examples in (121) illustrate the usage of the term za $\bar{u} k$ 'on top'.
(121) (a) phúnkalùnzaūkpè īpkalá (18:53)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { phún-kalùn zaūk }=\text { pè ìp } & =\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}=\text { lá } \\
\text { wood-plant } \quad \text { on.top }=\text { LOC sleep } & =\mathrm{IRLS}=\mathrm{Q}
\end{array}
$$

(b) $\bar{o}$ zaūkpàpè amínghà (31:57)
ó zaūk =pà =pè a-míng-hà-á
EXCL on.top = ALL = LOC NEG-ripe-know.how-NEG
'Well the top part is not cooked yet.'

The term haláng by itself means 'head' or 'sky'. Its usage as a LOCN is not attested in my corpus. However, my language consultants told me that it can be used metaphorically as a LOCN to indicate 'upper area or headland', as in (122).

## (122) kāhalángpàpè ngāmā

kā haláng = pà = pè ngā = mā
soil head =ALL = LOC exist = RLS
'It exists in the upper parts/reaches of the area.'

The term talà usually refers to a lower area and may be translated as 'down the road' or 'down the river', as in (123).
yahaùngtalàpáqpè ngāmā
yahaùng talà $=$ pà $=$ pè ngā $=m \bar{a}$
river lower =ALL = LOC exist = RLS
'It exists in the lower part/reaches of the river.'

However, if it is retrievable from the context, the preceding head noun may be left out, as exemplified in (124).
(124) achìyá nāngmanaík úngtalàpàpè (07:4)

| a-chī = á | nāng | $=$ manaík | úng | talà |  | pà |  | è |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NEG-true = NEG | go | = only.if | that | lower |  | ALL |  | LOC |

'This is not good. I will go down.'

The term kamúk ~hamúk expresses the location 'underneath', as in (125).
(125) cím kamúkpàhaík tōpmìngmaták (25:99)
cím kamúk = pà = haík tōp-ìng = mā = ták
house beneath $=$ ALL $=$ ABL $\quad$ stab-DIR $_{2} \quad=$ RLS $=\mathrm{HS}$
'(He) stabbed from underneath the house.'

The term aūksweú, glossed as 'lower area' is employed to indicate a place below another place. Therefore, it normally occurs following a locational phrase as shown in (126).
yàk wuntomyóq tóngpaúlaúkáq aūksweú kótānpaúkwáq (08:3)

| yàk | wúntō-myóq | tóngpaúlaú | $=$ káq | aūksweú | kótānpaúkwáq |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| now | PN-town | PN | = LOC | lower.area | PN |

'Kothanpaukwah is below Tongpaulau (which is) now in Wunto (township).'

The term tōm, unlike other LOCNS that follow an NP, only appears as an independent noun. It may correlate with English bottom or below. It is included here because it also expresses vertical location. It occurs only one time in my corpus.
(127) hamòkzaūkhaíkà tōmpáqpè nāngpánnaà (12:3)
hamòk zaūk = haík tōm = pà = pè nāng = pán = naà
sky on.top $=$ ABL below $=$ ALL $=$ LOC go $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only
'I, from the sky above will go to the bottom/below...,

Aside from those LOCNs mentioned above, the Burmese form ๘ъ๓र्ก <ok> 'below', my transcription aúk, also appears frequently in my corpus. Consider the examples in (128). The Burmese example (128a) is taken from Okell 1969:251. Example (128b) is extracted from my corpus.

ku.tang ok =ma hta: -kra. =te
bed under = LOC keep -must = RLS
'(We) had to keep (them) under the bed.'
(b) amútóng aúkpanáq sèk (12:25)

| amú-tóng | aúk $=$ panáq | sèk |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| big.brother-big | below | $=$ NOM |

'the second oldest brother.' (Lit. the one who is under the oldest brother)

The LOCNS that indicate within and without locations are presented in (129).

| naú | 'inside' |
| :--- | :--- |
| pyāng | 'outside' |
| paìk | 'beside' |

The term naú, glossed as 'inside', expresses an interior location. The examples in (130) exemplify this.
(130) (a) taūcīōtèká pòkhúnaúpè zángmaták (25:97)
taūcí = tè = ká pòkhú naú = pè záng =mā = ták
woman $=\mathrm{A} \cdot \mathrm{AG}=\mathrm{TOP}$ basket inside $=$ LOC put.in $=$ RLS $=\mathrm{HS}$
'(He) put the woman inside a basket, it is said.'
(b) anyeù ngā asìnnaúpè ngāpanáqtalé (17:76).
an-yeù ngā asìn naú =pè ngā = panáq =talé
DEM-manner 1SG mind inside $=$ LOC exist $=$ NOM $=$ SAP
'This manner that I have in mind.'

I have not attested a Kadu native word that expresses exterior location in my corpus.
However, one of my informants told me the term pyāng, which is a clear Burmese loanword from Ư尺 <prang>, is used to express exterior location. Consider the examples provided by the Kadu informant in (131) .

## (131) hīng címpyāngpè ōmmā

hīng cím pyāng =pè ōm =mā
3SG house outside $=$ LOC make $=$ RLS
'He is making it outside the house.'

The last LOCN to mention here is the form paík. It has the meaning of 'beside' or 'near', as in (132a) and (132b) respectively.
(132) (a) weúpaíkpè atámúkpán yókcímā (18:07)
weú paík = pè atá múk = pán yók-cí =mā
water beside $=$ LOC food cook $=\operatorname{COS}$ eat-PL $=$ RLS
'We cooked rice beside the water and ate together.'
(b) anáqpaíkpè ngāmā (18:105)
anáq paík $=$ pè ngā $=m \bar{a}$
this beside $=$ LOC exist $=$ RLS
'Don't follow it. (The tiger) is just near here.'

### 3.1.1.2.9 Time nouns

In this section, I present time nouns in Kadu. They are analysed as nouns because of their nominal distributional characteristics. Time nouns related to parts of the day are made up of diverse forms. The basic time nouns are such as taì 'morning', nah $\bar{u}$ 'day (time)', mángyàk 'day’, nákceū 'night', and pí 'year'.

| Unit and dimension | Gloss |
| :--- | :--- |
| taì | 'morning' |
| nah $\bar{u}$ | 'day or mid day' |
| mángyák | 'day time' |
| nákceū | 'night' |
| nákceūhāan | 'evening' |

Table 20: Time nouns in Kadu

The initial syllable na- as in nah $\bar{u}$ 'day' or 'mid day' is probably a reflex of the PTB word *ney 'day’. And the initial syllable nák with the words related to night or evening is a reflex of PTB *nak 'black' as reconstructed by Matisoff (2003:603).

Most of the time nouns are deictic (also called temporal shifters). The deictic centre is usually the time of speaking (but need not be) or to a particular time within the narrative discourse. For example, in (133), a sentence taken from one of the stories, the time noun phàkmák is used for referring to the next day. Therefore, in this case, we can say that the deictic centre is thus located within the timeframe of the narrative.

| taūcí yōk-haút-àng <br> woman  <br> eat-want-DIR ${ }_{1}$  | = záng <br> $=$ EMPH | phàkmák <br> tomorrow | $=$ ká |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $=$ TOP |  |  |  |

'He told his wife to go to the Wuntho market the next day and buy some (food).'

Temporal shifters in Kadu are simple. They may be divided into two: days and years.

|  | Temporal shifers | Gloss |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| BACKWARD | nàkhátóngmák | 'two days before yesterday' |
|  | nàkhàmák | 'the day before yesterday' |
|  | nàkkamák | 'yesterday' |
|  | yàk | 'now' |
|  | yàkmák | 'today' or 'now/this day' |
|  | phàkmák | 'tomorrow' or 'the next day' |
|  | shinnát | 'the day after tomorrow' |
|  | shīnón | 'two days after tomorrow' |
|  | shīneún | 'three days after tomorrow' |

Table 21: Day temporal shifters

Referring to Table 21, most of the day temporal shifters occur with the form mák 'day time'. The backward temporal shifters all contain the initial nàk, which means 'night' in this language ( < PTB *nak 'black'). However, time words related to days yet to come (forward) occur with the initial syllable shī.

Year temporal shifters are as shown in Table 22.

|  | Temporal shifters | Gloss |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| BACKWARD | tamànghá | 'the year before last year' |
|  | tanínhá | 'two years before last year' |
|  | talìnghá | 'last year' |
| CENTRE | yàkpí or yàknīng | 'this year' |
|  | nátnīng | 'next year' |
|  | zátnīng | 'the year after next year' |

Table 22: Year temporal shifters

The word pí 'year' is a loanword from Shan. It is the word Kadu speakers will answer with if you ask for the word 'year' as shown in (134).
(134) hinngká pínùnaík phyeūtáklà (17:23)
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { hīng }=\text { ká pí-nù } & =\text { naík } & \text { phyeū-ta-à } & =\text { lá } \\ 3 \text { sg } & =\text { TOP year-one } & =\text { only } & & \text { answer-L.SUFF-EUPH }\end{array}=$ NOM
'He took the exam only one year.'

The relic form which reflects the PTB word ${ }^{*}$ s-ning 'year' is also attested. Though it is never used in isolation, it shows up in words such as yàkning 'this year', nátnīng 'next year', and zátning 'the year after next year'. Although the native speakers of Kadu were not able to give me the meaning of the last syllable ning, it is clearly a reflex of the PTB form. Below is an example provided by one of my language consultants.
nátnīng ngā ngón ōm $=k u \bar{u}$
next.year 1 SG gold make $=$ IRLS
'Next year I will mine gold.'

Year temporal shifters related to past years (backward) occur with the syllable há. The meaning of this form may not correspond well with an English calendar year. It expresses the general idea of an extended period of time or season, as it also occurs in mánghá 'summer' and shínhá 'winter'. The Kadu lexicon lacks a name for a sevenday week. Time words related to month contain the word satá 'moon' as illustrated in

| satā | 'this month' |
| :--- | :--- |
| mánsatá | 'coming month' |
| halíngpínsatá | 'last/past month' |

Notice the word for moon is satá with a high tone on the last syllable. However, to say 'this month' it is satā with a clear mid tone. This is, once again, the result of a fusion of two identical vowels satá $+\grave{a}$ (moon + one), which resulted in satā 'this month'. The horizontal LOCNS mán 'in front of' and halíng 'behind' precede satá 'moon' to indicate 'coming month' and 'last month' respectively. See horizontal LOCNS in §3.1.1.2.8.

The prefix $k u$ - attaches to time nouns to express the sense of 'every'. My language consultants told me that this prefix is a Shan loanword. Some examples with this prefix are given in (137).

## (137) kūmángyák <br> kūpí <br> kūnákceū

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 'every day' } \\
& \text { 'every year' } \\
& \text { 'every night' }
\end{aligned}
$$

The Kadu, as do the Burmese, follow the twelve lunar months (moon cycles) of the year. Except for a few names of their own, they use the Burmese terms. Older Kadu people are not able to relate to the European calendar, however, younger speakers exposed to modern education frequently make use of the European calendar. Table 23 presents the twelve lunar months. Kadu native terms are represented in parentheses.

| Months | In Burmese | European calendar equivalent |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| takú | O\$ईจ | March-April |
| kasūng | mo§ | April-May |
| nayū | \$uई | May-June |
| wāsō | -ね¢ | June-July |
| wākhaūng | Oी6alc | July-August |
| taūtalín |  | August-September |
| tatíncút |  | September-October |
| tasaūngmúng |  | October-November |
| nataū |  | November-December |
| pyātō (tónkán) | (0,0) | December-January |
| tapóqtweú | oưoj | January-Febuary |
| tapaúng | कโీ6ulc: | Febuary-March |

Table 23: The twelve lunar months

The Kadu recognise three seasons and all the season names occur with the term há, as in (138). The names for summer and winter are Kadu native terms, however, the name for monsoon comes from Burmese ${ }_{1}^{\circ}$ :
mánghá
'summer'
mótwánghá
'monsoon'
shínhá
'winter'

Time adverbials in Kadu are given in (139).

| yàk | 'now/day' |
| :--- | :--- |
| meùtnáhà ${ }^{14}$ | 'a moment ago' |
| meùtnátóng | 'a while ago' |
| ínnáhà | 'a moment later' |
| ínátóng | 'a while later' |
| maeútóng | 'long ago' |
| zaúngshì | 'early' |
| là/halánglà | 'late' |
| yàktánwán | 'the whole day' |

### 3.1.1.2.10 Derived nominals

Derived nominals in Kadu are formed by infixation of -al-, by suffixing a nominaliser to a noun, verb, or VP, or by reduplication. The infix -al- is employed with monosyllabic forms of class terms and verbs. Class terms are discussed in (3.2.5).

[^9]Nouns derived from class terms are given in (140).
(140) Class term to noun derivations

| kák | kalák | 'stick' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hàk | halàk | 'branch' |
| kùn | kalùn | 'tree' or 'plant' |
| húk | halúk | 'rounded object' |
| pōk | palōk | 'nest' |
| pūng | palūng | 'heap' or 'pile' |
| tāt | talāt | 'leaf' |
| saúk | salaúk | 'feet' |
| sān | salān | 'meat' |
| pá | papá | 'flower' |
| tá | talá | 'thread' |
| tū | talū | 'circle' |

Some examples of deriving nouns from class terms by the process of reduplication have also been attested. These are given in (141).

| (141) | shī | shīshī | 'fruit' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | pá | pápá (papá) | 'flower' |
| tī | tītī (tatī) | 'eggs' |  |
|  | $t \bar{u}$ | $t u \bar{u} t \bar{u}(t a t \bar{u})$ | 'seeds' |

Some nouns are also derived from verbs. These are given in (142).
(142) Stative verb-to-noun derivations (nominalisations)

| ák | 'bloom' | $>$ | alák | 'blossom' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| meú | 'be good' | $>$ | maleú | 'good' |
| paîk | 'be broken' | $>$ | palaík | 'half' |
| pàk | 'be bald' | $>$ | palàk | 'flat' |
| saú | 'be nutty' | $>$ | salaú | 'oil' |

(143) Action verb-to-noun derivations (nominalisations)

| típ | 'pack' | $>$ | talíp | 'package (with ties)' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pheú | 'carry' | $>$ | paleú | 'carrier' |
| taút | 'chop' | $>$ | talaút | 'piece' |
| haúk 'make bundle' | $>$ | halaúk | 'bundle' |  |
| hám 'pack' | $>$ | halám | 'package (with no ties)' |  |
| teùt 'clip' | $>$ | taleùt | 'tong' |  |
| taùn 'cut' | $>$ | talaùn | 'piece' |  |
| phīm 'embrace' | $>$ | phalīm | 'amount of an armful' |  |

This -al- derivation in Kadu functions similarly to the Burmese prefix $a$-, however, unlike the Burmese prefix $a$-, it is not productive. Although the $-a l$ - infix appears to have been used with many class terms in Kadu, its occurrence with verbs is not productive. The examples in (144) illustrate the Burmese productive a-prefix nominaliser.

hang: hkrak =te
curry cook = RLS
'He cooked curry.'

hang: a-hkrak toto kong: =te
curry NOM-cook quite good = RLS
'He is quite good at cooking curry.'

In the above example a noun is derived from the verb থjर्币 <hkrak> 'cook' in (144a) into a noun उจई์ <ahkrak> 'cooking', as in (144b) by the $a$ - prefixation. The Kadu derivational infix -al- cannot be used in this context. See the similar examples in (145).
(a) atá mōkmā
atá mōk =mā
rice cook $=$ RLS
'He cooks rice.'
(b) *atá malōk antān meúmā

There are two productive nominalisers, panáq and tìng, in Kadu that are suffixed to verbs or verb complexes to form derived nominals. For example, the verb mōk 'cook', mentioned in (145a) can be nominalised by attaching panáq, as illustrated in (146).
atá mōkpanáq āntān meúmā
atá mōk = panáq āntān meú = mā
rice cook $=$ NOM quite good = RLS
' He ) is quite good at cooking rice.'

The derivational nominaliser panáq occurs both on bare verb stems and on verb complexes. The panáq derived nominals may have a concrete or an abstract sense.

They, like ordinary nouns, can occur as the head of the NP.
(147) (a) hīng ngaúmā

| hīng | ngaú |
| :--- | :--- |
| $=$ mā |  |
| 2 SG | say |$=$ RLS

'He said.'
(b) hīng ngaúpanáq meúmā

| $[$ hīng | ngaú | $=$ pánáq] | meú $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SG say | $=$ NOM | good | $=$ RLS |

'What he said is good.' Or 'He is good at speaking'

The derived nominals in (147b), ngaú panáq, in this case, may function like the gerund in English in its ability to take verbal arguments. The verb meú itself may be nominalised, as in (148).
(148) yōkmeúpanáq yōk
[yōk meú =panáq] yōk
eat good = NOM eat
'Eat what's good!'

The nominaliser panáq occurring after the verb complex is illustrated in (149). (149a) simply illustrates a clause with a verb complex. (149b) illustrates the nominaliser panáq occurring after the complex.
(149) (a) phú nátcímā

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { phú nát-cí = mā } \\
& \text { silver use-PL = RLS } \\
& \text { '(They) are spending cash.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) phú nátcípanáqtè katùngmā (17:42)
[[phú nát-cí =panáq] = tè] katùng =mā
silver use-PL $=$ NOM $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$ see $=$ RLS
'(I) saw people spending cash.'

Derived nominals, as with other ordinary nouns, may be followed by nominal relational markers. The example just mentioned in (149b) and the following examples in (150) illustrate this.
(150) (a) atípanáqtè ōmàngkū (22:10)

| [ [atí | = panáq] | = tè $]$ | ōm-àng | $=\mathrm{ku}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| soft | = NOM | = A.AG | make-DIR ${ }_{1}$ | $=\mathrm{IRLS}$ |

'I will do the soft one.'
(b) ōmhaútpanáqká ngānímmāa $(17: 85)$

(I) have the desire to do (it).'
(c) hīng kápmàngpanáqpè yūwà (18:50)
[hīng káp-àng =panáq] =pè $]$ yū-à

3 SG shoot-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ NOM $=$ LOC look-EUPH
'Look at where he shot.'

In (150a) and (150b) the derived nominals are followed by the anti-agentive marker tè and the topic marker ká, respectively, to mark the NPs as Patient and Topic arguments of the clauses. The derived noun in example (150c) is marked by the locative marker pè, which expresses static location.

The nominaliser panáq may also occur with the clause final particle $k \bar{u}$ 'irrealis' to denote a proposition which has not come to realisation. Look at the two examples in (151) and (152).

## (151) hīng ngaúkūpanáq meúmā

[hīng ngaú $=$ kū $=$ panáq] meú $=m a ̄$
3SG say $=$ IRLS $=$ NOM good = RLS
'What he will say will be good.'
ngatè yōkkūpanáq ínngaúwàngsà (09:89)
[ngā = tè [yōk $=$ kū =panáq]] ín-ngaú-àng = sà
$1 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$ eat $=\mathrm{IRLS}=$ NOM $\quad$ NEG-say-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ NEG.IMP
'Don't say that you will eat me.'

Nouns are also derived by suffixing tìng to make simple deverbal nouns and can be followed by postpositions. Unlike panáq, tìng appears only with a bare verb. Consider the examples in (153).
(153) (a) ītìng ngāmā

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
{[\overline{1}} & =\text { tìng }] & \text { ngā } & =\text { mā } \\
\text { give } & =\text { NOM } & \text { exist } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'(I) have something to give.'
(b) múngtī nyíttatìng laīngzíkseú (30:33)

| [múngtī nyít-ta | $=$ tìng $]$ | lā-ìng | $=$ zík | $=$ seú |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| noodle | squeeze-L.SUFF | $=$ NOM | bring-DIR 2 |  |
| = FINALLY | $=$ SAP |  |  |  |

'Bring something to squeeze the noodles.'
(c) heūtìng sàttìngpè (15:40)

| $[[$ heū | $=$ tìng $]$ | $[$ sàt $=$ tìng $]]$ | $=$ pè |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| climb | $=$ NOM |  | descend $=$ NOM |$\quad=$ LOC

'at the ladders' (Lit. at to climb and to descend)

The semantic difference between derived nouns with panáq and tìng is referential versus non-referential. Compare the examples in (154).

| nāng |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | $[$ heú $=$ panáq $]$ | ngā | $=$ lá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2 S G$ | tell | $=$ NOM |$\quad$| exist |
| :--- |$=\mathrm{Q}$

'Is there anything you've told?'
(b) nāng heútìng ngālá

| nāng | $[$ heú $=$ tìng $]$ | ngā | $=$ lá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2 S G$ | tell | $=$ NOM | exist |$=\mathrm{Q}$

'Is there anything you want to tell?’

The question in (154a) could imply that the person who asked the question presupposed that the hearer may have said something. (154b) does not imply that kind of presupposition. Many Kadu speakers think example (154a) is too straightforward and considered awkward and rude. If the speaker does not intend to be specific or does not want to convey any presupposition, it is appropriate to use the non-referential and indefinite $=$ tìng nominal expression. Look at some more examples in (155) and (156).

$$
\text { yōkpanáq lāìng } \quad \text { (referential) }
$$

| $[$ yōk | $=$ panáq] |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| eat-ìng |  |  |
| eat | $=$ NOM |  |
| bring-DIR 2 |  |  |

'Bring what I ate (this morning).'
(156) yōktìng lāìng
(non-referential)
[yōk = tìng] lā-ìng
eat $=$ NOM bring-DIR 2
'Bring something to eat.' (You may bring anything edible)

### 3.1.2 Verbs

Verbs in Kadu, like in other languages, denote activities, processes, and states.
Adjectives which express dimensions and qualities such as tóng 'big', lóm 'warm', and kán 'bad' function as verbs in Kadu. Therefore, they will be analysed as verbs. An important criterion to define verbhood in Kadu is its ability to occur as the head of a verbal predicate and its ability to be negated. Verbs in Kadu can be directly preceded by one of two negative proclitics, ín- and $a$ - , and followed by verbal modifiers (§7.2) and clause final particles (§7.1). Verbs in Kadu do not take inflectional morphology. There is no person or agreement marking except the verbal optional plural particle, cí (§7.2.2.1).

### 3.1.2.1 Structure of verbs

The structure of Kadu verbs, like nouns, can be analysed as simple or complex.

### 3.1.2.1.1 Simple verbs

Simple verbs are those treated as monomorphemic words by the native speakers of Kadu. Structurally, they may be monosyllabic, sesquisyllabic, or disyllabic words. Monosyllabic forms are the most common of all Kadu verbs. They cannot be further broken down into meaningful units. Some monosyllabic verbs are shown in (157).

| (157) $c e \bar{u}$ | 'sing' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\bar{i}$ | 'give' |
| lī | 'come' |
| $k \bar{a}$ | 'show' |
| kaū | 'call' |
| nāng | 'go' |
| pheú | 'carry' |
| tán | 'beat' |
| yōk | 'eat' |

Sesquisyllabic verbs are made up of minor and major syllables (see syllable structures in §2.7). The most frequent sesquisyllabic verbs forming initial minor syllables in Kadu are: $a$-, $k a-$, sa-, and za-. The etymology of each is unknown. Verbs with sesquisyllabic structures are illustrated in (158).

| (a) aceú | 'vomit' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ahú | 'to boil' |
| atí | 'soft' |
| ashì | 'skinny' |
| ayàn | azàn |
| (b) $\quad$ kahú | 'poor' |
|  | katy' |
| kasín | 'hot' |
| katùng | 'be beautiful' |
| kayà | 'cold' |
| kazeú | 'see' |
| kazíp | 'lose' |
|  | 'change' |
|  | 'wring' |


| (c)sanàn <br> satú | 'snatch' <br> satí |
| :--- | :--- |
| (d) 'be boiling' or 'be noisy' |  |
|  | zanàt |
| zalaút | 'squeeze' |
| zalí | 'drift' |

As shown in (158), the two most common minor syllables in sesquisyllabic verbs are $a$ and ka-. A few other minor syllables are also attested with just one or two occurrences in my corpus. They are ta- as in tapaúk 'speak', na- as in nayá 'be new', and la- as in lawaí 'to reach out'.

Disyllabic monomorphemic verbs are not common in Kadu. Most of the disyllabic or polysyllabic verbs are loanwords. Possible native disyllabic verbs attested in my corpus are given in (159).

| lákzeút | 'tear off' |
| :--- | :--- |
| mānták | 'think' |
| túngák | 'bow (head)' |
| peúnán | 'be obstinate' |

Only one trisyllabic verb, ùhánphám 'yawn', has been attested in Kadu.

### 3.1.2.1.2 Complex verbs

Complex verbs are polymorphemic. They are either compounds or strings of verbs.
Unlike simple verbs, both members of compound verbs are, in most cases, semantically identifiable. These verbs are regarded as lexicalised verbs and recognized by the native speakers of Kadu as a single meaningful unit. Structurally, they can be divided into two groups:
(1) noun + verb
(2) verb + verb

Some examples of noun + verb compounds are given in (160).
(160) Noun + Verb compounds

| mán-katàm | (face-beautiful) | 'shy' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| halá-nāng | (husband-go) | 'marry'15 |
| $\bar{e} k-l \bar{a}$ | (wife-take) | 'marry'16 |
| mōk-pū | (cow-emerge) | 'tend' |
| mōk-thū | (cow-pound) | 'gore' |
| shī-yeú | (medicine-get up) | 'be angry' |

Though in many cases these compound verbs are lexicalised, in my transcription the elements of the compound are glossed separately. Many verbs related to fire appear as

[^10]compound words with the initial member wān 'fire'. Some fire related verbs in Kadu are given in (161).

| wān-mīt | (fire-extinguish) | 'extinguish' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wān-sút | (fire-burn) | 'burn' |
| wān-zū | (fire-add) | 'add firewood' |
| wān-zék | (fire-?) | 'to kindle' |
| wān-tāt | (fire-send) | 'to cast/shed light' |

The fire related verbs in (161) are lexicalised compounds. These verbs, except for $z \bar{u}$ 'add wood' and tāt 'send', do not appear by themselves. The verb mît reflects the PTB word *mi:t 'extinguish' as reconstructed by Matissoff (2003:350).

Verbs related to pain and sickness also occur as compound verbs, as given in (162).

| haláng-zèk | (head-bite) | 'headache' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| púk-hák | (belly-shout) | 'gas in the abdomen' |
| púk-zèk | (belly-bite) | 'have dysentery' |
| púk-zalaút | (belly-drift) | 'have diarrhea' |
| púk-heū | (belly-climb) | 'have flatulence' |

Verb-verb compounds differ from serial verb constructions. They, like exocentric compound nouns, express a meaning which is different from that of either of the components. Serial verbs, on the other hand, usually consist of two or more juxtaposed verbs, both of which together refer to a unitary concept. Some verb-verb compounds which have exocentric compound meanings are illustrated in (163).

Verb + Verb compounds

| yū-nī | (look-lazy) | 'hate' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| katùng-pá | (see-?) | 'imagine' |
| mīng-zák | (spin-hook) | 'lose sense' |
| teút-pū | (hear-emerge) | 'hear' |
| tín-haút | (revile-want) | 'angry' |

### 3.1.2.1.3 Reduplication and attaching attendant words

Kadu verbs may be reduplicated using the same morpheme or may take attendant words ${ }^{17}$. Reduplication of dynamic verbs in Kadu signals an iterative aspect-that is, the reduplication of an action verb has the semantic effect of signalling that the action is being done "frequently" or "repeatedly."
(164) (a) anáq síngngeútshītè yōk yōk pán nímmā (12:70)
anáq síngngeút-shī = tè yōk yōk = pán ním = mā
this fig-CLT.fruit =A.AG eat eat = COS stay = RLS
'The pig, time to time, eats fig fruit and stays.'

[^11](b) àngnáq saēkyaúk lāpánnaà lapā ōm ōmmaták (23:14)

| àngnáq <br> that | saēk <br> daughter | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { yaúk } \\ & =\text { COM } \end{aligned}$ | lā <br> take | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { pán }=\text { naà } \\ & =\cos =\text { only } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| lapā | ōm ōm | $=\mathrm{ma}=$ ták |  |  |
| field | make make | $=\mathrm{RLS}=\mathrm{HS}$ |  |  |

'(He) married/took the daughter and repeatedly did cultivation.'
(c) hīng saēkshàpàpè mānsátú tapaúk tapaúkmaták (23:8)

| hīng saēk-shā |
| :--- |
| 3SG $\quad$ daughter-small $=$ pà mānsáq-tú |
| $=A L L=L O C ~ m a i d e n-l a n g u a g e ~$ |

tapaúk tapaúk $=$ mā = ták
speak speak $=$ RLS $=$ HS
'(He) repeatedly expressed his love to her daughter.'

Stative verbs, unlike dynamic verbs, are not reduplicated from the same phonemic forms. Rather, they, adopting a term from Ayoko (2010), take attendant words. In Kadu, similar to Khmer, attendant words are not free lexemes but must occur together with meaningful word. However, unlike Khmer, the attendant words in Kadu contain two identical syllables which are identical in. Stative verbs together with attendant words signal the delimitative aspect in Kadu-that is, state verbs with attendant words signal the meaning of "somewhat V" or "be V a bit." Three tonal patterns (high-low-low, mid-high-high, and low-mid-mid) are attested with this structure.

This pattern occurs with state verbs such as colour, weather condition and taste terms.
The colour terms with their attendant members are illustrated in (165).

| (165) thú zèkzèk | 'black(ish)' |
| :--- | :--- |
| lúng pùngpùng | 'white(ish)' |
| thún chèkchèk | 'darkish' |
| thún kàngkàng | 'deep darkish' |
| tháng chèkchèk | 'blackish' |
| caeú paìkpaìk | 'yellowish' |
| há zèzè | 'reddish' |

(165) thú zèkzèk
lúng pùngpùng thún chèkchèk
thún kàngkàng
tháng chèkchèk
caeú paikpaìk
há zèzè 'reddish'

The taste terms with their attendant words are illustrated in (166).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (166) túm paùngpaùng } \\
& \text { tī yúnyún } \\
& \text { hà tēktēk } \\
& \text { chí zìngzìng } \\
& \text { chí òmòm }
\end{aligned}
$$

'a little fragrant'
'a little sweet'
'a little bitter'
'a little sour'
'a little lightly sour'

The stative verbs in (166) may also be reduplicated if they are followed by the diminutive marker sà. These patterns are usually interpreted as something that is pleasingly V.
(167) túmtúmsà
tītīsà
chíchísà
'pleasingly fragrant'
'pleasingly sweet'
'pleasingly sour'

The weather terms with their attendant members are illustrated in (168).

| (168) | kasín tùktùk | 'a little cold' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | lúm paùkpaùk | 'a little warm' |
|  | yá taiktaik | 'a little bright' |
|  | thî húnghúng | 'a little shiny' |
|  | ká taìngtaìng | 'a little hot' |
|  | shīm katúkkatúk | 'a little feel cold' |
|  | saceù sínsín | 'a little clear' |
|  | haláng sínsín | 'a little rain' |

Dimension and value verbs also take attendant words. Structurally, they can be divided into two groups. The first group has a second member composed of a minor syllable plus a major syllable. The pattern is that the main vowel and final consonant of the first and second members are identical. The second group involves reduplication of all or part of the second member. If the second member is a sesquisyllabic word only the full syllable gets reduplicated. These are illustrated in (169a) and (169b), respectively.

| (a) | tōn talón | 'a little short' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | pák salák | 'a little wide' |
|  | íp kalíp | 'a little narrow' |
|  | thàk salák | 'a little ugly' |
| (b) | zaūk pátpát | 'a little tall' |
|  | nèk zîkzîk | 'a little heavy' |
|  | nūm tayūyū | 'a little soft' |
|  | zàk taiktaik | 'a little hard' |
|  | zanà haúthaú | 'a little light' |
|  | katàm shishí | 'a little beautiful' |

### 3.1.2.2 Serial verbs: V-V constructions

It is generally accepted that a serial verb construction is a sequence of verbs which act together as a single predicate, without any overt marker of coordination, subordination, or syntactic dependency of any sort (Aikhenvald 2006). In Kadu serial verb constructions, the head verb always comes at the beginning of the verb phrase and the others follow in some sort of subordinate relationship to the head. Four categories of serial verb constructions will be dealt with in the following section: resultative, directional, evaluative, and manner.

### 3.1.2.2.1 Resultative

In the $\mathrm{V}-\mathrm{v}$ resultative construction, the first verb expresses an action and the second verb provides a result of that action. Verbs that can occur as fillers of second verbs in $\mathrm{V}-\mathrm{V}$ resultative compounds are given in (170).
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { (170) } & \text { shí }\end{array}\right]$ 'die' $\quad$ tū $\quad$ 'be cut off'

The verbs in (170), as fillers of second verb in V-V resultative constructions, are illustrated in (171).
(a) nāngtè tánshíkū (25:173)

| nāng $=$ tè | tán-shí | $=\mathrm{ku}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$ | beat-die | $=$ IRLS |
| '(They) | will beat you to death.' |  |

(b) hīng katòktè túttūpánnaà lāìng (12:119)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { hīng } & \text { katòk }=\text { tè tút-tū } & \text { pán }=\text { naà lā-ìng } \\
3 \mathrm{SG} & \text { neck }=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG} & \text { cut-be.cut.off }=\operatorname{COS}=\text { only take--DIR } \\
2
\end{array}
$$

(c) óngshī wánpaîk (21:22)
óng-shī wán-paík
coconut-CLF.fruit chop-be.broken
'Chop up the coconut.'
(d) phónkalùntè thōpaūmā (AKYS)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { phón-kalùn }=\text { tè thō-paū }=\text { mā } \\
& \text { wood-plant }=\text { A.AG push-be.fallen }=\text { RLS } \\
& \text { '(He) pushed over the tree.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(e) salà hásaíkpán $(31: 20)$

| salà | há-saík | $=$ pán |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| banana.leaf | grasp-be.torn | $=\operatorname{COS}$ |

'I grasp the banana leaf (with my hand) to tear (it) apart.'

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { yōk-ceú } & =\text { pán } & \text { īp } & =\text { mā } \\
\text { eat-full } & =\operatorname{COS} & & \text { sleep }
\end{array}=\text { RLS }
$$

'(He) ate until he was full and slept.'

In all the examples in (171), the fillers of the second position are one-argument verbs. Kadu, unlike Burmese, does not have transitive and intransitive verb pairs. In order to express causative accomplishment, verbs like Burmese CUoㅇ <prat> 'cut' and English break, the V-V resultative construction is used (for example, tút-t̄̄ 'cut-be cut off'). The first verb in this type of construction can be filled by any transitive verb. The second verb can be any intransitive verb that expresses a change of state. A particular action verb could be used as the first verb if the speaker knows the action that causes the result stated by the second verb. If the speaker, however, does not know the exact action, then the verb $l \bar{a}$ 'take' is the most common verb to fill the first verb slot in $\mathrm{V}-\mathrm{V}$ resultative constructions. Compare the examples in (172).

## (172) (a) lapòktè wánpaíkmā

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { lapòk }=\text { tè } & \text { wán-paík } & =\text { mā } \\
\text { bamboo }=\text { A.AG } & \text { chop-be.broken } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'Chop up the bamboo.'
(b) lapòktè lāpaíkmā

| lapòk $\quad=$ tè | lā-paík | $=$ mā |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bamboo | $=A . A G$ | take-be.broken | $=$ RLS |
| 'Break the bamboo.' |  |  |  |

Most of the stative verbs that fill the second verb slot cannot take a patient argument. Compare the examples in (173).
(173) (a) lapòk paîkmā
lapòk paík =mā
bamboo be.broken = RLS
'The bamboo is broken.'
(b) *lapòktè paíkmā

The Kadu lexicon lacks causative accomplish verbs like to 'kill'. To kill is 'to cause something to die' in Kadu. Therefore, the equivalent of 'kill' is expressed by a V-V resultative construction, which may be translated as 'do something to death'. If the manner of killing is not known, the generic form to kill is tánshí (beat-die) 'beat to death'. All the examples in (174) may be translated as 'kill' in English.

| tánshí | 'beat to death' |
| :--- | :--- |
| wánshí | 'chop to death' |
| kápshí | 'shoot to death' |
| thōshí | 'push to death' |
| tōpshí | 'punch to death' |

It must be noted that the second verb, which expresses a change of state, may not necessarily be the final result, though it has a strong implication that it is. It can also be an intended or expected result. Whether the action expressed by the first verb really resulted or not is signalled by the CFPs $m \bar{a}$ 'realis' and $k \bar{u}$ 'irrealis'.
(175) (a) ínalūpánnàkà tánshíkū (15:88)

| ín-a-lū | $=$ pánnàkà | tán-shí | $=k \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NEG-NEG-get | $=$ if | beat-die | $=$ IRLS |

'(I) will kill/beat you to death if (you) don't get (it).'
(b) tánshícàngmaták (25:174)
tán-shí-cí-àng $=$ mā $=$ ták
beat-die-PL-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ RLS $=H S$
'(They) killed/ beat (him) to death, it is said.'

### 3.1.2.2.2 Directional

Motion verbs frequently occur as the second member in a V-v directional construction. As in resultative contructions, the first verb expresses an action and the second verb provides the result, but in this case the result is a location. The first verb slot may be filled from an open set of verbs indicating the action. The second slot, however, is limited to a closed set of directional verbs indicating change of location. Motion verbs that can occur as the second verb in $V-\mathrm{V}$ directional constructions are given in (176). Based on different semantic interpretations and causal relationships these verbs are divided into two categories, as in (176a) and (176b).
(a)

| sàt | 'descend' |
| :--- | :--- |
| hē̄ | 'ascend' |
| eút | 'drop' |
| tāt | 'release' |


| (b)nāng 'go' <br> $h \bar{a}$ 'walk' <br> te $\bar{u}$ 'walk/cross (bridge)' <br> $l \bar{i}$ 'come' <br>  $p \bar{u}$ | 'emerge' |
| :--- | :--- |

The first set of verbs mentioned in (176a) describes the action which results from the first verb. When the second slot in a V-v directional construction is filled by sàt 'descend', eút 'drop', or heū 'ascend' as illustrated in (177a, b, and c) there is a tight causal relation. The event described by the two verbs is realised as a single action. They are usually pronounced without a pause between them. See the illustrations of these motion verbs in (177).

## (177) (a) takhāteú útsátnàngmā (08:14)

$$
\text { takhāteú út -sàt-àng }=\text { mā }
$$

$$
\text { at.once abandon-descend-DIR } 1 \quad=\text { RLS }
$$

'(He) threw (it) down (into the river) at once.'
(b) síngngeútkùn zaúkpè phaúkheūpàng (12:72)
síngngeút-kùn zaūk = pè phaúk-heū = páng
fig-CLF.plant on.top $=$ LOC jump.up-climb $=\operatorname{COS}$
'(He) jumped onto the fig tree.'
(c) phīeútteúppàngták (13:5)
phī-eút-teúp = páng = ták
kick-drop-throw $=$ DIR $_{2}: \operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}$
'(They) kicked (him) down, it is said.'
(d) cānsíttáhaík tántātnàngmā (07:117)

| cānsíttá | $=$ haík | tán-tāt-àng |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| PN | $=\mathrm{ABL}$ | beat-release-DIR ${ }_{1}$ |

'Kyansitta beat him away.'

The other closed set of motion verbs, mentioned in (176b), is $n \bar{a} n g$ ' go', $h \bar{a}$ 'walk', te $\bar{u}$ 'walk', $l \overline{\bar{p}}$ 'come', and $p \bar{u}$ 'emerge'. The verbs $h \bar{a}$ and te $\bar{u}$ are both glossed as 'walk' in my corpus. The semantic difference between them is that the verb hā correlates with English walk, teū, however, is used particularly with walking on a bridge or a long pole.
(178) (a) atá mōknāngmā (17:24)
atá mōk-nāng =mā
rice cook-go $=$ RLS
'(She) went cooking.'
(b) ngón ōmhācímā (17:13)
ngón ōm-hā-cí =mā
gold make-walk-PL $=$ RLS
'(They) went out to mine gold.'
(c) kaūlīpín sèktàk pòkhápè kasúmpánnaà (7:28)
kaū-lī = pín sèk-tàk pòkhá = pè kasúm = pán = naà
call-come $=$ NOM person-PL forest $=$ LOC hide $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only
'The people (he) brought were hidden in the forest and ..,'

The verbs nāng 'go' and $h \bar{a}$ 'walk' are interchangeably used in the second slot in V-v directional constructions. The verb $h \bar{a}$ is much more common than the verb nāng. When the second slot is filled by one of the three motion verbs nāng 'go', hā 'walk', or $l \overline{1}$ 'come', as illustrated in (178), unlike the resultative and directional compounds
already mentioned in the examples in (171) and (177), it orders two actions and it is possible to pause between the two elements of the compound. It is realised as a V-V purposive construction which may be interpreted as 'go to do' or simply denote a movement to or away from the deictic centre.

Therefore, we summarize that the motion verbs given in (176a) describe the resulting location, whereas the motion verbs in (176b) describe an expected motion either to or away from the deictic centre. As with resultative constructions where the second verb expresses a change of state to a patient, in directional constructions the second verb may not necessarily represent the final result though it has the strong implication that this is the case. They can be either intended or expected results. Whether the change expressed by the first verb really resulted or not is signaled by the CFPs.

When the verb te $\bar{u}$ 'walk' fills the second slot in V-v directional construction, it denotes going to more than one place. It may be translated into English as 'going from place to place'. Compare the examples in (179) and (180). Example (179) illustrates the verb te $\bar{u}$ as the head verb of the clause.

## takázaūkpè teūmā

taká zaūk =pè teū =mā
bridge on.top $=$ LOC walk $=$ RLS
'(He) is walking on the bridge.'

The examples in (180) illustrate the verb te $\bar{u}$ as the filler of second verb in V-V directional constructions.
(180) (a) peùtyōkteūyàngmā (25:78)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { peùt-yōk-teū-àng } & =\text { mā } \\
\text { lie-eat-walk-DIR } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'(He) went about cheating.'
(b) zémíteūmā (AKYS)
zé mí-tē̄ $=$ mā
market buy-walk $=$ RLS
'(He) went about shopping.'

The motion verb sāng 'enter' has never been attested as the second verb in V-V
directional constructions. The verb $p \bar{u}$ 'emerge' occurs only one time in my corpus as the second verb in a V-V directional structure, as illustrated in (181).
(181) hamúktóngheúq kaúpūpánnaà (18:40)
hamúk-tóng =haík kaú-pū = pán = naà
under-big $=\mathrm{ABL} \quad$ curl.up-emerge $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only
'Having curled up and emerged from under ...,

### 3.1.2.2.3 Evaluative

In this $\mathrm{V}-\mathrm{V}$ evaluative construction, the filler of the second verb gives an evaluative meaning. The verbs that give an evaluative meaning in $V-\mathrm{V}$ construction are given in (182).
meú
yōkyá
yákpheú
kóm
'good'
'difficult'
'aimless'
'enough'

These verbs, unlike those in $V-V$ resultative and directional constructions, do not denote change of state or location. They express evaluative descriptions related to the action of the first verb. In this structure, the two forms are realised as a tight unit and so adverbial modification must come before the whole unit, not before the evaluative terms, as in (183b). These verbs answer questions such as "how is that?." The verb meú, which has the lexical meaning of 'good', denotes something appropriate, advisable, or enjoyable.
(183) (a) nāng nímmeúpè nímààng (08:6)
nāng ním-meú =pè ním-à-àng

2SG stay-good = LOC stay-EUPH-DIR ${ }_{1}$
'Wherever is good/appropriate to live you may live.'
(b) cíceū yōkmeúmaták (15:46)
cíceū yōk-meú = mā = ták
very eat-good = RLS = HS
'It was truly enjoyable/good to eat, it is said.'

The verb kóm as a second verb in V-V construction denotes the meaning of 'be sufficient to' or 'be enough of' the action expressed by the first verb, as illustrated in (184).
páknùpaí saūngpák ngāmásà yōkkómmā (17:47)
pák-nù paí saūng-pák ngā = másà yōk-kóm = mā
hundred-one over two-hundred exist =only.if eat-enough = RLS
'(It) will be enough to eat only when we have over 100 or 200 (tins of) paddy.'

The verb zē̄ 'easy' as a second verb in V-V construction expresses the idea that the action of the first verb is easy, as illustrated in (185).
phón zūwìng satúzeūzàngthāmā (30:29)
phón zū-ìng satú-zeū-zíng-àng = thāmā
wood burn-DIR ${ }_{2}$ boil-easy-JUSS-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ HORT
'Burn more wood. Let's make it boil easily.'

I have also included some verbal modifiers such as yōkyá 'difficult' and yákpheú 'indiscriminately' under these $\mathrm{V}-\mathrm{V}$ evaluative constructions. These two verbs, unlike those mentioned above, never appear as head verbs. However, they are discussed here as they also provide evaluative meaning to the first verb.

When the form yōkyá follows action verbs such as $\bar{o} m$ 'make' or nāng 'go' it denotes the meaning of 'difficulty' or 'hardship'. However, following SENSE verbs (§3.1.2.3.2), it means 'unpleasant' or 'not enjoyable'. Consider the examples in (186).

## (186) (a) mótwánghá thōkpánnàkà lán hāyōkyámā

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { mótwánghá } & \text { thōk } & =\text { pánnàkà } & \text { lán } & \text { hā-yōkyá } \\
\text { rainy.season } & \text { arrive } & =\text { if } & \text { road } & \text { walk-difficult }
\end{array}=\text { RLS }
$$

'If the rainy season arrives, it is difficult to walk on the roads.'
(b) céttaúká teútyōkyámā $(10: 42)$
céttaú =ká teút-yōkyá =mā
PN $\quad=$ TOP listen-difficult $=$ RLS
'(The name) Kyetthaw is unpleasant to hear.'

When the second slot in a $\mathrm{V}-\mathrm{V}$ construction is filled by the term yákpheú, glossed as 'indiscriminately', it denotes no clear intention or direction. Its usage is somewhat similar to that of the verb te $\bar{u}$ 'walk' that I discussed in the section on directional constructions. The semantic difference between these two is that the verb te $\bar{u}$ denotes purposeful action, whereas yákpheú does not.
(187) (a) hāyákpheúyàngkū (21:1)
hā-yákpheú-àng $=k \bar{u}$
walk-indiscriminately-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ IRLS
(I) will walk indiscriminately (around that mountain).'
(b) tapaúkyákpheúmā (25:91)

| tapaúk-yákpheú | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- |
| speak-indiscriminately | $=$ RLS |

'(He) speaks indiscriminately.'

### 3.1.2.2.4 Explanatory

Only one verb, $k \bar{a}$ 'show', in V-V constructions which denote the meaning of demonstration or explanation of the action expressed by the first verb has been attested, as in (188).
(188) (a) maléq heúkākūseúé ngaúmaták (15:139)

| maléq heú-kā | $=k u \bar{u}=$ seùé | ngaú $=$ mā $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1 P L \quad$ tell-show | $=$ IRLS $=$ SAP | say $=$ RLS $=H S$ |

'(They) said, "we will tell-show (explain it to you)", it is said.'
(b) ngā tánkākūu (25:115)

| ngā | tán-kā | $=k \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | beat-show | $=$ IRLS |

'I will beat-show (show you how to beat).'

### 3.1.2.2.5 Manner

Fillers of the second verb in $V-\mathrm{V}$ manner constructions are few in number. The complete listing is given in (189).
(189)

| teúp | 'throw' |
| :--- | :--- |
| út | 'toss' |
| $y \bar{u}$ | 'look' |

When the verbs mentioned in (189) are used in the second slot in V-V constructions, they have a 'kind of manner' adverbial meaning. They have undergone a certain degree of grammaticalisation. They answer the question, "In what manner or how is the action being done?." Their grammaticalised meanings are illustrated in (190).

```
teúp 'swiftly'
út 'impetuously'
y\overline{u}}\quad\mathrm{ 'try out'
```

The verb teúp has the adverbial meaning of 'swiftly' or 'suddenly', as illustrated in (191).
(191) (a) takhāteú athútalē tóngteúpmìngmaták (7:66)

| takhāteú | athútalē | tóng-teúp-ìng $=$ mā $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| at.once | unusually | big-throw-DIR $2=R L S=H S$ |

'(It) swiftly and unusually became big, it is said.'
(b) wàk ngaúkà mīnteúppìng (12:74)
wàk ngaúkà mīn-teúp = píng
pig as.for awake-throw $=\mathrm{DIR}_{2}: \mathrm{COS}$
'The pig suddenly awoke.'

The verb út denotes the adverbial meaning of how impetuously the action expressed by the first verb is done. See the illustrations in (192) and (193).
(192) tākshī shìleúnkalàng yātaúpánnaà tútútnàngmaták seùé (07:65)
tākshī shì-leún kalàng yā-ta = pán = naà
finger four-CLF.stick approximate gauge-L.SUFF $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only
tút-út-àng $=$ mā $=$ ták $=$ seùé
cut-toss-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ RLS $=$ HS $=$ SAP
'(He) gauged (the drum to be) about four fingers length and cut (it) impetuously, it is said.'
(193) zōkshīwaleú tékshīpā laúngtaútákhángpàng (12:127)
zōkshī-waleú tékshī pā laúng-ta-út-à-háng =páng
breast-liquid pot include pour-L.SUFF-toss- EUPH-back $=\operatorname{COS}$
'(He) poured (it) down including the milk pot.'

The verb y $\bar{u}$ denotes the meaning of 'try to' or 'carefully', as in (194). It is also known as 'probative' or 'conative' in the literature. Probative or conative sense deriving from the verb 'see' or 'look' is attested in other TB languages as well. See Coupe (2007:332 ) and Myit Soe (1999:225).
(194) hing halá shíyàngkà címpè nímhángyūmāseùé (17:5)

| hīng halá | shí-àng = ká | cím = pè |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG husband | die-DIR 1$=$ TOP | house $=$ LOC |

'As her husband died she is living at home.' (She will stay until she finds a permanent place.)

Example (194) may be translated, also, as 'She is temporarily living with us. ' or 'She is trying to see how she would fit living with a family again.'. When the verb y $\bar{u}$ follows a cognition verb such as sínzá 'think', yū denotes an adverbial meaning something like 'to V-carefully', as in (195).
(195) anaūyathā mínkáq sínzátaúyūwàngmatákseùé (07:09)
anaūyathā mín =káq sínzá-ta-yū-àng =mā =ták = seùé
PN king = LOC think-L.SUFF-look-DIR $R_{1}=$ RLS $=$ HS $=$ SAP
'The king, Anawyatha, was thinking carefully(about it), it is said.'
$y \bar{u}$ is also frequently attached to the verb zing 'ask', as in (196).
(196) (a) taūcítè hīngká zīngyūmā seùé (08:115)

| taūcí $=$ tè hīng | = ká zīng-yū | $=$ mā $=$ seùé |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| woman | $=$ A.AG 3 SG | $=$ TOP ask-look | $=$ RLS $=$ SAP |

'He tried asking the woman.'
(b) hinng chíthaúngtè zīngyūheúqmaták (25:59)
hīng chíthaúng $=$ tè zīng-yū-háng-ìng =mā $=$ ták
3SG bag =A.AG ask-look-back-DIR $2_{2}=$ RLS $=\mathrm{HS}$
'(They) tried asking his bag, it is said.'

The example in (196b) is taken from a story where the bag was able to speak like a human. When the verb $y \bar{u}$ is attached to zing, it has the meaning of 'ask (for information)'. Whereas the verb zing itself means 'ask (for something)', the verb zingyy $\bar{u}$ is lexicalised as one unit by the native speaker of Kadu.

### 3.1.2.3 Verb classes

Morphosyntactically, there are no grammatical devices to signal voice or transitivity alterations in Kadu. A transitive verb can take a patient argument which may be marked by the anti-agentive marker tè (6.2) if the patient is animate, as exemplified in (197).
(197) (a) kasàtóngtè zàkmaták (09:4)

| kasà-tóng | $=$ tè | zàk $=$ mā $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tiger-big | $=$ A.AG | afraid $=$ RLS $=$ HS |

'(The rabbit was) afraid of the tiger, it is said.'
(b) nāng sātàktè tánshíkū (15:4)

| nāng | sā-tàk $=$ tè | tán-shí | $=\mathrm{k} \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 SG | son-PL $=\mathrm{A} . A G$ | beat-die | $=$ IRLS |
| (I) will kill your sons.' |  |  |  |

The distinction between stative and dynamic verbs in Kadu is largely based on semantics. Using the marking of progressive aspect, such as V-ing in English, to distinguish stative and dynamic verbs does not work in Kadu. In Kadu, both progressive and durative aspects are marked by a single auxiliary verb, ním 'stay', e.g., ōm-ním 'do-ing' and món-ním 'being-happy’.

On distributional grounds, the most noticeable distinction between stative and dynamic verbs in Kadu is their position when they are attributive modifiers of NPs. Dynamic verbs, used as nominal modifiers require derivation as nominals via $=$ panáq to function
as attributives, precede the head, shown in the $\}$ brackets in the examples in (198), in a relative clause structure.
(198) (a) tacámín īpanáq cēngseútcā (07:100)

| $\{$ tacámín | $\overline{1}$ | $=$ panáq $\}$ | cēng-seútcā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PN | give | $=$ NOM | rattan-weapon |

'The rattan weapon that Tacamin gave'
(b) eúhám wánpeúpanáq phónkalùntē (08:59)
\{eúhám wán-peú $=$ panáq\} phón-kalùn-tē
PN chop-keep = NOM wood-plant-PL
'The tree that Euham cut down ..,'
(c) mángsátàk nēkpanáq kasé sāngsūng (08:79)
\{mángsá-tàk nēk = panáq\} kasé sāngsūng
prince-PL dress.up $=$ NOM sarong shirt
'The clothes that princes wore’
(d) kātè ōmpanáq laúkzà, (19:8)
\{kā = tè ōm = panáq $\}$ laúkzà
soil =A.AG make $=$ NOM mud.stone
'The mud stone that was made from the dirt/soil'

However, stative verbs immediately follow the head noun which they modify. This type of adjectival verb modifying the head noun is mentioned in the section on NOUN + VERB compounds in §3.1.1.1.2. More examples are given in (199).

| (199) | weú-lóm | (water-warm) | 'warm water' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kweú-lóng | (monkey-white) | 'white monkey' |  |
| kasà-tóng | (tiger-big) | 'big tiger' |  |
|  | ēk-shā | (wife-small) | 'second wife' |

### 3.1.2.3.1 Transitive verbs

Transitive verbs in Kadu can take a patient argument. Some of the monotransitive verbs in Kadu have a prototypically default body part associated with the verb as an Instrument/Manip. For example, the verbs tāk 'lick' and phī 'kick' have body parts 'tongue' and 'leg' as part of their lexical meaning. In the following section, I examine verb classes that have monotransitive interpretations. These verbs may be further divided into: AFFECT, PLACEMENT, MENTAL EXPERIENCE, LIKING, and UTTERANCE verbs.

Adopting Dixon's (1991) analysis, AFFECT verbs are prototypically transitive verbs. These verbs, quoting Dixon (1991:110), involve three semantic roles:
(a) an Agent moves or manipulates something (Manip)
(b) so that it comes into contact with some thing or person (Target)
(c) either the Manip or Target will be physically affected by the activity.

In this type, the Agent is typically a human and the Target may be either human or nonhuman. The term Manip is used as a cover term for instrument, an object usually held by the Agent, or a body part of the Agent. Under the AFFECT verbs, I have examined verb types such as TOUCH, RUB, HIT, SEVER, STRETCH, WRAP, BREAK, and CREATE.

Under the category of TOUCH verb, only one verb, thōk 'touch something slightly with something else', has been attested. The prototypical Manip is, by default, a body partthe hand. It denotes a light contact with the Target. The Target may be marked by locative marker $=p e ̀(200)$ or anti-agentive $=t e ̀$ as in (201). The Manip may be either implicit or explicit. For example, the Manip which is the body part-hand in (200) is implicit.
(200) caìkshītè lāpánnaà hinng típéq thōkàngmaták (08:12)

| caìk-shī | $=$ tè | lā <br> mango-CLT.fruit <br> =A.AG |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| take $=$ nán |  |  |
| ta |  |  |

'(He) took the mango and touched it on his penis, it is said.'

However, if the Manip is explicit, and is an instrument rather than a human body part, it must be explicitly marked with the comitative yaúk, as illustrated in (201).
(201) kaphútè ashí shí míngsàhàlūyák haúntùyaúk thōkyūmā (AKYS)

| kaphú | $=$ tè | a-shí | shí | míngsàhà-lū |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| snake | $=$ yák |  |  |  |
| A.AG | NEG-die | die | know | -get |
| = PURP |  |  |  |  |

'(He) touches the snake with a stick to see if it is dead or alive.'

RUB verbs describe the Manip being operated to affect the surface of the Target. RUB verbs attested in Kadu are given in (202).

| (202) | pì | 'stroke' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| aheú | 'scratch with hand' |  |
| né | 'rub' |  |
| tāk | 'lick' |  |
| phaík | 'scratch with feet' |  |

The verbs né 'rub', phaík 'scratch with feet', and aheú 'scratch with hand' may
 the surface of the Target. The Manip for the first three verbs in (202) is a default body part-the hand. The Manip of tāk 'lick' and phaík 'scratch' are default body parts-the tongue and animal's legs ( particularly the chicken's feet), respectively. It is awkward and redundant to explicitly mention the Manip with these verbs. Some examples are shown in (203).
(203) (a) *zūntè salíyaúk tākmā (AKYS)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { zūn } & =\text { tè } & \text { salí }=\text { yaúk tāk }=\text { mā } \\
\text { salt } & \text { = A.AG } & & \text { tongue }=\text { COM lick }
\end{array}
$$

'(He) licks the salt with his tongue.'
(b) *ūtē haùktè phaîkpeúmālé (AKYS)

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text { ū-tē } & \text { haùk }=\text { tè tā } & \text { =yaúk phaík-peú }=\text { mā } \\
\text { fowl-PL } & \text { field } & \text { =A.AG leg } & \text { =COM } & \text { scratch-keep } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'The chickens have scratched the field with their legs.'

HIT verbs involve a degree of force coming into contact with the Target. Here again, like the TOUCH and RUB verbs, the default Manip is usually a specific body part unless otherwise explicitly clarified. HIT verbs in Kadu are given in (204).

| phī | 'kick' |
| :--- | :--- |
| phít | 'kick' |
| tán | 'beat/hit' |
| tōp | 'punch' or 'stab' |
| hā̄ | 'strike' |
| mōkthū | 'gore' |

The verbs mentioned in (204) describe a volitional Agent using a Manip to make forceful contact with the Target. The prototypical Manip of phī 'kick', tán 'beat', and tōp 'punch' is a default human body part-the leg for the first and the hand for the last two. The Manip of phít 'kick' is a default animal body part-the leg. The Manip of mōk-thū (cow-pound) 'gore' or 'butt' is, prototypically, a cow body part-the horn. The first word may be replaced by any horn-bearing animal.

The prototypical Manip of haū 'strike' is a long object, such as peúkút 'adze' or yīthú 'axe'. It also occurs with an animate Manip-the snake. Semantically, we can consider these related because a snake uses its body as a Manip to make forceful contact with the Target . With inanimate Manips, the representation of the Manip must be explicitly marked with the comitative marker yaúk. However, with an animate object such as in the case of the snake's strike, the Manip is implicit. Compare the examples in (205).

## (205) (a) kaphú haūshíyàngmaták (09:101)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { haíkmā kaphú haū-shí-àng =mā = ták } \\
& \text { that.time snake strike-die-DIR }{ }_{1}=\text { RLS }=H S \\
& \text { 'That time, the snake killed (the tiger), it is said.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) phónkalùntè yīthúyaúk haūmā (AKYS)

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { phón-kalùn } & =\text { tè yīthú = yaúk } & \text { haū }=\text { mā } \\
\text { wood-plant } & \text { =A.AG axe }=\text { COM } & \text { strike } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'Chop the tree with an axe.'

The Manip of tán and tōp may also be instruments. In that case the Manip must be explicitly mentioned and marked with the comitative marker yaúk, as illustrated in (206).
(206) hīng cītè zaūngwaíyaúk tánnā (AKYS)

| hīng | cī | $=$ tè | zaūngwaí | =yaúk | tán | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SG | dog | $=$ A.AG | rattan | $=$ COM | beat | $=$ RLS |

'He hits the dog with a rattan.'

The Manip may also occur as a topic of the clause which may be marked by the topic marker ká in Kadu. In my corpus, there is one story in which the adze had a magical power and was treated like a faithful servant-instrument of a certain man. Look at the example in (207a) in which the master orders the adze to go and cut someone's neck. In this context, the Manip-adze is marked by the topic marker ká and take the role of agent referent, as in (207b).
(207) (a) keù peúkút hīng katòktè wántūpánnaà lāhángìngyók (12:93)

'Adze, go and cut his neck and bring back (the magic ball).'
(b) peúkútká wántūpánnaà tátlúng lāhángpíng (12:94)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { peúkút } & =\text { ká } \text { wán-tū } & & \text { = pán }=\text { naà } \\
\text { adze } & =\text { TOP chop-be.cut.off } & & =\cos =\text { only }
\end{array}
$$

tátlúng lā-háng = píng

$$
\text { magic.ball take-back } \quad=\mathrm{DIR}_{2}: \operatorname{COS}
$$

'The adze cut off (the neck) and brought the magic ball.'

SEVER and BREAK verbs involve an Agent using a Manip to change the physical unity or the shape of the Target. These verbs can be divided into two groups-one which takes non-human instruments as Manips by default and one that takes human body parts as Manips by default. Verbs that take non-human instrument as Manip are given in (208).

| (208) haū | 'strike' |
| :--- | :--- |
| phék | 'break off (hard cover)' |
| taū | 'prune' |
| tút | 'cut' |
| thaū | 'reap (thatch)' |
| thaù or thwáng | 'carve' or 'gouge' |
| thít | 'nick' |
| wán | 'chop (with knife)' |
| wát | 'shave' |
| yáp | 'reap (paddy)' |
| yīp | 'reap (leaves)' |

The prototypical Manips of the verbs mentioned in (208) are, by default, sharp metal objects. The Manips of wán and haū are 'knife' and 'axe', respectively. The verbs yáp and tha $\bar{u}$ take the same Manip, a sickle, but have different typical patients. The Manip may be implicit or explicit. If the Manip is explicitly mentioned, it must be marked with the comitative marker yaúk. Compare the sentences in (209) and (210).
(209) kàmpángkùntóngtè pahōzī thwángtaúpánnaà tánmaták (06:35)
kàmpáng-kùn-tóng = tè pahōzī
PN-CLF.plant-big =A.AG drum
thwáng-ta = pán = naà tán =mā = ták
carve-L.SUFF $=$ COS $=$ only beat $=$ RLS $=$ HS
'(They) carved the Gambang tree into a drum and played, it is said.'
(210) phónkalùntè tāngkaūtóngyaúk wánnā (15:22)
phón-kalùn $=$ tè tāngkaū-tóng $=$ yaúk wán $=m a ̄$
wood-plant =A.AG sword-big =COM chop = RLS
'Cut the tree with a big sword.'

BREAK verbs that take human body parts as Manips are given in (211).
ngàt
tèk 'break (leaves)'
kàp 'break off (soft shell)'

The Manips of ngàt and kàp are human body parts-the hands. The Manip of the verb tèk is usually finger tips, however, it may also be a non-body part-a sharp tiny instrument. If the Manip of the verb tèk is a non-human body part, it must be marked by a comitative marker yaúk. If the Target is clear from the context it can be omitted. Compare the two example sentences in (212).

## (212) (a) kānzū tèkmā (AKYS)

kānzū tèk =mā
mustard break $=$ RLS
'Break off the mustard leaves (from the plant).'
(b) tāngshìyaúk kānzū tèkmā (AKYS)

| tāng-shì | $=$ yaúk | kānzū tèk | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| knife-DIM | $=$ COM |  | mustard break |$=$ RLS

'Cut the mustard leaves with a knife.'

NPs before the verb have pragmatically determined word ordering (§8.1). Notice in example (212) the Manip occurs in clause initial position.

Only a few STRETCH verbs, theú 'be widened', kāk 'make taut', and phāk 'twist', have been attested in my corpus. The prototypical Manip for these verbs is a human body part-the hand. These are illustrated in (213).
(213) (a) zángkōk salètè kākmā (06:35)

| zángkōk-salē | $=$ tè | kāk | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lizard-leather | $=$ A.AG | make.taut | $=$ RLS |

'Tighten the lizard skin.'
(b) shíthaúngtè theúmā

| shíthaúng | $=$ tè theú | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bag | $=$ A.AG be.widened | $=$ RLS |

'(He) opened/stretched the bag.'
(c) yāmpák phākmā

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { yāmpák phāk = mā } \\
& \text { hemp twist = RLS } \\
& \text { '(He) twists the hemp.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

WRAP verbs involve an Agent using a Manip to wrap or cover a Target. The wrap verbs attested in my Kadu data are given in (214).
(214)
phú

| sūp | 'wear (hat)' |
| :--- | :--- |
| $n \bar{e} k$ | 'wear (lower garments)' |
| $t a \bar{u}$ | 'wear (upper garments)' |
| $p i ́$ | 'put on (sandal)' or 'ride' |
| phūn | 'wrap' |
| $t i ́ p$ | 'pack' |
| $n \bar{o} p$ | 'bury' or 'cover' |

Notice that the Kadu lexicon includes many WRAP verbs which may be translated into English as 'wear' or 'put on'. A lot of these verbs are tightly linked with specific NPs. For example, the verb phú is associated only with an umbrella or bamboo hat, phún is associated only with blankets or sheets, and nēk is associated only with clothes worn on the lower part of the body. These NPs usually occur immediately before the verbs. The Manips of WRAP verbs are conventionalised to the extent that they don't take the comitative marker yaúk, as was the case with HIT and SEVER verbs.

## (215) (a) halángweúmā phūkná phúīyók (AKYS)

| haláng-weú | $=$ mā phūkná | phú ī | =yók |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sky-water | $=$ RLS bamboo.hat | put.on give | $=$ INTRUSIVE |

'(It is) raining. Put a bamboo hat on him.'
(b) *halángweúmā phūknáyaúk phúīyók

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { haláng-weú }=\text { mā } & \text { phūkná } & \text { =yaúk phú-ī } & =\text { yók } \\
\text { sky-water } & =\text { RLS } & \text { bamboo.hat } & =\text { COM put.on-give }
\end{array} \text { = INTRUSIVE }
$$

However, when the Manip is followed by an attributive element to indicate contrast or emphasis, the comitative yaúk may optionally be added. The Manip with the comitative yaúk occurs as clause initial as illustrated in (216a-b).
(216) (a) phūknáyaúk phúīmā (AKYS)

| phūkná | $=$ yaúk | phú $\overline{1}$ | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bamboo.hat | $=C O M$ | put.on give | $=$ RLS |

'(They) put a bamboo hat (not the umbrella) on him.'
(b) satēngyaúk cím nōpmā

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { satēng = yaúk cím nōp = mā } \\
& \text { thatch }=\text { COM } \quad \text { house cover }=\text { RLS } \\
& \text { '(They) are roofing the house with thatch (not with zinc).' }
\end{aligned}
$$

In some contexts, the conventionalised Manip can be left out and still be retrievable from the context. See the illustrations in (217).
(217) (a) atá tékshītè ōpmànglé (AKYS)

| atá tékshī | $=$ tè |  | $\bar{o} p-a ̀ n g$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| rice pot | $=$ A.AG |  | $=$ lé |
| close-DIR |  |  |  |

'Oh! cover/put the rice pot('s lid).'
(b) hīng phún īmásà īpkū

| hīng | phún $\overline{1}$ | $=$ másà | ip | $=k \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SG | wrap | give | $=$ only | sleep |$=$ IRLS

'I will sleep only if he covers me (with the blanket).'

CREATE verbs refer to creating or manufacturing objects from some other materials.
These verbs use a Manip to produce some new entity. The prototypical Manips of these verbs are human body parts. The CREATE verbs attested in my Kadu data are shown in (218).
$z \bar{a}$
$\bar{o} m$
mōk
wā
tàk
'build'
'make'
'cook'
'plait (of bamboo or cane strips)'
'weave (of thread)'

The verb mōk 'cook' is tightly linked with specific NPs. The prototypical Manip of the verb $m \bar{o} k$ 'cook' is an instrument-a pot. The Manip is conventionalised and usually left out. See the illustration in (219).
(219) hīng apòmákhà pūpán mōktalé (15:52)
hīng a-pò = mákhà pū = pán mōk = talé
3sg NEG-exist $=$ time/when emerge $=$ COS cook $=$ SAP
'(She) cooked when (he) was absent.'

However, when the Manip is followed by an attributive element or is something other than a prototypical pot, the comitative marker yaúk is obligatorily added. See the illustrations in (220).
(220) (a) atá thòmpòkyaúk mōkmā
atá thòmpòk =yaúk mōk =mā
rice bamboo.tube $=$ COM cook $=$ RLS
'The rice was cooked in a bamboo tube.'
(b) watéktóngyaúk mōkmā
waték tóng =yaúk mōk =mā
steam.pot big =COM cook = RLS
'(It was) cooked in a big steam pot.'

Placement verbs in Kadu are further divided into MOVE, PLACE, HANG, TAKE IN/OUT, and SEND verbs.

MOVE verbs, which cause objects to change their location, can be used transitively. The prototypical Manip of most of these verbs is by default a human body part-the hand. The mOVE verbs attested in Kadu are shown in (221).

| (221) út | 'toss' |
| :--- | :--- |
| teúp | 'throw' |
| káp | 'shoot' |
| taleút | 'move' |
| thō | 'push' |
| tún | 'pull' |
| cèng | 'roll' |

The Manip of the verb káp 'shoot' is a non-body part-an instrument. Therefore, it is obligatorily marked by the comitative marker yaúk. It is illustrated in (222).
(222) laúkléyaúk ūhaú kápmàngmā (19:1)
laúklé =yaúk ūhaú káp-àng =mā
sling.shot $=$ COM owl shoot-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ RLS
'(He) shot (the owl) with a sling shot.'

PLACE verbs, similar to MOVE verbs, also cause objects to change their location. The prototypical Manip is by default a human body part-the hand. PLACE verbs attested in my Kadu data are given in (223).

| peú | 'keep' |
| :--- | :--- |
| tāng | 'put onto' |
| thaū | 'put down' |
| pám | 'soak in liquid' |
| haùt | 'put in' |

These verbs have lexicalised locative meanings. Therefore, an overt locative argument is not necessary unless the speaker wants to give a specific locative meaning.
(224) (a) manīngyeù peúcíkalá (11:35)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { mà }=\text { nīngyeù peú-cí } & =\mathrm{ku} \quad=\text { lá } \\
\mathrm{WH}=\text { manner } & \text { keep-PL } & =\text { IRLS }=\mathrm{Q}
\end{array}
$$

(b) anáq paíkpè peú $(08: 63)$
anáq paík $=$ pè peú
this beside = LOC keep
'Just keep/put (them)!’

The verb thaū 'put down' has the conventionalised meaning of putting down a cooking pot from a fireplace. Compare the sentences in (225). The first sentence, (225a), is grammatical while (225b) is not.
(225) (a) yàkká thaūwàngmák (30:49)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { yàk } & =\text { ká thaū-àng } & =\text { mák } \\
\text { now } & =\text { TOP put.down-DIR } & =\text { HORT }
\end{array}
$$

'Now, let's put down (the pot).'
(b) *mōksūp thaūwàng
mōksūp thaū-àng
hat put.down-DIR ${ }_{1}$

For putting down objects other than cooking pots, the speakers of Kadu more frequently use the verb cháq, which is a loanword from Burmese श] <hkra.> 'put down'.
(226) (a) ngayeú cháqtakū (26:28)

| ngayeú cháq-ta | $=k \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| hell put.down-L.SUFF | $=$ IRLS |

'(I) will put (you) in hell.'
(b) phàkmák kazī cháqtamák (29:12)

| phàkmák | kazī | cháq-ta | $=$ mák |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tomorrow | trap | put.down-L.SUFF | $=$ HORT |

'Let's put traps tomorrow.'

The verb pám 'soak in liquid' has a lexicalised locative meaning, therefore, it is not necessary to mention a location unless the type of liquid is worth mentioning. Compare the two sentences in (227).
(227) (a) thóng zángpán cwêúqtè pám (21:10)

> thóng záng = pán cwēúq = tè pám
lime put.in $=$ COS wild.yam =A.AG soak
'Put (in) lime and soak the wild yam (in the water).'
(b) shīlákshītè zūnweúpè pámpánnàkà yōkmeúmā (AKYS)
shīlák-shī = tè zūn-weú =pè
gooseberry-CLF.fruit =A.AG salt-water =LOC
pám = pánnàkà yōk-meú =mā
soak =if eat-good = RLS
'If (you) soak gooseberry in salty water (it is) good to eat.'

HANG verbs such as wē̄̄ 'hang', $c \bar{e} k$ 'suspend', and hīt 'hang' have specific locations associated with the lexical verb so a locative argument is not necessarily overtly expressed. The prototypical Manip of these verbs is a human body part-the hand. The semantic difference between we $\bar{u}$ and hit is that the former is used when hanging an object on a hook and the latter is used when the object which contains a hook is hung on the wall. Compare the example sentences in (228).
(228) (a) shíthaúngtè weūyàng (AKYS)

| shíthaúng | $=$ tè | weū-àng |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bag | $=$ A.AG |  |
| hang-DIR |  |  |

'Hang the bag! (on the wall/post).'
(b) yīthútè phónkalùnpè hîtnàng (AKYS)
yīthú = tè phón-halák =pè hīt-àng
axe $\quad=$ A.AG wood-branch $=$ LOC hang-DIR ${ }_{1}$
'Hang the axe on the tree branch!'

The verb cēk has the meaning of hanging something from the neck. Therefore, a locative phrase is redundant and unnecessary.
(229) úng shīshā cēkpeúpanáq katàmmā (AKYS)
úng shīshā cēk -peú = panáq katàm = mā
that child suspend-keep $=$ NOM beautiful = RLS
'The one that kid is wearing/suspended (on his neck) is beautiful.'

TAKE IN/OUT verbs such as nòk 'take out something by putting a hand into a bag/hole' and záng 'put in', involve a locative source and goal, respectively. The locative source and goal may be marked by the locative enclitic $=p e ̀$ as in (230) and (231).
(230) kalùng ${ }^{18}$ shíthaúngpè nòkpán ícímták (20:22)
kalùng shíthaúng = pè nòk = pán ī i cí $=m \bar{a}=$ ták
PN bag $=$ LOC take.out $=\operatorname{COS} \quad$ give-PL=RLS $=H S$
'They took (it) out of Kalung's bag and gave (it), it is said.'
(231) lōngzātèsà shíthaúngpè zángpán nāngmā (16:11)
lōngzā = tè sà shíthaúng = pè záng = pán nāng = mā
honing.stone =A.AG merely bag = LOC put.in $=\operatorname{COS}$ go $=$ RLS
'(He) put the honing stone only in the bag and went away.'

However, the locative source or goal may be omitted if they are recoverable from the context as in (232).
(232) (a) ahā nòkkà nùwàzeú alùwà (AKYS)
ahā nòk = ká nù-à =zeú a-lū =á
crab take.out $=$ TO CLF.animal-one $=$ even NEG-get $=$ NEG
'(I went) taking crabs out (of their holes) but didn't get even one.'

[^12](b) cwēíqtè kazíppán záng (21:18)
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { cwēúq = tè } \quad \text { kazíp = pán záng } \\
& \text { wild.yam = A.AG } \quad \text { squeeze = COS put.in } \\
& \text { 'Squeeze the wild yam and put (them) in (the pot).' }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

SEND verbs such as tāt 'release, send someone/something' and sák 'send something.' have a lexicalised locative meaning related to sending something/someone to some place. If the locative source or goal is retrievable from the context, it may be implicit as illustrated in (233).
(233) (a) hīng ēktè tātpán (08:85)
hīng ēk =tè tāt = pán
3 SG wife $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$ release $=\operatorname{COS}$
'(He) sent his wife.'
(b) nāng saēktè lākákmāyeù céng sákìngmaták (04:12)

| nāng 2SG | saēk <br> daughter | $=$ tè $=$ A.AG | lā-kák take-want | $\begin{aligned} & =\mathrm{ma}=\text { yeù } \\ & =\mathrm{RLS}=\mathrm{SAP} \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| céng | sák-ìng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |  |  |
| letter | send-DIR ${ }_{2}$ | $=$ RLS |  |  |

'(They) sent a letter which says "(We) want to take your daughter (for our son)", it is said.'

If there is an noun representing the goal or source, it may be optionally marked by the allative pà or ablative haík to mark a locative goal and source, respectively. They are illustrated in (234) and (235).
àngnáq mandalayhaîk tātnìngmā (AKYS)

| àngnáq | mandalay $=$ haík | tāt-ìng | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| that | Mandalay $=\mathrm{ABL}$ | send- $\mathrm{DIR}_{2}$ | $=$ RLS |

'This was sent from Mandalay.'
(235) nāng sātàktè tachápà sákkákpán sákà (15:6)
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { nāng } & \text { sā-tàk }=\text { tè } & \text { tachá } & =\text { pà } \\ 2 \mathrm{SG} & \text { son-PL }=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG} & \text { other.place } & =\text { ALL }\end{array}$
sák-kák = pán sák-à
send-want $=$ if send-EUPH
'Send your sons to wherever you want.'

Mental experience verbs, a term used by Croft (1991:169), generally take two arguments with the thematic roles of an experiencer and a stimulus (Perceiver and Impression in Dixon's terminology 1991:131). The reference to the experiencer, which is usually human, always occurs before that of the stimulus in Kadu. The Mental EXPERIENCE verbs attested in my Kadu corpus are given in (236).

| (236) katùng | 'see' |
| :--- | :--- |
| yū | 'look' |
| teút | 'hear' |
| teútpū | 'listen' |
| zōpyū | 'taste' |
| mít | 'love' |
| yūn̄̄ | 'hate' |
| zàk | 'fear/ afraid' |
| leútkān | 'accept' |

The first five mental experience verbs in (236) describe straightforward acts of perception, in which an experiencer uses eyes, ears, nose, or tongue to experience the stimulus. If the stimulus is recoverable from the context it may be omitted, as in (237).
(237) nacá teútnà yūzípánnaà līháng (04:15)
nacá teút-à yū-zí =pán = naà lī-háng
carefully listen-EUPH look-finish =COS = only come-back
'Go listen and look carefully (to what he said) and come back!'

These verbs, teút 'listen' and teútpū 'hear', take nominals (including nominalised clauses) as complements. Complement clauses are shown in $\}$ brackets in the following examples. In the following examples reference to the experiencer (second person in (238a) and first person in (238b)) is omitted.
(238) (a) ósací ngaúpanáq teútpūànglá (AKYS)
\{ósací ngaú $=$ panáq $\} \quad$ teútpū-àng $=$ lá
teacher say $=$ NOM hear-DIR ${ }_{1}=\mathrm{Q}$
'Did (you) hear what the teacher said?'
(b) hīng técháng ceūpanáqtè teútnímmā (AKYS)
\{hīng técháng ceū = panáq\} = tè teút-ním = mā
3SG song sing $=\mathrm{NOM}=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$ listen-stay = RLS
'(I) am listening to his singing.'

On the other hand, with the last four verbs, mít 'love', yūnī 'hate', zàk 'fear/ afraid' and leútkān 'accept', an experiencer expresses an attitude of rememberance or fear that
the complement proposition has been realised (Noonan 2007:130). The Experiencer may be optionally marked by the topic marker ká. The Stimulus may be realised as a simple NP , as in (239), or may be a complement NP, which may be marked by the anti-agentive tè, as in (239b).
(a) myáqmyáqtè mítnā (AKYS) $\quad$ ( $\begin{array}{rlrl}\text { myáqmyáq } & =\text { tè } & \text { mít }=\mathrm{ma} \\ \text { PN } & =\mathrm{A} \cdot \mathrm{AG} & & \text { love }=\text { RLS }\end{array}$
'(I) love Mya Mya.'
(c) káqtapanáqtè caîktamā (AKYS)

| káq-ta | $=$ panáq $=$ tè | caík-ta | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dance-L.SUFF | $=$ NOM | $=$ A.AG | like-L.SUFF |$=$ RLS

'(I) like the dance.'

UtTERANCE verbs such as ngaú 'say', tapaúk 'speak', heú 'tell', zīngyū 'ask', and sàng 'instruct' involve three semantic roles-the speaker, the addressee, and the message. The speaker role may be optionally marked by the topic marker ká. The addressee is usually marked by the anti-agentive marker tè. The message can be an NP or a complement clause (see §8.3).
(240) (a) "Sayācí kaūwàyók" úkaútè ngaúmā (19:5)

| sayācí kaū-à | $=$ yók | ūkaú | = tè | ngaú | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sir call-EUPH | $=$ INTRUSIVE | koel | =A.AG | say | $=$ RLS |

'(It) said to the koel (bird) "Go and call the master."'
(b) "katùngìngmā" heúmā (8:120)
katùng-ìng = mā heú = mā
see-DIR ${ }_{2}=$ RLS tell = RLS
(He) told (them) "I saw (them)."

Arguments of the utterance verbs are omitted if they are retrievable from the context.
The following examples in (241) are natural expressions in Kadu.
(a) hīng ngaúmā
(b) hīng zīngyūmā
hīng ngaú $=$ mā
hīng zīngyū $=m a \overline{ }$
3SG say = RLS
'He says/said.'
3SG ask = RLS
'He asks/asked.'

### 3.1.2.3.2 Intransitive verbs

Intransitive verbs may be either stative or dynamic. These verbs do not have a patient argument. The examples in (242) exemplify intransitive clauses with stative verbs.

## (242) (a) mōksalē cíceū zé meúmā (25:25)

| mōk-salē | cíceū | zé meú | $=$ mā |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cow-leather | very | market | good | $=$ RLS |

'The cow leather price is good.'
(b) anáq nēyā meúmā (10:28)
anáq nēyā meú $=m \bar{a}$
this place good = RLS
'This place is good.'
(b) ngā mónnā (AKYS)
ngā món = mā
1SG happy = RLS
'I am happy.'

The examples in (243) exemplify intransitive clauses with dynamic verbs.
(243) (a) nahūtèká kasàtàkká īpmā (09:12)

| satēng-kān-tóng | $=$ pè $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$-cí | $=$ mā $=$ ták |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| thatch-CLT.field-big | $=$ LOC sleep-PL | $=$ RLS | $=$ HS |

'(The tiger and rabbit) slept in the big thatch field, it is said.'
(b) hīng saék shîká hāpmā (16:27)
hīng saēk shí = ká hāp =mā
3sg daughter die = TOP weep = RLS
'(He) wept because his daughter died.'

Verbs that take one argument (primary-B verb types in Dixon's (1991) typology) in a clause may be subcategorised as HUMAN PROPENSITY, PHYSICAL SENSATION, SENSE, DIMENSION and VALUE, WEIGHT, MOTION, UTTERANCE, PROPOSITIONAL ATTITUDE, EVALUATION, POSTURE, THE WEATHER, and IMITATIVE verbs.

HUMAN PROPENSITY verbs such as món 'happy’, ní 'laugh’, háp 'cry’, and nī 'lazy’ have a single argument. In most cases, the experiencer is a human.
(a) ngā mónnā
ngā món =mā

1SG happy = RLS
'I am happy.'
(c) myáqmyáq nímā

| myáqmyáq | ní | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PN | laugh | $=$ RLS |

'Mya Mya laughs.'
(b) hīng hāpmā
hīng hāp =mā
3SG weep $=$ RLS
'He weeps/wept.'
(d) myáqmyáq nīmā

| myáqmyáq | nī | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PN | lazy | $=$ RLS |

'Mya Mya is lazy.'

Physical sensation verbs such as sāk 'itch' kanà 'hurt', and nàng 'tired (of limbs)' take an animate body or body part as an experiencer.

## (245) Physical sensation verbs

(a) láng sākmā
(b) haláng kanàmā

| láng sāk =mā | haláng kanà = mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| body itch = RLS | head hurt = RLS |
| '(My) body itches.' | '(I) have a headache.' |

(c) ngakatòk nàngmā

| nga-katòk | nàng | $=m \bar{a}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG-neck | stiff | $=$ RLS |

'My neck is stiff.'

SENSE verbs that describe senses such as smell, taste, and temperature also take a single argument, as in (246).

Sense verbs
(a) sapáksà túmmā
(b) caìkshī chímā

| sapáksà túm | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| dish fragrant | $=$ RLS |
| 'The dish is fragrant.' |  |

(d) weú kasínnā
weú kasín =mā
caìk-shī
chí $=\mathrm{ma}$
mango-CLT.fruit sour $=$ RLS
'The mango is sour.'
(c) weú lómmā
weú lóm =mā
water warm $=$ RLS
'The water is warm.'
water cold $=$ RLS
'The water is cold.'

DIMENSION and VALUE verbs include dimension, value, weight, and texture. If a state of something expressed by one of these verbs is relatively well established and known to the speaker, the verb is immediately followed by the realis marker $m \bar{a}$, as in (247a). However, if the state of the thing is an unexpected state, the progressive marker ním 'stay' will immediately follow the verb. It may carry a certain degree of mirativity.
(a) hīng zaūkmā
(b) hīng zaūknímmā
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { hīng } & \text { zaūk } & =\text { mā } \\ 3 \mathrm{SG} & \text { tall } & =\text { RLS }\end{array}$
'He is tall.'
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { hīng } & \text { zaūk-ním } & =\text { mā } \\ \text { 3SG } & \text { tall-stay } & =\text { RLS }\end{array}$
'He is tall (to my surprise!).'

Verbs that describe DIMENSION and VALUE include wák 'wide', íp 'narrow', zaūk 'long, tall', tōn 'short', тeи́ 'good’, and kán 'bad’, as in (248).
(248) Dimension and value verbs
(a) lán wákmā
(b) lán ípmā

| lán | wák | $=m a ̄$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| road | wide | $=$ RLS |

'The road is wide.'

| lán íp | $=\mathrm{mā}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| road | narrow | $=$ RLS |

'The road is narrow.'
(c) anáq atá meúmā
(d) anáq cī kánnā

| anáq atá meú $=$ mā | anáq cī | kán | $=$ mā |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| this rice | good | $=$ RLS | this | dog | bad | $=R L S$ |

this rice good $=$ RLS this $\operatorname{dog}$ bad = RLS
'This rice is good.'
'This dog bites.'(Lit. bad dog)

WEIGHT verbs include verbs nèk 'heavy', zanà 'be light', theū 'thick', and phā 'thin' as illustrated in (249).
(249) Weight and texture verbs
(a) sāngsūng theūmā
(b) anáq sāngsūng phāmā
sāngsūng theū =mā
shirt thick = RLS
'This shirt is thick.'
anáq sāngsūng phā = mā
this shirt thin = RLS
'This shirt is thin.'
(c) anáq phón nèkmā
(d) yaūpū zanàmā

| anáq phón nèk $=$ mā | yaūpū zanà =mā |
| :--- | :--- |
| this wood heavy $=$ RLS | cotton light $=$ RLS |
| 'This wood is heavy.' | 'Cotton is light.' |

Motion verbs such as nāng 'go', hā 'walk', kát 'run', phaúk 'jump', pī 'fly', zalaút 'float/drift on water', and ká 'dance' usually take a single argument. They may be optionally preceded by locative phrases to specify goal, source, or general location. However, when the source or goal location is common knowledge between the speaker and hearer, it is usually omitted.
(250) Motion verbs
(a) hīng nāngmā
(b) hīng kátnímmā

| hīng nāng | $=\mathrm{mā}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SG | go | $=$ RLS |

'He goes/went.'

| hīng kát-ním | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG run-stay | $=$ RLS |
| 'He is running.' |  |

(c) ūhá pímā
(d) pyīnpalák zalaúknímmā
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { ūhá } & \text { pí } & =\text { mā } \\ \text { crow } & \text { fly } & =\text { RLS }\end{array}$
'The crow flies.'
pyīn-palák zalaúk-ním $=m a \overline{ }$
timber-flat.item drift-stay $=$ RLS
'The timber is drifting.'

Propositional attitude verbs express an attitude concerning the truth of the statement made in their complement. These verbs include mānták 'guess', yūng 'believe', yūsáq
'consider', and míngsàhà 'know'. These verbs take a nominalised clause as their complements if they take an overt complement.
(251) Propositional attitude verbs
(a) hīng míngsàhàmā

## (b) ngā māntákmā

| hīng míngsàhà | $=$ mā | ngā mānták | $=m a \overline{ }$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG know | $=$ RLS | 1 SG guess | $=$ RLS |
| 'He knows/knew.' |  | 'I suppose/guess.' |  |

(c) hīng acángkánpanáq míngsàhàmā (AKYS)

| hīng acáng | kán | $=$ panáq | míngsàhà | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SG | behaviour | bad | $=$ NOM | know |

'(I) know his bad behaviour.'

POSTURE verbs include thóng 'sit' and zāp 'stand'. They may be optionally preceded by locative phrases to specify a specific location. However, when the location is common knowledge between the speaker and hearer, it is usually omitted.
(252) Posture verbs
(a) hīng thóngmā
(b) hīng $z a ̄ p m \bar{a}$
hīng thóng $=$ mā
hīng zāp =mā
3 SG sit $=$ RLS
'He is sitting.'
3SG stand $=$ RLS
'He is standing.'

WEATHER verbs in Kadu always occur with NOUN + VERB compound constructions.
The noun slot is filled by haláng 'sky' except with the rainy verb halángweú (sky-
water) which is NOUN + NOUN compound. Some of the morphemes that come second in these compounds can occur independently in other contexts. The weather verbs in Kadu are given in (253).

| (253) halángweú | (sky-water) | 'be rainy' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| halángmūn | (sky-blow) | 'be windy' |
| halángká | (sky-hot) | 'be sunny' |
| halángnāk | (sky-dark) | 'be dark' |
| halángtháng | (sky-overcast) | 'be cloudy' |
| halángyá | (sky-bright) | 'be bright' |
| hamòkphā | (sky-thunder) | 'to thunder' |
| hamòkalúm | (sky-thundering) | 'be thundering' |
| hamòkzìháp | (sky-lightning) | 'be lightning/flash' |

Notice in the examples (253), the term weú 'water' is compounded with haláng 'sky' and results in the verbal meaning 'to rain'. The verbs mūn 'blow' and kalúm 'thunder' don't appear by themselves. To say 'it is dark' is halángnākmā in Kadu. The lexical source for the term $n \bar{a} k$ may not be identifiable in the Kadu lexicon but it is obvious to TB linguists that it is a reflex of PTB *nak 'black' as reconstructed by Matisoff (2003:326). See also §3.1.1.2.9.

### 3.1.2.3.3 Ditransitive verbs

Ditransitive verbs take three arguments: Donor, Gift, and Recipient (Dixon 1991). The order of these arguments in Kadu is determined by the information structure but the most common order is Donor $>$ Recipient $>$ Gift. In Kadu, like in many other TB
languages, the marking on arguments, either direct or indirect, is semantically based and based on an actor vs. non-actor contrast (LaPolla 1992). Verbs that take two nonagentive direct arguments are usually GIVING verbs (Dixon 1991:113). The ditransitive verbs attested in my Kadu data are shown in (254).
(254) i
ī 'give'
naút
taík
kát
$1 \bar{u}$
'feed'
'offer drink'
'offer gift to monk'
'offer'

The donor or agent who transfers an item can be optionally marked by the topic marker ká. The Recipient is marked by anti-agentive tè. The Gift is unmarked.
(255) hīng(ká) tamìsā hawàtè mīsān īmā (AKYS)
hīng (=ká) tamìsā-hú-à = tè mīsān ī = mā
3SG (=TOP) human-CLF-person-one =A.AG arrow give =RLS
'He gave an arrow to someone.'
(256) hanīngtè maléq pweúq ītìng apòwá (04:36)
hanīng $=$ tè maléq pweúq $\overline{\mathbf{i}} \quad=$ tìng a-pò =á
2PL = A.AG 1PL degree give = NOM NEG-exist = NEG
'We don't have to give you ( PL ) a title/degree.'

The Gift may optionally be marked with the anti-agentive marker tè when there is no explicit Recipient for an emphatic purpose. Compare the examples in (257a-b). See the detailed discussion on the anti-agentive marking in $\S 6.2$.
(257) (a) ōnnáng ceú ỉkū (25:6)

| ōnnáng | ceú | $\overline{1}$ | $=k \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dowry | buffalo | give | $=$ IRLS |

(I) will give a dowry buffalo.'
(b) ōnnáng ceútè ỉkū (AKYS)
ōnnáng ceú $=$ tè $\overline{1} \quad=k \bar{u}$
gift buffalo $=$ A.AG give $=$ IRLS
'(I) will give the dowry buffalo (not anything else).'

### 3.1.2.3.4 The copulas

There are two copula verbs in Kadu-equational and existential. An equational statement may be signaled by either copula thà or by a zero copula. Consider the examples in (258).
(258) (a) úpáq thīngphūceū (AKYS)
úpáq thīngphūceū
PN village.chief
'U Ba (is) a village chief.'
(b) úpáq thīngphūceū thàmā (AKYS)
úpáq thīngphūceū thà =mā
PN village.chief be = RLS
' UBa is a village chief.'

Negating the copula thà has an intended meaning which may be translated in English as 'be possible', as in (259).
(259) (a) ngā akeūtaúyeù ínathà (05:15)
\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{llll}{\left[\begin{array}{lll}\text { ngā } & \text { a-keū-ta } & \text { yeù }\end{array}
$$\right] \quad ín-a-thà \quad =á} <br>

1SG \& NEG-save-L.SUFF=SAP \& NEG-NEG-be=NEG\end{array}\right]\)| 'I must save (him).' (Lit. It's not possible for me not to help.) |
| :--- |

(b) úpáq thīngphūceū athà (AKYS)

| [úpáq] [thīngphūceū] | a-thà $=$ á |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PN village.chief | NEG-be | $=$ NEG |

' U Ba is not possible/fit to be a village chief.'

In order to negate the equational clause given in (258) the verb chi' 'true' is used, as in (260). The Kadu verb chì 'true' resembles the Thai verb châi 'true'. However, it is never attested occurring with the loanverb suffix -ta (§3.1.2.3.5), therefore, it may not be a loanword.
(260) úpáq thīngphūceū achīyá (AKYS)
úpáq thīngphūceū a-chī-á
PN village.chief NEG-true-NEG
' UBa is not a village chief.'

The copula $n g \bar{a}$, glossed as 'exist', is used to mark the existence or location of a referent. The existential $n g \bar{a}$ in examples in (261a-b) and (262) indicates that the referent is present or exists.
(a) úpáq ngālá
(b) ngāmā
úpáq ngā =lá
ngā =mā
PN exist $=\mathrm{Q}$
exist = RLS
'Is U Ba present?’
'(Yes, he) is (in).'
(262) àngpanáq yahaùng kótān ngāmatákseùé (08:3)

| $[$ àng | panáq yahaùng] | [kó-tān] | ngā | $=$ mā $=$ ták | $=$ seùé |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| that NOM river | nine-CLF.river | exist | $=$ RLS | $=H S=$ SAP |  |

'That river has nine outlets, it is said.'

The copula $n g \bar{a}$ also is used for possession. The interpretation of $n g \bar{a}$ as existential or possession is pragmatically determined. Compare the two examples in (263a-b).
(263) (a) thīngpè alúk ngāmā (17:66)
thīng =pè alúk ngā =mā
village $=$ LOC work exist $=$ RLS
'(There) is work in the village.'
(b) pahángcháng kalaúngtóng hīng(pè) ngāmā (AKYS)

| pahángcháng | kalaúngtóng | hīng | $(=$ pè $)$ | ngā $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| friend | many | 3 SG | $(=$ LOC $)$ | exist $=$ RLS |

'He has many friends.'

The existential verb $n g \bar{a}$ 'exist' cannot be negated, as in (264b). In order to express non-existence the verb pò, also glossed as 'exist', is used, as in (264a). The use of the pò verb in an affirmative sentence is not attested.
(a) hamàngkazeú apòwá (08:117)

| hà-màng | $=$ kà | $=$ zeú | a-pò | $=$ á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wh-thing | $=Q$ | $=$ even | NEG-exist | $=$ NEG |

'Nothing is there.'
(b) *hamàngkazeú angā

| hà-màng | $=$ kà | $=$ zeú | a-ngā | =á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| WH-thing | $=Q$ | $=$ even | NEG-exist | $=$ NEG |

### 3.1.2.3.5 Loan verbs

The Kadu lexicon contains many loanwords from neighboring languages. The great majority of the loanwords come from Burmese but loanwords from Shan and Pali have also been attested. Burmese loanwords are identified basically in two ways. First, from the researcher's proficiency in Burmese and Jingphaw and, secondly, by the particular apperance of post-verbal morpheme -tā ~ -taú, glossed as 'L.SUFF' (loan (verb) suffix), which suffixes to Shan and Burmese loan verbs.

The lexical source of this morpheme, -ta, is not retrievable in Kadu. However, we can assume that this morpheme -ta may have come from Burmese, the source of most Kadu loan verbs, as it resembles the Burmese realis nominaliser on <ta>. Consider the Burmese examples in (265). Example (265a) illustrates a clause final particle ouv <te> (verb sentence marker (VSM) in Okell 1969) and example (265) illustrates the realis nominaliser $\infty<$ <ta> (265b).
(a) D्ञिछyposư (Burmese)
thu pjo =te

2SG happy = VSM
'He is happy.'
 thu pjo =ta kong: =te $2 \mathrm{SG} \quad$ happy $=$ NOM good $=$ VSM 'It is good that he is happy.'

When the same verb pyā $\bar{u}$ 'happy' is used as a loanword in a Kadu sentence the morpheme $t a$ is obligatorily attached immediately after the head verb. However, ta is never used with a native verb. Compare the two sentences in (266) and (267).
(266) hīng pyaūtamā
hīng pyaū-ta =mā
3SG happy-L.SUFF = RLS
'He is happy.'
(267) hīng mónnā
hīng món =mā
3SG happy = RLS
'He is happy.'

Both the examples in (266) and (267) are considered grammatical by the speakers of Kadu. The verb in (266) is pyaū, which is borrowed from Burmese cup <pjo>, therefore, the suffix -ta must be attached after the head verb. Without the suffixation of -ta the sentence is not acceptable to the speakers of Kadu.
(268) *hīng pyaūmā

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { hīng } & \text { pyaū }=\text { mā } \\
\text { 3SG } & \text { happy } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

The morpheme -ta has the allomorph of -taú when it is followed by verb modifiers or other verbal particles as illustrated in (269) and (270).
(269) kaphúyí khweūtaúnímmaták (09:67)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { kaphú }=\text { yí } \quad \text { khweū-ta-ním } & =\text { mā }=\text { ták } \\
\text { snake }=\text { also coil-L.SUFF-stay } & =\text { RLS }=\text { HS }
\end{array}
$$

'The snake, as well, was coiling, it is said.'
(270) zíchūngtè thwángtaúpánnaà nímmā (10:37)
zí-chūng = tè thwáng-ta = pán = naà ním = mā
plump-bush = A.AGcarve-L.SUFF $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only stay = RLS
'(They) cleared the plump bush and lived.'

Some Burmese loan verbs attested in my corpus are shown in (271).

| (271) | léqlā | 'study' | soous<lei.la> |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | zúqzí | 'compile' | ¢0, ¢0 < su.siny:> |
|  | pīnpán | 'tire' | טču¢̊ [pangpan:](pangpan:) |
|  | cózá | 'try hard' | Cㅇon: < krou:sa: > |
|  | phānsín | 'create' | uईpoc: [hpanhsin:](hpanhsin:) |
|  | tìsaúk | 'establish' |  |
|  | lēngmā | 'be clever' | ヘֹ¢ృ <leimma> |
|  | aūngmyīn | 'succeed' |  |
|  | phékhaù | 'invite' | ¢0¢6さ < hpeithko> |

### 3.2 Minor word classes

In Kadu, like in many other languages, nouns and verbs are the two largest word classes. Apart from these, several other word classes are considered minor word classes in this thesis, presented in the following order: 3.2.1 Adverbs, 3.2.2 Numerals, 3.2.3 Pronominals, 3.2.4 Quantifiers, and 3.2.5 Noun class terms.

### 3.2.1 Adverbs

The structure of adverbs, like verbs and nouns, may be analysed as simple or complex. Simple adverbs are words that function as adverbs and nothing else. Complex adverbs, on the other hand, are derived from verbs or nominals by the processes of reduplication or semi-reduplication. Adverbials, unlike reduplication of volitional verbs (§3.1.2.1.3), may be followed by a diminutive marker-sà to soften or to delimit adverbials, which may be translated in English as "a bit V-ly." Both types of adverbials precede the head verb. Futhermore, there are some Post-verbal modifiers that have adverbial functions. These are discussed under verbal modifiers in $\S 7.2$. Temporal and locational forms are treated as nouns and were already discussed under time nouns in §3.1.1.2.9.

### 3.2.1.1 Simple adverbs

Simple adverbs in Kadu are few in number. They usually occur immediately before the verb complex (VCX) they modify, however, they do not have a fixed order of occurrence
in the clause. They form a small closed class of just three members: two degree adverbs cíceū ~ ácí 'extremely' and āntān ~ āntahān 'quite, somewhat', and one manner adverb nacá 'carefully'. These are illustrated in (272).
(272) (a) àngnáq īshíqshā cíceū katàmmaták (15:45)
àngnáq īshíq-shā cíceū katàm =mā = ták that girl-small extremely beautiful $=$ RLS $\quad=\mathrm{HS}$ 'This girl was extremely beautiful, it is said.'
(b) maléq ameūtàk maléq awàtàk āntān thaùngtapán (17:09) maléq ameū-tàk maléq awà-tàk āntān thaùng-ta = pán 1PL mother-PL 1PL father-PL quite old-L.SUFF $=\operatorname{COS}$ 'Our parents are quite old.'
(c) nacá yūwìng nacá teútnà yūzípánnaà līháng (04:15)

| nacá | yū-ìng | nacá | teút-à |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| carefully | take-DIR 2 | carefully | listen-EUPH |

yū-zí $\quad=$ pán $=$ naà lī-hang
look-finish $=\cos =$ only come-back
'Look carefully, listen carefully, and come back.'

The etymologies of the degree adverbials ácí ~ cíceū 'extremely' and āntān 'quite' or
 [akri:akye](akri:akye) and ъəь๐र्ञ <ato>.

### 3.2.1.2 Complex adverbs

All the complex adverbials consist of two members and each member consists of two syllables, thus forming a four syllable pattern. Some adverbials have clear relatable lexical meanings, however, for many, I have not been able to identify the meanings. In this thesis, the two members of adverbials will be hyphenated. Partial or semireduplications, as in (274), are much more common than reduplication, as in (273), with adverbials. One of my language consultants said that the stative verb kazeút 'quick' may be reduplicated, as in (273).
(273) ngā lán kazeút-kazeút hāmā (AKYS)

| ngā | lán | kazeút-kazeút | hā | $=m a \bar{a}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

'I walk quickly.'

However, the reduplication of kazeút in (273) may be due to Burmese influence, since it is a common practice in Burmese to derive adverbials from stative verbs (Okell 1969:35; Wheatley 1982:34-39). Other language consultants said that, for them semireduplication of kazeút, as in (274), is more natural in Kadu.
ngā lán kazeút-kazeút hāmā (AKYS)
ngā lán kazeút-kapaúk hā =mā
1SG road quickly-REDUP walk = RLS
'I walk quickly.'

Some of the adverbials are reduplications of nominals. For example, the -al- infix form of pán 'CLT.times' is reduplicated to function as an adverbial, which may be translated in English as "frequently", as illustrated in (275).
(275) hīngká palánpalán teútpūpánták (07:2)
hīng = ká palán-palán teútpū = pán = ták
3SG = TOP frequently-REDUP hear $=\operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}$
'He heard (it) frequently, it is said.'

There are also some reduplicated -al-infix forms for which I was unable to identify the lexical meaning. These include halán-halán '(fold) repeatedly’, salán-salán '(say) repeatedly', and yalún-yalún '(queue) in rows'. I suspect some adverbials are reduplications of an onomatopoeic word, such as kaphaík-kaphaík '(keep) in vicinity' and zīzāk-zīzāk '(grow) tightly'.

The great majority of adverbials come from semi-reduplication. These patterns resemble imitative nouns (§3.1.1.1.2), however, unlike imitative nouns, these adverbials cannot be followed by postpositions. Semi-reduplicated adverbials consist of two members and each member consists of two syllables thus forming four syllable patterns. The first member is generally analysable; the second member is usually not. The four syllables will be represented using the English upper case letters A, B, C and D. Generally, there are three patterns: A-B-A-C (the first and the third syllables are identical), A-B-C-B (the second and the fourth syllables are identical), and A-B-C-D (none of the syllables are
identical). Out of these, the A-B-A-C pattern is the most common. Example sentences with semi-reduplicative adverbials are illustrated in (276).
(276) (a) kōyítá maleú malàsà ōmnaútnàngkákmā seùé (17:75).

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { kō } \quad \text { yí } \quad=\text { tá } \quad \text { maleú-malà-sà } & \text { ōm-naút-àng-kák } \quad \text { mā } \\
\text { self } \quad=\text { also }=\text { EMPH } & \text { well-REDUP-DIM } & \text { make-feed-DIR } 1 \text {-want }=\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

(b) palī palák hāmā (AKYS)
palī-palák hā =mā
idly-REDUP walk = RLS
'(He) walks idly.'

More semi-reduplicative adverbials with the A-B-A-C pattern are given in (277).

| (277)kathì-kathaū 'curlicue'  <br> kánshì-kánsaít 'battered'  <br> palīng-palāng 'tiny/small'  <br> salaù-salàt 'violently' < salaù | 'rough' |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sapút-sapát | 'soakingly (wet)' |  |  |
| tútpát-tútzaúk | 'upside down' |  |  |
| yaleù-yalán | 'suffuse' |  |  |
| zalí-zalát | 'neatly' | <zalí | 'clean' |
| kazeút-kaphaúk | 'quickly' | $<$ kazeút | 'quick' |
| peúzì-peúzàk | 'perversely' |  |  |

A few A-B-C-B (278a) or A-B-C-D (278b) examples have also been attested, as shown below.

| (a)zīzák-kánzák <br> chīpúk-halúk <br> wílū-wánglū | 'impediment' <br> salaú-malaú |
| :--- | :--- |
| (b) 'worriedly' |  |
| kapáng-saláng |  |
| kapú-salú |  |$\quad$| 'vaguely' |
| :--- |
| 'soothingly' |

### 3.2.2 Numerals and numerical approximations

Most of the native numerals in Kadu are lost. Only one through four of native Kadu numerals were identified. When I requested Kadu numerals from older Kadu speakers, the forms they provided were very similar to Tai/Shan numerals. These numerals never appear in isolation. They are always attached to classifiers (Chapter 5), however, classifiers do not occur with multiples of ten. No native ordinal numbers are attested in Kadu. They simply use Burmese ordinal numbers. The numerals found in the Kadu lexicon are shown in (279) together with the generic classifier teùn, glossed as 'CLF.thing'. Many classifiers are also borrowed from Shan and they usually occur with Shan numerals. However, native classifers may occur with both numeral systems. The native numerals attested in my corpus are given in (279a) and Shan borrowed numerals are given in (279b). There is a tone sandhi pattern such that any classifier following the numeral kalìng 'two' changes to high tone.

| (a) | Kadu numerals | (b) | Shan numerals | Meaning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | teùn-à |  | teùn-nù | 'CLF.thing-one' |
|  | kalìng-teún |  | saūng-teún | 'two-CLF.thing' |
|  | sóm-teùn |  | sóm-teùn | 'three-CLF.thing' |
|  | pí-teùn |  | shì-teùn | 'four-CLF.thing' |
|  |  |  | hà-teùn | 'five-CLF.thing' |
|  |  |  | hōk-teùn | 'six-CLF.thing' |
|  |  |  | síp-teùn | 'seven-CLF.thing' |
|  |  |  | peút-teùn | 'eight-CLF.thing' |
|  |  |  | kaùng-teùn | 'nine-CLF.thing' |
|  |  |  | shípnú | 'ten' |

The Kadu have been using Shan numerals since the early $20^{\text {th }}$ century (Brown 1920). Many Kadu didn't realise how similar many of their numerals are to the Tai and consider them as their native numerals. Some older Kadu expressed their disappointment that these counting systems are swiftly disappearing in day-to-day speech. It is very probable that they will disappear soon, as younger Kadu speakers have switched to using Burmese counting systems. Numerals above ten are all Burmese.

We can correlates the numerals kalìng 'two', sóm 'three' and pí 'four' with PTB numerlas ${ }^{*} \mathrm{~g}$-ni-s, ${ }^{*}$ g-sum and ${ }^{*}$ b-liy as reconstructed by Matisoff (1997:119). Examples in (280) illustrate the use of two forms of the numeral four in Kadu.
(280) (a) amúnashī shìkaú (12:1)
amúnashì shì-kaú
brothers four-CLF.person
'four sibling brothers'
(b) leútneút ngaúkà píteùn lūpáng hīngká (12:113)
létnét ngaúkà pí-teùn lū = pán hīng =ká
weapon as.for four-CLF.thing get $=\operatorname{COS} 3 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{TOP}$
'As for the weapons, (he) got four.'

The numeral one in Kadu has two forms: à and nù. The latter form mostly occurs with Shan loanwords and has come from the Shan/Tai numeral nyn 'one', as in (281).

| (281) (a) | $\begin{array}{ll}\text { mǎ } & \text { tua-ny! }{ }^{19} \\ \text { dog } & \text { CLF.animal-one }\end{array}$ 'a dog' | (Thai: Haas 1942) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (b) | kayā húkà (29:26) | (Kadu) |
|  | kayā húk-à |  |
|  | mountain CLF.round-one |  |
|  | 'one mountain' |  |
| (c) | ānsaú zalaútnù (31:8) | (Kadu) |
|  | ānsaú zalaút-nù <br> sticky.paddy measurement-one |  |
|  | 'One measurement' (a measure or a regular 16 oz . condensed | alent to roughly 0.1 |

[^13]Numerical approximation in Kadu, like in many TB languages, is expressed using two classifier phrases where the second contains a numeral that is one greater than the first. It is simply a numeral approximation much like the English 'one or two'. The example in (282) illustrates this type. Notice the example in (282) contains two forms for classifying humans -hú and kaú, both glossed as 'CLF.person'. (See the detailed discussion of numeral classifiers in Chapter 5).
(282) haningká sómhú shìkaútóng lamà (13:27)
hanīng = ká sóm-hú shì-kaú-tóng = lamà
2PL = TOP three-CLF.person four-CLF.person-big =MIR
'You are three or four people.'

Although the use of two numerical phrases for numerical approximation as mentioned in (282) is common, it is also possible to have up to three classifier phrases, as in (283). However, examples consisting of four or more classifier phrases to express numerical approximation have not been attested.
(283) hawà kalìnghú súmhú nāngmaták (04:06)

| hú-à | kalìng-hú | sóm-hú | nāng | $=$ mā $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| CLF.person-one | two-CLF.person | three-CLF.person go | $=$ RLS | $=$ HS |

'A few people went there.' (Lit. one person, two persons, and three persons)

The term kalàng may be attached to a classifier phrase to indicate numerical approximation of measurement. See the illustrations of this in (284).
(284) (a) àngpàpè thōmpòk chátnù saūngchát kalàng kápphángàngthàmā (18:76)

| àng $=$ pà | $=$ pè thōmpòk | chát-nù |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| that $=$ ALL | $=$ LOC gun | CLF.shot-one |  |

'(We) have to make one or two gun shots to that side.'
(b) khayí tóngmaīkalàng kátnìngthàmā (18:80)

| khayí | tóng $^{20}$-maī $=$ kalàng | kát-ìng-thà | $=\mathrm{mā}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| journey | three-CLF.mile $=$ approximate | run-DIR 2 -must | $=$ RLS |
| We had to come running about three miles distance/journey.' |  |  |  |

(c) tákshī shìleúnkalàng taítaúpánnaà tútútnàngyeù (07:65)

| tākshī shì-leún | $=$ kalàng taí-ta | $=$ pán | naà |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| finger four-CLF.stick | $=$ approximate | measure-L.SUFF | $=\cos$ | $=$ only |

tút-út-àng =yeù
cut-abandon-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ SAP
'Measure approximately four fingers' length and cut it!'

### 3.2.3 Pronouns

Pronouns, like nouns, may be followed by postnominal relational markers (Chapter 6).
However, unlike NPs, they cannot be modified by demonstratives and other attributive noun modifiers. Kadu personal pronouns, like in many other languages, encode the persons first (speaker), second (addressee), and third (person other than the speaker

[^14]and addressee) and the numbers singular and plural. There is no evidence of an exclusive vs. inclusive distinction in the first person pronouns or dual marking on any pronouns in Kadu. Pronouns are not pluralised in Kadu. The number distinctions are straightforward-singular and plural-each having independent forms. The personal pronoun forms in Kadu are shown in Table 24.

|  | Singular | Plural |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| First person | ngā | maléq |
| Second person | nāng | hanīng |
| Third person | hīng | ànták $\sim$ maták |

Table 24: Kadu personal pronouns

All of the singular forms are monosyllabic words and the plural forms are sesquisyllabic or disyllabic words. The first person and the second person singular pronouns are reflexes of the PTB forms *ya and *nay (Benedict 1972:93). The third person singular pronoun hing and all the plural pronoun forms are different from other TB languages. The third person plural àntàk ~ matàk is interesting in that the final syllable is identical with the animate plural marker tàk. However, the speakers of Kadu perceived the form as monomorphemic. There is no equivalent word for the English pronoun 'it' in Kadu. They use demonstratives, instead. The third person plural pronoun mentioned in Table 24 is always used for animate referents and usually refers to a human. This is illustrated in (285) and (286).
(285) matákyítá pyúng ngón ōmpàpè nāngmā (17:25)
àntàk = yí = tá pyúng-ngón ōm = pà = pè nāng = mā
3PL = also = EMPH gems.soil-gold make =ALL = LOC go = RLS
'They also went to the muddy-gold mining area.'
(286) àntákká kōsātak cíng paútzánghayák ngaúpánnaà peúīyákmā (17:20)
ànták =ká kō-sā-tàk cíng paút-záng-hà = yák
3PL = TOP body-son-PL letter skill-JUSS:DIR 2 -know.how = PURP
ngaú = pán = naà peú-ī-à =mā
say $=$ COS $=$ only keep-give-EUPH = RLS
'They sent/kept us to school because they want us to be educated.'

All personal pronouns are used as address terms in Kadu. However, using them while addressing someone higher in status is considered rude. In this case, the personal pronouns are replaced by kinship terms. Using kinship terms instead of personal pronouns is considered polite and affectionate by the native speakers of Kadu. The following examples in (287) and (288) illustrate pronominal usage in Kadu. All sentences may be translated as 'I will cook (for you)'.

## (287) ngā mōkīkū

ngā mōk-ī $=k \bar{u}$
1SG cook-give =IRLS
'I will cook (for you).'

The first person singular form $n g \bar{a}$ may be replaced by any kinship term, as in (288a), or personal name, as in (288b). Among these usages, kinship pronominal usage is more common than personal names.

## (288) (a) awà mōkīkū

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { awà mōk-ī } & =k \bar{u} \\
\text { father cook-give } & =\text { IRLS } \\
\text { 'I/father will cook (for you).' }
\end{array}
$$

(b) wíntīn mōkīkū

| wíntīn mōk- 1. | $=k \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PN $\quad$ cook-give | $=$ IRLS |
| 'I/Win Tin will cook (for you).' |  |

It must be noted that, semantically, pronominal usage of kinship terms differs from that of personal pronouns. The personal pronouns, regardless of context, always refer to referents in terms of their involvement in the speech act (speaker or addressee) where as the pronominal reference of kinship terms can only be determined by the context. For example, the kinship term awà in (288a) may mean 'I/father', 'you/father', 'he/father', or just simply 'father', depending on which context the utterance is used in.

Pronouns, except in a few cases, are used to refer to animals in the context where the animal has the human attribute of speaking. The examples in (289) and (291) illustrate pronouns with non-human referents.
(289) wákyaúkcī ngaúkà aū maléq sèktàk ngaúkà maléqtè ngaúkà atá mōknaútthàmā (12:37)
wák =yaúk cī ngaúkà aū maléq sèk-tàk ngaúkà
pig = COM dog as.for well! 1PL person-PL as.for
maléq $=$ tè ngaúkà atá mōk-naút-thà $=$ mā
1PL = A.AG as.for rice cook-feed-must = RLS
'As the pig and dog said "Well, Our masters/lords have to feed us food."'

Example (289) is taken from a narrative where the pig and dog were able to speak like humans. In this narrative, they were discussing how thankful they are to their masters for their generosity of providing of food to them. Example (290) is taken from another narrative where the tiger and rabbit were friends. They also spoke like humans. At some point, the rabbit became scared of the tiger and made a plan to burn and run away from the tiger. Example (290) sets the background for the conversation between the tiger and the rabbit in (291).
(290) wānsútpán kátpeúyàngmaták kasàtèá. kasà ngaúkà shíyeúpánnaà zaúntapánták (09:15,20)
wān sút = pán kát-peú-àng = mā = ták kasà = tè
fire start.fire $=\operatorname{COS} \quad$ run-keep-DIR $=$ RLS $=H S \quad$ tiger $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$
kasà ngaúkà shíyeú = pán = naà zaún-ta = pán = ták
tiger as.for angry $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only run.after-L.SUFF $=\operatorname{COS} \quad=\mathrm{HS}$
'(The rabbit) burnt the tiger and ran away, it is said. (As for) the tiger he got angry and followed the rabbit, it is said.'
(291) ateú nāng ngātè wānsútpán līpeúká lāppán yákkà nāngtè ngā yōkkū (09:25, 26)
ateú nāng ngā = tè wān sút =pán lī-peú =ká
Oh! 2SG 1SG =A.AG fire start.fire $=\operatorname{COS}$ come-keep $=$ TOP
lāp = pán yák = ká nāng = tè ngā yōk =kū
catch $=$ COS now $=$ TOP $2 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG} 1 \mathrm{SG}$ eat $=$ IRLS
'Oh you, you burnt me and (then) came here. Now, I am going to eat you.'

Pronouns frequently occur in conversations and narratives. They (particularly the first and second person pronouns) may be omitted freely if they are retrievable from the context. The omission of first and second person pronouns is also common in Burmese (Bradley 1993; 2005:68). In making a statement, the first person pronoun may be omitted, as in (292).
(292) aswē hāháng yaà nāngyeún (ngā) heúyàngkū (09:23)
aswē hàháng yaà nāng =yeún(ngā) heú-àng $=k \bar{u}$
friend Kachin now $2 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{BEN}(1 \mathrm{SG})$ tell-DIR ${ }_{1}=\mathrm{IRLS}$
'My Kachin friend, now (I) will tell (it) for you.'

In asking a direct question, the second person pronoun may be omitted, as in (293).
(293) (nāng) hàpà nāngkalá (05:19)
(nāng) hà = pà nāng =kū = lá
(2SG) $\mathrm{WH} \quad=\mathrm{ALL}$ go $\quad=\mathrm{IRLS}=\mathrm{Q}$
'Where are you going?’

Unlike in English, there is no separate class of possessive pronouns or a genitive marker in Kadu (see the discussion on genitive modification in §4.1.2). The system for referring to oneself and others, unlike that of Burmese, lacks denominal stems, which are very common in Burmese. For instance, in Burmese the first person singular and the second
 respectful suffix' and əธ์qp: [hkangbya:](hkangbya:) derived from ગఎəธ์શ઼: [thakhanghpara:](thakhanghpara:) 'Bodhisattva' respectively (see Bradley 1993). It has been observed that the Kadu, however, being devoted Buddhists, borrowed denominal terms from Burmese (such as tapíqtaū to refer to oneself as a layman in relation to a monk and ashinnphayáa ${ }^{21}$ to address Buddhist monks). These words are analysable in the source language but not in Kadu.

### 3.2.4 Quantifiers

Quantifiers follow the head noun they quantify and limit or increase the scope of NP. Quantifiers are not numerous in Kadu. The following list in Table 25 shows all the Kadu quantifiers attested in my corpus.

[^15]| Quantifiers | Gloss |
| :--- | :--- |
| ngānaíkngá | 'all, everything' |
| haìng | 'entirely, exclusively' |
| kalaúng (tóng) | 'much, many, a lot' |
| zeùyà ~ zayà | 'some' |
| zítsáq | 'few' |

Table 25: Quantifiers in Kadu

The term ngānaíkngá denotes something like 'all, every single one, nothing is left behind'. Its structure is $\mathrm{V}+$ naík +v . In general, the V slot is filled by the same verb and the second token always has a high tone. The most frequent verb that appears in this construction is the existential verb $n g \bar{a}$, as in (294).
(294) (a) ngónkā phúkā ngānaíkngátè īkū (07:21)
[[ngón kā phú kā ngānaíkngá] =tè] $\overline{1} \quad=k \bar{u}$
gold so.on silver so.on all =A.AG give =IRLS
'Such as gold and silver (I) will give (them) all.'
(b) shīshīpalíq ngānaíkngá zōkmā (08:8)
[shīshī palíq ngānaíkngá] zōk =mā
fruit ATTW all plant = RLS
'(He) planted all the fruit (trees).'

If the head noun phrase is recoverable from the context, it can be omitted, as in (295)
ngānaíkngá tamyóqneūlúng līpánnaà (08:33)
[ngānaíkngá] [tamyóqneūlúng] lī = pán = naà
all the.whole.towhship come $=\cos =$ only
'All (the people), the whole township, came and..,'

The verb slot in the $\mathrm{V}+$ naík +V construction may be filled by another verb or even a series of verbs, as illustrated in (296).
(296) shīshīpalíq yōkmeúnaík yōkmeútè zōkmā (08:7)
[[shīshī-palíq yōk-meú =naík yōk-meú] = tè] zōk = mā
fruit-REDUP eat-good =only eatgood =A.AG plant $=$ RLS
'(He) planted all the edible fruit (trees).'

The other form that very often occurs in my corpus that expresses 'all and totality' is álóng, which clearly is a Burmese loanword, з๐ะกํ» <a:lum:>. (297a) illustrates a Burmese example and (297b) shows its occurence in a Kadu text.

a:lum: kong: =te
all good = RLS
'All are good.'
(b) eúhám wánzípanáq phónkalùntē álóng zāphángsōmìng (08:50)

| [[eúhám PN | wán-zí <br> chop-finish | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { panáq } \\ & =\text { NOM } \end{aligned}$ | phón kalùn wood plant | $\begin{aligned} & =\mathrm{te}] \\ & =\mathrm{PL} \end{aligned}$ | álóng] all |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| zāp háng | sōm-ìng |  |  |  |  |
| stand back | finish.up-DIR ${ }_{2}$ |  |  |  |  |
| 'All the trees | Euham cut dow | stood up |  |  |  |

In order to express the idea of entirety the term haing, glossed as 'EXCLUSIVE', is employed following the head noun, as illustrated in (298) and (299).
(298) kalaú kámàkà zūwāngmāsáq wānnúkìnghàlá phónhaìng athà (30:31)
kalaú kámàkà zū-àng = másà wān núk-ìng-hà = lá
small.wood so.on burn-DIR $=$ only.if fire flame-DIR 2 -know.how $=$ NOM
phón =haìng a-thà =á
wood = EXCLUSIVE NEG-be = NEG
'Only when you add small dried wood will (it) burn. (Large) wood alone won't burn.'
(299) kayāhúkà lúnglúng pòkweúsútkalùnhaìng thànímmā (18:20).
kayā húk-à lúnglúng
mountain CLF.round-one throughout
pòkweúsút-kalùn $=$ haìng thà-ním $=m a \overline{ }$
tree-plant = EXCLUSIVE be-stay = RLS
'The whole mountain was filled with only Pukweusut trees.'

In order to express a large mass or numerous countable items, the term kalaúngtóng is employed after the head noun, as illustrated in (300). Notice in (300b), the plural marking on the head noun is optional.

## (300) (a) címtwē kalaúngtóng ngāmā (AKYS)

[cím-tē kalaúngtóng] ngā =mā
house-PL many exist = RLS
'(There are) many houses.'
(b) pahángcháng kalaúngtóng hīngpè ngāmā (AKYS)
[pahángcháng kalaúngtóng] hīng =pè ngā =mā
friend many $3 \mathrm{SG}=$ LOC exist $=$ RLS
'He has many friends.'

In order to express an approximation of a small number or quantity, the form zeùyà ~ zayà is employed. It may be translated into English as 'some'. The head noun may be omitted, as in (301b) if it is retrievable from the context.
(301) (a) tamìsà zayà ngaúmā (AKYS)
tamìsā zayà ngaú =mā
human some say = RLS
'Some people said.'
(b) zayàyítá pwát ngāmāyítá ngaúcímā (10:44)
zayà = yí =tá pwát ngā = mā = yí =tá ngaú-cí =mā
some = also = EMPH mud exist = RLS = also = EMPH say-PL = RLS
'Some (people) said there was mud.'

The form zítsáq is employed to indicate an approximation of a small amount.
(302) salaú zítsáq záng (21:23)
salaú zítsáq záng
oil little put.in
'Add a bit of oil.'

### 3.2.5 Noun class terms

We have already discussed the structures of compound nouns under complex nouns in §3.1.1.1.2 and this section deals with similar structures. However, in this section special attention is given to special classes of nouns which are employed in compound nouns to express a kind of categorisation or specific members of a word family. I call this class of words CLASS TERMS (CLT) in this thesis. It is not uncommon to find this type of categorising terms in TB languages. In this section, I propose there are two types of CLTs in Kadu: one which occurs pre-nominally and one that occurs post-nominally. The former can be analysed as a combination of 'whole-part' or 'class-kind' (CLT + NOUN)' and the latter simply as 'kind-class' (NOUN + CLT).

### 3.2.5.1 CLASS TERM + NOUN compound

The process of adding one or more syllables to an initial CLT to form a word family or a specific member of a category seems to be a common phenomenon not only in Kadu but among many, if not all other, TB languages. It is also found in Garo (Burling

2004:168-173) and Burmese ${ }^{22}$ (Vittrant 2005). Burling treated the initial class terms as a "category prefix" of compound noun. He describes it as "... the use of numerous noun compounds constructed from a categorizing initial (portion) to which is added one or more syllables that indicate the specific member of the category" (Burling 1985:14).

Like Burmese and Garo, many initial CLTs are also attested in Kadu. Kadu CLT + NOUN compounds are formed by an analysable initial syllable which provides generic meaning and a noun (which may or may not be analysable) which provides specific meaning. For example, most of the names that are categorised with 'leg' are formed by the initial syllable ta, e.g. tapaúk 'calf'. It is obvious that the first syllable ta, a reduced form of $t \bar{a}$, is relatable to its lexical meaning of 'leg'. However, the syllable paúk is never used in isolation. Some of the CLT + NOUN constructions can also be seen as a sesquisyllabic word. If the first syllable is an open syllable, the vowel is reduced to schwa. However, a sesquisyllabic word with a class term differs from a sesquisyllabic word in simple nouns. The lexical meaning of reduced syllables, in many cases, is relatable to its lexical meaning in CLT + NOUN, whereas the initial reduced or weak syllable of sesquisyllabic words in simple nouns is not.

CLT + NOUN compounds that exhibit 'whole-part' classification are discussed in the following section.

[^16]Names that are categorised with leg are formed by the initial syllable $t a$, which has a lexical meaning 'leg'. The examples in (303) exemplify the names that are associated with 'leg' in Kadu.
(303) tā 'leg' compounds
taphā 'sole'
tací 'thigh'
tapaúk 'calf'
tath $\bar{u} \quad$ 'knee'

Names that are categorised with 'hand' are formed by using the syllable tāk. It is a reflect of the Proto-Tibeto-Burman (PTB) root *l(y)ak as reconstructed by Matisoff (2003:51). Synchronically, the word for hand in Kadu is tahú. This protoform of hand is retained as an initial class term in Kadu, whereas the word for hand contains an innovative stem. However, we may still explain the first syllable ta in the word tahú as a reduced form of tāk. Some words associated with hand are exemplified in (304).
(304) tāk 'hand' compounds

| tākpaūng | 'arm' |
| :--- | :--- |
| tākkasú | 'elbow' |
| tākmīng | 'finger nail' |
| tākshī | 'finger' |
| tākseú | 'finger ring' |

Names related to the category of eye are formed by using the syllable mik, which has the lexical meaning of 'eye'. The syllable mík reflects the PTB word for 'eye' *mik
(Matisoff 2003:327). Some examples of names that are associated with eyes are given in (305).
(305) mík 'eye' compounds

| míkweú | 'tear' | (eye + water) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| míksateù | 'eye lid' | (eye + lips) |
| mîkhú | 'eyebrow' | (eye + hair?) |
| mîkceū | 'blind' | (eye + mature or overripe) |
| mîktū | 'eye ball' | (eye + CLT.round) |

CLT + NOUN compounds that exibit the 'class-kind' classificatory structure are illustrated below. Many bird names are formed by using the syllable $\bar{u}$, which by itself has the lexical meaning 'chicken' or 'domestic fowl'. The PTB etyma for 'chicken' in Matisoff 2003:392 are *ha:r, *rak, and Pa:r. This clearly shows that the Kadu word for chicken does not reflect the PTB root. However, it does reflect the PTB word for 'egg' ${ }^{*} t(w) i(y)$, *Pu as reconstructed by Matisoff 2003:195). Some names that are associated with chicken or fowl, with its categorising initial $\bar{u}$, are exemplified in (306).
(306) $\bar{u}$ 'chicken' compounds

| ūhá | 'crow' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ūhaú | 'owl' |
| ūkatú | 'dove' |
| ūkaú | 'koel' |
| ūpháksà | 'bat' |
| ūlēk | 'pheasant bird' |

Similarly, names related to rice are formed by the initial syllable $\bar{a} n$, which is a generic name for husked rice in Kadu. These names are given in (307).

| (307) | $\bar{a} n k u \bar{u}$ | 'a type of husked rice' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\overline{\text { ànmeū }}$ | 'paddy' |
|  | ānsaú | 'sticky rice' |
|  | ānpānpaūk | 'first time pounded rice' |
|  | ānzapóng | 'second time pounded rice' |

Names related to the category of wood are formed by using the syllable phón, which has a lexical meaning of 'tree' or 'wood'. This syllable, phón, reflects the PTB word for 'wood' *bul or *pul as reconstructed by Matisoff (2003:416). Some names that are associated with trees are given in (308).
(308) phón 'tree' compounds
phónhalák 'branch'
phónmaún 'wooden pillow'
phóntalāt 'leaf'
phóntanùk 'tree trunk'

Beside these analysable initials, a few other synchronically unanalysable initial CLTS have been attested. For example, many terms denoting animals may be roughly grouped into four: names that occur as monosyllabic words and names that occur with initial reduced syllables: $a$-, sa-, and ka-. These syllables may be remnants of old pre-nominal CLTs. These were already discussed under minor syllables in §2.7.2; see also §3.1.1.2.3.

### 3.2.5.2 NOUN + CLASS TERM compound

Post nominal class terms follow a noun, forming an $\mathrm{N}+\mathrm{CLT}$ structure. Similar to 'whole-part' compound nouns (§ 3.2.5.1), these terms also denote specific members of a category. They are somewhat similar to NOUN + NOUN compound nouns with a SPECIFIC + GENERIC classificatory structure. However, unlike compound nouns which are made up of two independent nouns, these CLTs usually don't occur as independent words. In order for the class terms to be used independently they must be nominalised with the -al- infix form.

Names that can be categorised as plants and trees take the CLT kùn. This term covers everything from giant trees to tiny plants, as given in (309).
phóngtóngkùn
caìkkùn
thánkùn
salàkùn
kānzūkùn
cahaúngkùn
'jackfruit tree'
'mango tree'
'palm plant'
'banana plant'
'mustard plant'
'coriander plant'

Names that can be categorised under fruits and vegetables that have rounded shapes take the CLT shī. Some fruit names are given in (310).

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { (310) } & \text { salàshī } \\
& \text { caíkshī } \\
& \text { maúshī } \\
& \text { mìpákshī } \\
& \text { mángcíngshī } \\
& \text { mōkneúshī }
\end{array}
$$

'banana'<br>'mango'<br>'plum'<br>'pumpkin'<br>'tamarind'<br>‘chili'

A noun may contain two class terms, e.g. caîk-shī-kùn (e.g. caik-shī-kùn (mango-fruit-tree) may be translated as 'mango fruit bearing tree'). I have not come across a noun followed by more than two categorising class terms in Kadu.

All the fruit bearing trees mentioned in (310) can be followed by the class term kùn. However, the other way around is not allowed. This indicates that, in general, the more specific class term precedes the general. If the specific class term such as shi 'fruit' is obvious from the context, it can be omitted. I have repeated some examples already mentioned in (310) to illustrate this.

```
salà(shī)kùn
'banana plant'
caìk(shī)kùn
maú(shī)kùn
'mango tree'
'plum plant'
```

The class term shi is not restricted to fruit names alone. It also occurs with nouns that have rounded shapes. These are exemplified in (312). Notice the term mík-tū-shī (eye-round-fruit) 'eye ball' contains a prenominal and a postnominal class term.
(312) míktūshī
zōkshī talùshī
'eye ball'
'nipple' or 'breast'
'bullet'

Names that can be categorised under creeper plants or vines take the already infixed CLT yalù. Some names of this type are given in (313)

| (313) ceùyalù | 'thorny creeper vine' |
| :--- | :--- |
| malaùtyalù | 'oblong fruit vine' |
| mīpákyalù | 'pumpkin vine' |
| hōhōnyalù | 'ash pumpkin vine' |
| cìnshīyalù | 'cucumber vine' |

Names that can be categorised under flowers take the CLT pá ~ papá as given in (314).
Most flora names in Kadu are loanwords from Burmese.

| heútlápá | 'star flower' |
| :--- | :--- |
| nēcāpá | 'sun flower' |
| nínsīpá | 'rose' |
| zapeūpá | 'jasmine' |
| kāntamāpá | 'aster' |
| títsāpá | 'gladiola' |

All the names of meat take the class term sān as given in (315).

| (315) | mōksān |
| :--- | :--- |
| wàksān | 'beef' |
| ūsān | 'pork' |
| ceúsān | 'chicken' |

There are two terms glossed as 'field' in the list. The term kān is used for human grown fields (e.g. kānzū-kān 'mustard-field' and haūngheū-kān 'corn-field'). The other term, tā, may be also glossed as 'clump' when it describes a cluster of trees (e.g. lapòk-tā and sakaú-tā 'bamboo field' and 'teak field', respectively.) However, its scope is not only for trees and can be used for other places (e.g zūn-tā 'salt field'). Therefore, I have glossed it as 'field' in my corpus.

### 3.3 Particles

There is a large number of morphemes which I simply called particles in this thesis. Particles do not occur as the heads of phrases. They only have grammatical and no lexical meaning. They follow words, phrases, or clauses and provide important grammatical information. Phonologically they may be clitics or independent syllables.

### 3.3.1 Nominal relational markers

Nominal relational markers are case marking particles which provide the grammatical and semantic role of NPS at the phrasal and clausal levels. These include postpositions such as ká 'topic', tè 'anti-agentive', and pè 'locative'. They are dealt with in Chapter 6.
3.3.2 Verbal particles

The post-verbal particles presented in §7.2.2 include the plural marker, cí, and the two directional markers, àng 'away from the deictic centre' and ìng 'toward the deictic centre'.

### 3.3.3 Clausal particles

Clausal particles are analysed as including two categories-subordinating particles and clause final particles (CFP). Subordinating particles are a category of morphemes that occur at the end of dependent clauses. The function of these particles is to mark subordinate relationship such as condition, temporal relation, or purpose to the main clause. These subordinating particles are presented in §11.1. Clause final particles (CFP) occur with independent clauses and are a class of morphemes that occur at the end of independent clauses. The function of clause final particles is to express mood, aspect, or other features such as an actual vs. hypothetical event and they are discussed in §7.1. Another small class of clausal particles are tún/yún 'still', yók 'intrusive', and zík 'finally', which express the relationship between two time frames (§7.3).

### 3.3.4 Utterance final particles

Syntactically, utterance final particles follow the CFPs. They mark utterances as questions, reported speech or miratives (suprise or unexpected situations).These
particles include the particles lá 'question', ták 'hearsay' and laká ~ lakaú ~ lamà 'mirative'. They are discussed in §7.4.

### 3.3.5 Speaker attitude particles

Speaker attitude particles (SAP) are a small class of morphemes which occur at the end of the utterances. It is impossible to give English translations for these particles, therefore, they are simply glossed as SAP in my corpus. They are frequently used to express the emotional commitment or attitude of the speaker. The list in (316) shows SAPS with possible English translations. Some references where these SAP are attested are provided in () brackets (see Appendix B). The text number and clauses within that particular texts and seperated by colon (:).

| lakò | 'indeed, of course' | $(17: 1,33,42)$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lé | 'of course' | $(17: 8,10,11)$ |
| lèō | 'don't you know? of course' | $(13: 5,8,61,63)$ |
| letā | 'emphatic, of course' | $(9: 97,25: 105)$ |
| ná ~ naú | 'agree, right?' | $(15: 100,101,25: 45)$ |
| seù | 'euphonic, sympathetic, you see?' | $(17: 5,6,12)$ |
| talé | 'yes, you see?, emphatic' | $(17: 2,7,15)$ |
| yeù | 'quotative?', 'is it said?' | $(17: 32,77,90)$ |

These particles, except those which end with the vowel [e] = lé and = talé may be addtionally followed by a euphonic $=$ é which has high falling tone. The vowel may be lengthened and may be pronounced as $=e^{3454321}$. The SAP seù is the most common and
occurs in most of the utterances and the SAPs lèo and letā are the least common. The SAP ná occurs only in female's speech.

## CHAPTER 4: THE NOUN PHRASE

This chapter examines the elements that constitute a noun phrase (NP). The only obligatory element in a Kadu NP is the head noun. A head noun may be simple (§3.1.1.1.1) or complex (§3.1.1.1.2). A demonstrative (DEM), genitive (GEN) phrase, complement (COMPL) phrases or relative (REL) clause occur preceding the head noun while an attributive verb (ATT.V), plural (PL) marking or classifier (CLF) phrase follows the head noun. The structure of a Kadu NP may be presented as:
$\left[\begin{array}{l}\text { DEM } \\ \text { GEN }_{\text {phrase }} \\ \text { COMPL }_{\text {phrase }} \\ \text { REL }_{\text {clause }}\end{array}\right]($ HEAD.NOUN $)($ ATT.V $)($ PL $)\left(\right.$ CLF $\left._{\text {phrase }}\right)$

Figure 27: The structure of the Kadu noun phrase

A large number of nominal classifiers have been identified and they will be dealt with in Chapter 5. Numerals have been discussed in 3.2.2 above.

### 4.1 Pre-head nominal modifiers

Nominal modifiers that precede the head noun are presented in the following order:
4.1.1 Demonstratives, 4.1.2 Genitive modification and 4.1.3 Complement phrases.

Relative clauses and complement clauses also precede the head noun and are discussed in §8.2.3.

### 4.1.1 Demonstratives

All the demonstratives in Kadu prototypically express a spatial relation to the speaker and an addressee. In addition, they can also indicate, anaphorically, a referent that has already been mentioned in the preceding discourse context. There are three demonstratives in Kadu an-, àng- and úng-. They show three degrees of distance, proximal, distal and remote. They are bound roots; they cannot occur without something following after them. The most common form that follows the demonstrative is the nominaliser naq~panáq, as in àngpanáq 'that one' and úngpanáq 'that one (over there)'. There are no special locative forms of demonstratives like here and there in English. The same form is used with locative postpositions. These derived demonstrative forms can be used on their own to refer to any object which is clear from the context. Table 26 lists the demonstrative pronouns in Kadu.

| Demonstratives | Derived forms | Gloss |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| an- | anáq $\sim$ panáq | 'this (near the speaker)' |
| àng- | àngnáq $\sim$ àngpanáq | 'that (near the hearer)' |
| úng- | úngnáq ~ úngpanáq | 'that (away from both)' |

Table 26: Demonstratives in Kadu

Referents that are closer to the speaker at the time of speaking and may or may not be visible are identified with the demonstrative anáq ~ panáq. Unlike distal and remote demonstratives, an- cannot be immediately followed by panáq, as in (317c). However, the form náq frequently occurs with the proximal demonstrative an-, as in (317a) and (317b). The form panáq by itself may also function as proximal demonstrative, as in
(317d). The an- proximal demostrative is reduced to schwa a [ə] when it is followed by the form náq, the rule is $a n+$ naq $=$ anáq.
(a) anáq phónkalùntē (08:55) (b) anáq pòkhá

| anáq phón-kalùn-tē | anáq pòkhá |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| this | wood-plant-PL | this forest |
| 'These trees' | 'This forest.' |  |

(c) *apanáq phóntē
(d) panáq paíngtaí ngatè peúttaúlakàyeù (09:60)
panáq pángtaí ngā = tè peùt-ta = lakà = yeù
this rabbit $1 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$ lie-L.SUFF $=\mathrm{MIR}=\mathrm{SAP}$
'This rabbit lied to me.'

The form anáq can be used to refer anaphorically to a referent that has been already mentioned, as in (318).
(318) anáq neūyā meúmā. anáqtè thwángtacíthāmā (10:28)
anáq neūyā meú $=m a ̄$
this place good = RLS
anáq $=$ tè thwáng-ta-cí $=$ thāmā
this =A.AG clear.away-L.SUFF-PL = HORT
'This place is good. Let's clear/cultivate this (place).'

Referents which are closest to the hearer at the time of speaking and are still at a visible distance and are identified with the demonstrative àngpanáq ~ àngnáq, as in (319).
(319) (a) àngpanáq sāngpaláng (06:23)

| àng | $=$ panáq |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sāngpaláng |  |  |
| that | $=$ NOM |  |
| king |  |  |

## 'That king'

(b) àngpanáq yahaùng tóngmā

| àng = panáq | yahaùng | tóng | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| that $=$ NOM | river | big | $=$ RLS | | 'That river is big.' |  |
| :--- | :--- |

The demonstrative àngpanáq, like anáq, can also be used anaphorically to refer to a referent that has been mentioned, as in (320).
(320) nakápīpèà naká zōkshīwaleú lāthàkūták ngatè (15:93)

àngnáq ínlūpánnàkà tánshîkūták (15:94)

| àng | $=$ panáq | ín-lū | = pánnàkà | tán-shí | $=k u \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |$=$ ták

'If I cannot get that (dragon milk), (he) will kill (me), it is said.'

If the referents are far away from both the speaker and hearer at the time of speaking they are identified with the demonstrative úngpanáq ~ úngnáq, as in (321).
(321) (a) úngpanáq ací sèktàk (15:168)

| úng | $=$ panáq | ací |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| that | sèk-tàk |  |  |
| thOM | elephant | person-PL |  |

'Those (remote) elephant people'
(b) úngnáq yēk wányōkpín sèk (13:14)

| úng | $=$ panáq | yēk wán-yōk | pín sèk |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| that | $=$ NOM | hill.field chop-eat | $=$ NOM person |

'That (remote) farmer'

There are no special forms of locative demonstratives. The same demonstratives, with or without attaching the form panáq, are used with the locative postposition, pè (§6.3), to form locative demonstratives in Kadu, as in (322) and also (319a).
(322) (a) àngpè līthàmā (11:9)
àng =pè lī-thà $=m a \overline{ }$
that $=$ LOC come-must $=$ RLS
'They have to come to that place.'
(b) àngpanáqpè taúpmā (09:102)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { àng }=\text { panáq } & =\text { pè taúp } & =\text { mā } \\
\text { that }=\text { NOM } & =\text { LOC end } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'It stopped there.'
(c) úngpè thōkpánták (15:73)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { úng } & =\text { pè } & & \text { thōk }=\text { pán }=\text { ták } \\
\text { that } & =\text { LOC } & & \text { arrive }=\operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}
\end{array}
$$

'(They) reached that place, it is said.'

Unlike the distal and remote demonstratives mentioned above, when the proximal demonstrative an- is followed by pè it takes the allomorph aú-, as in (323).
(323) (a) aúpè $l \overline{1}$
aú $=$ pè lī
here = LOC come
‘Come here!’
(b) aúpè ōmnímákmā ngaká (17:30)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { aú =pè } & \text { òm-ním-à } & =\text { mā } \quad \text { ngā }=\text { ká } \\
\text { here }=\text { LOC } & \text { make-stay-EUPH } & =R L S \quad 1 S G=T O P
\end{array}
$$

A proximal location may be also expressed by the derived demonstrative form anáq followed by the locative pè, as in (324).
(324) anáqpè taúpcàngmák seùé (17:93)
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { anáq } & =\text { pè } & \text { taúp-cí-àng } & =\text { mák }=\text { seùé } \\ \text { this } & =\text { LOC } & \text { end-PL-DIR } & =\text { HORT }=\text { SAP }\end{array}$
'Let's stop (it) here.'

If the speaker considers the entity they are referring to to be really far away, and almost invisible, the form myán is used, as in (325).
(325) myán nántaūpè (20:11)
myán nántaū = pè
over.there palace $=$ LOC
'The palace way over there!'

Manner demonstratives are formed by combining a demonstrative and the manner postposition nīng, yeù, or nīngyeù (§11.1.6), as (326) and (327). The forms ning and yeù can immediately occur with the bound demonstrative forms, as in (326a) and (326b).
(326) (a) phóténgaūngtè anyeù yūnímmā (18:34)

| phóténgaūng | $=$ tè | an-yeù | yū-ním | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PN | $=$ A.AG | DEM-manner | look-stay | $=$ RLS | '(The tiger) was looking at Photeingaung like this.'

(b) àngnīng acān thúktapánták (09:41)
àng = nīng acān thúk-ta = pán = ták
that = manner plan take.out-L.SUFF $=\operatorname{COS}=H S$
'(The rabbit) extracts/makes plans that way, it is said.'

However, the form ningyeù follows derived demonstrative forms, as in (327).
anáqnīngyeù pīnpīnpánpán ōmyōkthàkū (17:50)
anáq $=$ nīngyeù pīnpīnpánpán ōm-yōk-thà $=k \bar{u}$
this =manner be.wearily make-eat-must $=$ IRLS
'(I) will have to work hard this way for my living.'

### 4.1.2 Genitive modification

There is no overt marking of genitives in Kadu. Thus, a genitive phrase plus head noun resembles a compound noun. For example, thīng tamìsā 'villager' could be viewed as ATT. $\mathrm{N}+\mathrm{N}$ 'someone from the village' or a with genitive interpretation 'village person'. In addition, Kadu doesn't have possesive adjectives such as 'my' and 'our' as in English. Therefore, it is often difficult to determine whether the pronoun is the subject of the clause or possessor of the noun that follows it. Consider the examples in (328).

## (328) ngā thīngpalá thàmā

ngā thīngpalá thà $=m \bar{a}$
1SG village.chief be = RLS
'I am the village's chief.' or
'(He) is my village chief.'

The sentence in (328) has two possible interpretations: one as a genitive phrase and the other as an equational clause. The choice of interpretation is determined by context. If the context is not clear, the topic marker ká is inserted to distinguish the independant pronoun from a genitive interpretation.
(329) ngāká thīngpalá thàmā
ngā = ká thīngpalá thà =mā
1SG $=$ TOP village.chief be $=$ RLS
'I am the village chief.'

As in the above example, the genitive always precedes the head noun. Another example is illustrated in (330).
(330) nāng saēktè lākákmāyeù (04:12)

| nāng | saēk | $=$ tè | lā-kák | $=$ mā $=$ yeù |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2SG | daughter | = A.AG | take-want | $=$ RLS $=$ SAP |

'(We) want to take your daughter.'

When the possessor is the first person singular pronoun $n g \bar{a}$, it gets reduced to a minor syllable nga [yə], as in (331) and (332).
(331) ngaēktè ngā sántáttahángmanaîk(08:88)
ngā ēk tè ngā sántát -ta-háng manaík
1SG wife A.AG 1SG try.out L.SUFF-back only.if
'I will test my wife.'
(332) ngateúpè acípá sāsèk ngaúkà chīnēkmā (12:19)
ngā teú $=$ pè ací-pá
1SG hut = LOC elephant-female
sāsèk chīnēk =mā
mother.son defecate $=$ RLS
'The mother elephant and its baby defecated near my hut.'

The Kadu genitive construction can have multiple possessors preceding the possessed noun. Each possessor noun modifies the noun immediately following, as in (333a) and (333b).
(333) (a) azàk sāngpaláng míqphyátóng (07:124)

| azàk | sāngpaláng | míqphyá-tóng |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PN | king | queen-big |

'The queen of Kadu's king' (Lit. the head queen of Azak's king)
(b) maléq amú cím tóngmā (AKYS)
maléq amú cím tóng =mā

1PL big.brother house big = RLS
'Our big brother's house is big.'

### 4.1.3 Noun complements

There are two types of noun complements in Kadu: postpositional phrases and nonfinite complement clauses. Both complement types precede the head. See Chapter 6 for a detailed discussion of postpositions. Some examples of postpositional complement phrases are given in (334).
(334) (a) mōksūpyaúk tamìsā

| mōksūp $=$ yaúk | tamìsā |  |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
| hat | $=$ COM | human |
| 'a person with (a) hat' |  |  |

(b) panmaúkhaík sàt

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { panmaúk } & =\text { haík } & \\
\text { sàt } \\
\text { PN } & =\text { ABL } & \\
\text { rice }
\end{array}
$$

'rice from Banmauk'
(c) awàyeún zāúk
awà = yeún zāúk
father $=$ BEN book
'a book for father'

A non-finite clause may complement the head in an attributive relation. See the discussion on relative clauses in 8.2.3.

### 4.2 Post-nominal modifiers

Nominal modifiers that follow the head noun are presented in two section: 4.2.1
Attributives and 4.2.2 Plural marking. Classifier phrases are dealt with in Chapter 5.

### 4.2.1 Attributives

Post-head verb attributives are dicussed in §3.1.2.1.2. Some more examples of noun with attributive verb members are illustrated in (335) again.
(335) (a) maúshītè ácí yōkmā ūkántàk (10:36)

| maú-shī $\quad$ = tè ácí | yōk | = mā ū-kán-tàk |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| plum-CLT.fruit $=$ A.AG extremely | eat | =RLS fowl-bad-PL |
| 'The fowls ate a lot of plums.' |  |  |

(b) kasàtóngtè zàkmaták (09:4)
kasà-tóng $=$ tè zàk $=$ mā $=$ ták
tiger-big $=$ A.AGafraid $=R L S=H S$
'(The rabbit was) afraid of the big tiger, it is said.'

### 4.2.2 Plural marking

Kadu has two plural markers in the NP: tàk and $t \bar{e} \sim t w \bar{e}$, plus a separate optional plural marker that occurs in the verb complex. The plural marking in the verb complex is discussed in §7.2.2.1. The etymologies of the plural forms that occur within the NP are not apparent. The form tàk occurs only with living beings, whereas $t \bar{e} \sim t w \bar{e}$ does not have any restriction on its use and may occur following an NP referring to any type of referent. Consider (336) where (336a) and (336b) are grammatical, but (336c) is not.
(336) (a) hing sātàk atá yōknímcímā (15:13)

| hīng | sā-tàk | atá | yōk-ním-cí | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG | son-PL | rice | eat-stay-PL | $=$ RLS |

'His sons are eating rice.'
(b) kasàtàkká nākceūtè hāmaták (09:9)

| kasà-tàk | $=$ ká nākceū $=$ tè | hā | $=$ mā $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tiger-PL | $=$ TOP night $=$ A.AG | walk | $=$ RLS $=$ HS |

'The tigers go out in the night, it is said.'
(c) *címtàk zāmā

| cím-tàk | zā | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| house-PL | build | $=$ RLS |

tàk can also occur with personal names to mark plurality indicating " x and those associated with them."
(337) (a) maungmaungtàk awà
maungmaung-tàk awà
PN-PL father
'Maung Maung and his siblings' father.'
(b) myáqmyáqtak címtè satēngyaúk nōpmā
myáqmyáq-tàk cím = tè satēng = yaúk nōp = mā
PN-PL house =A.AGthatch = COM cover = RLS
'(They) are roofing Mya Mya's and (her family's) houses with thatch.'

The plural marker $t \bar{e} \sim t w \bar{e}$ is probably derived from the Burmese plural marker 60 <twei>. Look at the Burmese example in (338).
(338) so:6o\% (Burmese: Okell 1964:430)
nwa: -twei
cow -PL
‘cows’

In Kadu, it is common to find the plural marker $t \bar{e}$ following Burmese loanwords, as in (339).
(339) síttátē lìpán yāntūtē lìpán (07:113)

| síttá-tē | lī | $=$ pán | yāntū-tē | lī |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| soldier-PL | come | $=$ pán |  |  |
| SOS | enemy-PL | come | $=$ COS |  |

'Soldiers are coming. Enemies are coming.’

The plural marker $t \bar{e}$, occurring with reference to living beings, is illustrated in (340).
(340) (a) acítwē kaūteúpsōmìng (15:168).
ací-tē $\quad$ kaū-teúp-sōm-ìng
elephant-PL $\quad$ call-throw-finish.up-DIR ${ }_{2}$
'(She) brought elephants.'
(b) zalìt zalàt tamìsātwēlakà (04:30)

| zalìt-zalàt | tamìsā-tē | $=$ lakà |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| disgusting | human -PL | $=$ MIR |

'Disgusting people’

However, the form tàk is not attested with loan nominals. My language consultants insisted that it is not natural to use the plural marker tàk with loanwords like sittá 'soldier'.
(341) *síttátàk lìpán yāntūtàk lìpán

The plural marker tàk is obligatorily omitted when it is followed by classifier phrases (see Chapter 5), as illustrated in (342).
(342) (a) ēk kalìnghú ngāpánták (15:113)

| èk | kalìng-hú | ngā | $=$ pán $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wife | two-CLF.person | exist | $=C O S=H S$ |

'(He) has two wives, it is said.'
(b) aténashī sómhú (24:7)
aténashī sóm-hú
sibling.sisters three-CLF.person
'Three sibling sisters’
(c) leútneút píteùn lūpáng hīngká (12:113)

| leútneút | pí-teùn | lū | $=$ páng | hīng | $=$ ká |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| weapon | four-CLF.thing | get | $=$ DIR1:COS | $3 S G$ | $=$ TOP |

'He got four weapons.'

## CHAPTER 5: NOMINAL CLASSIFIERS

Kadu has a highly developed nominal classifier system. The use of classifiers is obligatory when a noun is modified by a numeral. Since these terms occur only with numerals, they will be referred to as numeral classifiers (NCLF) or simply classifiers in this thesis. The use of NCLFs has been widely attested across Asia (Jones 1970). NCLFs are one of the common features of Southeast Asia languages regardless of their genetic affiliation. Matisoff (1973:88) defines NCLFs in Southeast Asia as "a type of limited noun that occurs only after numerals or after another classifier and whose selection is determined by a preceding noun." In Kadu, a single noun may occur with different NCLFs, for example, cím-lúk-à (house-CLF.round-one) or cím-hà-à (house-CLF.building-one) 'one house'. Therefore, the choice of NCLF is constrained by the nature of the referent of the preceding noun. "The choice of NCLF is rather predominantly semantic ... the range of semantic oppositions employed in numeral classifiers varies; it most often involves animacy, shape, size, and structure." (Aikhenvald 2003:98).

In terms of word order, two orders are most commmon in Southeast Asia: numeral-classifier-noun and noun-numeral-classifier. The former type is found in languages like Chinese and Vietnamese. The latter type is common with languages such as Burmese and Thai. The following examples in (343) illustrate the Burmese numeral classifer construction.

| (343) | kjaun ta kaun | (cat | one | CLF.animal) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'one cat' |  |  |  |  |
| lu hna jau' | (person two | CLF.human) | 'two people' |  |
|  | hpja thoun: cha' (mat | three | CLF.flat) | 'three mats' |

A typical Kadu classifier construction is, like in Burmese, a combination of a noun followed by a numeral and then the classifier. An exception to this rule is with the numeral 'one', like in Thai (Haas 1942) or Garo-a Sal language (Burling2004:244) which has the reverse order of numeral and classifier when the numeral is 'one'. The numeral 'one' in Kadu has two forms à as in (344a) and nù as in (345a) a native and a borrowed form from Shai respectively (see §3.2.2). It must also be noticed that the Kadu numeral à 'one' is fused into a preceding identical vowel. See the discussion of vowel fusion in §2.8.1.
(a) kám húkà

| kám | húk-à |
| :--- | :--- |
| plate | CLF.round-one | 'one plate’

(b) kám kalìnghúk
kám kalìng-húk
plate two-CLF.round
'two plates'
(a) pínù
(b) kalìngpí
pí-nù
year-one
'one year'
kalìng-pí
two-year
'two years'

Notice in examples (344a) and (345a), even though only the form nù is clearly borrowed from Shai/Tai, both forms for 'one' follow the Tai word order pattern. The
head noun can undergo deletion if it is pragmatically recoverable from the context. For example, instead of (346) it is also possible to say (347).
(346) amúnashì kalìnghú nāngmā (AKYS)
amúnashì kalìng-hú nāng = mā
brothers two-CLF.person go = RLS
'Two brothers go/are going.'
(347) kalìnghú nāngmā (AKYS)
kalìng-hú nāng =mā
two-CLF.person go = RLS
'Two people go/are going.'

It is common to delete the noun when the same referent is referred to again in the course of the same utterance, as in (348).
(348) maléq atétóng kalìnghú ngātalé hawàká halánāngzípán (17:04)
maléq até-tóng kalìng-hú ngā = talé
1PL sister-big two-CLF.person exist =SAP
(até-tóng) hú-à = ká halá nāng-zí = pán
(sister-big) CLF.person-one $=$ TOP husband go-finish $=\operatorname{COS}$
'I have two older sisters. One person/of them got married.'

Notice in (348) the form hú 'CLF.person' is reduced to [hə] and the semi vowel - $W$ - is inserted as a linker between the classifier and numeral. See the discussion of phonological processes in §2.8. Some numeral classifiers in Kadu exhibit two forms:
one that occurs with the native Kadu numerals one to four, and the other that occurs with the Shan loan numerals. Note that the highest Kadu numeral we have found that reflects a PTB form is the numeral for 'four'. See $\S 3.2 .2$ for the discussion of numerals in Kadu. Most, if not all the classifiers that occur with Shan numerals are clearly Shan loanwords. For example, the two forms hú and kaú classify a human entity. The former occurs with native Kadu numerals (one to four) and the latter occurs with borrowed Shan numerals. Nominal classifiers that exhibit two forms are given in Table 27. They are separated by /. The first form occurs with the native Kadu numerals (one to four) and the latter form occurs with borrowed Shan numerals.

| Noun classifiers | Meaning |
| :--- | :--- |
| teùn/zá | 'general classifier' |
| hú/kaú | 'person' |
| nù/tú | 'animal' |
| yák/wán | 'day' |
| kák/leún | 'stick' |
| húk/lúk | 'round' or 'globular' |
| táp/tú | 'thin' or 'flat' |
| pák/peún | 'currency' |

Table 27: Noun classifiers that exhibit two forms

Classifiers do not occur with multiples of ten. Any classifier following the numeral kalìng 'two' changes to high tone. Classifiers used with higher numerals are not described in the thesis. The reason being, simply, that for the numerals eleven and higher the Kadu use Burmese numerals and freely borrow classifiers from Burmese as well. Therefore, I have focused on the numerals one to nine only.

Some numeral classifiers also occur as CLTs (§3.2.5.2) and may take -al- infixation to form nominals. See the illustrations in examples (349a-b).
(a) phónhalàk hàkà
(halàk < hàk)

| phón-halàk | hàk-à |
| :--- | :--- |
| wood-branch | CLF.branch-one |
| 'one branch' |  |

(b) phóntalāt tātnà
(talāt $<$ tāt $)$
phón-talāt tāt-à
wood-leaf CLF.leaf-one
'one leaf

Most of the classifiers are monosyllabic words in Kadu. So far, I have identified at least 58 of them. Just for the sake of convenience in analysing classifiers in Kadu I have categorised them into four types broadly based on semantic domains. These are Sortal, Collective, Measure and Event classifiers. The first type, in general, classifies objects based on shape-specific, but often arbitrary, characteristics. The second type classifies objects based on an arranged group, and the third type indicates measurement of volume, quantity, and length. The last type quantifies activities described by verbs.

### 5.1 Sortal classifiers

Sortal classifiers are semantically based in Kadu. A sortal classifier, quoting (Lyons 1977:463), "individuates whatever it refers to in terms of the kind of entity that it is."

They are further broadly divided by semantic subcategories as follows: 5.1.1 Generic and type/kind classifiers, 5.1.2 Human and animal classifiers, 5.1.3 Shape related classifiers, and 5.1.4 Plants, vegetal, and field classifers.

### 5.1.1 Generic and type/kind classifiers

There are two classifiers which express a non-specific and a kind/type reading as opposed to a specific reading, as in (350).

| (350) teùn | 'thing, general all purpose classifier' | (Kadu) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| zá | 'kind' | (Shan) |

The use of the classifier teùn in Kadu is similar to that of a $_{\text {< }}<\mathbf{h k u} .>$ in Burmese and mà in Lahu. It is used with a non-specific object as in anáq teùnà meúmā 'this one is good'. It can also freely be a substitute for more specific classifiers. For example, the specific classifier for rounded objects húk in kám húkà 'one bowl or plate’ can be substituted by teùn as kám teùnà. For counting nonspecific objects, the general classifier is used with numbers, e.g. teùnà, kalìngteún, sómteùn 'one, two, three (things)'. teùn is also used to generalise the different types of nouns, as in (351).
(351) leútneút ngaúkà píteùn lūpáng (12:113)

| létneút ngaúkà pí-teùn | lū | $=$ páng |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| weapon as.for | four-CLF.thing | get | $=\operatorname{DIR}_{1}: C O S$ |

When one does not want to make a specific indication, the head noun may be omitted, as in (352).
(352) kalìngteún lūwàngká (12:98)

| kalìng-teún | lū-àng | $=$ ká |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| two-CLF.thing | get-DIR |  |

'Having gotten two (weapons)’

The term zá is employed when the speaker wants to express the 'kind' reading. It generally occurs with the numeral one and takes the form nù.
(353) alúk zánù lūkū ngaúpanáq amyóyítá phú cíceùsòtthàmā (17:40)
alúk zá-nù lū =kū ngaú =panáq amyó = yí =tá
work CLF.kind-one get = IRLS say = NOM kind/type =also = EMP
phú cíceū sòt -thà =mā
silver extremely bribe -must $=$ RLS
'Even to get a kind/type of job (we) have to bribe with a lot of money.'
5.1.2 Human and animal classifiers

Human and animal classifiers attested in Kadu are listed in (354).

| hú | 'person' (Kadu) |
| :--- | :--- |
| kaú | 'person' (Shan) |
| nù | 'animal' (Kadu) |
| tú | 'animal' (Shan) |

As shown in (354), each type-human and animal-exhibits two forms. The classifiers for humans are hú and kaú. The first is used with the native numerals and the latter is used with borrowed Shan numerals. These are used when counting any human, regardless of social status. For example, sāngpaláng hú-à (king CLF.peron-one) 'one king' and samón hú-à (monk CLF.person-one) 'one monk'. The form hú is reduced to ha [hə] when it is followed by -à, the numeral 'one' and the linker -W- is inserted between the two vowels (§2.8.2). Compare the examples in (355) and (356). The example in (355) is grammatical, as the classifier occurs with the native numerals. However, the example in (356) is not grammatical because the classifier and numeral do not match.
(355) hawà kalìnghú sómhú anyeùsà nāngmaták (04:6)

| hú-à | kalìng-hú | sóm-hú |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| CLF.person-one | two-CLF.person | three-CLF.person |

an-yeù-sà nāng $=m \bar{a}=$ ták
DEM-manner-DIM go $=$ RLS $=$ HS
'A couple of people like this went (there), it is said.'

* kaúwà kalìngkaú sómkaú anyeùsà nāngmaták

| kaú-à | kalìng-kaú | sóm-kaú |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| CLF.person-one | two-CLF.person | three-CLF.person |


| an-yeù-sà | nāng | $=$ mā $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| DEM-manner-dIM | go | $=$ RLS $=H S$ |

'A couple of people like this went there, it is said.'

The classifier kaú is used with the borrowed Shan numbers, as in (357) and (358).
(357) amúnashì shìkaú tayá áthúktaūnímmā (12:1)

| amúnashì | shì-kaú | tayá áthúk-ta-ním | $=\mathrm{mā}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| brothers | four-CLF.person | law | try-L.SUFF-stay | $=$ RLS |

'Four brothers are studying the law.'
ngapèká címsèk peútkaú ngālakúqé (17:1)
ngā $=$ pè $=$ ká cím sèk ngā = lakòt-kaú $=$ é
1SG $=$ LOC $=$ TOP house person eight-CLF.person exist $=$ SAP $=$ SAP
'T’ve got eight people (in my family).'

In some stories, these classifiers occur with animals when they are able to speak like humans, as in (359).
(359) àngnáq tayéksān sómhútè ngaúkà wānzūpánnáqà īphángkákmāyeù (13:29)

| àngnáq | tayéksān | sóm-hú | $=$ tè ngaúkà |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| that | animal | three-CLF.person | $=$ A.AG as.for |

wānzū = pán = naà ī-pháng-kák $=\mathrm{ma}=$ yeù
make.fire $\quad=\operatorname{COS}=$ only give-prior-want $=$ RLS $=$ SAP
'As for these three animals, I will make a fire and give (them) first.'

The classifier for animal referents also exhibits two forms: nú (Kadu) and tú (Shan).
They are used with all kinds of animals, from tiny mosquitoes to giant elephants. The distribution of nú and tú, like with the human classifiers, is dependent on the numerals they follow. Kadu numbers one to four take the form nú, as in (360).
(360) (a) kasà núwà

```
kasà nú-à
tiger CLF.animal-one
```

'one tiger'
(b) kasà kalìngnú 'two tigers'
kanún sómnú 'three termites’

The Shan numerals take the classifier tú, as in (361).
(361) (a) kasà shitúú
kasà shì-tú
tiger four-CLF.animal
'four tigers'
(b) kaphú hátú
kweú hōktú
'five snakes’ 'six monkeys'

The Burmese animal classifier kaūng is used together with numerals borrowed from Burmese, as in (362).
(362) cīwātóngtē lé ngá shítkaūng (18:98)
cī-wā-tóng-tē lé ngá shít-kaūng
dog-male-big-PL four five eight-CLF.animal
'A pack of big dogs.' (Lit. four, five, eight big dogs)

Shape related classifiers attested in Kadu are given in (363).

| (363) táp | 'thin and flat objects' |
| :--- | :--- |
| tú | 'thin and flat objects' |
| húk | 'globular things' (Kadu) |
| lúk | 'globular things' (Shan) |
| kák | 'sticks' (Kadu) |
| leún | 'sticks' (Shan) |
| hà | 'buildings' |
| haū | 'long-handled tools' |
| tá | 'long, thin things' |

The classifier for counting thin and flat objects takes two forms: táp and tú. Both classifiers occur with both native and borrowed Shan numerals. The former is used when counting thin and flat (both flexible and non flexible) objects that are usually not rounded. This classifier usually occurs when counting items such as wooden planks, mats, mirrors, slices of bread, and sheets of paper.
(a) sān kalìngtáp
sān kalìng-táp
mirror two-CLF.flat
'two mirrors'
(b) pyīn kalìngtáp
làpàng kalìngtáp
kám sómtáp
'two planks'
'two cheeks'
'three (flat) plates'

The latter form tú is used only with flexible flat objects such as mats, clothing, and bamboo hats as illustrated in (365).
(365) (a) salaúng túwà

## salaúng tú-à

mat CLF.flat-one
'one mat'
(b) phúkná kalìngtú 'two bamboo hats' sāngsūng sómtú 'three shirts'

The classifier for counting globular objects also takes two forms: húk (Kadu) and lúk (Shan). The former occurs with the Kadu numerals one to four and the latter with Shan numerals. These classifiers are used in counting spherical, cubical, or round objects, such as plates, fruit, houses, heads, eyes, mountains, and bags.
(366) (a) kámhúkà
kám húk-à
plate CLF.round-one
'one bowl/plate’
(b) yalùcaîkshī kalìnghúk 'two cucumbers’
kám hàlúk 'five bowls/plates’
paláng hōklúk 'six bottles'

The classifier for 'stick' or 'long slender object' also takes two forms: kák (Kadu) and leún (Shan). They are used in counting small long slender objects such as pencils,
sticks, spoons, needles, rope, small pieces of bamboo, firewood, and tails. The distribution of kák and leún, like that of the human and animal classifiers, is dependent on the numerals they follow. The Kadu numerals one to four take the form kák, as in (367).
(367) (a) tā kákà

## tā kák-à

leg CLF.stick-one
'one leg'
(b) sīn kalìngkák
phón sómkák
'two nails'
‘three wood sticks'

The Shan numerals take the classifier leún. These are illustrated in (368).
(368) tákshī shìleúnkalàng ōmpánnáqà tútnàng (07:64)
tākshī shì-leún kalàng ōm = pán = naà tút-àng
finger four-CLF.stick approximate make $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only cut-DIR ${ }_{1}$
'Cut the length to about four finger lengths.'

The classifier hà is used in counting long buildings such as houses, halls, and monasteries, as in (369).
(369) (a) cím hà
cím hà-à
house CLF.building-one
'one house'
(b) zalaùk kalìnghá 'two rest houses'caúng sómhà 'three monasteries'
The classifier haū is used in counting certain elongated hand tools and weapons, suchas knives, guns, hoes, hammers, brooms, and umbrellas, as in (370). Notice linker -W-between the vowels.
(370) (a) tāng haūwà
tāng ..... haū-à
knife CLF.tool-one
'one knife’
(b) sīnpháng sómhaú 'two grubbing hoes'saúthū háhaú
'five brooms'
The term tá is used to classify counting vines, thread, wires, and ropes, as in (371). In
fused form it is usually heard with a low tone tà.
(371) (a) it talá tá
ītalā ..... tá-à
thread CLF.thread-one
'a string of thread'
(b) halánghú tà 'a string of hair'mīhàk sómtà
'three strings of bamboo ties'
5.1.4 Plants, vegetables, and field classifers

Classifiers for plants, vegetables, and fields attested in Kadu are given in (372). All these classifiers can occur both with Kadu and Shan numerals.

| (372) $k a u ́ l$ | 'long vegetables and fruits' |
| :--- | :--- |
| ák | 'blossoms' |
| $t \bar{u}$ | 'seeds' or 'grain' |
| tāt | 'leaves' |
| kùn | 'plants' |
| $k a \bar{n}$ | 'fields (human grown)' |
| $t \bar{a}$ | 'fields (natural)' |

The classifer kaú is used for counting vegetables and fruits that have a long shape. This classifier is identical with the human classifier kaú, however, there seems to be no semantic correlation between them. A few examples are illustrated in (373).
(373) (a) salàshī kaúwà
salà-shī kaú-à
banana-CLT.fruit CLF.piece-one
'one banana’
(b) yapàshī kalìngkaú 'two string beans'
mōkneúshī Sómkaú 'three chilis'

The classifier ák, which is derived from the verb for 'bloom' or 'open up', is used for counting numbers of blossoms, as in (374).
(374) (a) papá ákà

## papá ák-à

flower CLF.blossom-one
'one flower’
(b) papá kalìngák 'two flowers'
kamú sómák 'three mushrooms'

The classifier $t \bar{u}$ is also used for counting seeds, grain, and kernels. Notice below in (375) it can also occur as a class term.
(a) mīpáktū tūwà
mīpák-tū tū-à
pumpkin-seed CLF.seed-one
'one pumpkin seed'
(b) mīpáktū kalìngtú
haùheū sómtū
'two pumpkin seeds'
'three corn seeds’

The classifier tāt is used only when counting numbers of leaves or sheets of papers. It can occur as a CLT and can be nominalised with the -al- infix, as in (376b).
(376) (a) salàpaítaúng kalìngtāt ōpháng (31:57)
salà paítaúng kalìng-tāt ōp-háng
banana.leaf tip two-CLF.leaf close-back
'Cover with two upper part of leaves again.'
(b) phóntalāt kalìngtát (talāt < tāt)
phón talāt kalìng tát
wood leaf two CLF.leaf 'two leaves'

The classifier kùn is used when counting plants. It can occur as CLT and can be nominalised with the -al- infix.
'two trees'
(b) caikshīkùn kalìngkún 'two mango trees'
kānzū sómkùn 'three mustard plants'

There are two numeral classifiers, $k \bar{a} n$ and $t \bar{a}$ that are used in counting fields. The former is used when counting human-grown fields such as a field of mustard, corn, beans, sugarcane, as illustrated in (378).

## (378) (a) kānzū kānà

kānzū kān-à
mustard CLF.field-one
'one mustard field’
(b) cínwán kalìngkán 'two pineapple fields'
cahaúng sómkán 'three coriander fields'

The latter form, however, is used when counting non-human-grown fields, mainly with larger plants, and clusters of many things, as in (379).
(379) lapòk pítā
lapòk pí-tā
bamboo four-CLF.field
'four bamboo fields'

### 5.2 Collective classifiers

Collective classifiers are used to describe an arranged group of referents such as bunches, clusters, pairs, heaps, and stacks. Based on a broad semantic classification, collective classifiers are further divided into three groups: Bundles, Pairs, and Groups.

### 5.2.1 Bundle classifiers

Classifiers disussed under 'bundle' are listed in (380). These classifiers are used with items that are neatly arranged and can be counted. These classifers can occur both with native and borrowed Shan numerals.

| (380) | phà | 'bunch (banana)' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hūng | 'stalks (banana)' |  |
| haúk | 'bunches' |  |
| paūu | 'bunches (collection of bunches)' |  |
| thū | 'bunches (straw)' |  |
| kazíng | 'clusters' |  |

The classifier phà is used only when counting hands of bananas, as in (381).
(381) (a) salàshī phà
salàshī phà-à
banana CLF.hand-one
'one hand of bananas’
(b) salàshī kalìngphá 'two hands of banana'

The classifier hūng is used in counting stalks of bananas, as in (382).
(382) (a) salàshī hūngà
salàshī hūng-à
banana CLF.bunch-one
'one branch of banana’
(b) salàshī kalìnghúng 'two branches of banana'

There are three classifiers for counting tied up bunches. They are haúk, paū and th $\bar{u}$.
The term haúk seems to occur with any kind of bunch. The term paū is used when counting bunches that are made up of somewhat larger items, or collections of many small bunches, as in (383).

## (383) (a) papá haúkà

## papá haúk-à

flower CLF.bunch-one 'one bunch of flowers'
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { (b) satēng haúkà } & \text { 'one bunch of thatch' } \\ \text { satēng paūwà } & \text { 'one collection of thatch bunches' }\end{array}$

The term th $\bar{u}$ occurs only with counting bunches of straw. Consider the examples in (384), where (384a) is grammatical but (384b) is not.
(384) (a) $\bar{a} m ~ t h \bar{u} w a ̀ ~$
ām thū-à
paddy CLF.bunch-one 'one bunch of paddies'
(b) *satēng thūwà

The classifier kazíng is employed to describe clusters of fruit and flowers, as in (385).
(385) (a) papá kazíngà
papá kazíng-à
flower CLF.cluster-one
'one cluster of flowers'
(b) maúshī kalìngkazíng 'two clusters of plums'
óngshī sómkazíng 'three clusters of coconuts'

### 5.2.2 Pair classifiers

Four classifiers under the category of pairs have been attested in Kadu as listed in (386).
These classifiers usually take borrowed Shan numerals, but may also occur with native numerals.

| (386) | kàt | 'yoke' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| kùn | 'pairs' |  |
| pheú | 'pair of loads' |  |
| pàn | 'one of a pair' |  |

The classifier kàt is used in counting pairs of draught cattle, as in (387).
(387) (a) mōk kàtnù
mōk kàt-nù
cow CLF.yoke-one
'a pair of oxen'
(b) mōk kalìngkát 'two yokes of oxen
ceú sómkát 'three yokes of buffaloes'

The classifier kùn is used in counting pairs of personal ornaments, such as shoes, earrings, and bracelets, as in (388).
(388) (a) heúttín kùnnù
heúttín kùn-nù
slipper CLF.pairs-one
‘a pair of shoes/slippers’
(b) heúttín kalìngkún 'two pairs of shoes/slippers' peūpaūng sómkún 'three pairs of earrings'

The classifier pheú is lexically relatable to the verb 'carry'. It is used in counting pairs of loads carried with a shoulder pole, as in (389). It can be used with any kind of goods which weigh approximately 25-30 kilograms.

## (389) (a) zūn pheúyà

> zūn pheú-à
salf CLF.carrier-one
'a carrier of salt'
(b) phón kalìngpheú
'two carriers of wood'
satēng sómpheú
'three carriers of thatch'

The classifier pàn is used to count one article of things which are generally in pairs.
For example, one load of a pheú is counted as pàn. See the illustrations in (390).
(390) (a) heúttín pànnù
heúttín pàn-nù
slipper CLF.half-one
'one slipper’

## (b) paúngká pánnù takaúk pànnù <br> 'one basket of a pair' <br> 'one bracelet of a pair'

### 5.2.3 Group classifiers

These classifiers, unlike the bundle classifiers discussed in §5.2.1, are used with items that are not neatly arranged and are usually counted as piles or heaps. Four classifiers under the category of 'group' have been attested in Kadu so far, as given in (391). These are native terms, therefore they usually occur with native numerals.

| (391) | tàp | 'stack of wood' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | pūng | 'heap' |
|  | pōk | 'swarm' |
|  | zúq | 'group' |

The classifier tàp is used for counting stacks of firewood, as in (392).
(392) (a) phón tàpmà
phún tàp-à
wood CLF.stack-one
'a stack of wood’
(b) phón kalìngtàp 'two stacks of wood'

The classifier pūng is used for counting heaps or piles, as in (393).
(393) (a) phú pūngà
phú pūng-à
silver CLF.heap-one
'a heap of silver'
(b) phú kalìngpūng nōppán peúmaták (25:108)
phú kalìng-pūng nōp =pán peú =mā = ták
silver two-CLF.heap bury $=\operatorname{COS}$ keep $=$ RLS $=$ HS
'(He) has hidden two heaps of silver, it is said.'

The classifier $p \bar{o} k$ is used for counting a colony of bees, an army of ants, or a swarm of insects, as in (394).
(394) (a) túngún pōkà
túngún pōk-à
bees CLF.group-one
'one swarm of bees'
(b) tahà kalìngpōk 'two armies of red ants'
pazèk sómpōk 'three swarms of flies'

The classifier zúq is used for counting a family or group of people, as illustrated in (395). It is clearly a Burmese loanword from $\underset{\perp}{ }<$ su.> 'collect or gather'. Therefore, it takes Burmese numerals.
(395) (a) ēngthaūng lézúq (10:12) (b) nazúq sátnìng (10:7)

| ēngthaūng$\quad$ lé-zúq | na-zúq | sàt-ìng |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| family | four-CLF.group | two-CLF.group $\quad$ descend-DIR ${ }_{2}$ |,

### 5.3 Measure classifiers

Measure classifiers are used to measure weight, length, area, and capacity. The Kadu lexicon lacks a metric system of units so words such as pound, kilogram, centimeter, meters, and kilometer are foreign to Kadu speakers. Rather they use a non-metrical system of units, many of which are general approximations. I have divided measuring classifiers into two: volume and length.

### 5.3.1 Volume measurements

Numeral classifiers for measuring volume have two types: one that indicates specific amounts and one that indicates general approximations or non-specific amounts. The former are discussed under container classifiers. In the following sections I will first look at some non-specific volume measurements. Many CONTAIN verbs can also occur as classifiers. Some contain verbs, except háng, which can also occur as classifers are illustrated in (396).

| (396) | ngóm | 'mouthful' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | tū̀m | 'handful' |
|  | phīm | 'armful' |
| háng | 'basketful' |  |

The term ngóm is relatable to a lexical verb 'to keep something in the mouth'. It can also occur as a numeral classifier for counting a small amount of something. This term may correlate with the English phrase one tablespoonful, as in (397).
(397) (a) weú ngómà
weú ngóm -à
water CLF.keep.in.mouth-one
'one mouthful of water'
(b) sapáksàwaleú kalìngngóm 'two mouthfuls of soup'

The volume measurement classifier $t \bar{u} m$ is relatable to the lexical verb 'to clench the fist'. It is usually used with a mass noun in counting a handful of items, such as rice, corn, wheat, or sugar.
(398) (a) sàt tūmà
sát tūm-à
rice CLF.handful-one
'a handful of rice’
(b) zūn kalìngtúm 'two handfuls of salt'
samát sómtūm 'three handfuls of sand'

The volume measurement classifier phīm 'armful' is relatable to a lexical verb 'to embrace'. It is used in counting a number of things carried or held in one's arms. It is commonly used for carrying firewood, flowers, or vegetables.
(399) (a) phón phīmà
phón phīm-à
wood CLF.armful-one
'an armful of wood'
(b) pūnsūn kalìngphím 'two armfuls of hay'
mīshī sómphìm 'three armfuls of sugarcane'

The volume measurement classifier háng is an auto-classifier (§5.5), a repetition of the second syllalbe of kúnháng 'basket'. It is used in counting a basketful of such items as taro, potatoes, wood, or fish. It is often reduced to hà, as in (400a). It is conventionalised, therefore, it is not necessary to mention the word 'basket'.
(400) (a) kúnháng hà(à)
kúnháng hà-à
basket CLF.basket-one
'a basket'
(b) neù hángà
'one basketful of taro'
phón kalìngháng
'two basketfuls of wood'

Grain and crops are not weighed, but they are measured by containers. Many of the containers dissussed in this section are standard measurements throughout Myanmar. Unsurprisingly, the source for many of these terms for containers in Kadu come from their long time neighboring language, Burmese. As in Burmese, the standard smalleset unit for volume measuring grain in Kadu is the size of a regular condensed milk tin. The Kadu lexicon contains different terms for the equivalent of two, four, eight, and sixteen tins. Container measurement classifiers are given in (401).

| (401) | húk | 'one condensed milk tin' | (1 tin) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | zaleù | 'two húk equal to one zaleù' | (2 tins) |
|  | kwák | 'two zeleù equal to one kwák' | (4 tins) |
|  | $p \bar{e}$ | 'two kwák equal to one $p \vec{e}$ | (8 tins) |
|  | zalaúk | 'two pee equal to one zalaúk' | (16 tins/two $p \vec{e}$ ) ${ }^{\prime}$ |
|  | zék | 'two zalaúk equal to one zék' | ( 32 tins/four $p \vec{e}$ ) |
|  | kwaìng | 'two zék equal to one kwaìng' | (64 tins/ eight $p \vec{e}$ )' |
|  | táng | 'two kwaing equal to one táng' | (128 tins/sixteen $p \bar{e}$ ) |

It is evident that most of these terms mentioned above in (401) come from Burmese. The only Kadu term is the term húk (§5.1.3). All others are relatable to Burmese. For example, the term Upर्ट <pranj> (my transcription $p \bar{e}$ ) is used to measure grain. It is about 2.5 cubic litres, equal to eight regular condensed milk tins.

### 5.3.3 Length measurements

Numeral classifiers for measuring length are few in number. In general, the Kadu lexicon lacks specific units of length such as centimeter, inch, or yard. Many length measurements in Kadu simply use body parts that may be equal or close to the same unit of length. For example, the smallest length measurement is the horizontal width of a man's finger that may be equal or close to half an inch. Almost all the specific units of length are borrowed from Burmese. We will not deal with those loanwords in this study. Some native metric units of length measurement attested in Kadu are given in (402).

| tākshī | 'inch?' | <'finger' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| saúk | 'CLF.cubit' | <'arm' (Shan loan?) |
| phák | 'CLF.step' | <'to stride' |

The term tākshī 'finger', together with numeral classifiers for stick kák (Kadu) and leún (Shan) is probably the smallest length measurement unit in Kadu. The standard is usually a man's fingers' width. Look at the example in (403).
(403) tákshī shìleúnkalàng ōmpánnáqà tútnàng (07:64)
tākshī shì-leún kalàng ōm = pán = naà tút-àng
finger four-CLF.stick approximate make $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only cut-DIR ${ }_{1}$ "Measure approximately four fingers' (width) and cut (it)."

The numeral classifier saúk 'cubit' or 'foot' is used to measure the distance from the elbow to the tip of the extend middle finger.
(404) (a) manaíksaúk ngālá

```
mà = naík-saúk ngā = lá
WH = many-CLF.cubit exist = Q
```

‘How many cubits are there?’
(b) saūngsaúk ngāmā
saūng-saúk ngā =mā
two-CLF.cubit exist = RLS
'Two cubits/feet'

The verb phák 'stride' is also used as a numeral classifier to indicate the approximate length of a medium length step.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { taphā phákà } & \text { 'one step' }  \tag{405}\\
\text { taphā kalìngphák } & \text { 'two steps' }
\end{array}
$$

The term maī 'mile', which is an English loanword, has also been attested in my corpus. This term has come into the Kadu lexicon via Burmese and it occurs with the Burmese numeral ${ }_{\mathrm{\imath}} \mathrm{\circ}$ : <thum: $>$ (my transcription tóng) 'three' in (406).
(406) khayí tóngmaỉkalàng kátnìngthàmā (18:80)
khayí tóng -maī = kalàng kát-ìng-thà =mā
journey three -mile =approximate $\quad$ run-DIR 2 -must $=$ RLS
'We have to run about three miles.'

Other non-specific length measurement classifiers are those that indicate certain portions of a particular item. Equivalent expressions in English are one half, one third, or one fourth of something. These measurement classifiers are given in (407).

| taùn | 'one piece of an item' |
| :--- | :--- |
| paík | 'half of an item' |
| shíq | 'one fourth of an item' |

The classifier taùn is relatable to the lexical verb 'to make portion'. It is used in counting half units or cross-sectional pieces of a unit, such as logs, bamboo, or fish, as in (408).

## (408) (a) phón taùnnù

## phón taùn-nù

wood CLF.piece-one
'half portion/section of wood'
(b) phón kalìngtaún
'two sections of wood' lapòk sómtaùn 'three sections of bamboo'

The classifier paík is used in counting half or one of two parts, not necessarily equal parts, of spherical or cubical objects, such as fruit, bamboo, as illustrated in (409).

(a) cìnshī paîkà
cìnshī paík-à
cucumber CLF.half-one
'a half portion of cucumber'
(b) cìnshī kalìngpaîk
lapòk sómpaík
'two half portions of cucumber'
'three half pieces of bamboo'

The classifier shíq is used in counting a slice or a piece smaller than half. It generally indicates one fourth or less of a unit. It is also used with counting segments of fruit and cloves of garlic.
(410) (a) cìnshī shíqà

> cìnshī $\begin{aligned} & \text { shíq-à } \\ & \text { cucumber } \\ & \text { CLF.quarter-one }\end{aligned}$ 'a quarter of a cucumber'
(b) cìnshī kalìngshíq
súnshīlúng sómshíq
'two quarters of a cucumber'
'three cloves of garlic'

### 5.4 Event classifiers

The event classifiers are those that quantify activities which may be translated as 'times' These are few in number. Event classifiers attested in Kadu are listed in (411).
(411) chát 'shot'
láp 'frequency'
pán 'frequency' or 'times'

The classifier chát, a Burmese loanword จई<<chak>, is used when counting a number of shots, as in (412).
(412) chátnù saūngchát kápmā (18:76)
chát-nù saūng-chát káp $=m a ̄$
CLF.shot-one two-CLF.shot shoot = RLS
'Shoot once or twice.'

The classifiers pán and láp, both glossed as 'ClF.times’, are used when counting a number of repeated actions. The term pán occurs with borrowed Shan numerals. láp, on the other hand, is attested only with native numeral one and may be translated into English as 'once more'. See illustrations of these two classifiers in (413) and (414).
(413) (a) pánnù nāng ínōmzónsà (07:106)

| pán-nù | nāng | ín-ōm-zón | $=$ sà |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| CLF.times-one | 2SG | NEG-make-continue | $=$ NEG.IMP |

'(You) don't do again!'
(b) sāmpán lītí anyeù tūngākpánták (06:16)

| sām-pán | lī | -tí | an-yeù | tūngāk $=$ pán $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| three-CLF.times | come | -also | DEM-manner | bow $=\operatorname{COS}=$ HS |

'Even the third time (the lizard) bows its head (to the king) in this manner, it is said.'
(414) lápmà tīpmàngkū (31:23)
láp-à tīp-àng $=k \bar{u}$
CLF.times-one pack-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ IRLS
'Pack one (more) time'

### 5.5 Auto-classifiers

Some nouns can be repeated using the same phonological form to classify themselves.
These kinds of classifiers are also found in Lahu, Burmese and in many other languages. I have adopted the term auto-classifiers from Matisoff (1973:89). Wheatley (1982) following Okell (1969) simply called them repeaters in his Burmese grammar. Auto-classifiers are often used if the noun has no salient physical features to classify it with.
(a) cím címmà (b) cím kalìngcím
cím cím-à
house CLF.auto-one
'one house'
(c) cím hácím
cím há-cím
house five-CLF.auto
'five houses'
cím kalìng-cím
house two-CLF.auto 'two houses'

Most often with sesquisyllabic or disyllabic nouns only the second syllable is repeated, as in (416).
(416) (a) lapòk pòkà

| lapòk | pòk-à |
| :--- | :--- |
| bamboo | CLF.auto-one |
| 'one piece of bamboo' |  |

## (b) yameù meùyà

## yameù meù-à

## dipper CLF.auto-one

'one dipper’

A few more examples of partially repeated classifiers are shown in (417).

| (417) lapá pà-à | 'one (wet rice) field' |
| :--- | :--- |
| papá pá-à | 'one flower' |
| zāúk úk-à | 'one book' |

## CHAPTER 6: NOMINAL RELATIONAL MARKERS

This chapter looks at the relational markers attested in Kadu. They are cliticised after the NP to signal the phrase as topic, anti-agentive, allative, ablative, locative, benefactive or comitative. The nominal realational markers attested in Kadu are shown in (418).

| ká | 'topic' |
| :--- | :--- |
| tè | 'anti-agentive' |
| pè | 'locative' |
| pà | 'allative' |
| haík | 'ablative' |
| yaúk | 'comitative' |
| yeún | 'benefactive' |
| athá and neúq | 'comparative' |
| yaūngpáng | 'reason' |

## 6.1 ká 'topic'

The particle ká, glossed as 'topic', may follow the initial NP of a clause to introduce it as a topic, as in (419).
(419) (a) hīngká sapùpā mínwúttasàpā akōnglóng lánpè kasúmpeúlakàé (08:81)

$$
\left.\begin{array}{lll}
\text { hīng } & =\text { ká } \quad \text { sapù }=\text { pā } & \text { mínwúttasà }=\text { pā } \\
3 \text { SG } & =\text { TOP horse }=\text { include } \quad \text { akōnglóng } \\
\text { royal.dress }=\text { include all }
\end{array}\right] \begin{array}{ll} 
\\
\text { lám } & =\text { pè kasúm-peú }=\text { lakà }=\text { é } \\
\text { road } & =\text { LOC hide-keep }=\text { MIR }=\text { SAP }
\end{array}
$$

'He has hidden the horse as well as the royal dress on the road.'
(b) ngā heúkāàngkūpanáqká kasàtóngyaúk paíngtaí aswētangeūchín thàcípanáq ngaúkà nímcímaták (09:2).

| [ngā | heú-kā-àng | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ = panáq] | = ká |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | tell-show-DIR ${ }_{1}$ | $=$ IRLS $=$ NOM | $=\mathrm{TOP}$ |


| kasà-tóng | $=$ yaúk | pángtaí | aswē-tangeūchín |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tiger-big | $=$ COM | rabbit | friend-friend |


| thà-cí $=$ panáq | ngaúkà |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bím-cí $=$ mā $=$ ták |  |  |
| be-PL $=$ NOM | as.for |  |
| stay-PL $=$ RLS $=H S$ |  |  |

'The story I am going to tell is about the friendship between a tiger and a rabbit. (They) lived together, it is said.'

The term ká also functions to contrast the referent with other possible referents, as in (420).
(420) (a) ngāhaláká eúhám kaūmā (08:95)
ngā-halá =ká eúhám kaū = mā
1SG-husband = TOP PN call = RLS
'My husband is called Eham.' (not anybody else)
(b) kasàká wānhūàngmaták (09:16)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { kasà = ká wān hū-àng } \quad=\text { mā }=\text { ták } \\
& \text { tiger = TOP fire burn-DIR } \\
& 1
\end{aligned}=\text { RLS }=\text { HS }
$$

The topic marker can also be used at the clausal level, and frequently occurs in tail-head linkage structures. In this type, the verb complex of the preceding sentence is repeated, setting a topic for the sentence that will follow. See more detailed discussion on 'tailhead linkage' in §11.3.
(421) àngninngyeùzáng nímcíká paíngtaí ngaúkà zàkmaták (09:3).
\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{lll}\text { [àng-nīngyeù } & \text { = záng } \\
\text { that-manner } & \text { =EMPH }\end{array}
$$ \quad \begin{array}{l}ním-cí] = ká <br>

stay-PL=TOP\end{array}\right]\)|  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pángtaí | ngaúkà | zàk $=$ mā $=$ ták |
| rabbit | as.for | afraid $=$ RLS $=$ HS |

'Having lived like that the rabbit was afraid, it is said.'

## 6.2 tè 'anti-agentive'

I have adopted the term 'anti-agentive', glossed as 'A.AG', which was proposed by LaPolla (1992). He argued that in many тв languages the same marking is used for the animate patient referent NP in a monotransitive clause and the goal or beneficiary in a ditransitive clause to disambiguate a non-actor from the actor. The term tè in Kadu, like anti-agentive marking in many other TB languages, almost exclusively occurs with
animate and human participants to distinguish a non-actor from an actor. The examples in (422) illustrate the tè marking animate patient of a monotransitve clause in Kadu.
(422) (a) sāngpaláng nāngtè tánshíkū (15:89)

| sāngpaláng | nāng | $=$ tè | tán-shí | $=$ kū |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| king | 2 SG | $=$ A.AG | beat-die | $=$ IRLS |

'The king will kill (beat to death) you.'
(b) ngaēktè sántáttahángmanaík (08:88)
ngā ēk =tè sántát-ta-háng = manaík
1SG wife = A.AG try.out-L.SUFF-back =only.if
'(I) will test my wife.'

The goal or beneficiary referents may be marked by either tè, as in (423) or by benefactive marker yeún, as in (424). I still need more data to understand whether there is any contrast in meanings with these markings.
(423) (a) hanīngtè maléq pweúq ītìng apòwáyeù (04:36)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { hanīng }=\text { tè maléq pweúq } \overline{1} \quad=\text { tìng } \\
& \text { 2PL =A.AG 1PL degree give }=\text { NOM } \\
& \mathrm{a}=\text { pò =á = yeù } \\
& \text { NEG }=\text { exist }=\text { NEG }=\text { SAP }
\end{aligned}
$$

'We have no title/degree to give you.'
(b) hīng tamìsā hawàtè mīsān īyìngmā (AKYS)

| hīng | tamìsā | hú-à | $=$ tè | mīsān |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ī-ìng $\quad=$ mā |  |  |  |  |
| 3SG | human | CLF.person-one $=$ A.AG | arrow | give- DIR $_{2}$ |$=$ RLS

'He gave an arrow to a man.'
(a) àngpín tátmí ngayeún ì̀ng (18:73)

| àng | $=$ pín tātmí | ngā | $=$ yeún | ī-ìng |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| that | $=$ NOM torch | 1 SG | $=$ BEN | give-DIR 2 |

'Give that torch to me.'
(b) nāng hānshíyeún ngā atá anaútyeūná (16:9)

| nāng | hānshí | $=$ yeún | ngā | atá | a-naút-yeūn $=$ á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 SG cat | = BEN | 1 SG | rice | NEG-feed-can | $=$ NEG |

'I cannot feed your cat.'

The anti-agentive marker usually does not occur with inanimate arguments. This is possibly because the semantic role of agent and patient is clear from the context. In example (425), it is clear that the animate referent of the NP hing ' 3 SG ' is the only possible agent to do the chopping.
(425) hīng sétkeùtān wánnā (17:58)
hīng seútkeù-tān wán $=m a \overline{ }$
3SG thatch-CLT.stick chop = RLS
'He chops (bamboo) for making a thatch stick.'

When the anti-agentive marker tè occurs with an NP with an inanimate referent it has a different semantic interpretation. Kadu does not have definite or indefinite articles such
as $a$ or $a n$ and the in English. The anti-agentive marker carries a degree of definiteness or emphatic interpretation when it occurs with an NP with an inanimate referent.
(426) hīng atátè yōkànglūpánták (15:144)
hīng atá = tè yōk-àng-lū = pán = ták
3 SG rice $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$ eat-DIR ${ }_{1}$-get $=\operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}$
'(We) ate his food.' (not regular food)
(427) palú zōkshīwaleútè lāthàkū (15:130)
palú zōkshī-waleú $=$ tè lā-thà $=k \bar{u}$
ogre breast-liquid =A.AG take-must = IRLS
'(You) must bring an ogre's milk.'

In ditransitive clauses, the order of arguments is determined by information structure.
See the detailed discussion on ditransitive verbs in §3.1.2.3.3 and on constituent order in
§8.1. If the agent or anti-agent or both arguments are retrievable from the context, they may be omitted. See the examples in (428) and (429). In example (428) both agent and anti-agent NPS are omitted. In example (429) only the recipient NP is omitted.
(428) salàshī phà īyàngmā (08:123)

| [salà-shī | phà-à] | ìàng | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| banana-CLT.fruit | CLF.bunch-one | give-DIR | $=$ RLS |

'(She) gave (him) a bunch of bananas.'
(429) tacámín leútneút īpeúmā (12:82)

| tacámín | leútneút | ī-peú | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PN | weapon | give-keep | $=$ RLS |

'Takyamin gave a weapon (to three brothers).'

The patient NP may be fronted to topic position, as in (430) and (431), for reasons of focus. See the detailed discussion on constituent order of the clause in $\S 8.1$.
(430) hanīngtè ngaká yūheúqmā (12:28)
hanīng =tè ngā =ká yū-heúq =mā
$2 \mathrm{PL} \quad=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG} \quad 1 \mathrm{SG}=$ TOP look-back:DIR ${ }_{2}=$ RLS
'I came back and looked for you.'
(431) hīng taūcítè hīngká zīngyūmā (08:115)
hīng taūcí $=$ tè hīng $=$ ká zīng-yū $=m a \overline{ }$
3SG $\quad$ woman $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG} 3 \mathrm{SG}=$ TOP ask-look $=$ RLS
'He asked his wife.'

The anti-agentive marker tè may be followed by topic maker ká for contrastive and emphatic purposes as illustrated in (432).
(432) (a) ngā saēktèká patóng ngómnímpán (23:23)
ngā saēk = tè =ká patóng ngóm-ním = pán
1SG daughter =A.AG =TOP boa keep.in.mouth-stay $=\operatorname{COS}$
'The boa is swallowing (Lit. keeping in mouth) my daughter.'
(b) àngnáq ínalūpínnàkà ngatèká tánshíkū (15:145)

'If (I) don't get that, (the King) will kill me.'

The term tè also frequently occurs following time nouns (§3.1.1.2.9) to mark location in time.
(433) (a) kasàtàkká nākceūtèhāmaták (09:9)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { kasà }=\text { tàk }=\text { ká nākceū =tè hā }=\text { mā }=\text { ták } \\
& \text { tiger }=\mathrm{PL}=\text { TOP night }=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG} \text { walk }=\text { RLS }=\mathrm{HS}
\end{aligned}
$$

'The tigers go out in the night, it is said.'
(b) yàkàtè pánnùká ōmpeúpán (21:11)

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text { yàk-à } & =\text { tè } & \text { pán-nù } & =\text { ká } & \text { òm-peú }=\text { pán } \\
\text { now/day-one } & =\text { A.AG } & \text { CLF.times-one } & =\text { TOP } & \text { make-keep } & =\operatorname{COS}
\end{array}
$$

'(I) have done (it) once a day.'

## 6.3 pè 'locative'

The term pè following the noun marks a static location. This term does not resemble other locative markers in TB languages and the lexical source for this term is not apparent. See the illustrations in (434).
(434) (a) lánpè kasúmpeúlakàé (08:81)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { lán } & =\text { pè } & \text { kasúm-peú }=\text { lakà }=\text { é } \\
\text { road } & =\text { LOC } & \text { hide-keep } & =\text { MIR }=\text { SAP }
\end{array}
$$

'It is hidden on the roadside.'
(b) weúpè lāzalaútnàng ngaúmaták (24:3)

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { weú } & =\text { pè } & \text { lā-zalaút-àng } & \text { ngaú }=\text { mā }=\text { ták } \\
\text { water } & =\text { LOC } & \text { take-drift-DIR }
\end{array}
$$

'Take and float/drift (it) on the water, it is said.'

The form pè can also appear directly after verbs. When it does, it functions as a locative nominaliser which can be interpreted as 'at the place of V'. Some examples of pè as a locative nominaliser are exemplified in (435).

## (435) (a) zalaútpè pātahángpìng (13:21)

| zalaú | pè | pā-ta-háng | = píng |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| drift | $=$ LOC | carry.away-L.SUFF-back | $=\mathrm{DIR}_{2}: \mathrm{COS}$ |

'(He) was carried away in the current.'
(b) nāng nímmeúpè nímààng (08:6)

| nāng | ním-meú | $=$ pè | ním-à-àng |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 SG | stay-good | $=$ LOC | stay-EUPH-DIR ${ }_{1}$ |

'You can just live at a suitable place (Lit. good living place).'
(c) tānlyeút lāhángpè c̄ngtapánták (04:32)

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { tānlyeút lā-háng } & =\text { pè cūng-ta } & =\text { pán }=\text { ták } \\
\text { regalia take-back } & =\text { LOC } & \text { meet--L.SUFF } & =\operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}
\end{array}
$$

'(He) saw (the situation) at a place where (he) came back and took the regalia.'
pè may also occur following demonstratives (§4.1.1), wH-words (§9.4), and pronouns (§3.2.3).

## 6.4 pà 'allative'

The allative case, which expresses motion to or toward the referent of the noun, is marked by the morpheme pà in Kadu. See the examples in (436).
(436) (a) héq amaūngsà hàpà nāngkalá (07:32)

$$
\begin{array}{lllllll}
\text { héq } & \text { amaūng-sà } & \text { hà } & =\text { pà } & \text { nāng } & =\text { kū }=\text { lá } \\
\text { EXCL } & \text { boy-DIM } & \text { WH } & =\text { ALL } & \text { go } & =\text { IRLS }=\text { Q }
\end{array}
$$

'Hey, boy, where are you going?’
(b) yaū ngāká lapāpáq nāngkū (07:33)
yaū ngā =ká lapā =pà nāng =kū
EXCL 1SG = TOP field = ALL go = IRLS
'Well, I am going to the field.'

When the allative case pà is used with motion verbs, as in (436b), the NP to which pà attaches is interpreted as the end point or final destination of the motion expressed by the verb. Some more examples are given in (437).
(437) (a) yēkpà nāngthàmā (07:30)
yēk = pà nāng = thāmā
hill.field $=$ ALL $\quad$ go $\quad=$ HORT
'Let's go to the field.'
(b) hīngká pòkhápà nāngmaták (15:29)
hīng = ká pòkhá = pà nāng = mā = ták
$3 \mathrm{sg}=$ TOP forest $=$ ALL go $=$ RLS $=$ HS
'He went to the forest, it is said.'

The form pà cannot be used after NPs in clauses with existential verbs, as in (438b), unless it is immediately followed by a locative marker pè.
(438) (a) hīng címpàpè ngāmā
hīng cím $=$ pà $=$ pè ngā $=m \bar{a}$
2 SG house $=\mathrm{ALL}=$ LOC exist $=$ RLS
'He is at home.'
(b) *hīng címpà ngāmā
hīng cím = pà ngā = mā
2SG house =ALL exist = RLS

The sequence of pà plus pè has different interpretations depending on which type of noun it follows. Following human referents, it has the sense of definite goal, as in (439).
(439) (a) hīng saēkshàpàpè mānsátú tapaúkmaták (23:8)
hīng saēk-shā =pà =pè mānsáq-tú tapaúk $=$ mā $=$ ták
3SG daughter-small=ALL = LOC maiden-language speak $=$ RLS $=$ HS
'(He) expresses his love to the younger daughter.'
(b) samónpàpè kátcímák (07:76)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { samón }=\text { pà }=\text { pè kát-cí }=\text { mák } \\
& \text { monk }=\text { ALL }=\text { LOC run }- \text { PL }=\text { HORT }
\end{aligned}
$$

'Let's run to the monk.'

However, when the sequence of pà $+p e ̀$ follows an NP with an inanimate referent that is a locality, it has a general directional meaning such as 'toward that area'.
(440) nwēyék kayāpàpè yàkká cwēúq tāmàngkū (21:1)
nwēyék kayā = pà =pè yàk = ká cwēúq tām-àng $=$ kū
PN mountain = ALL $=$ LOC now $=$ TOP wild.yam search - DIR $_{1}=$ IRLS
'As for now, I will go and search for wild yam in the area of Nweyek mountain.'
(441) yēkpàpè nānghángmaták (15:42)
yēk =pà =pè nāng-háng =mā =ták
hill.field = ALL $=$ LOC $\quad$ go-back $\quad=$ RLS $=H S$
'(He) returned toward/to the field, it is said.'

## 6.5 haik 'ablative'

The ablative case, which marks the NP as expressing the source location, is marked by the morpheme haik ${ }^{23}$ in Kadu, as in (442).
(442) (a) hamòkzaūkhaíkà tōmpáqpè nāngpánnaà (12:3)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { hamòk-zaūk } & =\text { haík tōm }=\text { pà }=\text { pè nāng } & \text { = pán }=\text { naà } \\
\text { sky-on.top } & =\text { ABL below }=\text { ALL } & =\text { LOC go } \\
=\operatorname{COS}=\text { only }
\end{array}
$$

'(I) from the sky above will go down and...'
(b) maléq záktaūká zíkónghaík záqtamā (10:24)

| maléq záktaú | $=$ ká zíkóng | $=$ haík |  | záq-ta |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1PL PN | $=$ TOP PN $\quad$ mā |  |  |  |
| PNL |  | begin-L.SUFF | $=$ RLS |  |

'We, Settau, begin/come from Zikong.'

Although it is not very frequent, the form haik occasionally occurs immediately after an NP with an animate referent to mark the referent as the agent in Kadu. This is not an uncommon phenomenon in TB languages. Regarding the development of case markers in TB languages, LaPolla (2004) said "... none of the case marking... in TB languages can confidently be reconstructed to the PTB level. When we find marking of some time depth, it is generally a locative or ablative case at the earliest stages ... in many languages the same form is used for the agentive and the ablative ..." (LaPolla

[^17]2004:56). It is probably the case in Kadu that the ablative marker haík is in the initial stage of developing into an agentive marker, as illustrated in (443).
(443) (a) cānsíttáhaík tántátnàngmā (07:112)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { cānsíttá } & =\text { haík } & \text { tán-tát-àng } & \\
\text { PN } & =\text { mbL } & \text { beat-send-DIR } \\
1 & & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'Kyansitta beat (him) and sent him away.'
(b) hīng ēkhaík ngaúmaták (15:95)

| hīng ēk $=$ haík | ngaú $=m a ̄=$ ták |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SG | wife $=$ ABL | say $=$ RLS $=$ HS |

'His wife said, it is said.'
(c) mapà nānglá mángsáhaík zīngyūmā (08:90)

| mà $=$ pà nāng | $=$ lá | mángsá $=$ haík | zīng-yū $=$ mā |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| WH | $=\mathrm{ALL}$ go | $=\mathrm{Q}$ | prince $=\mathrm{ABL}$ | ask-LOOK $=$ RLS |

'The prince asked "where are (you) going?"

The sequence of pà plus haík is also attested in Kadu. However, the sequence of pè plus haík has not been attested in my corpus. The sequence of pà + haík expresses a general directional meaning such as 'from that area'. This is illustrated in (444) and (445).
címkamúkpàhaík tōpmìngmaták (25:99)
cím kamúk =pà =haík tōp-ìng =mā =ták
house beneath $=$ ALL $=$ ABL $\quad$ stab-DIR $2 \quad=$ RLS $=\mathrm{HS}$
'(He) stabbed in from underneath the house, it is said.'
(445) kasà ngaúkà halíngpàhaík wáhángpìng (18:56)

'The tiger jumps down behind, again.'

## 6.6 yaúk 'comitative'

The comitative, which expresses a semantic meaning of accompaniment such as 'with' or 'accompanied by', is indicated by the postposition yaúk in Kadu. See the illustrations in (446).
(446) (a) awàyaúk nāngcíthāmā (15:10)

| awà $=$ yaúk | nāng-cí | $=$ thāmā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| father $=$ COM | go-PL | $=$ HORT |

'Let's go with father.'
(b) haninngyaúk tú tapaúkcángmákyeù (11:32)

| hanīng | $=$ yaúk | tú | tapaúk-cí-àng $=$ mák $=$ yeù |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2PL | $=$ COM | language | speak-PL-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ HORT $=$ SAP |

'Let's debate (it) with you.'

The term yaúk also has an instrumental function, as in (447).
(447) (a) tāngkaūtóngyaúk yēk wányōkmaták (15:22)

| tāngkaū-tóng | $=$ yaúk | yēk | wán-yōk | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sword-big | $=$ COM | hill.field | chop-eat | $=$ RLS |

'With a big sword (they) cultivated, it is said.'
(b) laúkléyaúk ūhaū kápmàngmā (19:1)

| laúklé = yaúk ūhaū káp-àng | $=m \bar{a}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sling.shot = COM owl shoot-DIR ${ }_{1}$ | $=$ RLS |
| (He) shot the owl with a sling shot.' |  |

## 6.7 yeún ‘benefactive’, or 'for'

The recipient or benefactive argument of the action expressed by the verb is marked by the form yeún, as in (448). It may be also translated in some contexts into English as 'on behalf of'.
(448) (a) hāhángyeúnnaà heúkāàngkákmā (09:1)

| hāháng $=$ yeún $=$ naà | heú-kā-àng-kák | $=$ mā |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Kachin $=$ BEN | $=$ only | tell-show-DIR ${ }_{1}$-want | $=$ RLS |

'For the sake of Kachin I want to tell it.'
(b) salàshīká ngayeún ỉkáklá (08:108)

| salà-shī | $=$ ká | ngā | $=$ yeún | ì-kák | $=$ lá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| banana-CLT.fruit | $=$ TOP | 1 SG | $=$ BEN | give-want | $=\mathrm{Q}$ |

'Can you give the banana to me?'

## 6.8 athá and neúq 'comparison'

The comparative construction contains two NPs: the entity being compared and the standard of comparison, followed by the verb. The NP representing the entity being compared may be marked by the topic marker ká, and the NP representing the standard of comparison is obligatorily marked by the comparative marker athá. The order is NP (entity being compared which is the topic), NP (standard of comparison), then a verb though the topic can be left out, as in (450). See the illustrations in (449) and (450).
(449) hīngká myáqmyáqathá zaūkmā (AKYS)
hīng =ká myáqmyáq =athá zaūk =mā
3SG = TOP PN = more.than tall = RLS
'He is taller than Mya Mya.'
(450) nāngswáng panáqathá phóngtakó tóngkákláyeù (07:62)
nāng-swáng panáq = athá phóngtakó tóng-kák = lá $=$ yeù
2SG-master DEM $=$ more.than glory.power big-want $=\mathrm{Q}=\mathrm{SAP}$
'You, master, do you want to be more powerful than this?'

The term neúq is also attached to the noun phrase representing the standard of comparison to indicate approximation of measurement as illustrated in (451).
(a) tóngmótá mōkshāneúq tóngpìngták (06:25)

| tóngmótá | mōkshā $=$ neúq | tóng $=$ píng | $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3 y r . o l d$ | calf(cow) $=$ as.much.as big | $=\mathrm{DIR}_{2}: \operatorname{COS}$ | $=\mathrm{HS}$ |

'(It) became about the size of a three year/season old cow.'
(b) maléqkà hinngneúq lakò ínpaútná (11:43)

| maléq | $=$ ká hīng | = neúq | lakò ín-paút | =á |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1PL | $=$ TOP | 3SG | $=$ as.much.as | SAP | NEG-skill | =NEG

'We don't know as much as he does.'

## 6.9 yaūngpáng 'reason’

The form yaūngpáng after an NP indicates that the referent of the NP is the cause of something that has happened. It seems to be mostly used with an answer to a 'why' question, as in (452).
(452) (a) ngāyaūngpáng myáqmyáq paūmā (AKYS)

| ngā | $=$ yaūngpáng | myáqmyáq | paū |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 SG | $=$ because.of | PN | fall |
| $=$ RLS |  |  |  |

'Mya Mya falls because of me.'
(b) sāngpaláng saēktè ínlākákáseùé àngyaūngpáng hāpmāseùé (25:160)
sāngpaláng saēk =tè ín-lā-kák =á = seùé
king daughter $=$ A.AG $\quad$ NEG take-want $=$ NEG $=$ SAP
àng =yaūngpáng hāp $=m a \bar{a}=$ seùé
that $=$ because.of weep $=$ RLS $=$ SAP
'I don't want to take the king's daughter therefore (I am) crying.'

## CHAPTER 7: THE VERB COMPLEX

The verb complex (VCX) in Kadu can be defined as the nucleus of the clause. Arguments of the clause, such as topics, agents or anti-agent complements, and other constituents are often omitted if they are recoverable from the context. Therefore, we can say that the verb, or the VCX itself, is a meaningful clause in Kadu. The VCX in Kadu consists of an obligatory head verb, which may be preceded by an optional negative marker and followed by one or more optional post-verbal modifiers, an optional aspectual particle (ASP), and a clause final particle (CFP). In this chapter I also discuss the utterance final particles (§7.4). They are not structurally part of the vCX, but often phonologically fuse with the CFPs, so I am including the discussion at the end of this chapter. The order of elements in the Kadu verb complex is illustrated in (453).

```
VCX=(NEG) VH (V.MOD) (ASP) (CFP)
NEG = Negation
VH = Verb head
V.MOD = Verb modifier
ASP = Aspectual particle
CFP Clause final particle
```

Before I describe each element within the VCX in Kadu, I shall briefly discuss the terminology I use here. The structure of verb head may be simple or complex (§3.1.2). I use the term 'verb modifier' to cover a number of elements which occur between the head verb and CFPs. These include auxiliary verbs (§7.2.1), verbal particles (§7.2.2), and modal auxiliaries (§7.2.3). All verbal modifiers, except the negative proclitics (see chapter 10), are restricted to occurring post verbally only.

The ASPS discussed in §7.3 are pán 'change of state' tún/yún 'STILL', yók 'INTRUSIVE', and Zík 'FINALLY'. They are treated as a separate class within the verb complex. They occur between modal auxiliaries and CFPs. The CFPs occur at the end of the VCX and they indicates the types of clauses, such as realis, irrealis, imperative, and hortative.

This chapter is divided into three sections presented in the following order: 7.1 Clause final particles, 7.2 Verbal modifiers, 7.3 Aspectual particles and 7.4 Utterance final particles..

### 7.1 Clause final particles

We want to start with CFPs because they normally must occur with a head verb except in imperative and negative clauses. They are a class of morphemes that mark clauses as irrealis vs. realis or hortative. Each CFP attested in my Kadu data is discussed below.
7.1.1 $k \bar{u}$ 'irrealis'

A clause ending with the CFP $k \bar{u}$ refers to an unrealised or a hypothetical event, as illustrated in (454).
(454) (a) nāngtè ngā yōkkū (09:26)

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { nāng } & =\text { tè } & \text { ngā } & \text { yōk } & =\mathrm{ku} \\
2 \mathrm{SG} & \text { =A.AG } & 1 \mathrm{SG} & \text { eat } & =\mathrm{IRLS}
\end{array}
$$

'I will eat you.'
(b) hīng saēktàkká ngā lākū (24:24)


The CFP $k \bar{u}$ is reduced to $k a[k ə]$ when it is follwowed by another clitic, as in (455).
(455) (a) hàpè īpkalá (18:15)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { hà } & =\text { pè ìp } & =\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathbf{u}}=\text { lá } \\
\mathrm{WH} & =\text { LOC sleep } & =\operatorname{IRLS}=\mathrm{Q}
\end{array}
$$

'Where shall we sleep?'

The CFP $k \bar{u}$ may also occur in clauses which have no future time implication, and are used to show lack of certainty, as in (456).
(456) (a) chíttíseú shípàng thàkū (10:55)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { chíttí } & =\text { seú } & \text { shí }=\text { pàng } & \text { thà }=\text { kū } \\
\text { PN } & =\text { SAP } & \text { die }=\text { DIR }_{1}: \operatorname{COS} & \text { be }=\mathrm{IRLS}
\end{array}
$$

'Chitti may be dead.'
(b) céttaú thàthàkū (10:48)
céttaú thà-thà $=k \bar{u}$
PN be-must $=$ IRLS
'It must be Cettau.'
(c) takhīntē shísōmkū zàkmā (07:109)


The cFP $k \bar{u}$ may also be used in a relative clause construction, as in (457). The relative clause is bracketed with $\left\}_{\text {RL }}(\S 8.2 .3)\right.$.
(a) īpkūpanáq nēyātè tāmcímák (18:8)

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
\{\overline{\mathrm{i} p} & =\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{u}}=\text { panáq }\}_{\mathrm{RL}} & \text { nēyā }=\text { tè } & \text { tām-cí } & =\text { mák }  \tag{457}\\
\text { sleep } & =\mathbb{I R L S}=\text { NOM } & \text { place } & =\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG} & \text { search-PL } & =\text { HORT }
\end{array}
$$

'Let's search for a place to sleep.'
(b) takà zōkkūpanáq lapā (32:40)

$k \bar{u}$ may be followed by morphemes such as wàn and pán to indicate immediate realisation or imminent occurrence. I have not been able to identify the lexical and grammaticalised meaning of wàn, however, we may correlate the later item, pán, to the change of state aspect (see §7.3.1). It is quite logical to analyse the combination of these two markers, $k \bar{u}+$ pán 'irrealis' plus 'change of state', as near realisation or fulfillment of the action at the time of speaking. $k \bar{u}$ is reduced to [kə] thus forming the sesquisyllabic words kawàn and kapán. They are always considered a single monomorphemic unit by the speakers of Kadu, therefore, I have analysed them as a single item and glossed them as 'immediate future (IMMF)'. The speakers of Kadu
express that kawàn and kapán can be used interchangeably. See the sentences in (458).
(458) (a) hanīng tánshísōmkapán (07:108)

| hanīng | tán-shí-sōm | $=$ kapán |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 PL | beat-die-finish.up | $=\mathrm{IMMF}$ |

'You are about to kill (all my masters).'
(b) ngātè tánshíkawàn (24:56)
ngā = tè tán-shí = kawàn
1SG =A.AG beat-die $=\mathrm{IMMF}$
'(They) are about to kill (Lit. beat to death) me.'

### 7.1.2 $m a \bar{a}$ 'realis'

Clauses ending with the CFP $m \bar{a}$ indicate events that have come to realisation. It indicates actuality, a generic event that has happened or is happening, or a state that exists or has existed. See illustrations of the CFP $m \bar{a}$ in (459).
(459) (a) samón àngpanáqpè nímmā (07:43)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { samón àng } & =\text { panáq } & =\text { pè ním } & =\text { mā } \\
\text { monk that } & =\text { NOM } & & =\text { LOC stay }
\end{array}
$$

'The monk lives there.'
(b) ngā haláká eúhám kaūmā (08:95)
ngā halá = ká eúhám kaū =mā
1SG husband $=$ TOP PN call = RLS
'My husband is called Eham.'
(c) maúshītè ácí yōkmā (10:36)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { maú-shī } \quad \text { tè ácí } & \text { yōk } & =\mathrm{ma} \\
\text { plum-CLT.fruit }=\text { A.AG extremely eat } & =\mathrm{RLS} \\
\text { '(The birds) eat a lot of plums.' }
\end{array}
$$

$m \bar{a}$ is also used to mark ngomic situations-events that are true for all time, see examples in (545).

The CFP $m \bar{a}$, as mentioned above, marks non-future events. The distinction between past or present is inferred from the context or can be specified by an adverbial time phrase. Compare the clauses in (460). The first clause, (460a), does not contain a time adverbial so it can be translated as "Well, I had medicine" or "Well, I have medicine." The second clause, (460b), on the other hand, contains a time adverbial (maeútóng 'long ago'), so the translation of the clause is straightforward.
(460) (a) yaū ngapè shī ngāmā (16:39)
yaū ngā = pè shī ngā =mā
EXCL 1SG = LOC medicine exist = RLS
'Well, I have medicine.' or 'Well, I had medicine.'
(b) maeútóng maléq sāngpaláng úqyīntóng ngāmā (06:1)

| maeútóng | maléq | sāngpaláng | úqyīn-tóng | ngā | $=\mathrm{mā}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| long.ago | 1 PL | king | garden-big | exist | $=$ RLS |

'Long ago, there existed our king's big garden.'
$m \bar{a}$, unlike $k \bar{u}$, is not used in relative clauses; the bare form is understood as realis. See the discussion on relative clauses in §8.2.3.
7.1.3 thāmā and mák 'hortative'

There are two CFPs that express hortative mood in Kadu. The default time frame for a hortative expression is the moment of speaking. The form thāmā indicates a hortative speech act, and has a similar sense to English shall we or let's. Though the speaker always includes himself in the suggested action, it is not obligatory to use the verbal plural particle cí (§7.2.2) with thāmā. See the examples in (461).
(461) (a) múngshī yōkthāmā (31:1)
múngshī yōk = thāmā
rice.cake eat $=$ HORT
'Shall we eat rice cake?'
(b) awàyaúk nāngcíthāmā (15:10)
awà = yaúk nāng-cí = thāmā
father $=$ COM go-PL $=$ HORT
'Let's go with daddy.'

Except for a difference in tone, the structure of the hortative marker thāmā is similar to the thà 'must' plus $m \bar{a}$ 'realis' construction, which carries the meaning of obligation or compulsion as in (462) (and (547) in §7.2.3). The semantic distinction can only be inferred from the context and the tone.
(462) ngā ōmthàmā angaúnímsà (12:52)
ngā ōm-thà = mā a-ngaú-ním = sà
1SG make-must = RLS NEG-say-stay = NEG.IMP
'Don't say that I have to do (it).'

In example (462), thà 'must' is used as a verb modifier having the meaning of obligation, necessity, and compulsion. However, thā in (461) doesn't indicate obligation or compulsion. It, together with $m \bar{a}$, indicates a hortative meaning.

The other CFP that denotes a hortative meaning is mák. It, unlike the term thāmă, indicates the speaker's strong suggestion, one that is difficult to reject. It may be interpreted as the 'final suggestive'. The speaker always includes himself in the suggested action. However, unlike with thāmā, it always occurs with the verbal plural particle cí. Look at the example sentences in (463) and (464).

## kaí yèk kónnáng ōmcímák (28:7)

kaí yēk kónnáng ōm-cí = mák
well! hill.field fence make-PL = HORT
'Well, let's make the field's fence.'
(464) nāng peúkútyaúk maléq tátlúngyaúk caíkcímák (12:89)
nāng peúkút = yaúk maléq tátlúng = yaúk caík-cí = mák
2 SG adze $=\mathrm{COM}$ 1PL magic.ball $=\mathrm{COM}$ exchange-PL $=\mathrm{HORT}$
'Let's exchange my adze and your magic ball.'

### 7.1.4 Imperatives

Imperatives in positive and negative sentences are marked differently in Kadu. Positive imperative mood is marked by the absence of a CFP. Negative imperative mood is marked by the enclitic $=$ sà. The default time frame for both positive and negative
imperative sentences is the moment of speaking. Affirmative imperative clauses are illustrated in (465).
(a) $y \bar{o} k$
(b) nāng
(c) $\quad l \bar{i}$
yōk
eat
‘Eat!’
nāng
go
‘Go!’
come
‘Come!’

One or more speaker attitude particles (SAP) (§3.3.5) may optionally follow the verb to soften the illocutionary force. The examples in (466) contain three SAPs: ná, yeù in (466a), lé in (466b) and seù ~ seùé (466c). As shown by (466a) more than one SAP can be used at one time.
(466) (a) "anáq ataí nāngnáyeù" ngaúmaták (15:102)
anáq ataí nāng = ná =yeù ngaú $=$ mā $=$ ták
this pattern go $=$ SAP $=$ SAP say $=$ RLS $=H S$
'(The wife) said, "Please, go in this manner", it is said.'
(b) atá yōklé
(c) atá yōkseú
atá yōk = lé
rice eat $=$ SAP
'Please, eat rice’
atá yōk = seú
rice eat $=\mathrm{SAP}$
'Please, eat rice'

Imperative negative clauses are formed by attaching one of the negative proclitics ín- or $a$-(§10.2) immediately before the head verb and attaching the prohibitive clitic $=s a ̀$ at the end of the VCX, as illustrated in (467). See the detailed disussion on negation in Chapter 10.
(467) (a) ínngaúsà (11:22)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ín-ngaú = sà } \\
& \text { NEG-say = NEG.IMP } \\
& \text { 'Don’t say (it)!' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) aōmzónsà (07:111)
a-ōm-zón =sà
NEG-make-CONTINUE = NEG.IMP
'Don't do (it) anymore!'

### 7.2 Verbal modifiers

As mentioned earlier, the term 'verb modifier' is used as a cover term for a number of elements which occur after the head verb and before the CFP. It is very common to find a head verb in Kadu followed by one or two verbal modifiers. However, in day to day speech it is not common to find more than three or four morphemes occurring in a single VCX. The examples in (468) illustrate VCXs that contain verbal modifiers. Verbal modifiers are highlighted in bold.
(468) (a) atá yōknímcímā (15:13)
atá yōk-ním-cí =mā
rice eat-stay-PL = RLS
'(They) are eating cooked rice.'
(b) " lāhángàngkákmā" ngaúmaták (25:144)
lā-háng-àng-kák =mā ngaú $=\mathrm{mā}=$ ták
take-back-DIR ${ }_{1}$-want $=$ RLS say $=$ RLS $=$ HS
'(He) said, " (I) want to take (it) back", it is said.'

As in the examples above, if the lexical or etymological meaning of a verbal modifier is relatable it will be glossed using the lexical source. For example, the verbal modifier ním, as in (468a), which indicates progressive aspect, is glossed using its lexical meaning, 'stay'. All the verbal modifiers in Kadu follow the head verb. Semantically,
they are always in a subordinate relationship to the head. Furthermore, unlike the head verb, the verbal modifiers may or may not have a lexical meaning and do not allow direct negation. These modifiers, like in Lahu, "... serve to provide several sorts of information that, in the grammar of languages like English, may be handled by subordinating devices such as complementary infinitives, -ing complements, modal auxiliaries, adverbs, prepositional phrases, or even whole subordinate clauses" (Matisoff 1973:200).

Languages such as Burmese and Lahu allow verb modifiers to occur before the head ${ }^{24}$ as well as after the head. Matisoff (1973) called the class of verbs that are juxtaposed to the head verb in Lahu versatile verbs. He identified two types of versatile verbs: those that appear before the head verb (pre-head versatiles) and those that appear after the head verb (post-head versatiles). However, Kadu verbal modifiers are restricted to the post-head position only.

In Kadu, many auxiliary verbs are also used as full verbs. To avoid ambiguity, the CFP pán may be inserted after the first verb to block an auxiliary reading of the second verb. Consider the examples in (469).

[^18](a) hīng sātàk atá yōknímmā (15:13)

| hīng sā-tàk atá yōk-ním | $=m \bar{a}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG | son-PL rice eat-stay | $=$ RLS |
| 'His sons are eating rice.' |  |  |

(b) síngngeútshītè yōkpán nímmā (12:70)
síngngeút-shī = tè yōk = pán ním = mā
fig-CLT.fruit =A.AG eat =COS stay = RLS
'(The pig) eats fig fruit and lives.'

In example (469a), the verb ním immediately occurs following the head verb to mark the action as progressive. The event in (469a) is seen as a single event, an action in progress. However, in example (469b) the two verbs yōk and ním are separated by the CFP pán. Therefore, example (469b) is interpreted as having two sequential events. Most of the verbal modifiers are also true verbs and can function as the head verb in a sentence.

The degree of abstractness of a verbal modifier depends upon the degree of grammaticalisation it has undergone. Furthermore, the semantic interpretation of auxiliary verbs may vary depending on the verb types they follow. Some main verbs allow the auxiliary verb to retain its lexical meaning, whereas others do not. For example, when the verb yōk 'eat' is preceded by the verb $\bar{i}$ 'give' it has a grammaticalised benefactive meaning, which may be translated as 'give something for someone's benefit.' However, when the verb yōk 'eat' is used used following food processing verbs such as $m \bar{o} k$ 'cook', as in (470), it retains its lexical meaning.

Therefore, we can say that the auxiliary verbs in Kadu can be more or less grammaticalised, depending on the head verb they follow.
(470) atá mōkyōkcímák (18:08)
atá mōk-yōk-cí = mák
rice cook-eat-PL $=$ HORT
'Let's cook (for our benefit).'

The verbal modifiers which occur between the head verb and the CFPs are many. It is impossible to establish an exact order for them. Without strictly following the order of the verb modifiers, we may group them into three categories, presented in the following order: 7.2.1 Auxiliary verbs, 7.2.2 Verbal particles, and 7.2.3 Modal auxiliaries.

### 7.2.1 Auxiliary verbs

Syntactically, all the auxiliary verbs in Kadu follow the head verb and precede the verbal particles. Traditionally, the term "auxiliary" is used to refer to elements that provide information such as tense, aspect, and modality (Payne 1997:84). The auxiliary verbs in Kadu embrace a wider range of semantic domains than these. Some domains in Kadu may correlate with the function of adverbs in other languages. For example, auxiliary verbs such as zíp 'always', and pháng 'prior' have adverbial functions and zíngyōk 'order' and maūk 'together' have a causative and an associative function respectively. Although I don't claim that the list is complete, in this thesis I propose 20 auxiliary verbs in Kadu.

Based on their position within the VCX and semantic domain, auxiliary verbs in Kadu are further divided into ten categories and presented in the following order: 7.2.1.1

Benefactives, 7.2.1.2 Associative, 7.2.1.3 Jussive and causative, 7.2.1.4 Frequency and additive, 7.2.1.5 Aspectuals, 7.2.1.6 Degrees, 7.2.1.7 Excessive, 7.2.1.8 Experiential, 7.2.1.9 Totality, and 7.2.1.10 Discontinuity.

Table 28 presents the auxiliary verbs attested in my Kadu data.

| Semantic domain | Auxilary verb | Lexical meaning | Grammaticalised meaning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Benefactive | yōk | 'eat' | 'benefactive (self-benefactive)' |
|  | $\bar{i}$ | 'give' | 'benefactive (other benefactive)' |
| Associative | maūk | x | 'associative' |
| Jussing and Causative | zíng | 'ask' | 'jussive' |
|  | zíngyōk | 'order' | 'causative' |
| Frequency/Time | háng | X | 'back, again, repeatedly' |
|  | phöt | X | 'additionally' |
|  | pháng | X | 'do prior to something' |
|  | zíp | X | 'always' |
| Aspectual | ním | 'stay' | 'progressive' |
|  | peú | 'keep' | 'resultative' |
|  | zí | 'finish' | 'completive' |
| Degree | mát | x | 'truly' |
|  | pheū | X | 'suppose' |
| Excessive | hàm | X | 'be.exceed' |
|  | pōt | x | 'exceed' |
| Experiential | páp | x | 'experiential' |
| Totality | sōm | 'finish' | 'totality' |
| Continuity | zón | x | 'discontinuity' |

Table 28: Attested auxiliary verbs in Kadu

Table 28 is arranged, from top to bottom, in their general order of occurrence within the VCX. The auxiliary verbs that appear closest to the head verb are presented at the top.

Lexically irretrievable items are represented by ' x '. It is also evident from Table 28 that, in general, auxiliary verbs that are closest to the head verb and aspectuals have a clearer retrievable lexical meaning. A clause, in general, may contain two or three auxiliary verbs, however, though not natural, my language consultants approved a clause which contains five auxiliary verbs, as illustrated in (471).

## ōmyōkzíngyōkphòthángpeúmā (AKYS)

ōm yōk-zíngyōk-phòt-háng-peú =mā
make/do eat-order-dd.more-back-keep = RLS
'He has made (him) do once more again (for his benefit).'

### 7.2.1.1 Benefactives

Two auxiliary verbs, yōk' 'eat' and $\bar{i}$ 'give', add a benefactive meaning to the head verb they follow. These auxiliary verbs occur closest to the head verb. These verbs do not change the transitivity of the verb. If the benefactive argument is made explicit, it may be optionally marked by yéun 'benefactive', as in (472a), or unmarked, as in (478c). A VCX containing more than one benefactive auxiliary verb is not attested. The semantic interpretation of the benefactive meaning of these two verbs may be explained as 'self-benefactive' and 'other-benefactive'.

The verb yōk is used for self-benefactive (V for a living) and $\bar{i}$ is used for 'otherbenefactive' (V-to do for other's benefit). To confirm that the semantic interpretations are self-benefactive and other-benefactive, I tested the two forms using the benefactive nominal particle, yeún, glossed as 'benefactive (BEN)', with the argument of the verb.

The native Kadu speakers said example (472a) is acceptable and natural but example (472b) is awkward.
(472) (a) hīngyeún atá mōkīkū (AKYS)

| hīng | $=$ yeún | atá | mōk- $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | $=k \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3 S G$ | $=$ BEN | rice | cook-give | $=$ IRLS |

'I will cook rice for him.'
(b) *hīngyeún atá mōkyōkkkū (AKYS)

| hīng | $=$ yeún | atá | mōk-yōk | $=k u ̄$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3 S G$ | $=$ BEN | rice | cook-eat | $=$ IRLS |

'I will cook rice for him.'

The benefactive meaning of the auxiliary verb yōk is even clearer when it follows a verb expressing an action that is something a person does on a regular basis as a profession or livelihood. Look at the example sentences in (473) and (474).
(473) hīng phú heūyōkmā (AKYS)
hīng phú heū-yōk =mā
3SG silver borrow-eat = RLS
'He lends money.' or 'He lends money for a living.’
(474) azáktákká lapā ōmyōkká myátamā (17:11)
azàk-tàk = ká lapā ōm-yōk = ká myá-ta =mā
PN-PL = TOP field make-eat = TOP plenty-L.SUFF = RLS
'Most Kadu practice wet-rice field cultivation.'
Or 'Most Kadu do wet-rice field cultivation for their living.'

The verb yōk following head verbs that express activities related to processing food or actions that are done for the purpose of food consumption retains the lexical meaning. This is illustrated in (475).
(475) (a) atá mōkyōkcímák (18:7) atá mōk-yōk-cí = mák
rice cook-eat-PL $=$ HORT
'Let's cook to eat the rice.'
(b) tāngkaūtóngyaúk yēk wányōkmaták (15:22)
tāngkaū-tóng = yaúk yēk wán-yōk = mā =ták
sword-big $\quad=$ COM hill.field chop-eat $=$ RLS $=H S$ '(They) clear/chop the hill field (for their livelihood) with a sword, it is said.'

Cross-linguistically, it is not uncommon to find verbs of consumption to have such an extended meaning (Newman 2009). Clearly, using the 'eat' verb as an auxiliary verb for a benefactive meaning is an areal feature; it is also attested in many other TB languages in Burma. For comparison, I have constructed Rawang, Burmese and Jingphaw examples, as in (476).

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { (a) } \begin{array}{l}
\text { romá wàame } \\
\text { romá wà-am }=\mathrm{e} \\
\text { field do-eat }=\mathrm{CFP} \\
\text { '(He) cultivates field for (his) livelihood.' }
\end{array} \text { (Rang) } \\
&  \tag{476}\\
&
\end{align*}
$$

(b)

| tong-ja | loup-sa: | $=$ te |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| field | do-eat | $=C F P$ |

‘id’
(c) yi galawsháai
(Jingphaw)

| yi | galaw-shá | $=\mathbf{a i}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| field | do-eat | $=$ CFP |

'id'

The verb $\bar{i}$ 'give', like the verb $y \bar{o} k$ 'eat', adds a benefactive meaning to the head verb. However, it is mostly associated with non-food related verbs and the semantic function is always 'other benefactive'. Example (477) exemplifies $\bar{I}$ as the head verb of the clause, whereas the examples in (478) exemplify $\bar{i}$ as an auxiliary verb.
ōnnáng ceú īkū (25:6)
ōnnáng ceú $\overline{\mathbf{i}} \quad=\mathrm{ku}$
dowry buffalo give =IRLS
'I will give you a dowry buffalo.'
(478) (a) múkshìngkàng māūyók (25:102)
múkcìngkàng mā-ī = yók
pestle sell-give = INTRUSIVE
'Sell your pestle (for us).'
(b) halángweúmā, phūkná phúīyók (AKYS)
haláng-weú $=$ mā phūkná phú-ī =yók
sky-water = RLS bamboo.hat put.on-give = INTRUSIVE '(It is) raining, put a bamboo hat on him.'
(c) àntákká kōsātak cíng paútzánghayák ngaúpánnaà peúīyákmā (17:20)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ànták =ká kō-sā-tàk cíng paút-záng-hà = yák } \\
& \text { 3PL }=\text { TOP self-son-PL letter skill-JUSS:DIR }{ }_{2} \text {-know.how }=\text { PURP } \\
& \text { ngaú = pán = naà peú-ī-à }=m \bar{a} \\
& \text { say }=\operatorname{COS}=\text { only keep-give-EUPH }=\text { RLS }
\end{aligned}
$$

'They sent/kept us in school because they want their children to be educated.'

### 7.2.1.2 Associative

The term maūk, glossed as 'together', synchronically not relatable to a lexical source, is employed to add an associative meaning to the head verb. Syntactically, it occurs following benefactive auxiliary verbs and preceding jussive and causative auxiliary verbs. It may be translated into English as 'V-together'.
(479) (a) hīngyaúk atá yōkmaūkmásà hīng saēk (04:14) hīng = yaúk atá yōk-maūk = másà hīng saēk 3SG $=\mathrm{COM}$ rice eat-together $=$ only.if 3 SG daughter 'The only one who eats together with him (the king) is his (own) daughter.'
(b) sātàkyaúk ngaúpán ngā ínanímmaūkkáká (15:5)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { sā-tàk }=\text { yaúk } & \text { ngā } & \text { ín-a-ním-maūk-kák } & =\text { á } \\
\text { son-PL }=\text { COM } & \text { 1SG } & \text { NEG-NEG-stay-together- want } & =\text { NEG }
\end{array}
$$

'I don't want to live together with your sons.'
(c) ōmyōkmaūkzíngyōkkákmā (AKYS)
ōm-yōk-maūk-kák =mā
do-eat-together-want = RLS
'(I) want (us) to do (it) together.'

### 7.2.1.3 Jussive and causative

The term zíng, glossed as 'jussive' (JUSS), is employed to add a speaker's command or permission. It is relatable to the lexical verb zing 'ask'. The only minor difference between these two is the tone. The implication is mostly found with the first person directly signaling his or her proposition to the third person. Consider the examples in (480) and (481). The examples in (480) exemplify the use of zing as a head verb.
(480) (a) léq tashītàkpàpè ceú zīngkū (25:7)

$$
\text { maléq tashī-tàk }=\text { pà }=\text { pè ceú } \quad \text { zīng }=k \bar{u}
$$

1PL uncle-PL = ALL $=$ LOC buffalo ask $=$ IRLS
'I will ask for a buffalo from my uncles.'
(b) zaūpwápè zīngàmaták (08:4)

| zaūpwá | $=$ pè zīng-à | $=$ mā $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Shan.chief | $=$ LOC ask-EUPH | $=$ RLS $=H S$ |

'(They) asked the Shan chief, it is said.'

The following examples in (481) illustrate the use of zíng as an auxiliary verb.
(a) "ngāzíng" ngaúmaták (08:26)
"ngā-zíng" ngaú =mā = ták
exist-JUSS say = RLS = HS
'(The chief) said, "Let (her) stay", it is said.'
(b) àngnáq ēksāhalátè kaūzíngákkákmā (15:72)
àngnáq ēksāhalá = tè kaū-zíng-à-kák =mā
that husband.wife $=$ A.AG call-JUSS-EUPH-want $=$ RLS
'(I) want to let (someone) call that couple.'

When the term zing is used in hortative clauses, it functions as a causativiser. It may be translated into English as 'to cause/make V'. Consider the examples in (482).
(482) (a) hīngtè sāngpaláng ōmzíngthāmā (15:30)
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { hīng } & =\text { tè sāngpaláng } & \text { ōm-zíng } & =\text { thāmā } \\ \text { 3SG } & \text { = A.AG king } & \text { make-JUSS } & =\text { HORT }\end{array}$
'Let's make him a king.'
(b) hīngtè shízíngàngthāmā $(15: 117)$
hīng = tè shí-zíng-àng = thāmā
3SG =A.AG die-JUSS-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ HORT
'Let's cause/make him to die.'

Another term that denotes causative meaning to the head verb is the verb zingyōk 'order'. It may have derived from a combination of the verbs zing 'ask' and yōk 'eat'. However, I have glossed it as a single verb 'order' because most Kadu speakers see it as a single unit. The examples in (483) exemplify the use of zíngyōk as a head verb.
(a) hīngtè zíngyōkmā (AKYS)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { hīng }=\text { tè zíngyōk } & =\text { mā }  \tag{483}\\
3 \mathrm{SG} \text { = A.AG order } & =\text { RLS } \\
\text { '(He) ordered him.' } &
\end{array}
$$

(b) "palú zōkshīwaleú lāthàkū" zíngyōkmaták (15:127)
"palú zōkshī-waleú lā-thà $=k u \overline{" ~ z i ́ n g y o ̄ k ~}=m a ̄=$ ták
ogre breast-liquid take-must =IRLS order $\quad=$ RLS $=$ HS '(The king) ordered "You have to bring the ogre's milk", it is said.'

When the verb zíngyōk is used as an auxiliary verb, it adds a causative meaning to the action expressed by the head verb. The following examples in (484) illustrate the use of zíngyōk as an auxiliary verb.
(a) tánshízíngyōkmā seùé hīngtè (15:150)
tán-shí-zíngyōk $=$ mā $=$ seùé hīng $=$ tè
beat-die-order $=$ RLS $=$ SAP $\quad 3 \mathrm{SG} \quad=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$
'(The king) made (his official) kill him.'
(b) ngatè ōnnáng ceú zīngzíngyōkìngmā (25:9)
ngā = tè ōnnáng ceú zīng-zíngyōk-ìng =mā
$1 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$ dowry buffalo ask-order-DIR ${ }_{2}=$ RLS
'They made me ask the dowry buffalo.'

### 7.2.1.4 Frequency and additive

The auxiliary verbs which indicate frequency, repetition, and the order in which the action expressed by the head verb happens relative to some other event are given in (485). Sychronically, they are not relatable to lexical meanings.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { háng } & \text { 'back' or 'again' }  \tag{485}\\
\text { phòt } & \text { 'add more' } \\
\text { pháng } & \text { 'prior' and } \\
\text { zíp } & \text { 'always' }
\end{array}
$$

The term háng denotes repetitive action, as in (486).
(486) (a) haningtè yūhángmātalé (12:16)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { hanīng } & =\text { tè } & & \text { yū-háng } \\
2 \mathrm{PL} & =\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG} & & \text { look-again }=\text { talé } \\
\text { lon } & =\text { RLS }=\text { SAP }
\end{array}
$$

'I am looking after you, again.'
(b) acān ōmhángpánták (09:68)
acān ōm-háng = pán = ták
plan make-again $=\operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}$
'(The rabbit) made a plan again.'

However, it may also mean 'back' when it follows motion verbs such as nāng 'go' and lī 'come', as in (487).
(487) (a) phàkmáknīngyeù yēkpàpè nānghángmaták (15:42)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { phàkmák } & =\text { nīngyeù } \quad \text { yēk } \quad=\text { pà }=\text { pè } \\
\text { tomorrow } & =\text { manner } \quad \text { hill.field }=\text { ALL }=\text { LOC } \\
\text { nāng-háng } & =\text { mā }=\text { ták } \\
\text { go-back } & =\text { RLS }=\mathrm{HS}
\end{array}
$$

'The next day, (he) went back to the field, like that, it is said.'
(b) heúwà līhángzík (15:15)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { héwà lī-háng } & =\text { zík } \\
\text { daddy come-back } & =\text { FINALLY } \\
\text { 'Daddy, come back.' }
\end{array}
$$

The term phòt, glossed as 'more', adds an additive meaning to the head verb. It occurs only three times in my data, each time following the verb $k a \bar{u}$ 'call', in one of the narratives. It can be translated as 'more of $v$ ' in English, as in (488).
(488) tamìsā kaūphòtnàngthāmā (18:93)
tamìsā kaū-phòt-àng = thāmā
human call-more-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ HORT
'Let's make more calls to people.'

My language consultants, however, said that it is not restricted to following the verb kaū 'call' only, but may follow any other verb. Some more examples with phòt provided by Kadu language consultants are given in (489).
(a) $\bar{o} m p h o ̀ t n a ̄ ~$
(b) yōkphòtnā
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { òm-phòt } & =\text { mā } \\ \text { do-more } & =\text { RLS }\end{array}$
‘do more

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { yōk-phòt } & =m \bar{a}  \tag{489}\\
\text { eat-more } & =\text { RLS } \\
\text { 'eat more' } &
\end{array}
$$

The term pháng, glossed as 'prior', denotes that an action expressed by the head verb is prior to some other action and temporary in most cases, compared to the other action, which is more permanent. The action which may follow may or may not be explicit. In most cases, it is pragmatically determined. Consider the examples in (490).
(490) (a) awà shī lāphángkū (24:19)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { awà } & \text { shī } & \text { lā-pháng } & =k u \bar{u} \\
\text { father } & \text { medicine } & \text { take-prior } & =\text { IRLS }
\end{array}
$$

'(I)-father will bring medicine, (and heal him).'
(b) múngshī há ōmphángkū (31:30)
múngshī-há ōm-pháng $=k u \overline{ }$
noodle-red make-prior =IRLS 'I will make red noodles first (and do others later).'

It also denotes that the action expressed by the head verb is not a permanent but, rather, a temporary action. This is particularly true with posture verbs such as ním 'stay', and thóng 'sit'. Consider the examples in (491).
(491) (a) nāngká tamìsā thàmā, pīkpè nímphángyók (13:28)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { nāng = ká tamìsā thà = mā, pīk = pè ním-pháng = yók } \\
& \text { 2SG = TOP human be =RLS beside =LOC stay-prior =INTRUSIVE } \\
& \text { 'You are a human, (therefore) stay aside (for a while).' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) aúpè thóngphángkū̄ (AKYS)
aú $=$ pè thóng-pháng $=k \bar{u}$
here $=$ LOC sit-prior $\quad=$ IRLS
'(I) will sit here (for a while).'

### 7.2.1.5 Aspectuals

The verbs ním 'stay', peú 'keep, put', or 'to place', and zí 'finish' express the aspectual meanings 'progressive', 'resultative', and 'completive', respectively, when
they are used as auxiliary verbs. Each verb is dealt with in detail in the following section.

Continuity ${ }^{25}$ in Kadu is marked by the use of the verb ním 'stay' as an auxiliary verb. Continuity is a semantic notion that describes states as enduring and non-states as ongoing situations. Continuity, quoting Comrie (1976:24), is defined as " ... imperfectivity not occasioned by habituality." He divided continuity into two morphological categories: non-progressive for stative verbs and progressive for nonstative verbs. In Kadu, continuity, both non-progressive and progressive, is handled by a single auxiliary verb, ním 'stay'. It can occur both with dynamic, ongoing durative events (activities, achievements, and accomplishments) and states but is not used for habitual action. When used with achievement verbs it has iterative sense. The following examples in (492) exemplify the use of the intransitive verb of location ním in Kadu.
(492) (a) ànták ēksāhalá nímcímā (15:69)
àntàk ēksāhalá ním-cí =mā
3PL husband.wife stay-PL = RLS
'They, husband and wife, live (there).'
(b) ngaká kótānpaúkwáqpè nímmā (08:93)
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { ngā }=\text { ká kótānpaúkwáq } & =\text { pè } & \text { ním } & =\text { mā } \\ 1 \text { SG } & =\text { TOP PN } & =\text { LOC } & & \text { stay }\end{array}$
'I live at Kothanpaukwaq.'

[^19]The semantics of the verb ním 'stay' in the examples in (492) imply the existence of an animate entity (the actor) being at a specific location and the maintenance of this situation over a certain period of time. The phenomenon of a marker of imperfectivity deriving from grammaticalisation of the location verb 'stay' or 'live' is well attested cross-linguistically. This phenomenon is found in Burmese, Lahu, Thai, and Chinese (Matisoff 1991: 415-418). For comparison, I have given examples from Burmese and Lahu. The Burmese example in (493) is my own and the Lahu example in (494) is from Matisoff (1973).
(493) Burmese examples
(a) ळぃरᄃ:m:ธ\$onu

htamang: sa:-nei =te
rice eat-stay $=$ RLS
'(He) is eating rice.'
htamang: =ka. pu-nei =te
rice $\quad=$ TOP hot-stay $=$ RLS
'The rice is (being) hot.'
(494) Lahu examples
(Lahu: Matisoff 1973:237)
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { (a) } & \text { và? } & \text {-cĥ̂ } \\ \text { wear } & \text {-stay }\end{array}$
'is wearing'
(b) $\begin{array}{lll}\text { chu } & -c h \hat{\varepsilon} \\ \text { be.fat } & \text {-stay }\end{array}$
'is still fat'

As shown in examples (493) and (494), in both languages continuity is marked by a post-verbal auxiliary which derives from the main verb 'live' or 'stay', Burmese $6 \$$ <nei> and Lahu chê. Matisoff (1973:240) glossed chê as 'be in the act or state of v-ing or be still V-ing', clearly stating that it is used with verbs that describe both states and non-states.

In Kadu, the auxiliary verb ním is attested occurring both with state and non-state verbs. For example, in the examples in (495) two stative verbs, ngā 'exist' and há 'red', are unmarked for aspect. They are simply followed by the realis marker mā to indicate that the situations expressed in the clauses are happening or known to have happened at the speech time or prior to the speech time.
(495) (a) thīngpè alúk ngāmā (17:66)

$$
\text { thīng }=\text { pè alúk ngā }=m \bar{a}
$$

$$
\text { village }=\text { LOC work exist }=\text { RLS }
$$

'(I) have work to do in the village.' Or '(There) is work in the village.'
(b) anáq papá hámā (AKYS)
anáq papá há $=m \bar{a}$
this flower red = RLS
'The flower is/was red.' (timeless truth)

The auxiliary verb ním can be added, as in (496), to describe the continuity of the stative situation at the moment of speaking.
(496) (a) ōmhaútpanáqká phéngkón ngānímmā (17:85)
ōm-haút = panáq = ká phéng = kón ngā-ním = mā
make-want = NOM = TOP full = PURP exist-stay = RLS
'(I) have full desire to do (it).' (Lit. I am having full desire.)
(b) anáq papá hánímmā (AKYS)
anáq papá há-ním =mā
this flower red-stay $=$ RLS
'The flower is/was red.' (temporary truth)'

The same term ním is also used to express the continuity of a non-state situation, as shown in (497).
(497) (a) atá yōknímcímā (15:13)
atá yōk-ním-cí =mā
rice eat-stay-PL = RLS
'(They) are eating rice.'
(b) "sāngpaláng saēktè lākákmaléyeù" ngaúpánnaà hāpnímmaták (25:172)
"sāngpaláng saēk =tè lā-kák =mā = lé = yeù"
king daughter =A.AG take-want =RLS =SAP =SAP
ngaú = pán = naà hāp-ním = mā = ták
say $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only weep-stay $=$ RLS $=$ HS
'(He) said "I want the princess" and was crying, it is said.'

The resultative or perfective aspect is marked by the post-verbal modifier peú, which is derived from the lexical verb 'to keep' or 'to place'. The lexical usage of peú is illustrated in (498).
(a) anáqpaíkpàpè peú (08:63)
anáq paìk $=$ pà $=$ pè peú
this beside =ALL = LOC keep
'Keep (it) around here!’
(b) pòkhápè peúmaták (24:29)
pòkhá = pè peú = mā = ták
forest $=$ LOC keep $=$ RLS $=$ HS
'(He) had kept (the princess) in the forest, it is said.'

When the verb peú is used as an auxiliary verb it adds the sense of perfective aspect. It patterns like the Burmese 00 : [hta:](hta:), which "marks the state of the undergoer resulting from the activity expressed by the main verb-a state that is seen as stable and permanent" (Romeo 2008:183). The focus in this type of sentence is the undergoer, the affected entity. It indicates that the activity brought about by the actor has been completed and is kept in that state. The examples in (499) exemplify the auxiliary usage of the verb peú.
(499) (a) hīng tamìsātàktè kasúmpeúmā (07:27)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { hīng tamìsā-tàk }=\text { tè } \quad \text { kasúm-peú }=\text { mā } \\
3 \text { SG human-PL }=\text { A.AG } & \text { hide-keep }=\text { RLS } \\
\text { '(He) has hidden his people/followers.' }
\end{array}
$$

(b) maléq òktàk heúpeúmā (09:22)
maléq òk-tàk heú-peú =mā

1PL grandfather-PL tell-keep = RLS
'Our forefathers had told (us).'

The situation which resulted from the activity is realised as a permanent state unless it gets interfered with or modified by other events, as illustrated in (500).
(500) " maléqká manákcēūká kasà káppeúmā līyákcíkalá " ngaúlakà (18:86)
"maléq $=$ ká manákceū =ká kasà káp-peú =mā

1PL $=$ TOP last.night $=$ TOP tiger shoot-keep $=$ RLS
lī-ák-cí $=k \bar{u}=$ lá" ngaú = lakà
come-EUPH-PL $=$ IRLS $=\mathrm{Q}$ say $=$ MIR
'(We) told them, "Last night we shot a tiger, (We're going to look for it), and will you come with us?."'

The post-verbal peú is also used to express enduring qualities of the state or situation. It can even extend its scope to events that may hold true for any time (gnomic). For example, the speakers of Kadu believe that they all migrated from a place called Maukhwin, as in (501). Notice the ablative káq in (501) is a Burmese loan word.
(501) azàk azáq maūkhwīnkáqták (10:1)
azàk azáq maūkhwīn = káq = ták
PN begin PN $=$ LOC $=$ HS
'Kadu begins from Maukhwin, it is siad.'

Therefore, based on the fact that all the Kadu migrated from Maukhwin, it is appropriate to use the sentence in (502).
(502) azáktàk maūkhwīnhaík līpeúmā (AKYs)
azák-tàk maūkhwīn =haík lī-peú $=m a \bar{a}$
PN-PL PN =ABL come-keep = RLS
'The Kadu had come from Maukhwin.'

The post-verbal modifier peú is also used when a present state provides evidence of a past event. For example, if the wet grass evidently indicates that it has rained, example (503b) is possible.
(a) halángweúmā (AKYS)
(b) halángweúpeúmā (AKYS)
haláng-weú =mā
sky-water $=$ RLS
haláng-weú-peú $=$ mā
sky-rain-keep = RLS
'(It) rains.' or 'It is raining.' 'It has rained.' (It is still wet).

When the post-verbal modifier peú is followed by the irrealis marker $k \bar{u}$, it denotes a future perfect, as in (504).
(504) ósací alīcī anáq alúk zîkón ōmpeúkū (AKYS)

'I will solve this problem before the teacher comes.' Or 'By the time the teacher comes I will have finished the work.'

The completive aspect is defined by Bybee, Perkins and Pagliuca (1994:57) as "to do something thoroughly and completely and the completive sometimes carries the semantic sense that the object of the action is totally affected, consumed, or destroyed by the action." In Kadu the auxiliary verb zí, which is synchronically relatable to the lexical source $z i ́$ 'finish', is employed to indicate the completive aspect, which also includes the sense of total affectedness of the patient of the action.

The verb $z i$ 'finish' is commonly found as a full lexical verb when the situation expressed is shared knowledge between the speaker and the hearer and it would be redundant to repeat it, as in (505).
(505) (a) maîkmà zíkalá (AKYS)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mà = naík mà zí = ku = lá } \\
& \mathrm{WH}=\text { only time finish }=\mathrm{IRLS}=\mathrm{Q} \\
& \text { 'When are you finishing (it)?' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) phàkmák zîkū (AKYS)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { phàkmák } & \text { zí } & =k \bar{u} \\
\text { tomorrow } & \text { finish } & =\text { IRLS }
\end{array}
$$

'(I) will finish (it) tomorrow.'

A similar situation can also be found in English when someone says "I finished the whole glass of wine." This does not mean that the person has completed the object (the glass) but, rather, it is the completion of the activity or process. The only implied activity or process in this case would be the drinking of the wine. If the speaker, however, is asking about a specific activity or process, it is obligatory to use the specific verb. Consider the examples in (506)-conversations which are frequently used as greetings among the speakers of Kadu in their day to day lives.
(506) atá yōkzípánlá
(b) (yōk) zípán
atá yōk-zí =pán = lá
(yōk) zí = pán
rice eat-finish $=\cos =\mathrm{Q}$
(eat) finish $=\cos$
'Have (you) finished eating?' '(I am) finished (eating).'

Omission of the main verb is often found in non-final clauses, as in (507).
(507) Weúkúmā, zípán tanákhá paúmā (AKYS)
weúkú $=m \bar{a} \quad$ zí $=$ pán tanákhá paú = mā
bathe $=$ RLS (bathe) finish $=\operatorname{COS}$ cosmetic.paste apply $=$ RLS
'She bathed. After (bathing) she put on cosmetic paste.'
(508) yèk kānzū kámàkà wáthángcáq zípánnaàyítá nāngcímákseùé (28:24)

| yēk | kānzū | kámàkà | wát-háng-cáq ${ }^{26}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hill.field | mustard | so.on | shave-back-PL |

zí = pán = naà = yí = tá nāng-cí = mák = seùé
finish $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only $=$ also $=$ EMPH go-PL $\quad=$ HORT $=$ SAP
'Cut the mustard field and so on! If (it) is done, let's go.'

When the form $z i ́$ is used post verbally, it indicates the completion of the situation. It is common to find the post-verbal modifier zí followed by the change of state CFP to express the completion of the situation and the state of having changed the situation, as in (509).
(509) (a) ān zōkzípán (30:1)

| ān | zōk-zí | $=$ pán |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| paddy | transplant-finish | $=\operatorname{COS}$ |

'The paddy transplantation is done.'
(b) ēklāzípán (17:3)
ēklā-zí = pán
marry-finish $=\operatorname{COS}$
'(He) is married.'

The post-verbal usage of the verb zí 'finish' is not restricted in terms of the semantics of the verb it attaches to. I have tested this auxiliary verb with different verb classes and my language consultants said that all the examples in (510) are grammatical.

[^20]

### 7.2.1.6 Degrees

This section deals with adverb-like auxiliary verbs such as māt 'truly' and pheù 'suppose'. These auxiliary verbs indicate degrees of certainty and likelihood. We may also analyse these two auxiliaries as epistemic modals.

The auxiliary verb māt denotes a degree of certainty about the action expressed by the main verb. It shares the same form with the verb māt 'forget', however, the adverbial meaning of 'truly' or 'really' does not seem to have any semantic relationship with this
form. More data is needed to understand the origin of māt. It is not restricted to state or action verbs. It may be translated into English as 'really, certainly, surely, actually, or definitely'. It is illustrated in (511).
(511) (a) chīmātlá nāng (09:91)

| chī-māt | $=$ lá | nāng |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| true-truly | $=Q$ | 2 SG |

'Are you really sure?'
(b) hīngtè yōkmātkūnaík (09:62)
hīng =tè yōk-māt =kū =naík
$3 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$ eat-truly $=$ IRLS $=$ only
'(I) will certainly eat him now.'

Unlike other auxiliary verbs, the order of the auxiliary māt within the VCX is less fixed. It generally occurs toward the end of the VCX following the benefactive, jussive/causative, aspectual, and frequency and additive auxiliaries. Consider the examples in (512). Example (512a) is grammatical but example (512b) is not.
(512) (a) līzíngyōkmātnā (AKYS)
lī-zíngyōk-māt =mā
come-order-truly $=$ RLS
'(He) truly orders (him) to come.'
(b) *līmātzíngyōkmā

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { lī-māt-zíngyōk } & =\text { mā } \\
\text { come-truly-order } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

However, its position relative to the benefactive, jussive/causative, aspectual, and frequency and additive auxiliaries is fixed, but not fixed relative to the verbal particles and modal auxiliaries. Kadu language consultants said that all the examples illustrated in (513) and (514) are grammatical. Notice māt occuring before or after verbal particles, as illustrated in (513).
(513) (a) ōmcíàngmātnā

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{\text { ōm-cí-àng-māt }} \quad=\mathrm{ma} \\
& \text { do-PL-DIR } 1 \text {-truly } \quad=\text { RLS } \\
& \text { '(They) really did (that).' } \\
& \text { (b) } \bar{o} m m a ̄ t c i a ̀ n g m a ̄ ~ \\
& \text { do-truly-PL-DIR }{ }_{1}=\text { RLS } \\
& \text { '(They) really did (that).' }
\end{aligned}
$$

It may also occur either before or after modal auxiliaries as illustrated in (514).
(514) (a) ōmkákmātnā
ōm-kák-māt =mā
do-want-truly $=$ RLS
'(I) want to really do.' Or '(I) really want to do.'
(b) $\bar{o} m m a ̄ t k a ́ k m \bar{a}$
ōm-māt-kák =mā
do-truly-want $=$ RLS
'(I) want to really do.' Or '(I) really want to do.'

The auxiliary verb pheù denotes the speaker's supposition about the likelihood of the action represented in the predicate. It is restricted to occurring with a negative verb only. It occurs only once in my corpus. More data is need to understand this auxiliary verb.
(515) (a) lámzā anāngpheùyá (18:106)

| lámzā | a-nāng-pheù | $=a ́$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| be.far | NEG-go-suppose | $=$ NEG |

'(I) suppose (the wounded tiger) did not go far.'
(b) hīng alīpheùyá (AKYS)
hīng a-lī-pheù =á
3SG NEG-come-suppose = NEG
'(I) suppose (he) is not coming.'

### 7.2.1.7 Excessive

There are two terms, hàm 'excess' and pōt 'exceed', that express a comparative or excessive sense. The former is used to indicate a comparative degree of quality, as in (516).
(516) (a) hīng lītí meúhàmlakaú (02.18)
hīng lī =tí meú-hàm =lakaú
3SG come =also good-be.excess $=$ MIR
'It's better if he comes too.'
(b) tónghàmpín sèk (11:4)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { tóng-hàm } \quad=\text { pín } & \text { sèk } \\
\text { big-be.excess }=\text { NOM } & \text { person } \\
\text { 'The older person' }
\end{array}
$$

The latter, $p \bar{o} t$, is mostly used to indicate an unintended or uncontrollable excess situation. Look at the example sentences in (517).
(517) (a) yōkpōtnā (AKYS)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { yōk-pōt } \quad=\text { mā } \\
& \text { eat-exceed } \quad=\text { RLS } \\
& \text { I ate more (than I needed).' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) ngāká īppátpōtnímtún (18:29)

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\text { ngā } & =\text { ká } \quad \text { ip-pát-pōt-ním } & & \text { tún } \\
\text { 1SG } & =\text { TOP } & \text { sleep-asleep-exceed -stay } & \\
\text { STILL }
\end{array}
$$

'I was still asleep.' (more than I was supposed to)

### 7.2.1.8 Experiential

The auxiliary verb páp, glossed as 'been', indicates the action of the main verb was unintended or experiened previously, as illustrated in (518). It does not occur as a head verb in my data.
(518) (a) ngayítá ōmákpáptalé (17:15)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { nga } & =\text { yí }=\text { tá ōm-à-páp } & \text { = talé } \\
\text { 1SG } & \text { also } & =\text { EMPH make-EUPH-been }
\end{array}
$$

'I, as well, have done that before(experience of mining gold).'
(b) katùngpápmákkákmā ngāyítá (07:49)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { katùng-páp-à-kák } & =\text { mā ngā } & \text { =yí }=\text { tá } \\
\text { see-been-EUPH-want } & =\text { RLS exist } & =\text { also }
\end{array}
$$

'I want to be (able to say) I've seen the monk before.' Lit. I, as well, want to have experienced seeing (the monk).'
(c) atá yōkpápmákpáng (15:110)
atá yōk-páp-à = páng
rice eat-been-EUPH $=\operatorname{COS}$
'(S/he) happened to eat rice.' (ate without considering the consequences)

### 7.2.1.9 Totality

The term sōm, relatable to the lexical verb sōm 'used up', indicates the totality of the relevent participants of the action expressed by the head verb are affected by the action. The example (519) exemplifies the use of $s \bar{o} m$ as a head verb.
(519) talùshīyítá sōmkapánlē (18:68)
talù-shī =yí = tá sōm =kapán = lē
seed-CLF.fruit $=$ also $=$ EMPH $\quad$ used.up $=I M M F \quad=$ SAP
'(We) are running out of bullets as well.' (Lit. we are running out seeds)

The auxiliary usage of the verb sōm may be translated into English as 'V-all' or 'Vutterly'. These are illustrated in (520) and (521).
ngā ashinn takhīntàktè hanīng tánshísōmkapán (07:108)
ngā ashīn takhīn-tàk $=$ tè hanīng tán-shí-sōm =kapán
1SG lord master-PL =A.AG 2PL beat-die-used.up $=\mathrm{IMMF}$ '(You) are going to kill all my masters.'
(521) pháklánkōlán nahángsōmpán (13:48)

| phák-lán kō-lán | nāng-háng-sōm | $=$ pán |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ?-road | body-road | go-back-used.up | $=\cos$ |
| '(They) all went back to their respective places.' |  |  |  |

The term sōm may be preceded by the plural marker cí to mark the totality of plural referents. The function of the verbal plural marker cí is discussed under verbal particles in §7.2.2.
(522) anyeù ōmnímcísōmpán (04:34)
an-yeù ōm-ním-cí-sōm = pán
DEM-manner make-stay-PL-finish.up $=\operatorname{COS}$
'All (people) are doing (it) in this manner.'

### 7.2.1.10 Discontinuity

The term, zón, glossed as 'CONTINUE', never occurs as a head verb in my data. It is restricted to occurring only with negative verbs and is employed to indicate a discontinuitive notion to the main verb event. See the illustrations in (523).
(523) (a) azaúnzónshík (18:105)

| a-zaún-zón | $=$ sà | $=$ zík |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NEG-follow.after-CONTINUE | $=$ NEG.IMP | $=$ FINALLY |

'Don't continue following (the tiger).'
(b) nāng ínōmzónsà (07:106)

| nāng ín-ōm-zón | $=$ sà |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 SG | NEG-make-CONTINUE | $=$ NEG.IMP |

'You, don't do it again.'
(c) * $\bar{o} m z o ́ n m a \bar{a}$

| ōm-zón | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- |
| do/make-CONTINUE | $=$ RLS |

'(He) keeps on doing it.'

In order to express a positive continuative proposition the clause final aspectual particle tún is employed (see the discussion of Aspectual particles in §7.3)

### 7.2.2 Verbal particles

This section discusses three verbal particles: cí 'PL', ìng ' $\mathrm{DIR}_{1}$ ', and àng ' $\mathrm{DIR}_{2}$ '. They are highly grammaticalised. Synchronically it is not possible to relate them to any lexical sources. I have grouped them together simply because of their syntactic position within the VCX. They all occur following auxiliary verbs (§7.2.1) and preceding modal auxiliaries (§7.2.3). The directional particles àng and ing occur in the same slot, following the particle cí within the VCX. In the following sections I will discuss each of them in turn.

### 7.2.2.1 cí 'plural'

If the agent referent that performs the action is more than one person, the verbal particle cí can be added to the predicate to mark plurality, as in (524).
(524) (a) pòkhá nāngcímā (18:2)
pòkhá nāng-cí =mā
forest go-PL = RLS
'(We) went to the forest.'
(b) manīng ōmcíkalá (12:121)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { ma }=\text { nīng } & \text { ōm-cí } & =\mathrm{ku} & =\text { lá } \\
\mathrm{WH}=\text { manner } & \text { make-PL } & =\text { IRLS } & =\mathrm{Q} \\
\text { 'What shall (we) do?' } & &
\end{array}
$$

(c) atá yōkcízík (15:12)
atá $\quad$ yōk-cí $=$ zík
rice eat-PL $=$ FINALLY
'(You plural) can eat rice now.'

The function of $c \overline{\bar{l}}$ resembles that of Burmese $\sqrt{P}<$ kja. $>$. Consider the Burmese and Kadu examples in (525). The Burmese example in (525a) is my own and I repeat the Kadu example given in (524a) as (525b).

to: thwa:-kra. =te
forest go-PL = RLS
'(We) went to the forest.'
(b) pòkhá nāngcímā (18:2)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { pòkhá nāng-cí }=\text { mā } \\
& \text { forest go-PL }=\text { RLS } \\
& \text { 'id' }
\end{aligned}
$$

However, the position of these particles within the VCX in the respective languages differ. In Burmese <kja.> follows most of the auxiliaries, however, it preceds the auxiliary ๆ <ra.> 'permission' (Wheatley 1982:232). The position of the particle cí, unlike <kra.>, within the vcx in Kadu is stable. It follows the auxiliaries and precedes the two directional particles, ìng and àng, and the modal auxiliaries. See cí followed by the directional verbal particles in (538).

The insertion of the particle cí in the predicate is optional. Its usage seems to depend on the speakers' free will. For example, although the particle cí was not present in the natural sentence, my language consultants said that it is possible to insert it without any changes in meaning.
àngpanáqpèká tapàntàk nímmā (10:12)

| àng $=$ panáq $=$ pè $=$ ká | tapàn-tàk | ním-(cí) | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| that $=N O M=$ LOC $=$ TOP | PN-PL | stay-(PL) | $=$ RLS |

'Tapan people live there.'

Using the term cí with a singular agentive referent is ungrammatical. Consider the examples in (527). Example (527a) is grammatical as the verbal plural particle cí is used with a plural referent maléq '1PL', however, (527b) is not grammatical since a singular agentive referent is used with the verbal plural particle cí eventhough there a plural non-agentive is mentioned.

## (527) (a) maléq hanīngtè yūhángcímā

$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { maléq hanīng } & =\text { tè } & & \text { yū } & \text { háng-cí } \\ & =\text { mā } \\ \text { 1PL } \quad 2 \mathrm{PL} & =\text { A.AG } & & \text { look } & \text { back-PL }\end{array}$
'We are looking after you.'
(b) *ngā hanīngtè yūhángcímā

| ngā | hanīng | $=$ tè | yū háng-cí | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1 S G$ | $2 P L$ | $=A . A G$ | look back-PL |  |

7.2.2.2 àng 'directional: away from the deictic centre'

The particle àng, glossed ' $\operatorname{DIR}_{1}$ ', indicates an action or movement away from the deictic centre. Look at the example in (528).
(528) hīngpè thōkàngmā (10:56)
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { hīng } & =\text { pè thōk-àng } & =\text { mā } \\ 3 S G & =\text { LOC arrive- } \text { DIR }_{1} & =\text { RLS }\end{array}$
'(They) reached towards him.'

The deictic centre is determined by pragmatic and shared knowledge between speaker and addressee. Example (528) indicates an action or movement away from the deictic centre. In this case the deictic centre could be the speaker. When the action or movement is happening toward the third person, using àng ' $\mathrm{DIR}_{1}$ ' is grammatical but not ing ' $\mathrm{DIR}_{2}$ '. We repeat the example (528) in (529a) to show the contrast of these two directionals. The first example is grammatical but example (529b) is not.
(529) (a) hīngpè thōkìngmā (10:56)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { hīng } & =\text { pè thōk-àng } & =\text { mā } \\
3 \mathrm{SG} & =\text { LOC arrive-DIR } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'(They) reached towards him.'
(b) *hīngpè thōtìngmā

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { hīng } & =\text { pè thōk-ìng } & =\text { mā } \\
3 \mathrm{SG} & =\text { LOC arrive- } \mathrm{DIR}_{2} & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

Some more examples of àng with motion verbs to denote the action or movement away from the deictic centre, the speaker, are given in (530).
(530) (a) weúyahaùngpèà takhāteú útsátnàngmā (08:14)
weú yahaùng $=$ pè út-sàt-àng $\quad=m a \bar{a}$
water river $=$ LOC abandon-descend-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ RLS 'Throw (it) down to the river.'
(b) cānsíttáhaík tántātnàngmā (07:112)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { cānsíttá } & =\text { haík } & \text { tán-tāt-àng } & \\
\text { PN } & =\text { ABL } & & \text { beat-release-DIR } \\
1 & & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'Kyansitta beat and sent (him) away.'

The particle àng also indicates spatial displacement 'away', as in (531).
(531) (a) zíngyōkpanáqtè īyàngmā (05:4)
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { zíngyōk } & =\text { panáq }=\text { tè } & \text { ī-àng } & =\text { mā } \\ \text { order } & =\text { NOM } & =\text { A.AG } & \text { give- } \text { DIR }_{1}\end{array}$
'(We) gave away a slave girl.' (Lit. the ordered one)
(b) salàshī phà īyàngmā (08:123)

| salà-shī-phà-à | ī-àng | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| banana-CLT.fruit-CLF.bunch-one | give-DIR | $=$ RLS |

'(I) gave away a bunch of bananas (to him).'

With action verbs, it indicates actions performed with self volition or strong intention. See illustration in (532).
(532) (a) laúkléyaúk ūhaū kápmàngmā (19:1)
laúklé = yaúk ūhaū káp-àng =mā
sling.shot $=$ COM owl shoot-DIR ${ }_{1} \quad=$ RLS
'(Someone) shot an owl with a sling shot.'
(b) hinng awàtè yīmàngmā (25:32)
hīng awà = tè yīm-àng = mā
3SG father =A.AG arrest-DIR $\quad$ = RLS
'(The man) arrested his father.'
7.2.2.3 ing 'directional: toward the deictic centre'

The particle ìng, in contrast to àng, indicates an action or movement toward the deictic centre ${ }^{27}$. The idea of movement toward the speaker's location is particularly true when ing follows motion verbs in Kadu, as illustrated in (533).

[^21](a) àngpanáq sàtnìngmā kasà (18:44)
\[

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { àng = panáq sàt-ìng =mā kasà }  \tag{533}\\
& \text { that }=\text { NOM descend-DIR }{ }_{2}=\text { RLS tiger }
\end{align*}
$$
\]

'That tiger came down (toward us).'
(b) tóngmaīkalàng kátnìngthàmā (18:80)
tóng maī kalàng $\quad$ kát-ìng-thà $=m \bar{a}$
three mile approximate $\quad$ run-DIR ${ }_{2}$-must $=$ RLS
'(We) came running about three miles.'
(c) paúlaú paúlaú zalaútnìngmaták (08:16)

| paúlaú-paúlaú | zalaút-ìng | $=$ mā $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| floating-REDUP | drift-DIR ${ }_{2}$ | $=$ RLS $=H S$ |

'(The raft) came drifting (towards them), it is said.'

When ìng, together with the realis marker mā, follows activity verbs it indicates a 'speaker oriented' deictic sense, usually with 'past' reference. It may be interpreted as 'to V elsewhere and be here now' in English. Consider the examples in (534).
(534) (a) atá yōkmā (AKYS)
atá yōk $=m \bar{a}$
rice eat $=$ RLS
'I ate/eat rice.' or 'I am eating rice.'
(b) atá yōkìngmā (AKYS)
atá yōk-ìng = mā
rice eat-DIR ${ }_{2} \quad=$ RLS
'I ate rice (before I came here).'

The example in (534a) simply indicates a realis situation, which may be interpreted with past or present reference. However, when ing is used together with the realis marker $m \bar{a}$, the interpretation with present time reference is not possible.

The time reference with ing may be 'remote past' or 'near past'. It is usually determined by time adverbials such as yàkmák 'today', maeútóng 'long ago' or simply the pragmatics of the situation. Consider the examples in (535).
(a) yákmák pūhángìngmā (25:130) (near past time reference)

| yàkmák | pū-háng-ìng | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| today | emerge-back-DIR | $=$ RLS |

'(I) came out (of the prison) today.'
(b) àntákkáé ngáywā teūtìngmā (10:31) (remote past time reference)
àntàk $=$ ká $=$ é ngá ywā teū-ta-ìng $=m \bar{a}$
3PL $=$ TOP $=$ SAP five village establish-L.SUFF-DIR ${ }_{2}=$ RLS
'They had founded/established five villages.'

Unlike with action verbs, when ing occurs with state verbs (particularly true with mental perception verbs), the sense of physical movement is blocked and it simply indicates the situation happened in a past time frame.
(536) (a) mōksótàk ngaúkà katùngìngmaták (15:64)

| mōksó-tàk | ngaúkà | katùng-ìng | $=$ mā | $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hunter-PL | as.for | see-DIR $_{2}$ | $=R L S=H S$ |  |

'Hunters saw (them), it is said.'
(b) ósací ngaúpanáq teútpūìngmā (AKYS)

| ósací | ngaú | = panáq | teútpū-ìng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| teacher | say | $=\mathrm{NOM}$ | hear-DIR ${ }_{2}$ | $=$ RLS |

'I heard what the teacher said.'
(c) theūtheūwāwā ngāìngmā (11:15)
theūtheū wāwā ngā-ìng =mā
grandly ATTW exist-DIR ${ }_{2}=$ RLS '(They) became wealthy.'
ing plus $k \bar{u}$ with other action verbs indicates the probability of an unrealised situation.
(537) (a) ngāpáq cítnìng kaphú yōkìngkū (13:20)

| ngā | $=$ pà | cīt-ìng | kaphú | yōk-ìng |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 SG | $=$ ALL | come.close-DIR ${ }_{2}$ snake | eat-DIR |  |
| 2 |  | $=$ IRLS |  |  | 'Come close toward me, the snake will eat you (there).'

(b) hamàngkà lūìngkū aheúhà (08:87)

| ha $=$ màng $=$ kà | lū-ìng | $=$ kū | a-heú-hà |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{WH}=$ thing $=\mathrm{Q}$ | get-DIR | $=$ IRLS | NEG-tell-know.how | = NEG

'(I) don't know what (she) will get.'

I have already mentioned that the plural particle cí precedes ìng and àng within the VCX. When cí is followed by one of these particles, it results in vowel fusion. See the discussion on fusion in §2.8.1. I will not repeat the discussion of this phonological process here but, instead, simply illustrate it with a few examples, as in (538).
(a) hamàngkà ōmnímcànglá (30:41)
(cí + àng $>$ càng $)$

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { ha }=\text { màng }=\text { kà } & \text { ōm-ním-càng } & =\text { lá } \\
\mathrm{WH}=\text { thing }=\mathrm{Q} & \text { make-stay-PL:DIR } & =\mathrm{Q}
\end{array}
$$

'What are (they) doing?'
(b) taleú zángcìng (30:41)

$$
(c i ́+i ̀ ̀ n g>c i ̀ n g)
$$

taleú záng-cìng
dangling put.in-PL:DIR ${ }_{2}$
'(You plural) put (the noodle) in dangling position!'

Any of the CFPs discussed in $\S 7.1$ can follow the directional verbal particles ing and àng. However, when pán 'Cos' immediately follows one of these particles, the two forms result in fusion thus forming a monosyllabic word. The rule is ìng + pán $>$ píng and àng + pán > pàng. There is tone sandhi with fused forms. If the preceding syllable is a high tone e.g. 'á' the fused form takes the low tone. However, if the preceding syllable is either a low or mid tone (e.g. ' $\mathfrak{a}$ ' or ' $\bar{a}$ ') the fused form takes the high tone. The examples in (539) illustrate the fused form of àng + pán $>$ pàng.
(539) (a) ózītóngtè sanànpán lāpángták (08:73)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { ózī-tóng }=\text { tè } & \text { sanàn }=\text { pán lā }=\text { páng } & =\text { ták } \\
\text { drum-big }=\text { A.AG } & \text { snatch }=\operatorname{COS} \text { take }=\text { DIR }_{1}: \operatorname{COS} & =\text { HS } \\
\text { '(He) snatched the drum and took (it) away, it is said.' }
\end{array}
$$

(b) cīhaík ngaúpàngták (12:51)

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { cī } & =\text { haík } & \text { ngaú } & =\text { pàng } & \text { = ták } \\
\text { dog } & =\text { ABL } & \text { say } & =\text { DIR }_{1}: C O S & =\text { HS }
\end{array}
$$

'The dog said, it is said.'

The examples in (540) illustrate the fused form of ìng + pán $>$ pìng.
(540) (a) kaphúká pūpíngták (13:50)
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { kaphú }=\text { ká } p \bar{u} & =\text { píng } & =\text { ták } \\ \text { snake }=\text { TOP emerge } & =\text { DIR }_{2} \cdot \operatorname{CoS} & =H S\end{array}$
snake $=$ TOP emerge $=$ DIR $_{2}$ :COS $=$ HS
'The snake came out, it is said.'
(b) tátlúng lāhángpìng (12:94)

| tátlúng | lā-háng | $=$ pìng |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| magic.ball | take-back | $=$ DIR $_{2}: \operatorname{COS}$ |

'(He) took back the magic ball.'

### 7.2.3 Modal auxiliaries

Syntactically, modal auxiliaries occur following verbal particles (§7.2.2) and preceding CFPS (§7.1). In English they convey "the relationship between the referent of the subject NP and the action" (Van Valin and LaPolla 1997:41). In general, two types of modals may be classified: deontic and epistemic. The former provides information on the obligation, capacity, ability, possibility, and permission of the actor to perform the action. The latter, on the other hand, conveys "the extent to which the speaker is committed to the truth of the proposition" (Bybee 1994:179). Deontic and epistemic modalities are discussed in §7.2.3.1 and §7.2.3.2, respectively.

### 7.2.3.1 Deontic modality

Modal auxiliaries with a deontic reading attested in Kadu are shown in (541). Each will be discussed subsequently.

The question, "Does the referent know how to do the action expressed by the predicate?" is answered by the term hà, glossed as 'know.how'. It indicates the agent referent's learned ability, skill, and knowledge. It may be translated into English as 'know how' or 'able to', as illustrated in (542).
(542) (a) tākpáyí yūhàmā (07:35)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { tākpá } & =\text { yí } & \text { yū-hà } & =\text { mā } \\
\text { palm } & =\text { also } & \text { look-know.how } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'(He) knows how to read palms, as well.' Or 'He is able to read palms, as well.'
(b) chíthaúng tú tapaúkhàmā (25:128)

| chíthaúng | tú | tapaúk-hà | $=\mathrm{mā}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bag | language | speak-know.how | $=$ RLS |

'The bag knows how to speak.' Or 'The bag can speak.'

The term hà has other functions as well. It is used to mark a customary or habitual action. Habituality is defined as "...a situation which is characteristic of an extended period of time-so extended, in fact, that the situation referred to is viewed not as an incidental property of the moment but precisely as a characteristic feature of a whole period" (Comrie 1976:27-28). In English, habituality includes two types: present and past. E.g., 'He goes to the office' and 'He used to go to the office'. The former indicates that the event is taking place regularly at speech time and beyond. The latter, however,
indicates that the event was a customary action in the past but it no longer holds true at speech time. Kadu, unlike English, does not distinguish present and past habituality.

The only way to make the present and past habituality distinction is to use a time adverbial phrase like talìnghā 'last year', as in (543b).
(543) (a) hīng mandalaypà nāngmā (AKYS)

| hīng | mandalay | $=$ pà nāng-hà | $=$ mā |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG | PN | =ALL | go-know.how | $=$ RLS |

'He goes/used to go to Mandalay.'
(b) talìnghā hīng mandalaypà nāngmā (AKYS)

| talìnghā | hīng | mandalay | = pà | nāng-hà $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| last.year | 3 SG | PN | = ALL | go-know.how $=$ RLS |

'Last year, he went/used to go to Mandalay.' (but not anymore)

The interpretation of hà as either as a modal auxiliary or a marker of habituality is pragmatically determined. Consider the examples in (544).
(544) (a) kweú ngaúkà shīshīpalíq yōkhàlakàé (08:62)
kweú ngaúkà shīshī-palíq yōk-hà = lakà =é
monkey as.for fruit-ATTW eat-know.how $=$ MIR $=$ SAP
'Monkeys eat fruit (from time to time)'. Or 'The monkey knows how to eat fruit.'
(b) hīng mandalaypà nānghàmā (AKYS)

| hīng | mandalay | $=$ pà nāng-hà | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SG | PN | $=$ LOC go-know.how | $=$ RLS |

'He goes to Mandalay (from time to time).' Or 'He knows how to go to Mandalay.'

Unlike temporary habitual action with hà, ngomic situations, "events that are regarded as timeless because they hold true for all time, but they still can be regarded as in effect at the moment of speech" (Bybee, Perkins et al. 1994:141), are expressed with the realis CFP $m \bar{a}$, as illustrated in (545).
(545) (a) cī súkmā
cī súk =mā
dog bark = RLS
'Dogs bark.'
(b) tamìsā atá yōkmā
tamìsā atá yōk =mā
people food eat = RLS
'People eat/ate food.'

The question, "Does the referent have an obligation to do the action mentioned by the predicate?" is answered by the modal thà, glossed as 'must'. It denotes compulsion, permission, and obligation. The modal thà has an identical form with the copula thà, however synchronically it is not the copula, as there are cases where the copula thà is followed by the modal thà, as in (546c). When the modal thà is followed by the irrealis marker $k \bar{u}$ it indicates a strong suggestion or compulsion, as in (546).
(546) (a) nāng nāngthàkū (07:19)

| nāng | nāng-thà | $=k \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 SG | go-must | $=$ IRLS |

'You must go.'
(b) naká zōkshīwaleú lāthàkūták ngatè (15:93)

| naká | zōkshī-waleú lā-thà | $=k \bar{u}=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dragon | breast-liquid take-must | $=$ IRLS $=$ HS |

'(You) must bring dragon's milk, it is said.'
(c) céttaú thàthàkū (10:48)
céttaú thà -thà $=k \bar{u}$
PN be -must $=$ IRLS
'(It) must be Cettau.'

However, when it is followed by the realis marker mā, it simply denotes a strong obligation which can be translated as 'must' or 'have to', as in (547).
(547) (a) haúk ōmthàmā (40:35)
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { haúk } & \text { öm-thà } & =m \bar{a} \\ \text { hill.field } & \text { make-must } & =\text { RLS }\end{array}$
'We have to cultivate the hill field.'
(b) maūtékkatú sèktàk àngpè līthàmā (11:9)
maūtékkatú sèk -tàk àng =pè lī-thà $=m a \bar{a}$
PN Kadu person -PL that = LOC come-must = RLS
'The Mauteik Kadu have to come to that place.'

The question, "Does the referent have the desire or willingness to do the action expressed in the predicate?" is answered by the modal kák ${ }^{28}$ or haút. Both are glossed as 'want' and they can be used interchangeably in many cases to denote a desiderative

[^22]meaning. However, kát is used more frequently than haút. They both can be translated into English as 'want to V'. The modal kák is illustrated in (548).
(a) aswē hāhángyeúnnaà heúkāàngkákmā (09:1)
\[

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { aswē hàháng = yeún = naà } & \text { heú-kā-àng-kák } & =\text { mā }  \tag{548}\\
\text { friend Kachin }=\text { BEN }=\text { only } & \text { tell-show-DIR } 1 \text {-want } & =\text { RLS } \\
\text { 'I want to tell (the story) for (my) Kachin friend.' }
\end{array}
$$
\]

(b) tángngà yōkkákmā (26:4)
tángngà yōk-kák =mā
fish eat-want = RLS
'(I) want to eat fish.'

The desire for food, water and to do something is expressed by the modal haút ${ }^{29}$. The examples in (549) exemplify the desiderative construction with haút.
(549) (a) atá yōkhaútpìng maūng ngaká (18:7)
atá yōk-haút = píng maūng ngā =ká
rice eat-want $=\mathrm{DIR}_{2}: \operatorname{COS}$ boy $1 \mathrm{SG}=$ TOP
'I am hungry.' (Lit. Boy! I am hungry)
(b) weú yōkhaútnā (AKYS)
weú yōk-haút =mā
water eat-want $=$ RLS
'(I) am thirsty.'

The question, "Does the referent have the ability to do the action expressed by the predicate?" is answered by the modal yeūn, glossed as 'can'. It is also not relatable to a

[^23]lexical meaning. Unlike hà in (542), which indicates referent's learned ability, it denotes semantic notions such as physical ability or capability, as in (550).
(550) (a) azàk taípītè náyeūnpán (07:97)
\[

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { azàk taípī = tè ná-yeūn } & \text { = pán } \\
\text { PN country }=\text { A.AG } & \text { win-can } & =\operatorname{COS} \\
\text { '(We) can win the Kadu kingdom.' }
\end{array}
$$
\]

(b) hīng cíng ceúyeūnnā (AKYS)
hīng cíng ceú-yeūn =mā

3SG letter read-can = RLS
'He can read the letter.'
(c) leúzíyeū tayā lūtayeūnnā (13:60)

| leú-zíyeū-tayā | lū-ta-yeūn | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ox.cart-CLF.cart-one.hundred | offer-L.SUFF-can | $=$ RLS |

'(He) can offer a hundred ox carts.'

It also denotes the semantic notion of permissibility, as in (551).
(551) nāng pūháng sāngháng ōmyeūnnā (07:54)
nāng pū-háng sāng-háng ōm-yeūn =mā
2SG emerge-back enter-back make-can = RLS
'You may/can freely go in and out of my palace.'

### 7.2.3.2 Epistemic modality

The question, "What is the speaker's assessment of the likelihood of the action mentioned by the predicate?" may be answered in several ways. One structure is to use
the copula followed by the modal thà 'must' and the realis kū. See the examples in (546). The auxiliary verbs māt 'truly' and pheú 'suppose', which also have epistemic meanings, are discussed in $\S 7.2 .1 .6$. The auxilary $l \bar{u}$, which is relatable to the lexical verb $l \bar{u}$ 'get' or 'obtain' also has an epistemic sense. Consider the examples in (552). Example (552a) illustrates $l \bar{u}$ as the main verb of the clause, whereas example (552b) illustrates the word $l \bar{u}$ as a modal auxiliary with an epistemic meaning.


| sā | lū-àng | $=m \bar{a}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| son | get-DIR |  |
|  | $=$ RLS |  |

'She got pregnant.' (Lit. She got a child)
(b) hinng shímásà hinng ēktè lālūkū (15:81)

| hīng | shí $=$ másà | hīng | ēk | = tè | lā-lū | $=$ kū |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SG | die | $=$ only.if | 3 SG | wife | =A.AG | take-get |

'It is probable that he will take the wife when he dies.'

Reduplication of ning (§11.1.6) following a VCX also has an epistemic reading, which may be interpreted in English as 'seems to be', or 'looks like', as illustrated in (553).
(553) (a) hīng zaūknīngnīng (AKYS)
hīng zaūk = nīng =nīng
3sg tall =manner = REDUP
'He seems tall.’
(b) anáq nayánīngnīng (AKYS)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { anáq nayá }=\text { nīng } & =\text { nīng } \\
\text { this new }=\text { manner } & =\text { REDUP } \\
\text { 'It looks new.' } &
\end{array}
$$

### 7.3 Aspectual particles

Five verbal particles that indicate aspectual meaning are tún/yún 'still', yók 'intrusive’, zík 'finally’ and pán 'change of state’. Syntactically the particles tún and zík occur in the same slot as $m \bar{a}$ 'realis' and $k \bar{u}$ 'irrealis' in the VCX. However, with the particles yók and pán the irrealis marker kū may follow to indicate irrealis situation.

The particles tún/yún have similar functions to Burmese 60: [thei:](thei:), and the use of yók and zîk are similar to Burmese $3_{i}^{\circ}$ [um:](um:) and 60 s <to.> respectively. The functions of these particles in Burmese are best explained by Okell (1979). Okell, adopting Michael Morrissey's (1973) view, pointed out that these morphemes, similar to 'still', 'yet' and 'anymore' in English, "have to do with a primary time of reference, often 'now', and an implied secondary time, which is previous to the first" (Okell 1976:69). Adapting Okell's approach, I will use symbols $\Omega$ and $\Delta$ to represent two time frames and occurrence or non-occurrence of a situation is symbolised as ' + ' and ' - ' respectively. Quoting exmples from Okell (1976), for example 'Mr. Jones is still tampering with the lock' was represented as $+\Omega+\Delta$, which includes both 'Mr. Jones is (now) tampering $(+\Omega)^{\prime}$, and 'Mr. Jones was (previously) tampering $(+\Delta)$ '. Similarly, 'Mr. Jones isn't tampering with the lock anymore' can be represented as $-\Omega+\Delta$ : $-\Omega$ 'he
is not tampering (now)', and $+\Delta$ 'he was tampering (previously)'. Each aspectual particle that relates two time frames in Kadu is discussed in the following sections.
7.3.1 pán 'change of state’

The CFP pán, glossed as 'change of state (COS)', marks a change of state or situation. This concept of cos may be unusual in European languages, however, it is well attested in Southeast and East Asian languages (Wheatley 1982:220). This particle pán, like 纶 <pri> in Burmese, indicates that at the moment of speaking the point of realisation of the action or state indicated by the verb has been reached (Allot 1965:289). It may be translated as with a sense of inchoative meaning 'already' in English. In this section, I will use the Greek ahphabets omega $(\Omega)$ and delta $(\Delta)$ to resprents two time frames, present and past respectively. This change of situation in positive clauses with pán may be represented as $+\Omega-\Delta$, and conversely, $-\Omega+\Delta$ in negative clauses. Clauses with the CFP pán are illustrated in (554). For the expressions of $-\Omega-\Delta$ and $+\Omega+\Delta$ in Kadu see also $m \bar{a}$ 'realis' (§7.1.1) and $k \bar{u}$ 'irrealis' (§7.1.2).
(554) (a) yatéq līpán (13:64)
yatéq lī =pán
hermit come $=\operatorname{COS}$
'The hermit has come.' or 'The hermit is coming.'
(b) Síngngeútshī cúnpè thōkpán (12:61)
síngngeút-shī cún =pè thōk = pán
fig-CLT.fruit island $=$ LOC arrive $=\operatorname{COS}$
'(He) reached fig tree island.'
(c) ngatè haláng atūngākpán (06:30)

| ngā | $=$ tè | haláng | a-tūngāk | $=$ pán |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $1 S G$ | = A.AG | head | NEG-bow | $=\operatorname{COS}$ |

'(He) no longer bows his head to me.'
(d) amúká alīhángpán (15:38)
amú =ká a-lī-háng =pán brother $=$ TOP NEG-come-back $=C O S$ '(The) older brother did not come back.'

General affirmative responses to questions such as "has it/s/he v-ed?" in Kadu would be sentences like those just mentioned above. The implication can be made from the examples in (554) that at the time of speaking, the anticipated action has finally come to fulfillment and the activity is now in progress. Therefore translation to render this construction in English would be "has V-ed’, or 'is V-ed." For example with a process like cook or ripen: 'has cooked/is cooked' or 'has ripened/is ripe'.
pán may occur both with stative and dynamic verbs. When it occurs with stative verbs like katùng 'see', and míngsàhà 'know', it indicates the situation has entered into a new stage or state at the speech time. For example, compare the two examples below.
(555) (a) phú nátcípanáqtè katùngmā (17:42)
phú nát-cí $=$ paná $q=$ tè katùng $=m \bar{a}$
silver use-PL $=$ NOM $=\mathrm{A} . A G$ see $=$ RLS
'(I) see/saw (people) spending money.'
(b) húng nát ngaúkà katùngpánták (07:101)

| húng | nát | ngaúkà | katùng $=$ pán $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PN | spirit | as.for | see $=\operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}$ |

'The Hung spirit saw (the people who are in trouble), it is said.'

Example (555a) simply states that the entity has seen or sees a situation (people spending money). However, (555b) indicates a change of state from a non-seeing stage to seeing stage. Similar situations can be also exemplified by the verb of knowing, as in (556).
(556) (a) hīng míngsàhàmā

| hīng | míngsàhà | $=\mathrm{mā}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG | know | $=$ RLS |

'He knows.'
(b) hinng míngsàhàpán
hīng míngsàhà = pán
3SG know = COS
'He knows (it now).' (He didn’t know before.)

However, when the cos pán is used with action verbs, it has a different semantic interpretation. Unlike with stative verbs, it denotes the meaning of 'now, it has started/begun to V' or 'now it is V-ing'. Consider the examples in (557). Depending on the context, clauses with pán may indicated imminent action.
(557) (a) sāngpaláng līpán (06:9)

$$
\left.\begin{array}{lll}
\text { sāngpaláng } \quad \text { lī } \quad \text { pán } \\
\text { king } & \text { come }=\text { cos }
\end{array}\right] \begin{aligned}
& \text { 'The king has come.' Or 'The king is coming.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) atá yōkpán
atá yōk = pán
rice eat $=\cos$
'(I) have eaten.' Or '(I) have started eating rice.'
pán is also often employed in order to express the idea of one action immediately followed by another, see sequential clauses in 11.1.5.

### 7.3.2 tún/yún ‘still’

The particles tún and yún, glossed as 'sTILL', are in complementary distribution. The former occurs with positive situations and the latter occurs with negative situations. See the examples in (558a) and (558b) respectively.
(558) (a) maléq ōmtún hātún yōktún ayweù (17:44)
maléq ōm =tún hā =tún yōk =tún ayweù
1PL make $=$ STILL walk = STILL eat = STILL age
'We are still active/strong.' (Lit. We who are in the age of still working, walking and eating.)
(b) tángngàtèká ayōkàngyún (26:12)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { tángngà } & =\text { tè } & =\text { ká } & \\
\text { a-yōk-àng } & =\text { yún } \\
\text { fish } & =\text { A.AG } & =\text { TOP } & \\
\text { NEG-eat-DIR } & =\text { STLL }
\end{array}
$$

'(I) still haven't eaten the fish (yet).'

Syntactically, they appear in the same position as CFPS. A clause which ends with tún indicates an action/state that was previously occuring and is still occuring at the reference time "now." This situation may be respresented as $+\Omega+\Delta$. The examples in (559) illustrate clauses with the particle tún.
(559) (a) sapùká lùpán mínwúttasà lōtatún (08:79)

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { sapù }=\text { ká lū } & =\text { pán } & \text { mínwúttasà lō-ta } & =\text { tún } \\
\text { horse } & =\text { TOP get } & =\operatorname{COS} & \text { royal.dress } & \text { need-L.SUFF }
\end{array} \text { =STLLL }
$$

'(I) got the horse, (I was needing the royal dress) (I) still need the royal dress now.'
(b) tamìsāyaà zátúnlá (24:15)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { tamìsā }=\text { yaà } & \text { zá } & =\text { tún } & \text { = lá } \\
\text { human }=\text { EUPH } & \text { alive } & =\text { STLLL } & =\text { Q }
\end{array}
$$

'(the person was alive previously,) Is the person still alive?'

Conversely, a clause which ends with yún indicates a situation which had not occured previously and has still not occurred now. It may be represented as $-\Omega-\Delta$. The examples in (560) illustrate clauses with the particle yún.
(560) (a) tamìsā ashíyún (24:18)
tamìsā a-shí = yún
human $\quad$ NEG-die $=$ STILL
'(The person hadn't died previously,) and hasn't died yet.'
(b) ayōkàngyín (26:7)
a-yōk-àng = yún
NEG-eat-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ STILL
'(He didn't eat previously.) He hasn't eaten yet.'

Example (560b) can be read as implying 'the preceding not +V -ing (not eating) and further continuation of the same action. The meaning of the sentence may be understood as '(though the time has come for him to eat), he has not eaten yet'.

### 7.3.3 yók 'intrusive' or 'interruptive'

The particle yók, glossed as 'INTRUSIVE', indicates an intrusive or interrupting situation. This particle informs the hearer that an action or situation that is going to take place is a new, intrusive, and mostly a temporary situation. The previous action or situation (usually inferred from context) may resume shortly. Look at the example in (561). This example was taken from the context of a Kadu speaker who was on his way to a paddy field when a fake monk invited him to come to do palmistry.
(561) līphángyók nāng tākpásà kámàkà yūwàngthàmā (07:31)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { lī-pháng } & =\text { yók } \\
\text { come-prior } & =\text { INTRUSIVE }
\end{array}
$$

$\begin{array}{llll}\text { nāng } & \text { tākpá-sà } & \text { kámàkà yū-àng } & =\text { thāmā } \\ 2 \mathrm{SG} & \text { palm-DIM } & \text { so.on look-DIR }{ }_{1} & =\text { HORT }\end{array}$
'Come here first. Let's do palmistry.' (Later you can continue your journey).

The clause with yók may be interpreted in English as 'I've been working/doing this for some time, and now I will do something else and may continue that later'. It occurs only in future non-realised situations. Therefore, it can be followed by the CFP $k \bar{u}$ 'irrealis' but hasn't been attested occurring with other CFPs such as mā and the ASP pán. Consider the examples in (562). (562a) is grammatical, but (562b) and (562c) are not.
(562) (a) sapáksà mōkīpín sèktè chaúngtayókkū (15:54)

| sapáksà | mōk-1̄ | = pín sèk = tè |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dish | cook-give | $=\mathrm{NOM}$ person $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$ |
| chaúng-ta | = yók | $=\mathrm{ku}$ |
| spy-L.SUFF | $=$ INTRUSIVE | $=\mathrm{IRLS}$ |

'I will spy on the one who cooked dish/curry (for me).'
(b) *chaúngtayókmā

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { chaúng-ta } & =\text { yók } & =\text { mā } \\
\text { spy-L.SUFF } & =\text { INTRUSIVE } & =\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

(c) *chaúngtayókpán

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { chaúng-ta } & =\text { yók } & =\text { pán } \\
\text { spy-L.SUFF } & =\text { INTRUSIVE } & =\operatorname{COS}
\end{array}
$$

The particle yók cannot occur together with the negative clitic =á. However, it may be preceded by the negative imperative clitic $=$ sà (§10.2) to indicate an action or situation on hold which may be translated in English as 'do not V it yet'. When yók follows the negative imperative enclitic =sà, they are fused into a single phonological unit. The rule is sà + yók $>$ shók. See the illustrations in (563).
(563) (a) ínyōkshóklé (09:77)
ín-yōk-shók = lé
NEG-eat-NEG.IMP:INTRUSIVE = SAP
'Don't eat me yet.'
(b) ngātè atánshíshók (15:61)

$$
\begin{array}{rll}
\text { ngā } & =\text { tè } & \\
\text { 1SG } & =\text { atán-shí-shók } \\
\text { NEG-beat-die-NEG.IMP:INTRUSIVE }
\end{array}
$$

'Don't kill/beat me to death yet.'
7.3.4 zík 'finally'

The term zík, glossed as 'FINALLY', adds the meaning of finality to the predicate. This particle informs the hearer that the action that is going to take place is the final one or something in contrast to the previous action/state. Similar to the particle yók, it informs the hearer of some action to take place but also implies the meaning 'you've been doing this for some time, and finally you have to do that'. Clauses with the particle zík are shown in (564).
(564) (a) atá yōkcízík (15:12)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { atá yōk-cí = zík } \\
& \text { rice eat-PL = FINALLY } \\
& \text { '(Now,) eat the food.' (We have been walking for many hours) }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) kōhángpè zángàngzík (30:5)
kōnháng =pè záng-àng =zík
basket $\quad=$ LOC put.in-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ FINALLY
'Add (it) to the basket.' (It has been kept outside for two to three days).
(c) yàkká weú zángìngzík (30:65)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { yàk } & =\text { ká weú záng-ìng } & =\text { zík } \\
\text { now } & =\text { TOP water } & \text { put.in-DIR } & 2
\end{array} \text { = FINALLY }
$$

'Now, add the water.' (We have been making other preparations)

The particle zík, like yók, cannot occur together with the negative proclitic =á. However, it may be preceded by the negative imperative enclitic $=s a ̀(\S 10.2)$. When zík follows the negative imperative enclitic $=$ sà, like sà + yók $>$ shók, they are fused together into a single phonological unit. The rule is sà + zík $>$ shík. See the illustrations in (565).
(565) (a) azaúnzónshîk (18:105)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { a-zaún-zón } & =\text { shík } \\
\text { NEG-follow.after-CONTINUE }=\text { NEG.IMP:FINALLY } \\
\text { 'Don't continue to follow after.' }
\end{array}
$$

(b) wāntè azūteúpmàngshík (30:64)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { wān } & =\text { tè } & \text { a-zū-teúp-àng } & =\text { shík } \\
\text { fire } & =\text { A.AG } & \text { NEG-burn-throw-DIR } & =\text { NEG.IMP:FINALLY }
\end{array}
$$

'Stop burning the fire.'

### 7.4 Utterance final particles

Utterance final particles include the particles lá 'question', ták 'hearsay' and laká~ lamà 'mirative'. Structurally, they indicate utterances as questions, reported speech or miratives (suprise or unexpected situations). Syntactically, they follow the VCX and may be phonologically bound with the preceding CFPs. For example, when the hearsay
marking particle ták occurs following the realis CFP $m \bar{a}, m \bar{a}$ is reduced to a minor syllable, thus forming the sesquisyllabic word maták [mətak] 'realis-hearsay'. However, structurally they are outside of the verb complex and may also appear following noun phrases.

### 7.4.1 Hearsay marking

We have already discussed in $\S 7.1 .2$ that the realis marker $m \bar{a}$ is employed to express an event that really happened or is happening. However, no grammatical marking has been attested to indicate events as eye-witnessed in Kadu. The same marker mā 'realis' may be employed to indicate a situation that is either eye witnessed or is indisputable common knowledge.

If the situation expressed by the main verb is not the speaker's first hand knowledge, the term ták, glossed as 'hearsay (HS)', is obligatorily attached to the VCX following the CFP. We may analyse it as evidential marking, which "... refers to the grammatical marking of the source of evidence for a proposition ..." (Delancey 2001). It may be interpreted as an indirect evidential marker as it indicates the proposition is reported speech or hearsay. Sentences with the term ták are illustrated in (566).
(566) (a) hīngká pòkhápà nāngmaták (15:29)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { hīng }=\text { ká pòkhá = pà nāng }=\text { mā = ták } \\
& 3 \text { SG }=\text { TOP forest =ALL go }=\text { RLS }=\text { HS }
\end{aligned}
$$

'He went to the forest, it is said.'
(b) ngātèká tánshíkūták (15:109)
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { ngā } & =\text { tè }=\text { ká tán-shí } & =\text { kū }=\text { ták } \\ \text { 1SG } & =\text { A.AG }=\text { TOP beat-die } & & =\text { IRLS }=\text { HS }\end{array}$
'(The king) will kill me, it is said.'
(c) ēk kalìnghú ngāpánták (15:113)

| ēk | kalìng-hú | ngā | $=$ pán $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wife | two-CLF.person | exist | $=\operatorname{COS}=$ HS |

'(He) now has two wives, it is said.'
(d) ēktèká aphákáták (15:9)
ēk = tè = ká a-phák =á =ták
wife = A.AG $=$ TOP NEG-divorce $=$ NEG $=\mathrm{HS}$ '(He) didn't divorce (his) wife, it is said.'
ták can also occur following a nominal predicate, as in (567a), or a time adverbial phrase, as in (567b).
(567) (a) wíqpatùpáqtákyeù heúyàngmā (05:6)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { wíqpatùpáq }=\text { ták }=\text { yeù } & \text { heú-àng } & =\text { mā } \\
\text { PN } & =\text { HS }=\text { SAP } & \text { tell-DIR } & =\text { RLS } \\
\text { '(He) told (them), (it is) "Wipadupa", it is said.' } &
\end{array}
$$

(b) maeúeútóngták sā kalìnghú ngāmaták (16:1)
maeúeútóng $=$ ták $s \bar{a} \quad$ kalìng-hú ngā $=m \bar{a}=$ ták
long.long.ago $=$ HS son two-CLF.person exist $=$ RLS $=$ HS
'Long ago, it is said, there were two sons, it is said.'
7.4.2 Mirative

The terms lakà ~ lakaú and lamà are interchangeably used to indicate when the situation expressed by the main verb, usually first hand knowledge, is an unexpected one for the speaker. Analogous to the hortative (§7.1.3) and imperative (§7.1.4), the default time reference for the mirative expression is the moment of speaking. Clauses that contain the mirative markers lakà and lamà are illustrated in (568). The example in (568b) was taken from a story about a giant mythical snake. In that story, during the night the snake would come out from its skin and become a man. He then expressed his love to one of the widow's daughters and entered into his skin before dawn. One night the widow found the skin and burned it down. When the snake-man came back, to his surprise, he didn't find his skin.
(568) (a) cī chēyāhaìng kaūngpeúpánlaká (12:55)
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { cī chēyā } & \text { = haìng } & \text { kaūng-peú } & \text { = pán }=\text { lakà } \\ \operatorname{dog} & \text { footprint } & =\text { exclusive } & \text { step.on-keep } & =\operatorname{COS}=\text { MIR }\end{array}$ 'Stepped all over, leaving a dog's foot prints only.'
(b) "ngā salēká ínpòpán lamà" (23:12)
ngā salē = ká ín-pò = pán = lamà
1SG leather $=$ TOP NEG-exist $=\operatorname{COS} \quad=$ MIR
'My skin/leather exists no longer.'

The terms lakà and lamà are also attested occurring immediately after NPs. These particles occurring with nominals indicate an expression as explanatory, which may be glossed as 'of course' or 'after all'. See example (569a). It was taken from a story where the king ordered his officials to bring someone. The one brought before him
unexpectedly happened to be his younger brother. All my language consultants said that the term lamà can be replaced by lakà, as in (569b), with no difference in interpretation.

| (569) (a) | ngā nashīlamà (15:75) | (b) | ngā nashī lakà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ngā nashī = lamà |  | ngā nashī = lakà |
|  | 1SG younger. brother $=$ MIR |  | 1SG younger.brother $=$ MIR |
|  | '(It's) my younger brother.' |  | '(It's) my younger brother.' |

## CHAPTER 8: THE CLAUSE

We have already looked at various elements that make up the verb complex (VCX) in Chapter 7. In that chapter, it was indicated that the VCX itself in Kadu can be a meaningful clause. In this chapter, I will examine consituent order in the clause (§8.1), different predicate clauses (§8.2) and complementation (§8.3). Interrogative and negative clauses will be discussed in Chapters 9 and 10 respectively, and subordinate clauses in Chapter 11.

### 8.1 Constituent order

Although Kadu has been in contact with Shan, a verb medial language, for many years and the Kadu lexicon includes many Shan loanwords, its basic word order is consistently verb final. A clause may be a VCX alone or may contain a single NP or several NPs. NPs are optionally followed by nominal relational markers (see Chapter 6) which express semantic case-marking and topic marking. The structure of the noun phrase has been discussed in Chapter 4. The arguments of the clause are often absent if they are retrievable from the context. They are syntactically present when needed for disambiguation. Therefore, the presence and order of NPs in the Kadu clause is, as in Chinese, to signal pragmatic factors rather than grammatical relations (LaPolla 1995:297; 2002). Consider the examples in (570).
(a) sāngpaláng nāngtè tánshíkū (15:89)

| sāngpaláng | nāng | $=$ tè | tán-shí | $=k \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| king | 2SG | =A.AG | beat-die | $=$ IRLS |

'The king will kill/beat you to death.'
(b) nāngtè nga yōkkū (09:26)

| nāng $=$ tè | ngā | yōk | $=$ kū |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2 S G \quad=A . A G$ | $1 S G$ | eat | $=$ IRLS |
| 'I will eat you.' |  |  |  |

The structure with the agent NP preceding the patient NP is illustrated in (570a). The order of agent and patient NP arguments is reversed in (570b). In (570b) the agent of the verb, $n g \bar{a}$ ' 1 SG ', occurs in the focal position immediately before the verb. Therefore, we can say that the NPS within the clause have pragmatically determined ordering, as in agent $>$ patient $>\mathrm{VCX}$ ordering in (570a) and patient $>$ agent $>\mathrm{VCX}$ ordering in (570b). The position of arguments within the clause is rather determined by information structure. This is true of arguments of ditransitive verbs as well. See the discussion of ditransitive verbs in §3.1.2.3.3.

Post-verbal constituents are not generally found in careful speech. However, they are attested in narrative texts that were recorded without prior discussion of what will be recorded. Generally, arguments which occur after the VCX as afterthought constituents are less prominent and are often recoverable from the context. Afterthought constituents generally serve as reminders or clarifications of the arguments. Either the agentive NP, as in (571a), the anti-agentive NP, as in (571b), or both NPS can occur as afterthoughts, as in (571c). Afterthought constituents are presented in $\}$ brackets.
(571) (a) hīng sapùtè kasúmpeúlakà hīngká (08:112)
hīng sapù $=$ tè kasúm-peú $=$ lakà $\{\text { hīng }=\text { ká }\}_{\text {AGENT }}$
3SG horse $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$ hide-keep $=\mathrm{MIR} 3 \mathrm{SG}=$ TOP
'As for him, he hid the horse.'
(b) ngāyí katùngkákmā àngpanáq samóntè (07:48)

$$
\text { ngā }=\text { yí } \quad \text { katùng-kák }=\mathrm{mā} \quad\{\text { àng }=\text { panáq } \quad \text { samón }=\text { tè }\}_{\text {PATIENT }}
$$

$1 \mathrm{SG}=$ also see-want $=$ RLS that $=$ NOM monk $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$
'I also want to see the monk.'
(c) anyeù thók thókyeù ōmànglakà hīngká tātmítè (18:32)

| an-yeù | thók | thók yeù | ōm-àng | $=$ lakà |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| DEM-manner | ONMT | REDUP SAP | make- DIR $_{1}$ | $=$ MIR |

$\{\text { hīng }=\text { ká }\}_{\text {AGENT }} \quad\{\text { tātmí }=\text { tè }\}_{\text {PATIENT }}$
$3 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{TOP} \quad$ torch $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$
'In this manner, he shook the torch "Thok ,Thok."'

### 8.2 Clause types

Three clause types are discussed, presented in the following order: 8.2.1 Nominal predicate clauses, 8.2.2 Verbal predicate clauses, and 8.2.3 Relative clauses.

### 8.2.1 Nominal predicate clauses

In nominal predicate clauses, a noun functions as the main predicate. It totally lacks a verb or verbal elements altogether. It usually occurs as two NPs with nothing in between. The second NP functions as the main predicate. Languages like English require the copula verb to be used with nominal predicates as in 'John is a teacher'. However, it
has been attested crosslinguistically that other languages use a noun as the predicate without any sort of copula or verbal elements. It is also attested in Burmese, as in (572).

thu ka. lu so:
3SG SUB person bad
'He is a bad person.'

thu kjaun: hsaya
3SG school teacher
'He is a school teacher.'

Kadu nominal clauses, like the Burmese examples above, are attributive clauses, as in (573) or equational clauses, as in (574).
(a) hing thinggsací
(b) hīng ósací
hīng thīng-sací hīng ósací
3SG village-chief
'He is a chieftain.'
3SG teacher
'He is a teacher.'
(a) hīngamúká phákhūlū lakaúé (15:27)
hīng amú = ká phákhūlū = lakaú =é
3 SG brother $=\mathrm{TOP} \quad$ PN $\quad=\mathrm{MIR}=\mathrm{SAP}$
'His older brother is Phakulu.'
(b) hīng nashīká phúlìthaū lakaúé (15:27)

| hīng nashī = ká phúlūthaū | $=$ lakaú | $=$ é |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG younger.brother = TOP PN | = MIR | $=$ SAP |
| 'His younger brother was Phuluthau.' |  |  |

The topic marker, ká (§6.1), in (574a) is optional. It is often employed to disambiguate a free NP from a possessive NP (§4.1.2). If the context is clear to the speaker and hearer,
it is not necessary to insert it. We have already discussed that there is no overt marking on possessor or possessee in Kadu (§4.1.2).

Nominal predicate clauses are also frequently attested with locative predicates, as in (575).
(a) hīng yangonpè
hīng yangon $=$ pè
3SG PN $=$ LOC
'He is in Yangon.'
(b) hīng címpè
hīng cím = pè
3 SG house $=$ LOC
'He is at home.'

### 8.2.2 Verbal predicate clauses

The verbal predicate clause has a verb as the head of the clause. Independent or main clauses are marked by CFPS (§7.1) and aspectual particles (§7.2.2). Subordinate clauses are marked by subordinate markers in the same position. Subordinate clauses will be discussed in §11.1. We have also discussed patient arguments marked by the antiagentive marker (A.AG) tè to distinguish the patient argument from the agent (§6.2). However, if the patient argument is an inanimate referent, tè is optional. In Kadu arguments, either agent, patient or recipient, need not be overtly stated when they are recoverable from the context. Verb classes that can take patient arguments are presented in §3.1.2.3.1. Verbs that do not take a patient argument are presented in §3.1.2.3.2. And also verbs that can take patient and goal or recipient arguments are discussed in §3.1.2.3.3. Since most of the examples in this thesis have verbal predicates, I have not given examples in this section.

### 8.2.3 Relative clauses

Relative clauses in Kadu precede the head noun. There is no relative pronoun, such as 'who' or 'whom' (which signals animate actor and undergoer in English), in Kadu. Clausal nomination and relative clauses overlap in Kadu. The same nominaliser panáq (§3.1.1.2.10) is used in the relative clause construction. Andrews (2007:206) defines relative clauses in the following way. "A relative clause is a subordinate clause which delimits the reference of an NP by specifying the role of the referent of that NP in the situation described by the relative clause." We have discussed lexical nominalisation in §3.1.1.2.10. In that section, I discussed that a noun may be derived by attaching the term panáq $\sim$ pín to the VCX , the term tìng to a bare verb (§3.1.1.2.10), or by infixation of -al- (§3.2.5) to a monosyllabic verb. In this section, we will be looking at clausal nomination.

Relative clauses may indicate restrictive function-either specific or non-specific. The specific restrictive relative clause is signalled by the absence of the realis CFP $m \bar{a}$ and the non-specific restrictive relative clause is indicated by the presence of the irrealis maker $k \bar{u}$. Compare the two examples in (576).
(a) hīng nímpanáq nēyāpèká (07:84)

| $[$ [hīng ním | $=$ panáq $]_{\mathrm{RL}}$ | nēyā $]_{\mathrm{NP}}=$ pè $=$ ká |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SG | stay | $=$ NOM | place $=$ LOC $=$ TOP |

(b) īpkūpanáq nayā (18:8)
(Non-specific)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
{[\bar{i} p} & =k \bar{u} \quad=\text { panáq }]_{\mathrm{RL}} & \text { nēyā}]_{\mathrm{NP}} \\
\text { sleep }=\mathrm{RLS}=\mathrm{NOM} & \text { place } \\
\text { 'a sleeping place' or 'a place (where we) will sleep' }
\end{array}
$$

In (576a) the relative clause has a specific restrictive function where the speaker is indicating a specific place-"the place." However, in (576b) as the irrealis CFP is inserted and so the relative clause has a non-specific restrictive function indicating an indefinite place-"any place" for sleeping.

Multiple relative clauses may modify the same head noun. For example, the example in (577) contains two clauses modifying the head noun tāngkaū 'sword'.
(577) hamántàk īpeúpanáq alōlōsà paūzíngpanáq tāngkaūtóngyaúk
yēkwányōkmaták (15:22)

| [[hamán-tàk ī-peú spirit-PL give-keep | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { panáq }] \\ & =\text { NOM } \end{aligned}$ | [alōlō-sà <br> itself-DIM | paū-zíng <br> show.up-JUSS | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { panáq] }]_{\mathrm{RL}} \\ & =\mathrm{NOM} \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tāngkaū-tóng $]_{\mathrm{NP}}=$ yaúk | yēk | wán-yōk | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | $=$ ták |
| sword -big = COM | hill.field | chop-eat | $=$ RLS | $=\mathrm{HS}$ |

'With the sword that was given by the spirits and that appeared by itself, (they) cultivate the land for their livihood.'

In the following example in (578), the head noun occurs after each modifying clause. The head noun of the relative clause funtions as the patient argument of the main verb zīman 'to plan'.
azàktè túktakūpanáq azīasīn pahōzītè phyáttakūpanáq azīasīntè hīngká zīmāntapán (07:23)

'He makes a plan for battle and a plan to destroy the drum and the Kadu (Asak) people.'

Relative clauses may also used with a non-restrictive function. In those cases, the relative clauses appears as appositional phrases, as illustrated in (579). Notice the example in (579a) is an afterthought sentence, therefore the topic NP appears after the verbal predicate.
(579) (a) phú ínlūyeùká aōmyeūná maléq ayànpín sèktàkká (17:31)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { phú ín-lū = yeù = ká a-ōm-yeūn =á } \\
& \text { silver } \text { NEG-get }=\text { SAP }=\text { TOP } \quad \text { NEG-make-can }=\text { NEG } \\
& {\left[\text { maléq }\left[[a y a ̀ n ~=~ p i ́ n ~]_{R L} \quad \text { sèk-tàk] }\right]_{N P} \quad=\right.\text { ká }} \\
& \text { 1PL poor }=\text { NOM person-PL }=\text { TOP }
\end{aligned}
$$

'We, the poor, without getting payment/money, can't work.'
(b) ací tóngpanáq nanù hákmā (AKYS)

| $[$ ací | $[[$ tóng | $=$ panáq $]$ | nanù $]]_{\mathrm{NP}}$ | hák |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| elephant | big | $=$ mō |  |  |
| animal | anim | roar | $=$ RLS |  |

'The elephant, the big animal, roars.'

The personal pronouns discussed in §3.2.3 usually do not occur as the head noun of a restrictive relative clause. However, nouns such as sèk 'person' and tamìsā 'other people' can take up this position. The term sèk occurs more frequently than tamìsā. See the illustrations given in (580).
(580) (a) matàk zíngyōkpanáq tamìsātè īyàngmaták (04:19)
matàk [[zíngyōk $=$ panáq] $]_{\mathrm{RL}}$ tamìsā] $]_{\mathrm{NP}}=$ tè $\overline{1}-$ àng $\quad=\mathrm{ma} \quad=$ ták
3PL order = NOM human =A.AG give-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ RLS $=\mathrm{HS}$
'They gave a servant girl (Lit. the ordered one), it is said.'

When the term sèk is used as the head noun of a relative clause, the relativising form pín occurs much more commonly than its alternate form panáq, as in (581).
(581) (a) alākákpín sèk (13:5)
$\begin{array}{lll}{[[\text { a-lā-kák }} & =\text { pín }]_{\mathrm{RL}} & \text { sèk }]_{\mathrm{NP}} \\ \text { NEG-take-want } & =\text { NOM } & \text { person }\end{array}$
'(A) jealous person' (Lit. a person who does not want)
(b) yēk wányōkpín sèk (13:14)
[yēk wán-yōk =pín $]_{\mathrm{RL}} \quad$ sèk $]_{\mathrm{NP}}$
hill.field chop-eat $=$ NOM person
'(A) farmer' (Lit. a person who cuts to eat)

The term sèk is often conventionalised to the point where a nominaliser panáq or pín is no longer required and it may alone function as a nominaliser, as in (582).

## (582) (a) láksamá ōmhàsèk láksamá ōm (17:14)

| $\left[\begin{array}{lll}\text { láksamá } & \text { ōm-hà } & \text { sèk }]_{\mathrm{NP}}\end{array}\right.$ | láksamá | ōm |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| carpenter | make-know.how | person | carpenter | make |
| '(people) who know carpentry, work as carpenters' |  |  |  |  |

(b) heūsèk heūyàmā (28:21)

| $[$ heū | sèk $]_{\mathrm{NP}}$ | heū-à | $=m \bar{a}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| borrow | person | borrow-EUPH | $=$ RLS | '(person/people) who borrows/borrow (paddy)'

(c) ēk thàsèkká ngaúmatákseùé (08:44)
$[\text { ēk thà } \quad \text { sèk }]_{\mathrm{NP}}=$ ká ngaú $=\mathrm{ma}=$ ták $=$ seùé
wife be person = TOP say = RLS = HS = SAP
'The wife said, it is said.' (Lit. The person who is his wife said, it is said.)

The head noun of relative clauses may be followed by nominal relational markers to indicate its semantic relationship with the main verb. For example, the head noun of a relative clause represents a location in (576a), an agent argument in (580b), and an antiagentive argument in (580a).

### 8.3 Complementation

This section examines complementation, particularly sentential complementation, in Kadu. Sentential complementation, according to Noonan (2007:59), involves a syntactic situation in which a sentence or a clause is an argument of a predicate. It may either function as the agentive or anti-agentive argument of that predicate. Three complement
types are discussed in the following sections: (a) embedded complement, (b) embedding with the particle yeù, and (c) nominalised complement.

### 8.3.1 Embedded clauses

In Kadu, independent finite clauses may be embedded as a complement of the main verb. The embedded clause as a complement of the main verb will appear as it is when it is used as an independent clause before a verbal predicate. Without overt marking on the complement clause, the main clause and complement clause are syntactically independent. This kind of embedding is common with direct quote complement of utterance verbs such as ngaú 'say' and heú 'tell'. Some cognition verbs such as teútpū 'hear' and mānták 'guess' can also take direct embedded clauses. The following examples illustrate embedding of finite declarative clauses, an irrealis clause in (583a), and a realis clause in (583b), as the quotation complement of the utterance verb ngaú 'say'. For clarity, embedded clauses are bracketed with $\}$.
(583) (a) zōkshīwaleú laīngthàkū ngaúmā (15:145)
\{zōkshī waleú lā-ìng-thà $=k \bar{u}\}$ ngaú $=m a \bar{a}$
breast liquid take-DIR 2 -must $=$ IRLS say $=$ RLS
'(He) said "(you) will have to bring dragon's milk."'
(b) tángngà yōkkákmā ngaúmā (26:4)

| $\{$ tángngà | yōk-kák | $=$ mā $\}$ ngaú | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fish | eat-want | $=$ RLS say | $=$ RLS |

'He said "(I) want to eat fish."'

The example in (584) illustrates an embedded clause with an utterance verb heú 'say'.
(584) katùngìngmā heúmā (08:120)
\{katùng-ìng $=m \bar{a}\}$ heú $=m \bar{a}$
see-DIR ${ }_{2}=$ RLS tell $=$ RLS
'He told (him) "(I) he saw (them)."'

An interrogative sentence may be embedded as a complement clause of the utterance verb zīngyū 'ask', as in (585)
nāng halá ngālá zīngyūmā (AKYS)
\{nāng halá ngā = lá\} zīngyū = mā
2SG husband exist $=\mathrm{Q}$ ask $=$ RLS
'(He) asked "do you have a husband?."'

### 8.3.2 Embedding clauses with yeù

Clauses that are embedded may be optionally marked by the particle yeù. Throughout this thesis I have glossed this morpheme as 'SAP' because it frequently occurs at the end of utterances like many speaker attitude particles (§3.3.5). However, this morpheme also often appears as a complementiser immediately following an embedded clause. See the illustrations in (586).
(586) (a) naká zōkshīwaleú lāthàkūyeù ngaúmaták (15:84)
\{naká zōkshī-waleú lā-thà $=k \bar{u}\}=$ yeù ngaú $=m \bar{a}=$ ták
dragon breast-liquid take-must $=$ IRLS $=$ SAP $\quad$ say $\quad=$ RLS $=$ HS '(He) said to (me) "(You) will have to bring dragon's milk."'
(b) túkháq thōknímpányeù hákmaták (13:25)

| $\{$ tókháq thōk-ním | $=$ pán $\}=$ yeù | hák $=$ mā $=$ ták |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| trouble | arrive-stay | $=\operatorname{COS}=$ SAP | shout $=$ RLS | $=H S$ | '(He) shouted, "(I) am in trouble", it is said.'

In the presence of the particle yeù, the main clause predicate can be dropped. This is particularly common with the utterance verbs ngaú 'say' and zinngyū 'ask', as illustrated in (587).
(587) (a) acíceū phúngtakó tóngmāyeù (ngaúmā) (07:7)
\{acíceù phóngtakó tóng $=m \bar{a}\}=$ yeù (ngaú $=m a \overline{)}$ )
extensively glory.power big = RLS = SAP say = RLS '(He said) that (the king) is so powerful.'
(b) ngayeún īkákláyeù (zīngyū mā) (08:108)


The insertion of yeù after a complement clause is necessary with other utterance verbs. This is illustrated using the verb peùt 'lie', as in (588).
(588) hīng míngsàhàmāyeúq peúttamā (AKYS)
\{hīng míngsàhà $=m \bar{a}\}=$ yeù peùt-ta $\quad=m a \overline{ }$
3SG know = RLS = SAP lie--L.SUFF = RLS
'(He) lied that he understood.'

### 8.3.3 Embedding of nominalised clauses

For certian types of verbs the clause it takes as a complement is nominalised. With realis embedded clauses the CFP is obligatorily deleted and the clause is followed by the nominaliser panáq. However, with irrealis embedded complement clauses, the irrealis marker $k \bar{u}$ is obligatorily retained in its position to indicate a hypothetical statement, which is then followed by the nominaliser panáq. This type of nominalised complement clause is common with indirect quote complement of speech act verbs, attention verbs, propositional attitude verbs, and verbs of evaluation. Some examples of complement clauses, bracketed with \{ \}, are illustrated in (589).
(589) (a) weúkúpanáq meúmā (AKYS)

| $\{$ weúkú | $=$ panáq $\}$ | meú | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bathe | $=$ NOM | good | $=$ RLS |

'To swim/bathe is good.'
(b) ngatè yōkkūpanáq ínngaúwàngsà (09:89)
ngā =tè yōk $=$ kū = panáq ín-ngaú-àng = sà
1SG =A.AG eat $=$ IRLS $=$ NOM $\quad$ NEG-Say-DIR $1_{1}=$ NEG.IMP
'Don't say that you will eat me.'

Complement clauses with attention verbs and propositional attitude verbs may be optionally followed by the anti-agentive marker tè.
(590) (a) phú nátcípanáqtè katùngmāseú (17:42)
phú nát-cí = panáq =tè $\quad$ katùng $=$ mā $=$ seú
silver use-PL $=$ NOM $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG} \quad$ see $=\mathrm{RLS}=\mathrm{SAP}$
'I saw that other people spent the money.'
(b) hīng ngaúpanáqtè yūngtamáq (AKYS)

| hīng ngaú = panáq = tè | yūng-ta | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG $\quad$ say $=$ NOM $=$ A.AG | believe-L.SUFF | $=$ RLS |
| I believe what she said.' |  |  |

Complement clauses with evaluation verbs and the insertion of an anti-agentive tè are considered ungrammatical, as in (591a). However, the topic marker ká following the nominalised clause is grammatical, as in (591b).
(591) (a) *shīshātàk ceūpanáqtè āntān meúmā (AKYS)

| shīshā-tàk | ceū $=$ panáq $=$ tè | āntān meú $=$ mā |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| child-PL | sing | $=$ NOM $=$ A.AG | quite | good | $=$ RLS |

(b) hīng ōmpanáqká āntān kánnā (AKYS)

| hīng | ōm | $=$ panáq | $=$ ká āntān | kán | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 sg | make | $=$ NOM | $=$ TOP quite | bad | $=$ RLS |

'What she did was very bad.'

It is also common to find independent clauses occurring with the nominalised phrase ngaúpanáq ('say'+ 'nominaliser') which may be translated into English as 'as it is to say that' or 'as it is the fact that'.
(592) (a) hīng míngsàhàmā ngaúpanáq yūngtamáq (AKYS)

| hīng | míngsàhà | $=$ mā | ngaú | $=$ panáq |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| yūng-ta $=$ mā |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 SG | know | $=$ RLS | say | $=$ NOM |  |
| trust-L.SUFF | $=$ RLS |  |  |  |  |

'It is to say that I believe/trust that he knows (it).'
(b) hànīng ōmpán yōklūkū ngaúpanáq míngsàhà mā (17:83)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { \{hà = nīng } & \text { òm = pán yōk-lū = kū ngaú } \\
\text { WH }=\text { manner } & \text { panáq }\} \\
\text { make }=\text { if } \quad \text { eat-get }=\text { IRLS say } & \text { =NOM }
\end{array} \\
\text { míngsàhà } & =\text { mā } \\
\text { know } & =\text { RLS } \\
\text { I know what } & \\
\text { (one) needs to do to survive.’ }
\end{array}
$$

## CHAPTER 9: INTERROGATIVES

This chapter looks at yes/no questions, alternative questions, tag questions and whquestions in Kadu. Some wH-questions words are also used as indefinite pronouns in Kadu and will be discussed subsequently.

### 9.1 Yes/No interrogatives

The term yes/no interrogative or polar interrogative is used to refer to interrogative clauses for which the expected answer is "yes" or "no." Yes/no questions in Kadu are formed by simply adding either of the two interrogative particles lá and kà at the end of the phrase. The particle lá is employed with a VCX and kà with a NP. They may be translated as " is it the case that $X$ ?" or "is it X?", respectively. The answer to yes/no questions can be simply affirmation or disaffirmation. The Kadu interrogative particle lá is clearly a reflex of the PTB question particle *la. Matisoff (2033:231) reconstructed the Proto-Tibeto-Burman interrogative particle as *la on the basis of Burmese $\infty:<1 \mathrm{la}$ :> yes/no question particle, Lahu lâ 'id' and Newari lā 'id' and Meithei la ~lə 'id'. Consider the examples illustrated in (593).
(593) (a) nāng halá ngālá (08:94)
nāng halá ngā =lá
'Do you have a husband?’
(b) leútsaūng îyànglá (08:41)

> leútsaūng ī-àng = lá
> gift $\quad$ give-DIR ${ }_{1}=\mathrm{Q}$
> 'Did you give the gift?
(c) salàshīká ngayeún ỉkáklá (08:108)

| salà-shī | $=$ ká | ngā | $=$ yeún | ī-kák | $=$ lá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| banana-CLT.fruit | $=$ TOP | 1 SG | $=$ BEN |  | give-want |$=\mathrm{Q}$

'Do you want to give the banana to me?'

The question particle lá can also occur with a negated VCX. When lá occurs with a negated VCX, the negative clitic $=a^{a}$ is absent, as in (594). This happen when the speaker is asking whether "someone is willing to do X " or if the counter proposition is true. In (594), the speaker presupposes that the person being questioned wants to do X .
(594) (a) aswángkáklá nāng (07:37)
a-swáng-kák =lá nāng
NEG-rich-want $=\mathrm{Q} \quad 2 \mathrm{SG}$
'Don't you want to be rich?’ (I assume you do)
(b) salàshī ìikáklá (08:109)
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { salà-shī } & \text { a-ī-kák } & =\text { lá } \\ \text { banana-CLT.fruit } & \text { NEG-give-want } & =\mathrm{Q}\end{array}$
'Don't you want to give me the banana?' (I assume you do)

The positive reponses to the questions in (594) are given in (595).
(a) swángkákmā
swáng-kák =mā
rich-want $=$ RLS
'Yes, I do.'
(b) īkákmā
ī-kák $\quad=\mathrm{ma}$
give-want $=$ RLS
'Yes, I do.'

In must be noted that there are no words in Kadu that are equivalent to the English words yes or no. In order to give a yes (affirmative) answer the affirmative clause is used and to give a no (disaffirmative) answer the negated clause is used. Therefore, the answer to example (594a) could be simply swángkákmā "Yes, (I) do" as in (595a), or ínswángkáká "No, (I) don’t."

Realis and irrealis distinctions can also be made in interrogative mood sentences.
Absence of the realis marker $m \bar{a}$ in interrogative sentence indicates a realis mood, as in (593a). The irrealis interrogative mood is made by adding [kə], the reduced form of $k \bar{u}$ 'irrealis', preceding the interrogative particle lá, as shown in (596).
(596) (a) ngā kátphángkalá (18:70)
ngā kát-pháng $=k \bar{u} \quad=$ lá
1 SG run-prior $=\operatorname{IRLS}=\mathrm{Q}$
'Shall I run first?'
(b) līyákcîkalá (18:86)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { lī-à-cí } \quad=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}=\text { lá } \\
& \text { come-EUPH-PL }=\mathrm{RLS}=\mathrm{Q} \\
& \text { 'Will (you) come?' }
\end{aligned}
$$

The interrogative marker can also be preceded by the CFP pán 'COS', as shown in (597).
The structure pán followed by lá simply questions a change of state situation which may be translated into English as "has it v?"
(597) (a) thōnká phaúpánlá $(30: 20)$
thōn =ká phaú =pán =lá
mortar $=$ TOP wash $=\operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{Q}$
'Have you washed the mortar?'
(b) tānó tóngpánlá (30:27)
tānó tóng =pán =lá
pot place $=\cos =\mathrm{Q}$
'Have you placed the pot?'

The question particle lá cannot directly follow a nominal (copula) sentence to ask "is X Y?." Instead the morpheme kà, identical with the topic marker except for having a low tone, is employed. This is illustrated in (598a).
(a) nāng hamánkà (07:105)
(b) *nāng hamánlá
nāng hamán $=$ kà
nāng hamán = lá
2 SG spirit $=\mathrm{Q}$
2 SG spirit $=\mathrm{Q}$
'Are you a spirit?’

Some more examples with the question particle kà are given in (599).
(599) (a) nāng tamìsākà (12:14)
(b) hàpèkà (18:63)
nāng tamìsā =kà
$2 \mathrm{SG} \quad$ human $=\mathrm{Q}$
'Are you a human?’
hà $=$ pè $=$ kà
$\mathrm{WH} \quad=\mathrm{LOC}=\mathrm{Q}$
'Where is it?'

### 9.2 Alternative questions

The speakers of Kadu reported that yes/no questions in Kadu can also be expressed by an alternative interrogative expression such as "Is something X or not X." Though I have not attested this alternative question in my corpus, my language consultants said that it is common in their day-to-day speech. In this construction, the speaker provides two possible answers and the hearer is to choose the answer from one of these two possibilities. The affirmative clause usually appears first and the negated form then follows, as shown in (600).
(600) (a) atá yōkmeúlá, ayōkmeúlá (AKYS)
atá yōk-meú = lá a-yōk-meú = lá
rice eat-good $=\mathrm{Q}$ NEG-eat-good $=\mathrm{Q}$
'Is it good to eat or not?'
(b) nāng nāngkalá, anāngkalá (AKYS)

$$
\text { nāng nāng }=k \bar{u} \quad \text { lá } \quad a-n a ̄ n g=k u \bar{u} \quad \text { lá }
$$

2 SG go $=\mathrm{IRLS}=\mathrm{Q} \quad \mathrm{NEG}-\mathrm{go}=\mathrm{IRLS}=\mathrm{Q}$
'Will you go or will you not go?'

### 9.3 Tag questions

The other way to signal an interrogative in Kadu is to tag on a short question which may be translated into English as "O.K?; right?' at the end of the clause. The tag question is formed by the verb chī 'true' followed by the question particle lá. The tag question is usually reduplicated, thus forming $\mathrm{V}_{1}+\mathrm{Q}+\mathrm{V}_{1}+\mathrm{Q}$ or used as alternative question $V_{1}+Q+$ NEG $V_{1}+Q$. It is often heard as $V_{1}+(Q)+(N E G) V_{1}+Q$. There is tone
sandhi on the second token of chī. It usually takes the high tone. In fast speech, the lá between the verbs changes its tone from high to mid and it is often omitted in fast speech. The intonation of the four syllable taq question is mid-mid-high-low, see line one of (601). In my morpheme analysis, line two, however, the underlying tone is shown.
(601) (a) tamìsātákká tāyātapè nímcílakà chīlāchîlà (10:47)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { tamìsā-tàk } & \text { = ká tāyā-ta } & \text { = pè } & \text { ním-cí = lakà } \\
\text { human-PL } & =\text { TOP pleasant-L.SUFF }=\text { LOC }
\end{array} \quad \begin{aligned}
& \text { stay-PL }=\text { MIR }
\end{aligned}
$$

'People live in pleasant places, isn't that true?'
(b) lūpángseú phúpalòt ngónpalòt chīlāchílà $(07: 40,41)$ )
lū = pán $=$ seú phú-palòt ngón-palòt
get $=\operatorname{COS}=$ SAP silver-heap gold-heap
chī ( $=$ lá) (a-)chī = lá
true $\quad(=\mathrm{Q})$ (NEG-)true $=\mathrm{Q}$
'(He) got heaps of gold and silver, isn't that true?'

## 9.4 wh- questions

Kadu wH- questions are formed by attaching the WH-word forming morphemes, mà or hà, glossed as 'WH', to specific nominals or nominal postpositions. They are interchangeably used and may be reduced to ma [mə] and ha [hə]. However, the occurence of mà is much more frequent than hà in my corpus. These forms are obligatorily followed by postpositions or other nouns to specify what type of question is
being asked. The wH-words cannot be directly followed by nominal class terms or numeral classifiers. Kadu question words, as in many other languages, are used to indicate that the clause is a question and to indicate what information is being requested (Payne 1997:299-300). The WH-word remains in-situ, in the slot where the referent being questioned would normally occur. A WH- question clause with a verbal precidate takes the question particle lá and a nominal predicate takes the question particle kà. The question-word forms of Kadu are listed in Table 29.

| WH-word | Postpositions/nouns | Meaning |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| mà- ~ hà- | màng | 'thing' | 'what' |
|  | hameú | 'person' | 'who' |
|  | nīng $\sim$ ningyyeù | 'manner' | 'how' |
|  | naík | 'many' | 'how many' |
|  | neúq | 'much' | 'how much' |
|  | pà | 'ablative' | 'where to' |
|  | pè | 'locative' | 'where at' |
|  | haîk | 'allative' | 'where from' |
|  | panáq | 'nominaliser' | 'which one' |

Table 29: wh-words in Kadu

### 9.4.1 hamàng 'what'

The wh-word mà ~ hà followed by the term màng, glossed as 'thing', forms the 'what' question word. It has a non-human implication. The 'what' question word in Kadu is illustrated in (602) and (603).
(602) nāngká hamàngkà lākáklá (12:29)

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text { nāng } & =\text { ká } & \text { hà } & =\text { màng = kà } & \text { lā-kák } & =\text { lá } \\
2 \mathrm{SG} & =\text { TOP } & \text { wH } & =\text { thing }=\mathrm{Q} & \text { take-want } & =\mathrm{Q}
\end{array}
$$

'What do you want to take?'
(603) nāng satóngtèà mamàngkà pweúq īkalá (04:26)
nāng satóng $=$ tè mà-=màng $=$ kà pweúq $\overline{1} \quad=k \bar{u} \quad=$ lá

2 SG grandchild =A.AG $\mathrm{WH}=$ thing $=\mathrm{Q}$ degree give $=\mathrm{IRLS}=\mathrm{Q}$ 'What royal title (Lit. degree) will you give to your grandchild?'

### 9.4.2 manaík 'how many'

The wh-word mà followed by the term naík, glossed as 'many', forms the 'how many' question word. It is used with count nouns. Though my language consultants said that hà may also occur in this position, using mà before naík is much more natural. In my corpus, hà- is not attested occuring with naík. The question word mà plus naík is used to inquire about the quantity and measurement of something. This question word is always followed by a classifier (Chapter 5) in order to clarify the specific referent that is being asked about. This is illustrated in (604).
(604) (a) manaíksatá (28:4)
mà $=$ naík-satá
$\mathrm{WH}=$ many-CLF.month
'How many months?’
(b) manaíksaúk (07:27)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mà = naík-salaúk } \\
& \text { WH = many-CLF.cubit } \\
& \text { 'How many feet?' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) manaíkhú pūwìngkalá (10:4)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { mà }=\text { naík-hú } & \text { pū-ìng } & =k \bar{u}=\text { lá } \\
\mathrm{WH}=\text { many-CLF.person } & \text { emerge-DIR } & =\text { IRLS }=\mathrm{Q}
\end{array}
$$

'How many (of you) will come out?'

### 9.4.1 màneúq 'how much'

The wh-word mà followed by the term neúq, glossed as 'as much as', forms the question word 'how much' in Kadu. It is used with mass nouns to inquire about the amount or approximation of something. This question word cannot be followed by a classifier. This is exemplified in (605).
(605) (a) maneúq kalàng kátnìngthàlá (18:80)

$$
\begin{array}{lcc}
\text { mà }=\text { neúq } & \text { kalàng } & \text { kát-ìng-thà }=\text { lá } \\
\text { WH }=\text { as.much.as } & \text { approximate } & \text { run-DIR2-must }=\mathrm{Q} \\
\text { 'How much distance have (you) come running?' }
\end{array}
$$

(b) anáq sāngsūng maneúq ì̀nglá (AKYS)

| anáq | sāngsūng | mà=neúq | ī-ìng | $=$ lá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| this | shirt | $\mathrm{WH}=$ as.much.as | give-DIR | $=\mathrm{Q}$ |

'How much did you pay for this shirt?'

The term neíq may also occur with other nouns to denote an approximation of something (§6.8). An example of this type is illustrated in (606).
tóngmótá mōkshāneúq tóngpìngták (06:25)

| tóngmótá | mōkshā | $=$ neúq | tóng | $=$ píng | $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3yr.old | calf(cow) | $=$ as.much.as | big | $=\operatorname{DIR}_{2}: \operatorname{COS}$ | $=$ HS |

'(The lizard) grew to about the size of a three year old calf.'
9.4.2 màhameú 'who'

The wh-word mà followed by the term hameú, glossed as 'person', forms the question word 'who' in Kadu. It is used to refer to humans and is illustrated in (607).
(607) (a) nāngká màhameúkà (12:26)
nāng = ká mà=hameú = kà

$$
2 \mathrm{SG} \quad=\mathrm{TOP} \mathrm{wH}=\text { person }=\mathrm{Q}
$$

'Who are you?'
(b) ngaká màhameúyaúk nímkalá (15:38)
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { ngā }=\text { ká mà }=\text { hameú }=\text { yaúk } & \text { ním } & =\text { k } \bar{u}=\text { lá } \\ 1 S G & =\text { TOP } W H=\text { person }=\text { COM } & \text { stay } & =\text { IRLS }=\mathrm{Q}\end{array}$
'With whom will I stay?'
9.4.3 maning 'how' or 'in which manner'

The wh-word mà followed by the term ning ~ nīngyeù, glossed as 'like' (§11.1.6), forms the question word 'how' or 'in which manner' in Kadu. It is used to inquire about the manner in which something is done or has been done. This is illustrated in (608).
(608) (a) manīngyeù ōmkalá (07:8)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mà = nīngyeù } \overline{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{~m}=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}=\text { lá } \\
& \mathrm{WH}=\text { manner make }=\mathrm{IRLS}=\mathrm{Q} \\
& \text { 'How shall (we) do?' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) manīng peúkalá (11:46)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mà }=\text { nīng } \quad \text { peú } \quad=\mathrm{ku} \quad=\text { lá } \\
& \mathrm{WH}=\text { manner } \text { keep }=\text { IRLS }=\mathrm{Q} \\
& \text { 'How shall we keep/place (them)?' }
\end{aligned}
$$

### 9.4.4 màpanáq 'which one’

The wH- word mà- followed by the nominaliser panáq (§3.1.1.2.10) forms the question word 'which one' or 'which thing' in Kadu. This is illustrated in (609).
(609) (a) màpanáq amaūngsàkà (15:107)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { mà }=\text { panáq } & \text { amaūng-sà } & =\text { kà } \\
\text { wH }=\text { NOM } & \text { boy-DIM } & =Q
\end{array}
$$

'Which boy is it?'
(b) mapanáq kalùnkà (07:27)
mà $=$ panáq $\quad$ kalùn $=$ kà
$\mathrm{WH}=\mathrm{NOM}$ plant $=\mathrm{Q}$
'Which tree is it?'
9.4.5 hàpà ~ màpà 'where to'

The wH-word mà or hà followed by the allative marker pà (§6.4) forms the question word 'where to' or 'which direction' in Kadu. This is illustrated in (610).
(610) (a) héq amaūngsà hàpà nāngkalá (07:32)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { héq } & \text { amaūng-sà } & \text { hà }=\text { pà } & \text { nāng } \\
\text { hey! } \mathrm{ku} \quad=\text { lá } \\
\text { boy-DIM } & \text { wH = ALL } & \text { go } & =\text { IRLS }=\mathrm{Q}
\end{array}
$$

(b) hàpà kátnànglá (08:3)
hà =pà kát-àng = lá
$\mathrm{WH}=\mathrm{ALL} \quad$ run-DIR ${ }_{1} \quad=\mathrm{Q}$
'Where (which direction) did (he) run to?'
9.4.6 hàpè 'where at'

The wh-word mà followed by the locative marker pè (§6.3) forms the question word 'where at' or 'which place' in Kadu. It is used to ask about the location of the action. This is illustrated in (611).
(611) (a) nāngká hàpè īpkalá (18:15)

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text { nāng } & =\text { ká hà } & =\text { pè } & \text { ipp } & =k \bar{u} & =\text { lá } \\
2 \mathrm{SG} & =\text { TOP } & \mathrm{wH} & =\text { LOC } & \text { sleep } & =\text { IRLS }
\end{array}
$$

'Where (which place) will you sleep?'
(b) hàpè nāngthàkalá (25:6)
hà =pè nāng-thà =kū = lá
$\mathrm{WH}=\mathrm{LOC} \quad$ go-must $\quad=\mathrm{IRLS}=\mathrm{Q}$
'Where (which place) will (I) have to go?'

### 9.4.7 hamàng ngātéq 'why'

The cause or reason is questioned by the clausal expression hamàng ngātéq (wh-thing be reason/for) 'for what reason, why?'. It is the only place in my corpus where the form té $q$ is attested. It is probably an allomorph of the anti-agentive marker tè.

## (612) (a) hamàng ngātéq ōmlá nāng (07:107)

$$
\begin{array}{lllllll}
\text { hà } & =\text { màng } & \text { ngā } & =\text { téq } & \text { ōm } & =\text { lá } & \text { nāng } \\
\text { wH } & =\text { thing } & \text { exist } & \text { = reason } & \text { make } & =\mathrm{Q} & 2 \mathrm{SG}
\end{array}
$$

'Why did you do that?'
(b) nāngká hamàngngātéq hāplá (25:158)

| nāng = ká hà = màng | ngā $=$ téq | hāp | = lá |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 SG $=$ TOP WH | = thing | exist $=$ reason | weep | $=\mathrm{Q}$ |

## 9.5 wh-question word as indefinite pronouns

wh-question words in Kadu may also function as indefinite pronouns denoting notions such as 'whoever', 'whatever', 'wherever', 'anyone', or 'anything'. There is no distinction of positive or negative indefinite pronouns, such as in English everyone and anyone, respectively. In Kadu, the positive indefinite pronouns are formed by the WHwords followed by the structures thàkákthà (be-want-be) or ngaúkákngaú (say-wantsay). To express negative indefinite pronouns such as 'nobody' or 'no one', the whwords may be optionally followed by yí 'also', and the matrix verb is negated.

Examples of wh-question words functioning as indefinite pronouns provided by my Kadu consultants are illustrated in (613) - (615).
(613) 'whoever'
(a) màhameú thàkákthà lī
mà =hameú thà-kák-thà lī
$\mathrm{wH}=$ person be-want-be come
'Come someone/anyone.'
(b) màhameúyí alīcí (4:21)
mà- =hameú yí a-lī-cí
$\mathrm{WH}=$ person also NEG-come-PL
'Nobody/no one came.'
(614) 'whatever'
(a) hamàng thàkákthà ōm
hà =màng thà-kák-thà ōm
WH =thing be-want-be do
'Do whatever!' or 'Do anything!', or 'Do something!'
(b) màhameúyí aōmá
hà- = màng yí a-ōm =á
WH = thing also NEG-do = NEG
'(He) didn't do anything.'
(615) 'wherever'
(a) hàpè thàkákthà nāng
hà =pè thà-kák-thà nāng
wH = LOC be-want-be go
‘Go somewhere/anywhere.’
(b) hàpè thàkákthà anāngsà
hà- $=$ pè yí $\quad$ a-nāng $=$ sà
$\mathrm{WH}=$ LOC also NEG-go $=$ IMP.NEG
'Don’t go anywhere.'

## CHAPTER 10: NEGATION

Negation indicates events, situations, or states of affairs that are not true. In addition, it is also used to indicate that an event that has not come to realisation. Nouns in Kadu are not negated. Negation is a property of verbs, either action or stative verbs, in Kadu.

Verbs in Kadu are negated by double negation-proclitic and enclitic. The verb complex in Kadu can have more than one verb (§3.1.2.2). However, the negative proclitic never occurs on secondary verbs or on post verb modifiers; instead it must always precede the main verb. The negative enclitic occurs at the end of the VCX.

### 10.1 The structure of negative clauses

There are two negative proclitics, $a$ - and ín- in Kadu. Either one, as in (616), or both of them, as in (617b), is attached before the main verb and the enclitic $=$ á follows the VCX. Consider the examples in (616).
(616) (a) zángkōk atóngá (06:4)

| zángkōk | a-tóng | $=$ á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lizard | NEG-big | $=$ NEG |

'The lizard is not big.'
(b) zángkōk īngīngsáq íntóngá (06:5)

| zángkōk | īngīng-sà | ín-tóng | $=$ á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lizard | tiny-DIM | NEG-big | $=$ NEG |

‘Lizard was a tiny one, not big.
(c) ngāká ngón aōmá (17:29)

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { ngā } & =\text { ká ngón } & \text { a-ōm } & \text { =á } \\
1 \mathrm{SG} & =\text { TOP gold } & \text { NEG-make } & =\text { NEG }
\end{array}
$$

'I don't make/mine gold.'

The two negative proclitics, ín- and $a$-, can be used interchangeably but $a$ - occurs more frequently than the ín-. However, the native speakers of Kadu say that ín- has a stronger sense of emphasis than á-. They may also occur together. When they both occur in a single verb complex the ín- always precedes the $a$-, as in (617b). The use of two negative proclitics in a single VCX denotes extremely strong negative emphasis. We may relate the etymology of the proclitic $a$ - to *ma, the PTB negator as reconstructed by Matisoff (2003:488).
(617) (a) wíqpatùpáq achīyá (04:35)

| wíqpatùpáq | a-chī | $=$ á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| PN | NEG-true | $=$ NEG |
| 'It is not Wipatuba.' |  |  |

(b) ngā ínanímmaūkkáká (15:5)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ngā ín-a-ním-maūk-kák } \quad \text { = á } \\
& \text { 1SG NEG-NEG-stay-together-want = NEG } \\
& \text { 'I don't want to live together (with your sons).' (I really mean it) }
\end{aligned}
$$

Regarding the development of the negative prefix ín-, native speakers of Kadu explained that when they are speaking loudly to someone at a distance, it is very difficult to say the unstressed negative prefix $a$ - . In that case, they would prefer to use
ín-. This morpheme is also similar to the negation marker of Turung ${ }^{30}$ which is a syllabic nasal $/ \mathrm{n} /$. I have repeated the example (616b) for comparison in (618b).
(618) (a) Turung example
(Morey 2011:627)

| turung thah | go | pheyn | n-khat |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Turung with | TOP | war | NEG-fight |

'They did not fight the Turungs.'
(b) zángkōk īngīngsáq íntóngá (06:5)

| zángkōk | īngīng-sà | ín-tóng | $=$ á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| lizard | tiny-DIM | NEG-big | $=$ NEG |

'The lizard was a tiny bit, not big.'

The use of two negative proclitics could be the result of merging two dialects together or the development of different stages over time. The a- prefix is probably older and ínis probably more recent. Due to the limit of time and scope, I will not go deeply into the etymology of these negative proclitics. If time permits, it will definitely be an interesting topic to explore further.

In fast speech, when the initial phoneme of the main verb is a high front vowel, the negative $a$ - is often not heard. However, the negative meaning of the clause can still be recoverable from the negative enclitic $=$ á, as in (619).

[^24](619) (a) ỉkáká (04:10)
\[

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { (a-)ī-kák } & =\text { á } \\
\text { (NEG-)give-want } & =\text { NEG }
\end{array}
$$
\]

'(I) don't want to give.'
(b) ngā akhwák īyeūná (AKYS)
ngā akhwák (a-)ī-yeūn =á
1SG permit (NEG-)give-can = NEG
'I cannot give permission.'

The speakers of Kadu often use a structure of ( x , but not X ) for strong negative emphatic expressions. In this structure the same verb is repeated and they are usually linked by the morpheme zeú 'even' (§11.1.4) or yí 'also’ (§11.2). yí is the most frequent in this position. Usually, the first verb is positive and the second verb is negative. A more elaborate structure of this type may be presented as $\left(\mathrm{V}_{1}-y^{\prime}-n o t-\mathrm{V}_{1}\right)$. In this kind of expression, the negative proclitic $a$ - is often not heard.
(620) (a) caîkyí (a)caîktawáyeù ngaúmā (08:104)
caík = yí (a-)caík-ta =á yeù ngaú =mā
like =also (NEG-)-exchange-L.SUFF $=$ NEG SAP say $=$ RLS
'(She) said like this "(I) don't love (him) at all."'
(b) līyí (a)līyá (AKYS)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { lī } \quad \text { yí } \quad \text { (a)-lī-á } \\
& \text { come = also (NEG)-come-NEG } \\
& \text { '(He) didn’t even/also come.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

Before we look in detail at the negative enclitic $=$ á, it is a good idea to remind ourselves of the two phonological processes, fusion and linking, that I discussed in §2.8. These processes are illustrated in (621) and (622).
(621) fusion: with identical vowels $(a+a=a)$
(a) aōmhà (13:12)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { a-ōm-hà = á } \\
& \text { NEG-make-know.how }=\text { NEG } \\
& \text { 'don't know how to do.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) phónhaìng athà (30:31)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { phón = haìng a-thà =á } \\
& \text { wood = EXCLUSIVE } \\
& \text { NEG-be = NEG } \\
& \text { 'only wood won't burn' }
\end{aligned}
$$

(622) linking: (i) following $/ \mathrm{p} /$ and $/ \mathrm{t} /$ the nasals $/ \mathrm{m} /$ and $/ \mathrm{n} /$ are inserted, respectively.
(ii) following the front vowels $/ \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{e}, \mathrm{eu} / \mathrm{l} / \mathrm{y} /$ is inserted.
(iii) following the back vowels $/ \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{au} /, / \mathrm{w} /$ is inserted.
(a) shīzeú anaútná (19:10)

| shī $\quad$ = zeú | a-naút | =á | [naút | -ná $]$ |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| medicine $=$ even | NEG-feed | = NEG |  |  |
| '(You) didn't give me medicines.' |  |  |  |  |

(b) kasàzeúachīyá (18:58)

| kasà $=$ zeú | a-chī | =á | [chī | -yá $]$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tiger $=$ even | NEG-true | = NEG |  |  |
| 'It's not even a tiger.' |  |  |  |  |

(c) kúqtō alūwá (26:30)

| kúqtō a-l̄̄ $\quad$ ú á | [l̄̄ | -wá $]$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| merit | NEG-get $=$ NEG |  |  |
| '(You) don't get merit.' |  |  |  |

Syntactically, =á occurs in the same slot as the CFPS mā 'realis' and kū 'irrealis' within the VCX. See the detailed discussion on CFPS in §7.1. The examples in (623)
illustrate clauses with the CFPs $k \bar{u}$ and $m \bar{a}$. Their negative counterpart expressions are illustrated in (624).
(623) (a) anáq nēyā meúmā (10:28)
anáq nēyā meú =mā
this place good = RLS
'This place is good.'
(b) nāngtè ngā yōkkū (09:26)
nāng = tè ngā yōk =kū
$2 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG} 1 \mathrm{SG}$ eat $=$ IRLS
'I will eat you.'
(624) (a) anáq nēyā ameúyá (AKYS)
anáq nēyā a-meú-á
this place NEG-good-NEG
'This place isn’t good.'
(b) nāngtè ngā ayōká (AKYS)
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { nāng } & =\text { tè } & \text { ngā } & \text { a-yōk-á } \\ 2 S G & \text { =A.AG } & 1 \mathrm{SG} & \text { NEG-eat-NEG }\end{array}$
'I won't eat you.'

However, with the CFP pán 'COS’ (§7.3.1), like those aspectual particles discussed in §7.3, the negative clitic $=$ á is obligatorily omitted. A negative clause with the CFP in (625) indicates a situation which was once in progress but is no longer true at the moment of speaking.

## (625) (a) haláng atūngākpánták (06:28)

| haláng | a-tūngāk | $=$ pán $=$ ták |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| head | NEG-bow(head) | $=\operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}$ |

'(The lizard) no longer bows its head, it is said.' (The lizard used to bow its head.)
(b) hīngká ínalīpánseú (15:34)

| hīng $=$ ká | ín-a-lī | $=$ pán $=$ seú |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG | $=$ TOP | NEG-NEG-come | $=$ COS $=$ SAP |

'He does not come anymore.' (He used to come)

The negative clitic $=a$ also obligatorily omitted in subordinate clauses. See the illustrations in (626). Subordinate clauses are shown in $\left\}_{\text {sub.ci }}\right.$ brackets. Notice the example (626b) is an afterthought sentence (§8.1). Therefore, the subordinate clause appears after the main clause.
(626) (a) címpèzáng alúk apòtìtà thīngpè alúk ngāmā (17:66)

$$
\left.\begin{array}{llllll}
\{\text { cím } & =\text { pè } & =\text { záng } & & \text { alúk } & \text { a-pò }
\end{array} \quad=\text { tí }=\text { tá }\right\}_{\text {SUB.CL }} .
$$

$$
\text { thīng }=\text { pè alúk ngā }=\text { mā }
$$

$$
\text { village }=\text { LOC work exist }=\text { RLS }
$$

'Though there is no work at home there is work to do in the village.'
(b) pánnù mīnhángìnglakà kónāyī athōkcītè (18:25)

| pán-nù | mīn-háng-ìng | $=$ lakà |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| CLF.times-one | awake-back- DIR $_{2}$ | $=$ MIR |


| $\{$ kó | nāy $\overline{1}$ | a-thōk-cī | $=$ tè $\}_{\text {sub. CL }}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nine | o'clock | NEG-arrive-before | $=$ A.AG |

'(I) woke up one more time before nine o'clock.'

### 10.2 Negative imperative

Negative imperative clauses are formed by adding one of the negative proclitics ín- or $a$-, immediately before the head verb and cliticising the prohibitive particle $=s a ̀$, glossed as 'negative imperative' (NEG.IMP), at the end of the VCX, as illustrated in (627).
(627) (a) ínngaúsà (11:22)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { ín-ngaú } & =\text { sà } \\
\text { NEG-say } & =\text { NEG.IMP }
\end{array}
$$

‘Don’t say!’
(b) aōmzónsà (07:111)
a-ōm-zón =sà
NEG-make-continue = NEG.IMP
'Don't do (it) anymore!'

The negative imperative suffix is never used without one of the negative proclitics.
Look at the illustrations in (628). (628a) is grammatical but (628b) is not.

[^25]Notice the example in (628a) is an afterthought sentence. It also contains the speaker's attitude particle lé, glossed as 'SAP', to soften the imperative expression (§3.3.5).

### 10.3 Marking mood on negated clauses

Unlike affirmative clauses, which distinguish between realis and irrealis situations using CFPs (§7.1), negative clauses do not syntactically distinguish realis and irrealis mood. In order to make these distinctions in negated clauses, the affirmative clauses can be nominalised and used as arguments of the verb chī 'be true', which is then negated. This type of construction in Kadu is parallel with Lahu ${ }^{31}$ and Burmese ${ }^{32}$.

[^26](629) (a) maléq ōmpanáq achīyá (AKYS)

| maléq ōm | $=$ panáq | a-chī |  | $=$ á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1PL make | $=$ NOM | NEG-true |  | $=$ NEG |

'It is not the case that we did/do (that).'
(b) maléq ōmkūpanáq achīyá (AKYS)
maléq ōm =kū =panáq a-chī =á
1PL make $=$ IRLS $=$ NOM $\quad$ NEG-true $=$ NEG
'It is not the case that we will do (that).'

The realis CFP $m \bar{a}$ is obligatorily omitted in nominalised clauses, as in (629a).
However, the irrealis CFP $k \bar{u}$ is obligatorily present in nominalised clauses, as in (629b). Example (629a) simply expresses that the proposition made by the nominalised verb $\bar{o} m$ 'make' does not hold true at the time of speaking: negative realis mood. Example (629b), on the other hand, signals a strong assertion of the unlikelihood of the situation mentioned in the utterance: negative irrealis mood.

Kadu nouns can also be negated by the expression (NP achìyá ) 'it is not the case/true of $\mathrm{NP}^{\prime}$. In order to provide a negative response, the phrase achìyá can be used as a complete utterance. Similarly, chīmā in used to give an affirmative response. The answer to an identity question nāng asákkà 'Are you Kadu (Asak)?' would be as in (630a) and (630b)-affirmative and negative responses, respectively.
(a) chīmā (AKYS)
chī $=m \bar{a}$
true $=$ RLS
'Yes, (I am).'
(b) achīyá (AKYS)
a-chī =á
NEG-true $=$ NEG
'No, (I am not).'

With alternative in an nominal interrogative clause, it is obligatory to use the NP with the verb chī to make a clear distinction of which noun phrase is negated. See example (631), an interrogative sentence which has two nominal arguments, and the possible answers in (632).
(631) tamìsākà nāng hamánkà (07:105)
tamìsā = kà nāng hamán =kà
human $=\mathrm{Q}$ 2SG spirit $=\mathrm{Q}$
'Are you a human or a spirit?’
(632) (a) hamányí achīyá tamìsāyí achīyá (07:106)
hamán = yí a-chī =á tamìsā =yí a-chī =á
spirit = also NEG-true $=$ NEG human $=$ also NEG-true $=$ NEG 'I am neither a human nor a spirit.'
(b) hamán achīyá tamìsā chīmā (AKYS)

| hamán | a-chī | =á | tamìsā | chī | $=m \bar{a}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| spirit | NEG-true | $=$ NEG | human | true | $=$ RLS | 'I am not a spirit, (but) a human.'

### 10.4 Negative interrogative clauses

Negative interrogative clauses, unlike affirmative clauses, do not make realis or irrealis mood distinctions in Kadu. The head verb is negated by one or both negative proclitics: ín- or $a$-. The negative clitic $=a ́$ is absent and the question particle lá is attached at the end of the clause. The affirmative interrogative form differs from its negative interrogative counterpart only in that the negative prefix is not affixed to the main verb.

The affirmative interrogative form is exemplified in (633a) and its negative counterpart in (633b).
(633) (a) hamàngkà lōkáklá (12:5)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { hà }=\text { màng } & =\text { kà } & \text { lō-kák } & =\text { lá } \\
\mathrm{WH}=\text { thing } & =\mathrm{Q} & \text { need-want } & =\mathrm{Q}
\end{array}
$$

'What do you need?'
(b) hamàngkazeú alōkáklá (12:6)

| hà $=$ màng | $=$ kà | $=$ zeú |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{WH}=$ thing | $=\mathrm{Q}$ | $=$ even-kák | NEG-need-want |$=\mathrm{Q}$

'What do you not want?'

## CHAPTER 11: COMPLEX STRUCTURES

In this chapter I will look at various constructions that involve combined clauses and phrases, organised in the following order: 11.1 Subordination, 11.2 Coordination and 11.3 Narrative structure.

### 11.1 Subordination

Subordinate clauses occur in sentence initial position preceding the main or independent clause. Subordinate clauses are marked by grammatical particles to mark their subordinate relation to the independent clauses. Subordinate clauses in Kadu do not encode tense nor aspect nor make a distinction between irrealis and realis. The verbs in the matrix clauses make these distinctions. Some emphatic particles may optionally follow subordinating particles. The distribution and function of each emphatic particle will be also discussed. Table 30 summarises the subordinating particles attested in Kadu. They are subdivided into five sections and will be presented in the following order: 11.1.1 Conditional clauses, 11.1.2 Purpose clauses, 11.1.3 Temporal clauses, 11.1.5 Sequential clauses, 11.1.6 Manner clauses and 11.1.7 Comparison clauses.

| Category | Subordinating terms |  | Emphatic particles |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Conditional | pánnàkà/pán | 'if' | $\begin{aligned} & \text {-naà } \\ & \text {-tá } \end{aligned}$ | 'only/emphatic' 'emphatic' |
|  | tí | 'also, although' |  |  |
|  | másà | 'only if' |  |  |
| Purpose/cause | kón | 'so as to' |  |  |
|  | hàyák | 'in order to cause' |  |  |
|  | tìng | 'purposive' |  |  |
| Temporal | zàk | 'while' |  |  |
|  | naîktaí | 'whenever' |  |  |
|  | ká | 'when' |  |  |
|  | hayaúk | 'since' |  |  |
|  | yaúk VP yaúk | 'simultaneity' |  |  |
|  | macháng | 'until' |  |  |
|  | $c \overline{1}$ | 'when (prior to)' |  |  |
| Concessive | zeú | 'even if' |  |  |
| Manner and Comparison | nīngyeù ~ nīng | 'in the manner of' |  |  |
|  | neúq | 'as much as' |  |  |

Table 30: Subordinating particles in Kadu

### 11.1.1 Conditional clauses

Conditional clauses (also called protasis or simply if-clauses), which set the condition for the outcome of the main clause, occur in initial position and the then-clause (also called apodosis) usually occurs in sentence final position. As shown in Table 30, there are three terms: pánnàkà 'if', tí 'also', and másà 'only if', that are attached to the end of the initial clause to form the 'if-clause' in Kadu. Each conditional clause is discussed in the following sections.

The term pánnàkà is probably a combination of pán + naà + ká ('change of state' + 'only' + 'topic') and is employed to make a conditional clause. However, due to
frequent occurrence and native speakers' view of this form as a monomorphemic word, I have glossed it as one word, 'if', in this thesis. See the illustrations of conditional clauses marked by pánnàkà in (634). Conditional clauses are bracketed with \{ \}.
(634) (a) zūn yahùngpèà weúkúpánnàkà meúhàmā (09:45)

| $\{$ zūn $\quad$ yahùng $=$ pè $\quad$ weúkú $=$ pánnàkà $\}$ | meú-hà | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| salt $\quad$ well $=$ LOC bathe $=$ if | good-know.how | $=$ RLS | 'If (you) take a bath at the salt well (you) may get well.'

(b) sāmpán thūkkón tánpánnàkà phú pūhàmāyeù ngaúmaták (25:113)
 'If you beat three times (with this stick) money/silver emerges, it is said.'
(c) maléqpè līpánnàkà nāng alúkyí aūmthà (08:101)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \{\text { malé }=\text { pè } \quad \text { li } \quad=\text { pánnàkà }\} \\
& \text { 1PL = LOC come =if } \\
& \text { nāng alúk =yí a-ōm-thà =á } \\
& \text { 2SG work = also NEG-make-must = NEG }
\end{aligned}
$$

'If you come to us you don't have to work as well.'

The conditional marker pánnàkà~ pán may be preceded by some modal auxiliaries, as in (635), but never by CFPs, as in (635).
(a) nāngSwáng lākákpánnàkà lūtakū (13:51)

| \{nāng-swáng lā-kák | $=$ pánnàkà $\}$ | lū-ta | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2SG-master | take-want | $=$ if | offer-L.SUFF | $=$ IRLS |

'If you want to get/take (I) will offer.'
(b) apheúyeūnpánnàkà (32:77)
\{a-pheú-yeūn =pánnàkà \}
NEG-carry-can $=$ if
'If (you) cannot carry ...'

It is common to find a modal kák 'want' followed by pán 'if' when the subordinate clause and the main clause represent the same sort of event, sharing the same agentive argument and verb, as illustrated in (636).
(a) hīng yangonpà nāngkákpán nāngkū (AKYS)

| hīng | yangon | pà | nāng-kák | = pán nāng | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3SG | PN | = ALL | go-want | $=$ if go | $=\mathrm{IRLS}$ |

'He'll go to Yangon if he wants to.'
(b) ngā yōkkákpán yōkkū (AKYS)
ngā yōk-kák = pán yōk =kū
1SG eat-want $=$ if eat $=$ IRLS
'I will go if I want to.'

The term tí indicates a converse conditional when it is subordinated to a positive main clause, as in (637). The term tí changes to low tone when it is preceded by a syllable with a high or low tone.
\{hīng lī =tí\} pō-ta-meú =lakaú
3SG come = also more-L.SUFF-good = MIR
'Yes, of course, it's better if he comes too.'

Like the conditional marker pánnàkà 'if', it may be preceded by the modal auxiliary kák to indicate that the subordinate clause and the main clause represent the same event, sharing the same agentive argument and verb, as illustrated in (638).
(638) (a) ūkáktì ūwàng (12:107)
$\left.\begin{array}{lll}\begin{array}{ll}\{\text { ū-kák } & =\text { tí }\}\end{array} \quad \overline{\text { un-àng }} \\ \text { drink-want } \quad=\text { also } & \text { drink-DIR } \\ 1\end{array}\right]$
(b) maléqtè tánshíkáktì tánshỉkū (04:10)
\{maléq $=$ tè tán-shí-kák $=$ tí $\} \quad$ tán-shí $=k \bar{u}$
1PL =A.AG beat-die-want $=$ also beat-die $=$ IRLS 'If (he) wants to kill us too, he will.'

However, if one of the clauses is negated, the subordinate clause indicates concessive function, which may then be translated as 'although' or 'even though' in English.

Consider the examples in (639). In these sentences the main clause is negated.
(639) (a) túktaūtí ngā anáyeūná (07:115)
\{túk-ta =tí\} ngā a-ná-yeūn =á
battle-L.SUFF = also 1SG NEG-win-can = NEG
'Even though I battle I cannot win.'
(b) hinng phīmtí alùhà (08:31)

| \{hīng phīm | $=$ tí $\}$ | a-lū-hà | =á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG hold.up | $=$ also | NEG-get-know.how | $=$ NEG |

'Even though he embraced (it)/held (it), (he) couldn't (soothe the baby).'

In the following examples in (640), the subordinate clauses are negated.
(640) (a) címpè alúk apòtità thinngpè alúk ngāmā (17:66)

$$
\left.\begin{array}{lllll}
\{\text { cím } & =\text { pè } & \text { alúk } & \text { a-pò } & =\text { tì } \quad=\text { tà }\} \\
\text { house } & =\text { LOC work } & \text { NEG-exist } & =\text { also }=\text { EMPH }
\end{array}\right] \begin{array}{lll} 
& & \\
\text { thīng } & =\text { pè alúk } & \text { ngā }=\text { mā } \\
\text { village } & =\text { LOC work } & \text { exist }=\text { RLS }
\end{array}
$$

'Even though there is no work at home, there is work to do in the village.'
(b) swángzáng aswángtìtà īthàmā (AKYS)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { \{swáng = záng a-swáng =tì =tà\} ī-thà =mā } \\
& \text { rich = EMPH NEG-rich = also = EMPH give-must = RLS }
\end{aligned}
$$

'Even though (we) are not rich, we have to give/pay.'

The subordinate particle tí may be additionally followed by the emphatic particle tá for more emphatic purposes, as in (640). The tone of the particle tá is determined by the preceding particle tí. It simply follows the same tone that tí takes. The use of the emphatic particle tá as a subordinator has not been attested.

The term másà, glossed as 'only if', also sets a conditional background for the outcome of the main clause. It can occur both with realised and unrealised main clauses. The speakers of Kadu said that the term másà has stronger emphasis than the term pánnàkà.
(641) (a) hīng shímásà hīng ēktè lālūkū (15:81) (unrealised)

| $\{$ hīng | shí | $=$ másà $\}$ | hīng | ēk | $=$ tè | lā-lū $=$ kū |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3 SG | die | $=$ only.if | 3 SG | wife | $=$ A.AG | take-get $=$ IRLS | '(He) will be able to take his wife only if he (the husband) dies.'

(b) zūn tīpanáq waleú āntahān zángàngmásà yōkmeúmā (31:27)

| $\{$ zūn tī $\quad$ = panáq waleú  <br> salt sweet $=$ NOM liquid  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| āntān | záng-àng | $=$ másà $\}$ | yōk-meú | $=$ mā |
| quite | put.in-DIR ${ }_{1}$ | $=$ only.if | eat-good | $=$ RLS |

'It tastes good only if we put in more sweet liguid.' (Lit. sweet salt water)

This term másà is clearly a Burmese loaned subordinator <toma. tha> which is translated as 'only if, only when V' (See Okell and Allott 2001:165-166). In Burmese, the second syllable os <tha> is optional, and it is used for emphatic purposes.
(642) बlosị̂ulo vosmenulow (Burmese: Okell 2001:165)

| da'pum | pa | $=$ hma. | hpat | - -kra' | $=$ te |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| picture | be.present | $=$ only.if | read | - PL | $=$ CFP |

'(They) read (them) only if (they) have pictures.'

### 11.1.2 Purpose clauses

There are two terms, kón and yák, glossed as 'so as to', that are employed as subordinators to indicate the purpose of an action. The clause with kón functions to stimulate or motivate an agent referent of the subordinate clause to perform an action.

The motivating event is usually an unrealised situation at the time of the main event. Initial clauses with the subordinator kón are illustrated in (643).
(643) (a) lāpkón chaúngtayókkūu (15:55)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\{\text { lāp }=\text { kón }\} \quad \text { chaúng-ta } \quad=\text { yók } & =k \bar{u} \\
\text { catch }=\text { so.as.to } \quad \text { spy-L.SUFF }=\text { INTRUSIVE } & =\text { IRLS } \\
\text { '(He) will spy on (her) to catch (her).' } &
\end{array}
$$

(b) címsèktàktèà ngāká nacá peúyeūnkón ōmkū (17:88)

| \{cím-sèk-tàk | $=$ tè | ngā | $=$ ká nacá |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| house-person-PL | $=$ A.AG | 1 SG | $=$ TOP carefully |

peú-yeūn $=$ kón $\} \quad \overline{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{m} \quad=\mathrm{ku}$
keep-can =so.as.to make = IRLS
'I will do so so as to keep my family members up to the standard.'

The term yák, also glossed as 'so as to', like kón, also indicates a purpose of action clause. This term, however, mostly occurs following the modal auxiliary hà (§7.2.3). The form hà 'know.how' may be reduced to ha [hə] and the native speakers of Kadu see (hà + yák = hayák ) as a single morpheme. Some examples of clauses that contain the subordinator hayák are illustrated in (644).
(644) (a) malā phénghángìnghayák ōmàngmaták (15:165)
\{malā phéng-háng-ìng-hà =yák $\}$
flesh full-back-DIR ${ }_{2}$-know.how $=$ so.as.to
ōm-àng $\quad=m \bar{a}=$ ták
make-DIR $_{1}=$ RLS $=H S$
'(She) made it so that the flesh filled up (the bones), it is said.'
(b) shípanáq sèktè̀ záhánghayák ōmhàmā ngaká ngaúmāták (16:39)


### 11.1.3 Temporal clauses

Several subordinators which temporally relate subordinate clauses to main clauses have been attested and are discussed in the following sections. The term zàk is employed to indicate two actions happening simultaneously as illustrated in (645). Notice that the sentence has a single agentive argument.
(645) (a) hing técháng teítzàk céng ceūmā (AKYS)

| hīng | \{técháng | teút | $=$ zàk $\}$ | céng | ceū | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG | song | listen | $=$ while | letter | read | $=$ RLS |

'He is studying while listening to music.'
(b) céng ceūnímzàk wān pyáktamā (AKYS)
\{céng ceū-ním =zàk\} wān pyák-ta =mā
letter read-stay = while fire go.off-L.SUFF = RLS
'While (I) was reading the light went off.'

If the two clauses have different agentive arguments, in order to clarify who does what, it is necessary to insert reference to different referents in each clause. This is illustrated in (646).

| \{hīng | -ním | = $\mathbf{z a} \mathbf{k}$ \} | ngā | atá | mōk-ním | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3SG | sleep-stay | = while | 1SG | rice | cook-stay | $=$ RLS |

'While he was sleeping I was cooking rice.'

The term naíktaí is employed to indicate 'whenever'. In the example in (647a), the one who performs the action, in this case únyút 'to bow head', of the main clause is omitted because culturally it is clear from the context. People and other creatures bow to the king but not the other way around. Similarly with the 1 SG referent in (647b).
(647) (a) sāngpaláng līnaíktaí únyúttamā (06:19)

(b) halángweúnaíktaí apyaūtawá (AKYS)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { \{haláng-weú } & =\text { naíktaí \}} & \text { a-pyaū-ta } & =\text { á } \\
\text { sky-water } & \text { = whenever } & \text { NEG-happy-L.SUFF } & =\text { NEG }
\end{array}
$$

'I am not happy whenever it rains.'

In order to express a temporal reference (which may be translated as 'when' in English), the topic marker ká is employed at the end of the first clause, as illustrated in (648). LaPolla (1995) and Genetti (1986) discussed the syncretism of postpositions and clausal subordinators in TB languages. We can also see a similar development in Kadu. The topic marker ká without a nominaliser can occur immediately following the VCX as a temporal clausal subordinator.
(648) (a) līhángká haláng atūngākpánták (06:27)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\{\text { lī-háng } & =\text { ká }\} \text { haláng } & \text { a-tūngāk } & \text { = pán }=\text { ták } \\
\text { come-back } & =\text { TOP head } & \text { NEG-bow } & =\operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}
\end{array}
$$

'When (the king) returned (the lizard) no longer bowed its head, it is said.'
(b) pūngtaūng tánàngká ací kátnàngpán (12:126)

| \{pūngtaūng | tán-àng | =ká $\}$ | ací | kát-àng |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| drum | beat-DIR | = pán |  |  |
| droP elephant | run-DIR | $=\operatorname{COS}$ |  |  |

'When (he) played the drum the elephant run away.'

In order to indicate an initial boundary, the structure mà 'time noun' + haîk ~hayaúk 'ablative' is employed in Kadu, which may be translated as 'since' or 'ever since' in English. See the discussion on ablative haík in §6.5. Clauses with this structure are exemplified in (649) and (650).
(649) nāngyaúk ngayaúk ngaúkà satēngkānpè nímcímàhayaúk mékswē thàcímā (09:51)
\{nāng = yaúk ngā = yaúk ngaúkà satēng-kān =pè
$2 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{COM} 1 \mathrm{SG}=\mathrm{COM}$ as.for thatch-CLT.field $=\mathrm{LOC}$
ním-cí mà =hayaúk\} mékswē thà-cí $=m a \overline{ }$
stay-PL time =since friend be-PL = RLS
'As for you and me, we have been friends since we lived at the thatch field.'

'(She) doesn't want to do anything since she came back from town.'

In order to indicate a negative condition, the subordinator macháng, glossed as 'as long as' in this thesis, is employed following a negated verb. This form is clearly an old loanword from the Burmese term, өఇ|č: [mahkrang:](mahkrang:) glossed as 'until' in Okell and Allot (2001:152). Although the initial syllable is clearly a negative marker, $\Delta<m a>$ in Burmese, thus forming (NEG + V-NEG + शर्c: [hkrang:](hkrang:)) structure, Okell analysed this subordinator as a single morpheme and provided the English translation as 'for as long as something has not V-ed, not been V-ed, until V-ed’. The structure of the Burmese negative initial boundary is illustrated in (651a) and the corresponding structure in Kadu in (651b).


| thu ma-thwa: mahkrang: | nga | ma-thwa:-bu: |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 3SG | NEG-go | as.long.as | 1SG | NEG-go-NEG |

'As long as he doesn’t go, I won’t go.'
(b) hīng alīmacháng ngā anāngá (02:42)


शर्ट: [hkrang:](hkrang:) in Burmese and cháng in Kadu also occur with positive verbs to indicate coincidental actions or actions that happened simultaneously. Okell (2001:152) translated this term as 'as soon as, immediately upon V-ing'. In spoken Burmese, this kind of coincidental action is expressed by attaching the term [hkrang:](hkrang:), [chin:](chin:) in spoken form, after a reduplicated verb, as in (652).

thu rok rok hkrang: sa. =me
3SG arrive arrive as.soon.as begin =IRLS
'(We) will begin the moment s /he arrives.' Or 'As soon as s/he arrive (we) will begin.'

However, in Kadu, the term cháng does not follow a reduplicated verb, rather it occurs in between the two iterations of the verb. The sentence provided by one of my language consultants is given in (653).
(653) nàntè thōkchángthōk weútaíktamā (AKYS)
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { \{nàntè thōk } & =\text { cháng } & \text { thōk }\} & \text { weú taík-ta } & =\mathrm{mā} \\ \text { guest arrive } & =\text { CHÁNG } & \text { arrive water offer.drink-L.SUFF } & =\text { RLS }\end{array}$
'(I) offered drinking water to the visitor the moment ( $\mathrm{s} / \mathrm{he}$ ) arrived.' Or 'As soon as the guest arrived, (I) offered (him/her) a drink of water.'

Another temporal subordinator is $c \bar{c}$, which may be glossed as 'before'. It only occurs with a negated verb to indicate that the action the negated verb refers to happens after the action of the verb in the main clause.
(654) kónāyī ínthōkcītè pánnù mīnhángìnglakà (18:25)
\{kó nāyī ín-thōk-cī\}
nine o'clock NEG-arrive-before
pán-nù mīn-háng-ìng = lakà
CLF.times-one awake-back-DIR ${ }_{2}=$ MIR
'(I) awoke again before nine o’clock.'
(655) ūzíksátè hīng mahángpè peúmaták hīng ameū hīng awáqtàk amíngsákhàcī (24:42)
ūzíksá = tè hīng maháng =pè peú $=m \bar{a}=$ ták
bird =A.AG 3SG that.thing = LOC keep = RLS = HS
\{hīng ameū hīng awà-tàk a-míngsàhà-cī\}
3SG mother 3SG father-PL NEG-know-before
'He hid the bird in that place before his parents noticed (it).'

### 11.1.4 Concessive clauses

The term zeú, glossed as 'even', is employed to indicate an 'even if' clause. It is also used to indicate a proposition which is counter to the expectation expressed in the main clause, as in (656).
(656) (a) hīng nāngzeú ngā anāngá (AKYS)
$\begin{array}{lllll}\text { \{hīng } & \text { nāng } & =\text { zeú }\} & \text { ngā } & \text { a-nāng }=\text { á } \\ 3 \text { SG } & \text { go } & =\text { even } & 1 S G & \text { NEG-go }=\text { NEG }\end{array}$
'I won't go even if he does.'
(b) ameū mátzeú nāngkū (AKYS)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\{\text { ameū màt }=\text { zeú }\} & \text { nāng } & =k \bar{u} \\
\text { mother scold }=\text { even } & \text { go } & =\text { IRLS } \\
\text { 'I will go even if mother scolds me.' }
\end{array}
$$

It may be immediately followed by the emphatic particle tá for even more emphasis, as in (657).
(657) címmátzeútá aōmyeūnpánseùé (17:54)
cím-mát =zeú = tá $\} \quad$ a-ōm-yeūn = pán $=$ seùé
house-watch $=$ even $=$ EMPH $\quad$ NEG-make-can $=\operatorname{COS}=$ SAP
'(My parents are old now), (They) can't even do the job of looking after the house.'

The form zeú can also occur with an NP. Following an NP, it indicates an emphatic meaning which may be translated as 'even' in English (658a). It may be additionally followed by the emphatic particle tá for more emphasis, as in (658b).
(658) (a) hamàngkà shīzeú anaútná (19:10)

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\text { ha }=\text { màng }=\text { kà } & \text { shī } & =\text { zeú } & \text { a-naút }=\text { á } \\
\mathrm{WH}=\text { thing }=\mathrm{Q} & \text { medicine } & =\text { even } & \text { NEG-feed }=\mathrm{NEG} \\
\text { '(You) didn't even give (me) any sort of medicine.' }
\end{array}
$$

(b) kalìngsatá sómsatázeútá ngāpán (17:26)
kalìng satá sóm satá = zeú =tá ngā = pán
two month three month $=$ even $=$ EMPH exist $=\cos$
'It's already been up to two or three months.'

In order to express the idea of one action immediately followed by another the pán 'change of state' ASP employed at the end of the first clause, as in (659).
(659) (a) wàk ngaúkà anáq síngngeútshītè yōkceúpán īpmā (12:70)
wàk ngaúkà síngngeút-shī = tè
pig as.for fig-CLT.fruit =A.AG
yōk-ceú = pán īp =mā
eat-full $=\operatorname{CoS}$ sleep $=$ RLS
'The pig ate the figs (to full) and slept.'
(b) caúngshāpā zāpán īyàngmaták (07:53)
caúng-shā pā zā =pán ī-àng =mā =ták
school-small include build $=\mathbf{C O S}$ give-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ RLS $=H S$
'(The king) built a school/monastery and gave (it to him), it is said.'

A few examples in my corpus also contain three consecutive events as illustrated in (660) and (661).
(660) hīngtè wánshípán nōppán peúpàngták (15:157)
hīng = tè wán-shí = pán nōp =pán peú = páng = ták
3SG = A.AG chop-die $=\operatorname{COS}$ bury $=\operatorname{COS}$ keep $=\operatorname{DIR}_{1}: \operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}$
'(They) chopped to death, buried and kept/placed (him), it is said.'
(661) zìnpúkpè tímpán nímpán yūpánták (08:57)
zìnpúk = pè tím =pán ním =pán yū =pán = ták
bush = LOC hide $=$ COS stay $=\operatorname{COS}$ look $=\operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}$
'(He) hid, stayed in the bush and looked, it is said.'

In some cases, when a sentence contains three sequential events, the first event may be left unmarked, as in (662).
(662) sāngpaláng ōm pheúpán lāpánták (15:31)
sāngpaláng ōm pheú-pán lā =pán $=$ ták
king make carry-COS take $=\operatorname{COS}=$ HS
'(They) made him king, carried and took him, it is said.'

The term pán may be additionally followed by an emphatic particle naà, glossed as 'only', to indicate an emphatic purpose or change of state prior to the action expressed by the following verb. Consider the illustrations in (663) and (664).
(663) lapòk wánpánnaà salākpánnaà hōppánnaà (29:20)
lapòk wán =pán = naà salāk = pán =naà hōp =pán =naà
bamboo chop $=\cos =$ only prune $=\cos =$ only tie $=\cos =$ only 'chopped, pruned, and tied the bamboo...,'
(664) atá tīppán īpánnaà tawákká weúpè naútnàngná ngaúmaták (15:100)
atá tīp =pán ī =pán =naà
rice pack $=\cos$ give $=\cos =$ only
tawák =ká weú = pè naút-àng = ná ngaú = mā = ták
half $=$ TOP water $=$ LOC feed-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ SAP say $=$ RLS $=$ HS
'(She) packed the rice and gave (it to him) and said "feed (them) half of it at the water", it is said.'
11.1.6 Manner clauses

The term ning ~ningyeù is attached to the end of the first clause of two or more clauses to express manner, as in (665). See also the discussion of adverbials in §3.2.1.
(665) (a) hīng ēk ngaúninngyeù ōmīyàngmaták (15:103)
\{hīng ēk ngaú = nīngyeù $\} \quad$ ōm-ī-àng $=m a \overline{ }=$ ták
3SG wife say = manner make-give-DIR ${ }_{1}=$ RLS $=H S$ 'He did (for them) in the manner his wife had told (him).'
(b) ací háknīngyeù hákàng (07:103)

| \{ací | hák | $=$ nīngyeù $\}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | hák-àng,$~$| elephant | shout $=$ manner |
| :--- | :--- | shout-DIR ${ }_{1}$

It may also occur after an NP to mark similarity in manner or attribute, as in (666).
(666) hīng zíngyōk īshíqmáqtè hīng saēknīng ōmpánnaà atá yōkcímaták (04:11)
hīng zíngyōk īshíq máq =tè hīng saēk =nīng
3SG order girl female $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG} \quad 3 \mathrm{SG} \quad$ daughter $=$ manner
ōm = pán = naà atá yōk-cí = mā = ták
make $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only rice eat-PL $=$ RLS $=H S$
'(He) dressed his servant girl like his own daughter and they ate rice, it is said.'
(667) wāncíngká kasà míktūshīnīngyeù tūtaūlaká (18:83)
wāncīng = ká kasà míktūshī = nīngyeù tū-ta = lakà
charcoal $=$ TOP tiger eyeball = manner same-L.SUFF $=$ MIR
'(The) charcoal (in the fire) resembles a tiger's eye.'

### 11.1.7 Comparison clauses

The term neúq, glossed as 'as much as', is employed to indicate an amount or quantity of some action or quality expressed by the VCX, as in (668). It can also occur immediately after an NP (§6.8).
(668) (a) nāng lākákneúq ỉkū (25:106)

| $\{$ nāng lā-kák | $=$ neúq $\}$ | $\overline{1}$ | $=k \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2 S G$ take-want | $=$ as.much.as give | $=$ IRLS |  |

'(I) will give you as much as you want.'
(b) hīng īneúqlā (AKYS)
\{hīng ī =neúq $\}$ lā
3SG give $=$ as.much.as take
'Take as much as he gives.'

It is also used to describe 'as much as $V$ ' or to do something to an extreme. In this type of structure, the subordinator neúq is preceded by one of the modal auxiliaries (§7.2.3) and the same verb is repeated. The most common auxiliary in this position is hà 'know.how', as illustrated (669).
(669) (a) nónhàneúq nón (30:26)
\{nón-hà =neúq\} nón
mix-know.how =as.much.as mix
'Mix as much as possible.'
(b) ngáhàneúq ngá (21:20)

| \{ngá-hà $=$ neúq $\}$ | $=$ ngá |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| steam-know.how | $=$ as.much.as | $=$ steam |
| 'Steam as much/long as possible.' |  |  |

### 11.2 Coordination

In coordinating two or more nouns ( $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}$, and C ), yaúk 'comitative', $p \bar{a}$ 'and too' and $y e \bar{u}$ 'and also' are employed. Each type is exemplified below.

The term yaúk, which functions as a comitative (§6.6), is used when coordinating two nouns (A and B). The examples in (670) illustrate yaúk coordinating two NPs.
(670) (a) kasàyaúk hānshíyaúk atūtawá (27:9)

| \{kasà = yaúk $\}$ | \{hānshí $=$ yaúk $\}$ | a-tū-ta | = á |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tiger $=$ COM cat | $=$ COM | NEG-same-L.SUFF $=$ NEG |  |

(b) nāng peúkútyaúk maléq tátlúngyaúk caîkcímák (12:89)
\{nāng peúkút $=$ yaúk $\} \quad$ \{maléq tátlúng $=$ yaúk $\}$
2 SG adze $=\mathrm{COM}$ 1PL magic.ball $=\mathrm{COM}$
caík-cí = mák
exchange-PL = HORT
'Let's exchange your adze and/with my magic ball.'

Although not attested in my corpus, the speakers of Kadu expressed that it is also possible to use yaúk when coordinating three NPs such as A, B, and C, as in (671).
hīng saékyaúk sāyaúk mōkyaúk nāngcímā (AKYS)
\{hīng saék =yaúk $\}$ \{sā = yaúk $\}$ \{mōk = yaúk $\}$ nāng-cí =mā
3sg daughter $=\mathrm{COM}$ son $=\mathrm{COM}$ cow $=\mathrm{COM}$ go-PL $=$ RLS 'His daughter, son, and the cow went.'

Only one time in my corpus, the comitative marker yaúk is attached to two clauses to indicate temporal simultaneity of the two actions, as in (672).
(672) úng thīngpàpanáq sèktàk ngaúkà sāngpaláng tāmìngyaúk hinngyítá pòkhápè nāngìngyaúk "hinngtè sāngpaláng ōmzíngthāmā" ngaúpánnaà sāngpaláng ōm pheúpán lāpánták (15:30).


| $\{$ hīng $=$ yí $=$ tá | pòkhá | $=$ pè | nāng-ìng | $=$ yaúk $\}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3 S G$ | $=$ also $=\mathrm{EMPH}$ | forest | $=$ LOC | go- DIR $_{2}$ | $=C O M$ |


| "hīng $=$ tè sāngpaláng | ōm-zíng $=$ thāmā" ngaú | = pán = naà |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $3 S G$ | =A.AG king | make-JUSS $=$ HORT | say | $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only |

sāngpaláng ōm pheú = pán lā = pán $=$ ták
king make carry $=\operatorname{Cos}$ take $=\operatorname{Cos}=\mathrm{HS}$
'At the time people from that village came looking for a king and the time he was going to the forest, (they found him and) said, "let's make him a king", And they made him king and carried him away, it is said.'

The term $p \bar{a}$ is also employed to coordinate two or more NPs. The lexical meaning of this morpheme is not retrievable in Kadu. However, as it is common to find Kadu speakers using a lot of grammatical words from Burmese, we can relate this term with

Burmese 0 l <pa>. Compare the examples in (673). The example in (673a) is in Burmese and (673b) is in Kadu.


$$
\begin{equation*}
\{\text { hkwei: }=\text { pa }\}\{\text { wak }=\text { pa }\} \quad \text { hko-thwa: }=\text { te } \tag{673}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\operatorname{dog} \quad=\text { and pig } \quad=\text { and } \quad \text { take.along-go }=\text { RLS }
$$

'(He) took along a dog and a pig.'
(b) cīpā wàkpā ngaúcípánták (12:49)
$\{\mathrm{c} \overline{\mathrm{i}} \quad=\mathrm{pa}\} \quad\{$ wàk $=\mathrm{pa}\} \quad$ ngaú-cí $\quad=$ pán $=$ ták
$\operatorname{dog}=$ and $p i g=$ and say-PL $=\operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}$
'The dog and pig said, it is said.'

It is also common to find the term $p \bar{a}$ when coordinating more than two NPS, as in (674).
(674) amúnashì hàkaú ameūpā awàpā nūklánpā ngaúpánnàkà peútkaútalé (17:2)

| amúnashī sibling | hà-kaú <br> five-CLF.perso |  | $\begin{aligned} \overline{\mathrm{u}} & =\mathrm{p} \overline{\mathbf{a}}\} \\ \mathrm{er} & =\text { and } \end{aligned}$ | \{awà father | $\begin{aligned} & =\mathrm{p} \bar{a}\} \\ & =\text { and } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \{nūklán = pā | ngaú | = pánnàkà | peút-kaú |  | $=$ talé |
| nephew = and | say | $=\mathrm{if}$ | eight-CLF | .person | $=\mathrm{SAP}$ | '(I've got) five siblings, a mother, a father, and a nephew, (we are altogether,) eight.'

The term ye $\bar{u}$ is employed to connect two NPs, particularly connecting personal names, as in (675).
zaúpaúmaíyeū eúhámyeū kátcílakàé (08:1)
$\{$ zaúpaúmaí $=$ yeū $\}\{$ eúhám $=$ yeū $\} \quad$ kát-cí $=$ lakà $=$ é
PN =and PN =and run-PL = MIR = SAP
'Zaupaumai and Eham run away.'

This marker is identical with the Burmese coordinate marker qư <je>, as in (676).

\{thita $=$ re $\}$ \{mra.mra. =re\} la $=$ te
PN = and PN =and come = RLS
'Tita and Mya Mya came.'

There is one other term that is employed to coordinate two or more NPS when there aren't exhaustive listings. It is the term $k \bar{a}$, glossed as 'so.on', which may be translated as 'such as' or 'so on', as in (677).
(677) ngónkā phúkā ngānaíkngátè īkū (07:21)
\{ngón kā\} $\{$ phú kā $\} \quad$ ngānaíkngá $=$ tè $\overline{1} \quad=k \bar{u}$
gold so.on silver so.on all =A.AG give = IRLS
'(I) will give all things such as gold and silver.'

The term $k \bar{a}$ 'so.on' frequently occurs in the structure $k \bar{a}+m a ̀+k \bar{a}$ (so.on + WH+ so.on) which may be translated as 'such sort of things' in English. In this structure there is tone sandhi. The token of $k \bar{a}$ in the initial position changes to high tone and the one in the final position changes to low tone. Due to its frequent occurrence, I have glossed this structure as a single lexical item 'such.sort.of.thing'.
zalaúk kámàkà tamāyūng kámàkà zākū (17:64)

| \{zalaùk | kámàkà $\}$ | \{tamāyūng | kámàkà $\}$ | zā $=k \bar{u}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| resthouse | sort.of.things | community.hall | sort.of.things | build $=$ IRLS |

(679) tékshī zalūng kámàkà hamàngkazeú alāhángìngá (18:90)
tékshī zalūng kámàkà hà = màng =kà = zeú
pot sink sort.of.things $\mathrm{WH}=$ thing $=\mathrm{Q} \quad=$ even
a-lā-háng-ìng =á
NEG-take-back-DIR $2_{2}=$ NEG
'(We) didn't bring anything such as a pot, a sink-that sort of thing.'

In order to express an 'either-or' relation, parallel clauses are simply juxtaposed, as shown in (680). Alternative clauses are shown in $\}$ brackets.
(680) (a) sā thàkákthà saék thàkákthà lī (AKYS)

| $\{$ sā thà-kák thà $\}$ | \{saék | thà-kák | thà $\}$ lī |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| son be-want be daughter be-want | be come |  |  |
| Come (one of you) | either son or daughter.' |  |  |

(b) ngā ōmpán ōmkū aōmpán aōmá (AKYS)

| $\left\{\begin{array}{lll}\text { ngā } & \text { ōm } & =\text { pán } \\ \text { onm } & =k \bar{u}\end{array}\right\}$ |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | do/make | $=$ if | do/make | $=$ IRLS |

\{a-ōm =pán a-ōm =á\}
NEG-do/make $=$ if $\quad$ NEG-do/make $=$ NEG
'T'll do it if I want to, or I won't do it if I don't want to.'

Two interrogative clauses may be also juxtaposed, as illustrated in (681).
(681) (a) nāng sāngpaláng nántaū áttakalá síttúkcítakalá (12:114)

'You, king, will you surrender/submit your palace or (do you) want war?’
(b) nāng kátphángkalá ngākátphángkalá (18:70)
\{nāng kát-pháng $=k \bar{u} \quad=$ lá $\}$
2 SG run-prior $\quad=\mathrm{IRLS}=\mathrm{Q}$
\{ngā kát-pháng $=k \bar{u} \quad=$ lá $\}$
1 SG run-prior $\quad=\mathrm{IRLS}=\mathrm{Q}$
'Will you run first or shall I run?'

In order to express a 'whether or not' relationship juxtaposition of two clauses is employed. In this process, both clauses have the same verb; one of the clauses expressing a negative and the other a positive proposition, as exemplified in (682).
(682) (a) nga ēk ngatè míngsàhà amíngsàhà ngā sántáttahángmanaík (08:88)

| ngā | ēk | ngā | $=$ tè | \{míngsàhàà | a-míngsàhà\} |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1SG | wife | 1 SG | = A.AG | know | NEG-know |

ngā sántát-ta-háng =manaík
1SG try.out-L.SUFF-back =only.if
'I will test my wife (to see) whether my wife knows/recognises me or not.'
(b) ayōkmeú yōkmeúká aheúhà (22:13)

| $\{a-y o ̄ k-m e u ́\}$ | \{yōk-meú $\} \quad=$ ká $\quad$ a-heú-hà | = á |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| NEG-eat-good eat-good $=$ TOP NEG-tell-know.how | $=$ NEG |  |
| 'I can't tell whether it is good taste or not.' |  |  |

Notice in (682b) the negative VCX complex may precede the positive VCX.

### 11.3 Narrative structures

This section looks at the pattern of linking independent clauses that are frequently attested in the stories and narratives recorded. Two structures are common: "Tail-head" constructions and attaching adverbial clauses in the clause initial position of the second of two consecutive independent clauses.

### 11.3.1 Tail-head linkage

There is a clear pattern of "Tail-head" linkages in Kadu. This structure is commonly found not only in TB languages but also in Papuan languages (de Vries 2005). In this structure, the last segment of the section of discourse-usually the final verb complex-is partially or completely repeated at the beginning of the next sentence, as in (683a) and (683b), The head clause and following segments are linked by the structure ngaú + pánkaú 'say' + 'as it is the case' which may be translated into English as 'having said that' or 'having said that it is the case'.
(a) úngpè sā hawà pyōkpíng (04:20)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { úng =pè sā hú-à \{pyōk =píng }\}_{\text {TALL }} \\
& \text { that }=\text { LOC son } \text { CLF.person-one give.birth }=\operatorname{DIR}_{2}: C O S
\end{aligned}
$$

'Over there (she) gave birth to a baby son.'
(b) pyōkpíngták ngaúpánkaú màhameúyí alīcí (04:21)

| $\{$ pyōk | $=$ píng | $=$ ták $\}_{\text {HEAD }}$ | ngaú | $=$ pánkaú |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| give.birth | $=$ DIR $_{2}: C O S$ | $=H S$ | say | $=$ as.it.is.the.case |

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { mà } & =\text { hameú }=\text { yí } & \\
\text { a-lī-cí } \\
\mathrm{WH} & =\text { person }=\text { also } & \\
\text { NEG-come-PL }
\end{array}
$$

'Having given birth to a baby, no one came (to see the baby).'

The last segment of (683a), pyōkping, is repeated at the beginning of (683b). In many cases, the tail-head construction involves repetition of just the verb or verb complex from the 'tail clause', as in (684) and (685).
(684) weúyahaùngpèà útsátnàngmā (18:15)
$\left.\begin{array}{llll}\text { weú-yahaùng } & =\text { pè } & & \text { \{út-sàt-àng }\end{array}=m \bar{a}\right\}_{\text {TAIL }}$
'(He) throws (it), at once, into the river.'
(685) útsátpánták ngaúpánkaú zaūpwá saēktàk zaūpwá saēktàk ngaúkà
hīngathéngtaūyaúk weúkú līpánták (18:16)
$\begin{array}{lll}\{\text { út-sàt } & =\text { pán }=\text { ták }\}_{\text {HEAD }} & \text { ngaú = pánkaú }\end{array} \quad$ zaūpwá
saēk-tàk ngaúkà hīng athéng taū =yaúk weúkú lī =pán = ták daughter-PL as.for 3 SG maiden HONR $=\mathrm{COM}$ bathe come $=\operatorname{COS}=\mathrm{HS}$ 'Having thrown that, the chief's daughters and friends with a maiden came for a bath, it is said.'

Kadu being a verb final language, the verbal predicate which comes at the end of the sentence is frequently marked by CFPs: $m \bar{a}$ 'realis', $k \bar{u}$ 'irrealis', and the ASP pán 'change of state'. For instance, the tail clause in (684a) ends with the CFP mā. These CFPS are usually not repeated in the head clause. Rather, they are replaced by the pán 'change of state' marker followed by the evidential hearsay marker ták.

If the tail clause contains nominals, they may be restated in the head clause, as in (686) and (687).
(686) hīng ēktè lākákpán (15:78)
\{hīng ēk = tè lā-kák =pán $\}_{\text {TALI }}$
3SG wife =A.AG take-want $=\operatorname{COS}$
'(The king) wanted his wife.'
(687) hīng ēktè lākákpánták ngaúpánkaú hīngtè tēcaúng cāntamaták (15:79)

| \{hīng <br> 3SG | èk wife | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { tè } \\ & =\mathrm{A} \cdot \mathrm{AG} \end{aligned}$ | lā-kák <br> take-want | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { pán } \\ & =\mathrm{COS} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { ták } \\ & =\mathrm{HS} \end{aligned}$ | ngaú say | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { pánkaú }\}_{\text {HEAD }} \\ & =\text { as.it.is.the.case } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| hīng | $=$ tè | tēcaúng | cān-ta |  | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | = ták |  |
| 3SG | $=\mathrm{A} . \mathrm{AG}$ | way.to.die | ie plan-L.S | SUFF | $=$ RLS | $=\mathrm{HS}$ |  |

'Having wanted his wife, (the king) plans to kill him, it is said.'

The topic marker ká (§6.1; §11.1.3) may be employed as a temporal linker to connect the head clause with the following segment, as illustrated in (688)-(690).
(688) maeúeútóngták sā kalìnghú ngāmaták (16:1)

| maeúeútóng | $=$ ták | sā | kalìng-hú | ngā | $=$ mā | $=$ ták $\}_{\text {TALL }}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| long.long.ago | $=H S$ | son | two-CLF.person | exist | $=$ RLS | $=$ HS |

'Long ago, there were two sons, it is said.'
(689) sā kalìnghú ngāká sā kalìnghú amwē sanàmcímaták (16:2)

| \{sā | kalìng-hú | ngā $\quad=$ ká $\}_{\text {HEAD }}$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| son | two-CLF.person | exist $=$ TOP |  |  |  |
| sā | kalìng-hú | \{amwe | sanàn-cí | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | $=$ ták $\}_{\text {TAIL }}$ |
| son | two-CLF.person | inheritance | snatch-PL | $=$ RLS | $=\mathrm{HS}$ |

'Having two sons, they fought over the inheritance, it is said.'
(690) amwē sanàmcíká anáq sā ngaúkà amwē lāpángták (16:3)

| \{amwē <br> inheritance | sanàn-cí <br> snatch-PL | $\begin{aligned} & =\mathrm{ká}\}_{\text {HEAD }} \\ & =\mathrm{TOP} \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| anáq sā | ngaúkà | amwē | lā | = páng | ták |
| this son | as.for | inheritance | take | $=\mathrm{DIR}_{1}: \mathrm{COS}$ | $=\mathrm{HS}$ |

'Having fought for the inheritance, these sons took their shares, it is said.'

### 11.3.2 Linking with adverbial clauses

The form haík-mà (ablative-time), glossed as 'that time', also functions as a temporal linker of the two independent clauses, as in (691).
(691) (a) kaphútè ómàngmaták (09:100)

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { kaphú }=\text { tè } & \text { óm-àng } & =\text { mā }=\text { ták } \\
\text { snake }=\text { A.AG } & \text { hold-DIR }{ }_{1} & =\text { RLS }=\mathrm{HS}
\end{array}
$$

'(He) held the snake, it is said.
(b) haîkmà kaphú haūshíyàngmaták (09:101)

| haíkmà | kaphú | haū-shí-àng | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |$=$ ták

'At that time, the snake killed (the tiger), it is said.'

The phrase àng-yaūngpáng (that-reason/because) is added at the beginning of the second clause to indicate the result/consequence.
(692) (a) ngāká sāngpaláng saēktè ínlākáká seùé (25:160a)

| ngā | = ká | sāngpaláng | saēk | $=$ tè |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | $=$ TOP | king | daughter | = A.AG |

ín-lā-kák-á = seú =é
NEG-take-want-NEG =SAP =SAP
'I don't want to take (marry) the king's daughter.'
(b) àngyaūngpáng hāpmā seùé (25:160)
àng-yaūngpáng hāp =mā =seú =é
that-because.of weep $=$ RLS $=$ SAP $=$ SAP
'That's why (I) cry.'

In order to indicate a concession relationship between two independent clauses, the construction hamàngkazáng ngaútità (WH-thing-Q-EMPH say-also-EMPH) is used at the beginning of the second clause, as in (693).
(693) (a) àngpè útpeúmā (18:91)

| àng | $=$ pè | út-peú | $=$ mā |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| that | $=$ LOC |  | abandon-keep |$=$ RLS

'(We) left (our staff) there.'
(b) hamàngkazáng ngaúitità lāhángciàngmák (18:92)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { hà }=\text { màng }=\text { ká }=\text { záng } & \text { ngaú }=\text { tí }=\text { tá } \\
\mathrm{wH}=\text { thing }=\mathrm{TOP}=\mathrm{EMPH} & \text { say }=\text { also }=\mathrm{EMPH}
\end{array}
$$

$$
\text { lā-háng-cí-àng } \quad=\text { mák }
$$

$$
\text { take-back-PL-DIR }_{1}=\text { HORT }
$$

'Whatever (is) said, let's go and take them.'

## Appendix A: Kadu-English-Burmese glossary

The Kadu-English-Burmese glossary contains over 3000 entries that were gathered during my two fieldwork trips (2009-2011) among the Kadu community. Most lexical items and grammatical morphemes were gathered by extracting them from recorded language data texts and elicitation and observation in natural language settings. Since one of the main intentions of this research is to help the Kadu community develop a writing system of their own so that they can maintain their language and culture, therefore, it is presented using a tentative orthography I developed and used in this thesis. In addition, I have included Burmese glosses with the intention of making the data available to Burmese students of linguistics and Kadu younger generations who are being brought up learning to read and write Burmese.

The order of the symbols in the Kadu alphabet is arranged following English alphabetical order. Entries are also indicated with grammatical information, such as verb, noun, and particle. Abbreviations used in the glossary are presented below.

| adV | adverb | onmt | onomatopoeic word |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| attw | attendant word | part | particle |
| aux | auxiliary | prn | pronoun |
| clf | classifier | quant | quantifier |
| conj | conjunction | refl | reflexive |
| dem | demonstrative | slg | slang |
| excl | exclamation | subd | subordinator |
| locn | locational noun | $V$ | verb |
| $n$ | noun |  |  |

Possible loanwords from Shan and Burmese are indicated by " $<$ Shan" and " $<$ Bur." Though I am pretty confident in my Burmese, due to lack of competence in Shan, many

Shan loanwords are left unmarked．Variant forms or allomorphs are indicated by（ ） brackets．

## A $\mathbf{a}$

$\mathbf{a}=$ part proclitic negative particle．

á $n$ strength ə§ふ๐：＜Bur．
＝á（－wá，ná，má，ná，ngá）part particle attaches to verbs or verb complexes to convey a negative sense．గ్రนు
à excl oh ふ
$\grave{a}_{1} n$ numeral one ๑ø
$\grave{a}_{2} v$ be opened us
－à part euphoric particle．$\sigma$ จ
acān $n$ plan зャセ் $<$ Bur．


acaúng $n$ about ъə๓ ت્રિc：＜Bur．


acēng $n$ time зஜั่ீ＜Bur．
aceú $v$ vomit ъई
achák $n$ time зจю์ $<$ Bur．
achángacháng refl mutually зə｜ఁీ：จ｜cీ：＜Bur．
achēanē $n$ condition зә6®ৃว6я＜Bur．
achēng $n$ time ふəจํ $<$ Bur．
achēng akhā $n$ time зวจิ｜\＄์૩วว＜Bur．
achí $n$ muntjac deer กิ
achì（chì）$v$ chew o）
achìn $v$ shake off ə๐๐ీรை As in shake off buds from


achít $v$ murmur
 ＜Bur．
$\mathbf{a c i ́}_{1} n$ elephant $\triangleright<\mathcal{c}$


acísweū $n$ tusk əcఁə๐u


ahā $n$ crab mm§：
ahà $n$ chin 60：6®
aháhē excl wonderful！ъumะєu

ahát $n$ smell ъə̊
ahaú（haú）v1）crawl ภைఃs：2）feel pain when someone eats pepper
aheú（heú）$v$ scratch moofog
aheū $n$ fish cl：oธ์夭์ㅂ․
aík ${ }_{1} v$ hot ชัํา

aíkkalèaík onmt sound of small rooster crow

aīng ${ }_{1}$ onmt sound of day crying in pain $\sigma a \circ$ pp：


aìngsaì halaíng $a d v$ tilt $\cos \varepsilon^{2} 6 \infty c^{c}$ ．
aīngsaút aīngsaút $a d v \operatorname{limp} 6009{ }_{0} 600 ई^{\prime}$.


akáq $n$ dance зəп＜Bur．
akékhát $n$ observe зəก̀ว๐＜Bur．
akhā $n$ time зəəी＜Bur．
akhán $n$ room ъəई：＜Bur．
akhàtóng $a d v$ while зəวloŋई：＜Bur．
akhaúng $n$ coffin зәєวาธะ＜Bur．
akhwák $n$ permit ъวจఁ์＜Bur．
akōng $n$ all，everything зวmई์ คْคำว

akú $v$ dry எஜ్రీर्m
akwák $n$ blot зmைํ＜Bur．
ákweú $n$ spittle ગ્ంః๑રల
ákweúthaúk $v$ spit oْ600：60：
ákyá $n$ tree with long edible pods 6 Trocroppuc álá excl Ah las！зmะ0ァ：
alaík part accordingly зəงิฺฺ＜Bur．



alō $n$ need згัั＜Bur．
alòkà excl surprise зャัฺm
alōlō $a d v$ by itself，naturally зəกิกัุ＜Bur．
álóng $n$ all ふะงั：＜Bur．

alúk $n$ work ъ๙ฺ์ $<$ Bur．
amākà $a d v$ that time З̊ววยฺっ
amān $n$ true ૩əưई＜Bur．
amànkáq $n$ truly зəஸథ̣の＜Bur．
amát $n$ official зə๐ю์＜Bur．
amék $n$ command зə̊ई＜Bur．
ameū $n$ mother з๐๘ь
ameūawà $n$ parent $\AA$ ¿

amú $n$ older brother зธ์ஜั
amúnashī $n$ male siblings อฺ૩ァธ์กํ
amwē $n$ inheritance зьєย＜Bur．
amyeú $n$ always зə $\notin \in$＜Bur．

amyó $n$ kind अધ્ูึㄹ＜Bur．

amyómyó $n$ various way ъชขํㅇํํํㄹ＜

an dem proximal demonstrative ${ }_{3}^{\circ}$ anyeù dem

ān $n$ paddy ouls
anaí $n$ maternal grandmother з๗๓๐
anánq $n$ smell зəฐ̊。＜Bur．
anáq $p r n$ this ${ }^{\text {® }}$

anè $n$ condition эə $\quad$＜Bur．
aneúsóng quant at least raseలఃo：＜Bur．

àng dem that зวิว
áng $_{1} n$ cabalistic square ъəธ์＜Bur．

－àng part particle attaches to verbs to denote
directional meaning of away from deictic centre．
กัํา

àngnáq $p r n$ that one зэ̀
angōk $n$ stump зəсою́＜Bur．
āngtūng $n$ basin ъг์о
àngyeùzàngngaútì conj however ઊlठUভ઼。
àngzàngngaú conj but ३ใరU．
àngzàngngaútì conj however 3lcuà．
ānkatùn $n$ barn ©utin

ānmeū $n$ paddy oulå̊ exclusively with paddy that
is mixed with pounded rice．ఐईీ

ānpānpaūk $n$ second version of pounded rice

ānsaú $n$ glutinous paddy
ānsaúsát $n$ sticky rice $\quad$ monexలč：D
àntàk（matàk）prn third person plural form．

anweū $n$ lineage зจşu＜Bur．
anyeù dem like this，this manner 3 ัก

ānzapóng $n$ pounded paddy هuluvouroú
áp clf classifier for counting numbers words or utterances əఫิ？
$\overline{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{p}$ clf classifier for counting numbers of mouthful ヘoर

apaín $_{2}$（paí ${ }_{2}$ ）locn tip top ळiर्ט́p：
apáng $n$ curse зə๐र्ट．
apaū locn upon ъъ兀ư＜Bur．
apaúk $n$ hole зəulई์＜Bur．
aphòkcí $n$ clump зъ๐๐์ tuft or clump of hair or grass．
aphweúq $n$ team зøั̀ $<$ Bur．
aphyít $n$ state з๐G氏ీ＜Bur．

apú $n$ ngapi ců
apyā $n$ blue зঞOs＜Bur．
apyīn conj in addition to ъย̛¢＜Bur．
apyít $n$ mistake зध์์ $<$ Bur．
apyōpyān $n$ maiden उəư｜｜ฯ｜ร์：＜Bur．
asá $v$ shake วิจ
asaìng $n$ intestines з $_{n}$
asák $n$ life，age зวข๙์
asáng $n$ group зəวธ์．
asāyēsā $n$ food अ๓6ๆฺ＜Bur．
 $<$ Bur．
aseút $n$ connection ъəюю $<B u r$ ．
ashéq locn east अəgః＜Bur．

ashì ${ }_{1}{ }^{2}$ 1）sister－in－law $\llcorner$ ®̊？ 2 ）older sister of one＇s own mother and father older brother＇s wife $8 \circ$

ashì ${ }_{2} v$ skinny 0 O§

ashīn $n$ lord зәণฺर्¢＜Bur．

ashúngkhān $v$ surrender зŋ̊ə＜Bur．
asìn $n$ mind and also liver øْ๐ீъวう

asít $n$ level зə๐¢＜$<$ Bur．
asón ruler з๐థ̣：＜Bur．
asóng part extremity зә๐ீ：＜Bur．
asùn $n$ edge зəゅई＜Bur．
aswē $n$ friend ъəюฉ＜Bur．
asweù $n$ tusk ъæø๐
āt $n$ broken ท̂｜º$^{\circ}$
àt $v$ submit ъ
atá $n$ rice œoぃĆs
átā excl oh，no！зヵะ
ataí $n$ pattern ъ๐ọ̊čః＜Bur．
atáshínq $n$ left over rice or snack cooc： $\operatorname{ma}^{\text {¢。 }}$ literally．cold food



até $n$ older sister $ァ \diamond$ hété $n$
atékpeū $n$ meaning зə®̧७）

ateú excl oh！．you ъว๐ธ์
athàng $v$ guess ъャ๐
athaúng $n$ mother－in－law бuァmョ term used by the


athéng $n$ maiden ъぃ๐ீई̊＜Bur．
atheú locn inside зюю̀＜Bur．
atheút locn up ъююкை＜Bur．
atheút atheút $a d v$ repeatedly $\infty$ र́alooval
athíq locn up to зь๐＜Bur．
athú $a d v$ extraordinary з๐пः＜Bur．
áthúk $v$ meditate зஃœ๐๐＜Bur．

athwé $n$ youngest збю๐ः＜Bur．
athweút $n$ come out ъळळю＜Bur．
atí $v$ soft si
atíanān $n$ vegetable ъ๗ి：зวฺฺ＜Bur．



aú $p r n$ here ${ }^{\circ}$
aū excl well！єзю์
aúk ${ }_{1}$ locn below єъर्ゥ＜Bur．
aúk ${ }_{2} v$ flip，change or reverse position of things；

aùkchín $n$ seaweed ธmpmúç kind of edible

aūksweú $n$ lower area єmmợčiup


aúm locn front ${ }^{\text {¢甲。 }}$
aūmpā $n$ geese cईీ．
aūmpeút $n$ duck ふ̀
aūng $v$ pass єзŋर्ट＜Bur．
aùng－$n$ particle that attaches before kinship terms， father and mother to make it very polite

aùngawà $n$ parents ${ }^{\circ} \circ \sim$


aūngtweú $n$ bamboo basket ol：Gucurucon：oo่ i．：
awà $n$ father збє
awàsāsā $n$ father and son 0 วъъє
awút $n$ clothe ъə๐ю์＜Bur．
ayàn $v$ poor $>$ č：ๆ่
ayāng $n$ prior ъฉๆ์์＜Bur．
ayát $n$ place зəฤर्ט＜Bur．
ayaúng $n$ color зəюๆर्ธ＜Bur．
ayé $n$ matter заธ๐：＜Bur．

ayék $n$ shadow зəฤิर्ט＜Bur．

āyūng $n$ sense ъวดํ＜Bur．
ayweù $n$ age ъ๑uर्ण＜Bur．
azàk $n$ the name Kadu called themselves．ગుగ్గగ్షి｜l


azáq $n$ begin зə๑＜Bur．
azīazīn $n$ plan зøிъøर $<$ Bur．
azúq $n$ group зャ $<$ Bur．

## C c

cá $n$ in between ern：＜Bur．
－cā part contracted form of plural marker cí and euphoric marker à

caeú $v$ be yellow ol
cahaúng $n$ coriander $\ddagger$
caìk $n$ mango ગ๑ฤર์
caík ${ }_{1} v$ like Proc＜Bur．
caík ${ }_{2} v$ cross over ธmpरom：
caík ${ }_{3} v$ exchange v̀ŗư
cāk $v$ cooked ఇృई์＜Bur．

cáksaháng $n$ drumstick 3 §ouroo

cān ${ }_{1} v$ remain ก｜ई＜Bur．
cān $_{2} v$ plan ت઼ْهِ
cáng $v$ flat？U§．
－càng part contraction of（cí＋àng＝càng）nৈỗ

cānphān $v$ plan か్రิoई＜Bur．
cánpyén $n$ floor mérofec＜Bur．
cánsā $n$ script nj̧iom＜Bur．
cānsíttá $n$ man＇s name ఇฟీீఠ์యు：
cānzī $v$ plan ஜْôu＜Bur．


cáq $v$ cost／fall mj $<$ Bur．
－cáq part particle attaches to verbs to denote
plurality ．$巨<$ Bur．
cáqcáq náqnáq $a d v$ do something carefully or
comfortably শృ冈｜ァs＜Bur．
cáqtaù $n$ as for $\operatorname{mos}$＜Bur．
caú $n$ shoulder back ธmp＜Bur．
ca $\bar{u}_{1} v$ fry $6{\underset{\sim}{n}}^{\circ}<$ Bur．
$\mathbf{c a} \bar{u}_{2} v 1$ ）cross over ธmp 2）exceed ธmp $<$ Bur．
caúk $n$ stone mmpso＜Bur．

＜Bur．
caūlē $n$ clan＇s name ธmpर60
caúng $n$ school єmpč：＜Bur．

cé ${ }_{1} n$ parrot 6 njo $^{\circ}$
cé ${ }_{2} n$ bronze 6 © $:$＜Bur．
cék $v$ angry in mind nojofる̀＜Bur．
cēk ${ }_{1} v$ curve бmைை


cékkatéq cákkatàk $a d v$ zigzag m．．n．

céng $n$ letter $\infty$
cēng 1 clf time గூi์＜Bur．
cēng $n$ rattan $\operatorname{co}^{\circ}$ ©
cèng $v$ roll ペ์્̧ \ll Shan
céttaú $n$ place＇s name ஜூగீ́om

ceú ${ }_{2} n$ buffalo ǹ
ceú $_{3} v$ wide ǹ＜Bur．

ce $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{2} v$ be over ripe $\uparrow \underset{\circ}{c}$（ $<$ Shan


ceù $n$ species of thorny creeper əu์શી｜శీ

ceú paíkpaík $n$ yellow ъ๐๐
ceūceū nátnát $a d v$ with satisfaction $\operatorname{m\rightarrow CrOs}$
$<$ Bur．
ceúntaík $n$ bael રગ્રિథ઼యి：



cézútīn $v$ thankful ธməåonc $<$ Bur．
chalá part verbal particle that attaches to verb to


chanákchī $n$ grime กิํ
cháng refl reciprocal থર์̊＜Bur．
chántā $v$ be rich शข์ీః0＜Bur．
cháq $v$ put down จ＜Bur．
cháshí $v$ drop something to kill จబంo์
chát ${ }_{1} n$ classifier for counting numbers of shots จर्ल $<$ Bur．
chát $_{2} v$ cook থર์＜Bur．
chaū $v$ miss $\sigma \hat{\rho}<$ Bur．
chaúk ${ }_{1} n$ six எశ్రీగ
chaúk ${ }_{2} n$ cliff бррк $^{<}<$Bur．

chaúng $2 n$ river єจpč์＜Bur．
chaúngphyá $n$ up river єจpč：（0）：＜Bur．
chaúq $v$ soothe बрp $^{<}$Bur．
chék $v$ hook จำ＜Bur．
cheùtphāng $n$ eve $\infty$ صీఃm
chēyā $n$ foot print ¿OOQ $^{\circ}<$ Bur．
chí $v$ sour থરِર
chi ${ }_{1} v$ true upor
chī ${ }_{2} v$ march จิ
$\operatorname{chi}_{3} v$ wash ธoup

chīlāchíqlá $v$ tag question upoरosưup̧o
chím $n$ clan＇s name থरटं：

chīmīntā $n$ toilet ふั่์๐л

chín $v$ come near शરर्య：mर्ט＜Bur．
chinik $v$ defecate จิจul

chīnpaūng $n$ vegetable શરર્રઢળીર્ઠ＜Bur．

chīphí（chītát）$v$ fart зə̊ะธulљ

chít $v$ verbal particle that attaches to verb to denote rarity．̀े
chìthú $n$ anus Фзว̊

chō $n$ outer layer of bamboo ş：
chōngpūk $n$ bush থj｜৩ó＜Bur．
chūng（chūngcá）$n$ bush จ̊\｜＜Bur．
chút $v$ take off əoर्ळ＜Bur．
cí $n$ big $\ominus_{\text {®r：}}^{\text {：}}<$ Bur．
－cí part particle attaches to verbs to denote plurality． $\operatorname{m}$
$\mathbf{c i}_{1} n \operatorname{dog}$ 62。 $_{\circ}$
$\mathbf{c i}_{2} v$ peel $\overbrace{\circ}$ as in taking out the inner layer of


＝cī subd particle attaches to negated verbal

cíceū $a d v$ extremely Ə્રْ：muर
cīhaúm $n$ flower uई：ธ̛์夭ํ이․
cīlāng $n$ squirrel Я઼ી઼ી kátcīlāng $n$
cím $n$ house ふ๐์

címmát $n$ look after the house ঞీ์


címsàt $v$ set up a separate house, or start a new family зั่อ๐ఁ์:


cín $v$ narrow ఇर्टः < Bur.
cin $v$ fall; drop (of leaves, fruits, etc.); drop off.
"た్రఇయుల్రీ"
cìn $n_{1} n$ cucumber(small) $\cos$ cus


-cìng part contracted form of cí 'plural' + ìng directional particle. ñà
cīnú $v$ delight ©ِTSis: <Bur.
cīnúphweù $n$ delightful అ్లీsiou be delighted, be very pleased; enraptured. <Bur.



cíp $v$ firm $\mathbb{C}$

Cīpōn $n$ spear $\underset{\sim}{\text { ̧ }}$




cīt $v$ come close múns

cótōk $v$ tie ©్rionu < Bur.


cùm $n$ slave æ్వईई $<$ Bur.

cún $n$ island maşo <Bur.
cūng $v$ meet or happen by chance or by accident or unintentionally or coincidentally ติ < Bur.
cūngók $n$ trunk of reeds $\mathfrak{\eta l | c o र}<$ Bur.
cūpīn $n$ reed ఇ্\|uट < Bur.
cwáq $v$ come $\mathscr{r}_{0}<$ Bur.
cwēúq $n$ wild yam $\varsigma$ rope < Bur.
cwēúqtaūng $n$ place's name ${ }^{\text {ronemon}}$


## Ee

é excl yes бъะ $^{\circ}$
=é part euphoric particle which usually occur
following speaker attitude particle. seú $63 \%$

èk $n$ wife ↔ఫిจ
ēklā $v$ man marrying a woman ¿ఫీ\&u
ēksāhalá $n$ couple, a husband and a wife $\sim$ čөum:
ēlā $a d v$ large, giant
ēng $n$ house $\begin{gathered}\circ \\ \text { < }\end{gathered}$ Bur.


 <Bur.

ēngthaūng $n$ family, couple and household

eú excl that зэ̀э
eù excl yes! єъ
eúhám $n$ man's name зəəईథ์
eūhám $n$ elephant foot yam tuber op
eùm $v$ die 600 slang?
eùn $n$ barn هutop $\mathfrak{\infty}$ barn built underneath the

eúqaūshī $n$ wheel used in waving Фగీ○ㅇ eúqkhān $v$ receive guest exִo̊＜Bur． eút ${ }_{1} v$ drop $m_{j}$
eút ${ }_{2} v$ left $\underset{\text { º }}{ }$
eútā $n$ that ふ̀3＜Bur．

## Hh

há ${ }_{1} n$ red зэิิ

há $_{3} v$ grasp môoó
$\mathbf{h a}_{\mathbf{1}} v$ walk o๐s：
$\mathbf{h} \overline{\mathbf{a}}_{2}$ excl ha um
hā ${ }_{3} v$ bitter 2）：
hā ${ }_{4} v$ be hit OO $_{\circlearrowleft} \oint$
hà ${ }_{1}$ prn WH word moso
hà $_{2} n$ five cl。
hà ${ }_{3}$ clf classifier for counting buildings $\operatorname{sanc}$ as in

－hà aux know how oó
hàaì $n$ waist 2 \％

hàháng $n$ Kachin məर्c
＝haík part from Ө্ৰে
haíkkà（heúq）conj and then，after that $\Theta \because 60$ ．
haíkmà $a d v$ that time ${ }^{\ominus} з ว \partial \operatorname{los}^{2}$
haíkmākà（haíkmákhà）$a d v$ as for that time，and then Ӟзว2）
haìng $v$ came up ぃo์る
＝haìng part particle attach to nouns indicating the sense of exclusiveness．（comparable in usage to adverbs＇only＇，＇alone＇，＇just＇）จబِથ્ટ
haīnghaúng $n$ cow bell so：ㅋll

hák ${ }_{2} v$ widen or spread out，scatter；space out શેصuરૅ॥ exclusively with firewood

hà $\mathbf{k}_{1}$ clf classifier for counting branches nîc：see also halàk
hà $\mathbf{k}_{2} v$ dislocate U્રֹא＜Shan
hákceù $n$ turmeric $ə \mathrm{~s}_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{C}$ ：

halá $n$ husband vर्ćusmêp：
halák $v$ dull \＄̊ı
halàk $n$ branch గ్రిट．

halán halán $a d v$ fold something repeatedly

halánāng $v$ woman marrying a man suoņp：u un


halánghú $n$ hair oovc


halánglà $n$ late $\sigma \$$ Өֻర
halángmūn $v$ wind $\sigma \sim \circ \mathfrak{1}$ กर
halángtháng $v$ dark 운웅
halángweú $v$ rain

halángzèk $v$ headache solč：mi์n
haláp $v$ stack $\infty र$
haláp haláp $a d v$ stack．repeatedly $ə \infty ธ ์ ъ \infty ๐ ์$
halaúk $n$ bunch هصِ：
halawà $n$ man／husband suxn⿰幺幺丱：
halawàshā $n$ boy бusగ์np：60：
haleù part accidentally ${ }_{6}$
halí $n$ boat 60


halíngtàm $n$ backward $\operatorname{\sigma pne్̛రీई~}$
halóng $n$ small mat $\varphi: c \hat{u}$ small square mat which
is used to dry tea leaf and hot cooked rice.
 60:600 Ĉчp
halú $n$ particle that attaches to kinship terms to indicate immediate blood relation.

halū $n$ rounded object згヘั:



 з๐๐ा1
hám ${ }_{2}$ clf classifier for counting numbers of packages of used when counting package which is not tied by bamboo ties or rope. \$్จిః叉ิu

-hàm aux be over, be excess $\stackrel{i}{i}$
hamán $n$ spirit \$oर
hamàngkàngātéq prn why mை్రિఁ్ర
hameú $n$ person
hamòk $n$ sky $6 m$ र्c:mर्ट
hamòkalúm $v$ thundering
hamòkphā $v$ (of lightning) strike.
hamòkzìháp $v$ lightning
hamúk (kamúk) $n$ under єmை์

hán $2_{2} n$ mat $0 \leq$ ćglleq
hān $v$ lessen cryp

hànáq $n$ which wwom

hāng $v$ huge/wide gap พ̀
-háng aux 1) back ©

hānghák $n$ toad ف:Euo


hàngshíng $n$ top (toy) ขરर्ट
hángtì $n$ sweet potato mę\}์?



háp $v$ unpack Gơ
hāp $v$ weep ${ }_{c}^{\circ}$
 swiftly or without discernment
hàt $n$ bed bug ש్రీ:ų:
haú ${ }_{1} v$ preach sum <Bur.
haú ${ }_{2}$ excl look! sum


ha $\bar{u}_{1} c l f$ classifier for counting numbers of implement and tools cus as in counting knife, spade etc.
ha $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{2} v$ also as strike as in snake's strike
 handle implements. It is also used with snake



## 

haúk $v$ bundle هصీః also means to harvest.

haùk $n$ field зəəट์ః

haúng $n$ coffin зəəวरءะ

haúp $v$ drink an egg, or coconut juice

haūpát $n$ snail จจุ
haūpút $n$ glutinous rice cake azluos
haút $v$ digging by animal nj๋eup
haùt $v$ put in $\uparrow$ ôop fold the cloth and put in

-haút $a u x$ want शर्ट
haút salaút $a d v$ wanting શર્વఇર્વ
 middle of surface).
= hayaúk subd particle attaches to verbs to indicate the meaning of 'since', or 'from the time of '. moser?m


зวงْ
hé- $n$ particle that attaches before the kinship


héq excl exclamation 60 :
hété (hé-, até) $n$ older sister $\Delta \Delta$
heù excl yes! ธusicu!
heú ${ }_{1} v 1$ 1) tell $\measuredangle$ (UOU 2) answer 6 ©


he $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{1} v$ climb ळoर
he $\bar{u}_{2} v$ borrow ธจอఁऽะ
he $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{3} v$ plant $\stackrel{\circ}{\perp} \hat{\infty}$ exclusively with planting as with



heūhān heūhān $a d v$ go ups and downs

heúheū onmt sound make when someone is short


heūn $v$ reluctant oŋईo
heú $p_{1} v$ squeeze зəø squeeze or throttle or feel tight.



-heúq part contraction of an auxiliary verb and a directional verbal particle (háng +ìng = heúq).
heūsàt heūsàt $a d v$ go ups and downs


heútlá $n$ star flower plant aธๆuc
heúttín $n$ slipper ${ }^{\circ}$ pú $<$ Shan
héwà $n$ father 6066
hin $v$ tease هाธpo
híng onmt roar $\sim$ ○̊ : <Bur.
hing prn third person singular form. Ou
hingkalīng $n$ bell ${ }_{\| \|}$small spherical metallic bell
 श्|lcư
hīngkaú hīngkā refl himself híp $v$ fall
hípphāngmákkū (mákkū) $n$ rib $\$ 9 \bigcirc 9{ }^{\circ}$
hīt $v$ hang จำर
hītzalaúng $n$ hook จำ
hó excl exclamation ஸo̊:
hōhōn $n$ ash pumpkin ธmpผ์๐จุ̣วิ:



$\mathbf{h o ̄ k}_{2} v$ take off as a stick or post U.ईฐం
hōkáq prn there ஸฺฺ < Bur.
hōm $v$ confine sorc as in to confine chickens with

hóng part verbal particle attaches to verb to

గi้ర

$\mathbf{h o} \mathbf{p}_{2} v$ tie چひひ

hōtín prn there טฺْ3č: < Bur.
hòtúngkáqtaúq $n$ long ago نฺons̊:m6on
hú ${ }_{1}$ clf classifier for counting numbers of people డuొर्గ occurs with numerals one to there.
$h \mathbf{u}_{2} v$ boil fuos
hū $v$ burn $60 \Omega \mathcal{c}$
hùhú (hahú) $n$ snail əจุ
húk clf classifier for counting numbers of rounded objects $\mathrm{Y}_{1}$ : as in counting ball, pumpkin etc.
húktúktúk $a d v$ truly uposonóoso
hūlā $n$ empty oos
hūlā hūlā $a d v$ empty unosos

hùnàsā $n$ fontanelle, soft spot in the cranium of an infant. cưoôu
hūng clf stalk(banana) $\underset{\text { Pic }}{ }$
húngnat $n$ Nat's name un§̊so
húnzaú $n$ spoon ê§:

off ə.ळَ
hùpón $n$ kind of plant mpoccl
hūtā $n$ cousin ov์m’



## I i

ì $n$ thread зर्ธચરर्ర
i $v$ give 6 ：
íí $n$ female＇s nick name зัวว่

îlòt $n$ bobbin Øर्币б由os
$\mathrm{in}_{1}$ excl Oh yes！
in $_{2} n$ cabalistic sign згг：＜Bur．
$\mathrm{in}_{3}$ prn there з̀̀ ${ }^{2}$
ín＝part proclitic negative particle．$\diamond$
inná $n$ force зг์ъวะ＜Bur．


īnán $n$ maiden $̛$ ¢̂｜ $6 \Delta<$ Shan
íncháq $v$ inscribe зәट์̊จ
－ìng part particle attaches to verbs to denote directional meaning of toward a deictic centre．
īngīng（ìing）adv tiny $60 \% 600$ ：
ìngzàngngaútì conj however 3ใ七U．．
ìngzángtìng conj however 3l6ừ 。
ínnátóng $n$ later ${ }^{2} 96 \$$
íntóng locn next aspos
íp $v$ narrow ఇर्टः
ip $v$ sleep $\begin{gathered}0 \\ \mathcal{U}\end{gathered}$


бusर्́





ìsúk $n$ prawn ט̊§

ítòng $n$ female＇s name зัว

## K k

ká $_{1} n$ car $m:<$ Bur．
$\mathbf{k a ́}_{2} v$ hot $u$
$\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{a}}_{1} n$ block $m<$ Bur．
$\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{a}}_{2} n$ soil $\odot \in$
$\mathbf{k a}_{3} v$ show ©
$\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{a}}_{4}$ part thing um
＝ká part topic marker micom
$=\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{a}}$ part such as，so on هove frequently occur in a

＝kà part interrogative particle enclitic to nouns． c̀パ：

kācáng $n$ plain 6 GUరీ．
kachīn $n$ Kachin mə ${ }^{\text {ć }}$
kahīng $a d v$ quite रúuu $_{n}$
kahú（kahùng）$v$ hot ふị $\mathfrak{\infty}$
kahún $n$ termite ©
kahúnpúngtūng $n$ termite mound（ᄌరంmર์ગ




kāk $v$ pulled or stretched tightly．eg the leather

kàk $v$ open up $\cos \tilde{\infty}$ exclusively with opening up

kák ${ }_{1} v$ go down the wrong pipe
kák ${ }_{2}$ clf classifier for counting numbers long thin objects єqpč：occurs with numerals one to three．

－kák aux particle attaches to verbs to denote wish or desire to do．शर्ट
kákcīng $n$ charcoal $ย: 60$ ²
kalá $n$ Indian mes：
kalácahaùng $n$ coriander mososp

kalák $n$ stick єəpč：variant form of kák
kálán $n$ motor road m：ové：＜Bur．
$=$ kalàng quant particle attaches to nouns to indicate that the quantity mentioned is an approximation．วई，measurement ${ }^{\circ}$ उ०


kalaúng $v$ many sulep：
kalaúngtóng $a d v$ many зөфр： $\mathscr{C r}_{0}^{3}$
kalé $n$ place＇s name necose
kalèt $n$ cricket ữ
kalìng $n$ two sí
kalùn $n$ tree or plant ъว๐र्ट
kalúng onmt sound of falling an object mo
kalùng $n$ name of mythical creature $\cap$ gi｜
kám $v$ lay əč：
－kām aux prior action şé
kamà $n$ wound зар
kamà kapeút $a d v$ wood зарァァә๐ை

kamī $n$ bamboo shoot


kamòkchí $n$ species of amaranth used as a
vegetable ucisssu์
kāmpaík $v$ break ə̀
kàmpáng $n$ tree mćunoč؛ name of several species of small evergreen trees producing clusters of acidulous fruit．
kāmpaúkchí $n$ acacia mčuईీશશŋર
kán ${ }_{1} v$ bad æ̊：
kán ${ }_{2}\left(\right.$ kám $\left._{2}\right) n$ plate，bowl


kān $n$ fortune nீ＜Bur．
$\mathbf{k a ̄}{ }_{2} n$ human grown field 乃әธ์：


kaná $n$ ear $\$ จ$ kanáceū $v$
kanà $v$ hurt $\$$
kanà kanón $a d v$ sickly بpะqp：poso
kanáceū $v$ be deaf \＄จః๓ई̊
kanàchíq $n$ opium $\mathfrak{\$}$ 。 slang：literally it is a combination of＇wound＇plus＇dung＇
kanàhā $v$ be sick pp：

kanán $n$ Kanan $m \uparrow \oint^{\circ}$ ：
kanàt $v$ starve cós
kanaú $n$ beginning msి：＜Bur．
kāncamā $n$ luck nீ
kāncí $n$ man＇s name nֹగ్రి

$\mathbf{k a ̄ n g}_{1}$（múngkāng）$v$ old ธunč：


káng káng onmt sound of falling down a big object

kānglaí $n$ center ъャ๐ぃ์＜Shan
kāngnyāng $n$ large tree with oily sap mలరీఁर्ट
kāngpāng $n$ tree mćunoč。
kángpè kángná $n$ isolated or unimportant places

kàngtalá $v$ be old（material）sumč．



kāntāt $n$ taro $\cup$ §§：


káp $v$ shoot $\cup$ ©
kàp $v$ prepare Uరર્વəoc general word for preparing anything．see also kòm．

$\mathbf{k a ̄}_{2} v$ peel ธっ
$\mathbf{k a ̄} \mathbf{p}_{3} v$ stick múu
kapā $n$ world moை＜Bur．
kapá ${ }_{1} n$ bank mरీ：ul：
kapá ${ }_{2} n$ large mole olఃฤč\＆๐：larger the regular one

kapák ${ }_{1} v$ patch cos patch a hole $\cos 60$ ：

kapàn ${ }_{1} n$ herbaceous plant © Øீ

$=$ kapán part clause final particle enclitic to verbs or verb complexes to indicate the sense of immediate future．宀osృ๐ư
kapáng saláng $a d v$ empty $\cup \checkmark$ \＄o
kapātīú $n$ from the very beginning mఱmonરలలిః
kapaú $n$ Shan જીર્ઠં：
kapaūtī $n$ testicles $6 ก ะ$
kapeù $n$ goat oัos
kapeút attw attendant word which follows the word katòng＇worm＇as in katòng kapeút نֻి．๐๐ః
kaphaík kaphaík adv keep in vicinity ๆธ์యి ๆธ์จి （keep，remain，loiter）in the vicinity of somebody or something．
kaphàng $n$ wall \＄̊ดํ
kaphaúk $n$ kind of rounded leaf unợc．
kaphaút attw attendant word which follows kazeút

kapheú $n$ monitor lizard ต్రీ
kaphú $n$ snake 6 ©
kapí $n$ mole（animal） 6U：
kapòn $n$ ringworm 6u：
kapòn ${ }_{2} n$ collect $\omega_{n}$ taking the left over．ఎగీnj｜

kapòn kasaú $a d v$ gather ô์\＆：mil！
kapóng $v$ rinse mरč．
kapōt $n$ ashes ©
káppeù $n$ scales จફీજจ์ $<$ Bur．
kapú $v$ rotten ûó

deteriorate；be in a state of decay．
kapyā $n$ poem myp $<$ Bur．
káq $v$ dance $m$
$=\mathbf{k a ́ q}{ }_{1}$ part from $m<$ Bur．
$=\mathbf{k a ́}_{2}$ part topic marker $m<$ Bur．
kasà $n$ tiger mp：
kāsaleú（kā ）$n$ sand ò bigger in size than samát．

kāsamát $n$ sand viự
kasáng $n$ back єmpర్రీ
kasát $n$ bear ono̊
kasé $n$ sarong ụ̊：
kasèng $v$ raw ъธீ์์．

kasín $v$ cold зз。 $^{\circ}$


kasòk $n$ frog ق\％
kasōngláq $n$ second month of the lunar calendar． moŋईっ＜Bur．
kasú attw attendant word which follow the word kapú＇rotten＇as in kapú kasú voõo
kasù $n$ gibbon єчpmồmp
kasúm $v$ hide чֻீ

kát ${ }_{2} v$ 1）come close mर्ט 2）glue mर्ט＜Bur．

kát ${ }_{4} v$ offer múv＜Bur．
kāt $n$ fire place shelf œِup̊:
kàt clf classifier for counting numbers of yokes
katā $n$ place's name now
katák $v$ rare 甲० $^{\circ}$
katàk $v$ obstruct (the view) ణu์
kàták $n$ loom stick $\omega$ moo ${ }^{\text {§ }}$
katàm $v$ beautiful
katàm shīshí $a d v$ beautiful ヘ̧̛̣̣u

katàng $n$ bed mosर्ट <Bur.
kataū $n$ wife meoर्ट wife of an official or a respected person.. <Bur.
kataút $n$ fruit ззโ์วัจ

kátcīlāng $n$ squirrel وી઼ِ
katē $n$ million $\prod_{1} \in \varepsilon_{\text {< }}^{<B u r}$.
kātékshī $n$ clay pot 6 G63²웅
kateú $v$ leak ${\underset{1}{c}}_{\circ}$ exclusively with 'saliva' ákweú
kāthā $n$ incantation กloos <Bur.
kathánghú $n$ chest $\uparrow \subset$

kathaù $v$ be numbed $\underset{N}{\text { Opo }}$
 convolution.
kathòk $v$ stack up $ə \frac{c}{c}$ toss up rice grains in a tray to separate chaff, broken, wizened grains, etc. put one on top of the other; pile up; stack up.



katíp $v$ fold $\sigma$ ใरई
katíq $n$ promise no $<$ Bur.


katón $n$ barn గ్ల
katòn $v$ roll $\because \mathfrak{\cup}$ as rolling mats. qpåu์poôcm "
katóng $n$ Burmese ©৫
katòng $n$ worm ${ }^{\circ}$ :
katòng kapeút $n$ insects ${ }_{\mathrm{U}}^{1}$ ©
katú $n$ Kadu mon:
katù $n$ forehead sư:
katùng $v$ see $\underbrace{}_{0} \mathcal{C}$


katùzīpaūng $n$ porcupine ©nl

$\mathbf{k a u _ { 2 }}$ clf classifier for counting numbers of people


kaú $_{3} v$ need $\stackrel{\sim}{\text { ® }}$

$\mathbf{k a} \overline{\mathbf{u}}_{2} n$ gum $\mathrm{mm}^{\kappa}<$ Bur.
ka $\bar{u}_{3} v$ invite 80 os
= kaú part topic marker 6 on
kaúhán $n$ otter $\dot{q}$
kaún $n$ bamboo root frame จर्co?:
kaùng $n$ nine గi: $^{\circ}$
kaūng clf classifier for counting animals $6 m \times \bar{\delta}$ <Bur.
kaūng $v$ step on $\$ \mathcal{Q}^{\text {© }}$
kaúngkīn $n$ sky $6 m$ č:m
kaúp $v$ stack $\infty \hat{U}$


kaùt $v$ embrace uर्m
kaútaláq $n$ man's name 6 monc
kaūyē $n$ liquid glue ธmôøల్ర <Bur.

kayā $n$ mountain comé
kayà $v$ lose supर्ल

kayīyáq $n$ implement ng̊us <Bur.
kayù $n$ rat ש్రీई
kazák $v$ stir 6
kazalíng $n$ clusters ъ๐๐̆ as in clusters of vine

kazalún kasalún $a d v$ imitative expression; in

kazán subd manner u\$์ทั®
kazaú $v$ flow ®̊：m


kazeú $v$ wash $\boldsymbol{\sigma}^{\circ}$ ：
kazeù $v$ 1）be lower，low status \＄ิธీరી：2）શૂ｜
kazeút $v$ quick $\theta$ G§


kázīn $n$ crucifying post m：oć＜Bur．
kazíng $n$ ginger $\rceil^{\text {či：}}$
kazíp $v$ wring
kazúk $v$ start fire 6 。ல。
keú $_{1} v$ naughty $\stackrel{\text { o }}{ }<$ Bur．
$\mathbf{k e u ́}_{2}$ excl well！ゥ̀
keū $v$ save múv＜Bur．
keù excl right！m

keūtīn $v$ save muर्voc $<$ Bur．
khā $n$ word indicating number of times зәə $<$ Bur．
khaī $v$ strong and lasting åて̛̃o̊＜Bur．
khán $n$ chapter／room دई：＜Bur．
khān $v$ 1）receive ๆดค่ 2）accept งペふ̊＜Bur．
khanák $v$ pleasant．bitter ə๐：
khanák khanák $a d v$ somewhat bitter əา．ులగ์యుగీ
khanáq $a d v$ often $\infty \ll$ Bur．
khánq $v$ appoint $)_{ई}<$ Bur．
khát ${ }_{1} v$ add $\partial \hat{u}<$ Bur．
khát ${ }_{2} v$ strike əo์＜Bur．
khātlélé $a d v$ somewhat heavy จúธง：6ธ：＜Bur．
$\mathbf{k h a u} v$ call $\boldsymbol{a}^{2}<$ Bur．
khaūngmó $n$ roof ธวาc：（ㅇํ：＜Bur．
khayí $n$ journey จఫิ：＜Bur．
khék $n$ this era Зิढə๐์＜Bur．

khét $v$ difficult $\partial \tilde{\kappa}^{\delta}<$ Bur．
－kheúq $a u x$ verbal particle à＜Bur．

khīnyī $n$ female＇s name əčดิ
khít $n$ era 宀ә๐र्ळ＜Bur．
khó $n$ smoke зวจั̊：＜Bur．
$\mathbf{k h} \overline{\mathbf{o}}_{1} v$ make a short stay $\underset{\mathrm{L}}{\circ}<$ Bur．
$\mathbf{k h} \overline{\mathbf{o}}_{2} n$ pigeon $\stackrel{\downarrow}{\circ}<$ Bur．
khók $v$ chop əơ＜Bur．

khún clf classifier for counting numbers words or utterances ə§ः＜Bur．
khūnnayét $n$ seven day จฐఠீๆீ $<$ Bur．
khūnnayét tapát $n$ seven days a week

khúq $v$ be offended $\odot \circ$ o์p $<$ Bur．
khwā $v$ leave øைீঞ $<$ Bur．$n$ hoof ঞை $<$ Bur．
khwák $n$ cup əર์ீ＜Bur．
khwēsúkchí $n$ place＇s name 6จฺุơจ్）
khweú $n$ half ə̀＜Bur．$v$ split ə̀＜Bur．
khweū $v$ coil $\sigma_{\circ}<$ Bur．
khweúthwét $v$ branch out，separated ə̀oon
kínmeúq $v$ be free from $m$ č：১＜Bur．
kó $n$ nine ni：$_{\text {＜}}$＜Bur．

$\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{O}}_{2}$ part honorific term for male person．$\oplus_{i}^{\circ}<$ Bur．
$=\mathbf{k o}$ part anti－agentive marker $\Gamma_{i}^{\circ}<$ Bur．
kōk $v$ smear ${ }_{\text {ñ }}$ 。
kókweū $v$ worship ni：mư＜Bur．

kóm $v$ enough எusmisons
kòm $v$ prepare Єુર્cəoc exclusively with food．
＝kón subd in order to，so as to ઢъஃर्ट
kóng $n$ hill $m_{1} \oint_{\circ}<$ Bur．

kōnháng $n$ basket somč：
kónháng kōnthōk $n$ baskets $60 x$ čun ư

kónthaūng $v$ old person
kōpyaúk $n$ magical power to make oneself
invisible miveuper＜Bur．
kótān $n$ nine outlets ஸi：osई＜Bur．
kótānpaúkwáq $n$ place＇s name mi：oŋईбule์o
kōtèkō refl oneself mivonưn
kōyaúk kōkā refl oneself గ్రిuీరlosm
kōyaúkkōkà refl reciprocal గiరీగగిగి
kú $v$ see to bath
$\mathbf{k} \overline{\mathbf{u}} v$ steal ${ }_{\mathrm{i}}{ }^{\circ}$

kūlāng kūlāng $a d v$ in awe or wonder with eyes

kùm part verbal particle attaches to a verb indicating unfinished activity．exclusively with


kūn $v$ pick ธmon
kùn $_{1} n$ tree or plant ъəטर्ट
kùn $_{2} v$ finish $\Theta_{0}^{\circ}:<$ Shan
kūng $v$ prestige กุ์์ $<$ Bur．
kúng kúng onmt sound of falling an object $n_{1} \xi_{2} n_{1} \oint^{\circ}$
kúnshí $n$ betel nut ఐฺษఃอి：
kūnyī $v$ help mê＜Bur．
kúp $v$ gulp down n̂｜ผ

kúq $v$ treat ${\underset{\sim}{1}}<$ Bur．
kúqtō $n$ merit m̂̃ơ＜Bur．
kūshī $n$ poison æว๐์
kút $v$ play mo：
$\mathbf{k u} \mathbf{y} \mathbf{u} v$ peep ${ }^{2}:$ ®ño
$=\mathbf{k w a}$ part speaker attitude particle．m
kwák $v$ circular figure moर＜Bur．
kwán $n$ sub－group of Kadu，also know as Settau
Kadu ணை区์：
kwángpyàng $n$ plain m
kweú $n$ monkey sधррर्ธ
$=\mathbf{k w e u ̄}$ part speaker attitude particle．ŋুư

kweùlākzīng $n$ mussel єusm์⿰亻
kyaw $n$ man＇s name $\quad$ mp

## L 1

＝lá part interrogative particle enclitic to verbal clauses．vircsa the morpheme is realised as a nominaliser only when the preceding noun phrase is attached with naik＇only＇．on naík／sà＋V＋lá
lā $n$ male зью̊
$\mathbf{l} \overline{\mathbf{a}}_{2} v$ take ${ }_{\text {un }}$
－laík aux just ণฺ̛̣์＜Bur．
laīng $v$ brought unà

laíngtháq $v$ wave ${ }_{\mathrm{T}}^{\circ} \mathrm{T}$ र́c̊
$=$ lakà part particle attaches at the end of utterances to indicate a surprise realisation； mirative status．onnis．
＝lakaú part particle attaches at the end of utterances to indicate a surprise realisation； mirative status．osmi：


＝lakò part speaker attitude particle $\Gamma_{\text {º：}}$
lakóng part as well，ditto $q^{\text {ćs }}$＜Bur．
lákpàng $n$ red silk cotton tree cuño Salmalia malabarica．



lám ${ }_{1} v$ dry ${ }^{\text {çíe：}}$

＝lamà part particle attaches at the end of utterances to indicate a surprise realisation； mirative status．గి：
 denoting similarity（in usage equivalent to
adverbs＇as＇，＇like＇）


 negative meaning when refers to someone．
làmphák $n$ tea งטơ์


lān ${ }_{1} n$ spear $\cup_{\substack{ }}^{<B u r}$ ．
$\operatorname{län}_{2} v$ tilt back ô§＜Bur．
làng ${ }_{1} v$ pleasant sows probably there is variety differences Settau people do not agree with this word．
làng ${ }_{2}$（láng）$n$ body miou
làng ${ }_{3} v$ just take ưȚָ ＇take＇＋àng＇directional particle＇


lánq $v$ afraid $0_{1} ई_{0}<$ Bur．

lānzétcā $n$ powerful magical spear
láp clf classifier for counting numbers times or occasions $\mathrm{Br}^{\circ} \mathrm{i}$
lāp $v$ 1）catch ${ }_{\&}^{\circ}$ 2）reachable ${ }_{8}^{\circ}$
lapā $n$ field ぃưט
lapàng $n$ check 0 \％
lapòk $n$ bamboo o\％
láq $n$ month $৩$
láqpyíq $n$ full moon night oÛِ̧＜Bur．


laúkzà $n$ mud stone use to shot with sling shot 60つnomoi：
laùn $v$ make circle ờc：shake grain around in a circular bamboo tray to separate it from the chaff．
laūn $v$ exceed eps ®re：$^{\circ}$
laúng $v$ pour $\sigma \sim \infty$ č：＜Bur．

lé $n$ four 60 ：＜Bur．
$=$ lé part speaker attitude particle；you know？ 60 ：
lē $n$ boat $6 \mathrm{O}_{\mathrm{J}}<$ Bur．
lēcímócí $v$ raining at the same time windy



lēng $v$ lie ペษ＜Bur．
lēngmā $v$ clever ৩゚ฒ్日ে
＝lèō part speaker attitude particle；of course！．qp
léq $v$ roam ט̧থِ＜Bur．
léqlā $v$ research ธơs＜Bur．

$=$ lētā part particle attaches to utterance to indicate to denote speaker attitude．טीm

leú $n$ ox cart O̧巳巳：＜Bur．
leū $v$ visit $\sim \mathfrak{\int}$
leún clf classifier for counting numbers long thin objects $\varsigma จ p \mathcal{c}_{\text {：}}$ occurs with numerals four to nine．

leùshíng（lashíng）$n$ seabean seed or potsherd ²లc：60 Entada pursaetha used in a game of pitch．

leút clf classifier for counting numbers of implement and tools حर्m＜Bur．

 when handling hot cooking utensils．

leútthát $v$ marry $ง \mathfrak{\infty} \propto \mathfrak{u}<B u r$ ．
lézá $v$ respect $60: \infty \circ$＜Bur．
lī $v$ come os
līhàng naháng $a d v$ go to and fro دoo： $\mathcal{U}\{00$ Û§
līn subd if ${\underset{y}{\mid c}}^{c}$＜Bur．
līzáng $\left.n \operatorname{coop}(\sqrt{\infty})^{\circ}\right)$ ¿
lō $v$ need $\overbrace{\mathrm{L}}^{\circ}<$ Bur．
lōát $v$ need ヘْ̣


lōlētémashíq $v$ nothing lack of ஸָ̣
lōlō $a d v$ appear like $\mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{L}} \mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{L}}<$ Bur．

## lóm $v$ warm © $^{\circ}$ ：

lóm paùkpaùk $a d \nu$ warm ส

lōn $n$ mud ஷ̊．
lóng ${ }_{1}$ clf classifier for counting numbers of round objects ก̣：
lóng ${ }_{2} v$ round ${ }_{1}{ }^{\circ}$ ：
lōngshíng $n$ stone єmpróà
lóngwáq $a d v$ completely $̛$ i̊o

lóq part particle used by a public crier when announcing something in public．© ๆŋb call of a public crier．

$\mathbf{l}_{\mathbf{u}}^{2} v$ get $ๆ$

lúk（halúk）clf classifier for counting numbers rounded objects $\sim_{1}$ ．


lúktá $n$ brother－in－law sumsio＜Shan
lūmyó $n$ race 띙ํ＜Bur．
lúng $v$ white Gill
lúng pūngpūng $a d v$ white Gu｜Gn
lúngkaùng $n$ clan＇s name $\uparrow$ ก̣：amर
lúnglúng $a d v$ completely；entirely；without


lūpyō $n$ bachelor 이l＜Bur．
lūzīn $n$（of social attributes）be of standard．～ớ ＜Bur．
lwá $v$ peel $\ll$ Bur．

lwáng $v$ flutter ヘoç＜Bur．

lwáq $n$ handsaw $\cong_{\circ}<$ Bur．
lweú ${ }_{1} v$ except $\stackrel{\text { ぶ }}{\circ}$＜Bur．
lweú ${ }_{2} v$ sling © ©＜Bur．

## M m

ma－$n$ this ${ }_{3}{ }^{\circ}$ has negative implication such as in


ma＝part negative particle which attaches before the verb ${ }_{\bullet}<$ Bur．
$=\mathbf{m} \overline{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathbf{1}}(\mathbf{n} \overline{\mathbf{a}})$ part clause final particle enclitic to verbs or verb complexes to indicate realis mood． ous
$=\mathbf{m} \overline{\mathbf{a}}_{2}$ part nominal relational marker equivalent to English locative prepositions such as＇at＇，＇on＇，＇in＇， or＇by＇．os＜Bur．

má $_{2} v$ mistake
má $_{3}$ excl what！m

$\mathbf{m a}_{2} n$ timber－tree yielding smooth－grained wood．
wョ®suć Gmelina arborea．
mà $n$ time зจิईิ
mà ${ }_{2} p r n$ what $m$
＝macháng conj particle attaches to verbs to mean ＇as long as＇טə
macheúkóng $n$ place＇s name unjon ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ ．
maeú $n$ long ago ธوٌ


mahà $n$ large sum＜Bur．
mahāmyaīng $n$ place＇s name sum（ใ）딛
maháng prn that thing up̣om
maī $n$ mile $\underset{\substack{\circ \\ C}}{\text { C }}$ Bur．
maíhaú $n$ kind of tree m̂｜！טर्ट
maìkkú（meùtkú）$n$ tail з๐约：
maíkmāzeú（manaìkmāzeú）$a d v$ never ふu์́m



$=$ mák part clause final particle enclitic to verbs or verb complexes to indicate hortative sense．$\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}_{\circ}^{\circ}$


makākcīng $n$ mushroom 品己
mákhà $n$ time／when зəீ｜\＄૩วว
mákheú $n$ parrot ธจว่
mákhú $n$ tick（6）：tick，parasite which infests cattle， horses，goats，etc
mákkū $n$ bone зจุจํ
mákná $n$ myrobalan tree טई์2ใ：
màkzák $v$ be pricked oŋ：ゅ：
malā $n$ flesh з๐๐：
malà attw attendant word which follows maleú


malāt（－māt）part verbal particle that attaches to verb to denote adverbial meaning of truly and certainty．૩дృईommu์
malaút $n$ kind of climbing shrub bearing red， acidulous，oblong fruit ©ీ

maleú－malà $a d v$ well $m$ cर：am
mamá $n$ maternal aunty $\epsilon_{3}$ 60：
mán ${ }_{1}$ part particle to nouns or verbs to indicate




mān $_{1} v$ true ${ }_{\jmath} \oint<$ Bur．
mān ${ }_{2} v$ distribute 60
manaík prn contracted form of＇WH－word＇and
＇many＇
$=$ manaík subd particle attaches to verbs to denote emphasis．
manākceū（nākceū）$n$ last night حِسई．
mànālō $v$ envy upoọ＜Bur．
manáng attw attendant word which follows manīng＇what manner＇as in manīng manáng
 ＇whatever manner＇
mandalay $n$ Mandalay bљ๘๐：
máng $n$ date op． ．
māng $n$ pride «ুई＜Bur．
$=\mathbf{m a ̀ n g}$ prn morpheme which attaches to interrogative pronouns to indicate＇which things＇ or＇what＇mov＇


māngká $n$ guava ↔comuč＜Bur．


mángsá $n$ prince $\alpha$ č：دภ：

mángyák $n$ day 6 จ．रํ


mánkatàm $v$ shy ŋ̧र์
mánphī $v$ wash face
mānsácéng（mānsáqcéng）$n$ love letter ふ๐ソ゚｜ळ
mānsáq $n$ maiden ъソ̛ll


māntān $n$ mantra usई＜Bur．
mántayá $n$ mantra ぃईoळฑ：＜Bur．
mántháng $n$ ugly person 乌̧ų̛̣：

mapyétà $v$ can＇t run $\omega \in$ Ưஃos $<$ Bur．
mapyít $v$ does not abandon ьu® $<$ Bur．
máq $n$ feminine $\Delta<$ Bur．
$=\mathbf{m a ́ q}$ conj particle attaches to nouns or verb to

máqlé excl exclamatory 060 ：
$=$ másà subd particle attaches to verbs to denote emphasis．（equivalent in usage to the adverbial ＇only then＇or＇only if＇）．
＝màshaúk（māshaúk）subd particle attaches to verbs to denote emphasis．（equivalent in usage to the meaning＇only then＇or＇since then＇）．mosp్ర：m

mát $v$ note טృృર์＜Bur．
māt $v$ forget ${ }^{\circ}$
màt $v$ scold かò
matàkkaú matàkkā refl by themselves．naturally
ుnంగింை
mátè subd when зว2lus
mathák subd more 毋గీ దృ

mátsà（mátshī）$a d v$ tempting จर्ट๐ๆ＜Shan？
màtshí $a d v$ pleasing શરَવ̛ou
maú $n$ plum＠̊。
maū $n$ mining area $6 \omega \mathfrak{\delta}$
maù $_{1} n$ water leech 6 dep
maù $_{2} v$ lift up $\downarrow \circ \infty$ ：
maúk $v$ overturn бృృกீ＜Bur．
－maūk aux together，associative ъ๐њ
maūkhá $n$ place＇s name єьर्よว\％
maūkhwīn $n$ place＇s name $\sigma 6 \mathfrak{\delta}$ จć
maūlīn $n$ place＇s name б๘र्よっर्ट
maún $n$ pillow ธว1č：3̊：
maúng $n$ gong $66 \Omega \mathcal{c}_{\circ}<$ Bur．
maūng part particle that frequently occur as a address terms to denote intimate relationship． бь๐र्c


maūngnyān $n$ man＇s name є七љર์ల
maungpáq $n$ man＇s name бь๘र्टљ
maút $v$ lift up uçocc exclusively with lifting up to the shoulder．પุุః：

mayà $a d v$ hardly $ぃ ई े ~$
mayūngyīn $v$ if you don＇t believe 囚ựণर्ट＜Bur．
mazí $n$ mushroom ગธธ์mưఝ્યુ
mazì $n$ gums ox：ư：

méng $v$ relish $\stackrel{\ominus}{\varrho}{ }^{\circ}:<$ Bur．
meú $_{1}$（maleú）$v$ good $\sigma_{m} \mathcal{c}_{\text {：}}$
meú ${ }_{2}$ part big అ్రి：
meū $n$ feminine هư $<$ Bur．
meù $_{1} v$ choose ${ }^{\text {6® }}$
meù $_{2}$ clf classifier for counting numbers of coconut

classifier as in yameùshī meùyà 6qu్ష
meūcaī $n$ female＇s name هu์્રિఁ્વ
meūmaī $n$ widow
meūshīlā $n$ nun 凶u์యวิง＜Bur．

meútnátóng $n$ just a moment ago，just past
จmosiom
meūzaúng $n$ mother－in－law susmo ${ }^{\circ}$
mí $v$ buy oư
mì $v$ reach ${ }_{8}$＜Bur．
mīhàk $n$ bamboo ties olsş̧ి
mík $n$ eye ધู๗ீீ


míklóngpū míkhàpū $a d v$ bulging（as of eyes）


míksateū $n$ lower eyelid बֹֹูる

míktū $n$ eye षู๗®ْ




$\operatorname{mín}_{1} n$ king өर्ट：$<$ Bur．
mín ${ }_{2}$ prn second person singular $\Delta \mathcal{C}_{\circ}<$ Bur．
$\min v$ awake ${ }^{\circ}$ ：
$\operatorname{ming}_{1} v$ ring Qus
$\operatorname{ming}_{2} v$ ripe ta̧onje

$\operatorname{ming}_{2} n$ nail（حس์）ว
míngsàhà $v$ know $\Im$


mīnkalā（màngkaláq）$n$ auspicious هก์์ว＜Bur．


míntóq prn second person plural form．$\Delta \mathcal{C}_{\circ} \circ_{p_{0}}^{\circ}<\mathrm{Bur}$ ．
mínwúttasà $n$ royal dresses बर्ट：ంoֹoŋईண＞＜Bur．
mīnyeú $v$ awake $\underset{\sim}{\circ}: \infty$
mīpā $n$ buttocks هćcu：
mìpák $n$ pumpkin 6จฺตุําวิ：


míqtázúq $n$ family $800: \underset{1}{1}<$ Bur．
mīsān $n$ arrow ©্فुం：
mīsū $n$ bamboo filament which can be used for

mít $v$ love จर्ब
$\mathbf{m i n}_{1} v$ strips $\cos$ cut into strips as with bamboo


mītheū $n$ needle зर्ט
mók $n$ light food đ̛ई．
mōk $_{1} v$ cook จู์
$\mathbf{m o ̄ k}_{2} n$ cow sจ：
mōkchíthū $n$ kind of pennywort used medicinally

mōkneú $n$ red pepper сฤ઼ீయి：
mōkpá $n$ cow s̊o：$\downarrow$
mōkpū $v$ tend herd sొ：\％mpč：
mōksān $n$ beef ъ๖̀ைை：
mōkshā $n$ calf（cow）so：cuई
mōksó $n$ hunter טəǫ：＜Bur．
mōksūp $n$ hat ऐ̊．ơ
mōkthū $v$ gore ®ə $^{2}$
mōkwā $n$ bull ฐะっับ：
 món $_{2} n$ cost ${ }_{1}$ ©
món $_{3} n$ tree $006 \cup \cup$
móngkángk $\overline{\mathbf{u}} n$ fortune $\check{\infty}$
mōnmōn $n$ tree ®̊ஃ๐ิ
mótwánghá $n$ rainy season
mù $v$ fool ฤiะО
$\mathbf{m u} v$ crazy $\emptyset_{\circ}$
múkcìng $n$ pestle mpर̃＜u．
múkcìngkalāng（múkcìngkāng）$n$ pestle npలֻธu．
mūláq $n$ origin $\underset{\text { が }}{ }$ © Bur．
múmát $n$ officials $\underset{\mu}{\circ}$ ：七o $<$ Bur．
múmyít $n$ Mu river t్రిర్రీ
mūn $v$ blow ộर
múng $_{1} n$ snack ${ }_{\|} \oint_{0}<$ Bur．
múng $_{2} n$ hornet up：on

$\mathbf{m u ̄ n g}_{2}$（mú）$n$ core з๐ัก
múnggángkū $n$ fortunate
mūngkāng $n$ old $\omega^{\prime} x \varepsilon_{\text {：}}$ exclusively with old hill



múngshī $n$ rice cake טీֹunoou

múngwàkchī $n$ hornet（oneq．）vo
mútaūmáttaū $n$ official ब్రl．
$\mathbf{m w e} v$ stir 6 $_{\circ}<$ Bur．
myá 1）$v$ be many өp：2）part marker for plurality
op：＜Bur．
myaīng $n$ jungle ${ }_{6}{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{c}$
myán prn over there טpo：$^{\circ}$
myān $v$ quick ©્فీ＜Bur．
myáng $v$ tall or high $<$ Bur．

myáqmyáq $n$ female＇s name 6 ©
myát $v$ angry ъ๖ฺ์์ $<$ Bur．
myaú $v$ drift sop＜Bur．
myaū $v$ wait for，long for 6 G6



myeūcí $n$ earth $\sigma$ ©
myeútaí subd as usual G్రુopič＜Bur．
myín $n$ horse G્రિટ：＜Bur．
myínshī $n$ ovoid هø์ీ，Bouea burmanica．tree bearing clusters of ovoid fruit，which turn yellow when ripe and may either be sour or sweet．
myít $n$ river ©ֻరీ＜Bur．
myítq $v$ high ब્రી $<$ Bur．
myíttā $n$ love ьөळ＜Bur．
myíttāpóq $v$ send a good wishes $6 \bullet \infty>_{\mathrm{c}}^{\circ}<$ Bur．
myó $n$ kind зөધ่ㅇํ＜Bur．
myóq $n$ town © ${ }_{6}^{6}$ ，$<$ Bur．


## N $n$

ná $v$ win ${ }_{\text {sic }}(\underline{C}$
$=$ ná $_{1}$ part particle attaches to verbs to indicate comparative degree．It may be reduplicated as náná ธ๐๒๐
＝ná ${ }_{2}$ part speaker attitude particle；agree？，you know？ $\operatorname{\text {as}}$ particle following a verb conveying the sense of making a polite request，seeking approval or emphasising some point．
nà $v$ erect $\sigma 02$ l： 600 c c exclusively with erecting

$=$ naà subd particle attaches to verbs to denote emphasis $\theta$
nacá $a d v$ carefully 602 p
naháng $v$ return Uీ§యః
nahū $n$ midday ๘ฐงయల్ర
naí $n$ mist ş ${ }_{\text {s．}}$ \＆
$=$ naík ${ }_{1}$ part particle attaches to nouns or verbs to

$=$ naík $_{2}$ part see manaík
＝naíktaí subd whenever oôcc：
naíktóng subd whenever зəวюọč：
naíng $n$ mist or fog E⿶llpos，
nāk（halángnāk）$v$ dark ચ｜र्ט
naká $n$ dragon ฐกา：＜Bur．

nakhā $n$ two times ş̧øøə＜Bur．



nám $v$ smelly §

nán $n$ daughter－in－law 6 Z̃ad $<$ Shan
nàn $v$ mix ঢubsoc exclusively with legs．
nà $n_{2} n$ guest \＆య్రీయల్ర see also nàntè
náná subd the more 6060
náng $v$ compress o̊é＜Bur．
nāng $1 v$ go ऍ๐

nàng $v$ stiff ${ }_{6}{ }^{2} \mathcal{c}_{\text {\＆}}$
nángyeù attw attendant word which follows manìng＇what manner＇as in manìng nángyeù

＝nāngzeù（ $=$ zeú ）part particle attaches to verbs
to denote emphasis．It can be interchangeably

nánná $n$ basil טčéq：
nānpát $n$ number \＄̊0 ơo＜Bur．
nánq $v$ spread out everywhere ș̣⿺夂卜 $<$ Bur．
nántaū（ nán $_{1}$ ）$n$ palace ईईీఃoर्ञ $<$ Bur．
nàntè $n$ guest eर్తీయuર
nántwíntá $n$ royal boy ईई：oŋरč：0ు：＜Bur．

nanù $n$ animal $\omega>$ ：ธmč
nanù nānā $a d v$ tiny 600：600：6005600 exclusively with animals．
nanù zapú $n$ various types of creatures


náp $v$ strips ঞைరை as stripping that has already been



nát ${ }_{1} n$ spirit इoर＜Bur．
nát $2 v$ use pi̊sonu
nát ${ }_{3} v$ come טાฌை
nàt $v$ tire $6 \leftrightarrow<$ Shan
nàtámwétwēpātwē $n$ incense sticks
\＄．0n66：6030360＜Bur．
nátning $n$ next year $\operatorname{spc} \tilde{c}_{\$} \propto^{\infty}$
nátpī $n$ celestial ईơ〇〇̧ર＜Bur．
nàttaūng $n$ place＇s name soर́conco $<$ Bur．
nátzíng $n$ spirit इơơ®ะ＜Bur．
naú ${ }_{1}$（naúng）locn inside oò
naú ${ }_{2} n$ syllable that occur to represent a daughter as in sātàk naútàk．$\infty ะ \frac{10}{2}>2$ \＆io only occurrence and it still needs further research．

naúk ${ }_{1} a d v$ later $\operatorname{spc}<$ Bur．
 డ્રી ગિર્રા＂
naúkchìngkweú $n$ mynah bird ఐøగீçֹ̧
naúkhá $n$ blood 600ะ slang used by hunters．
Literally means＇red resin＇
naúkkàt $n$ blue or green jay çrֹą：



naúkpyān $n$ backward $\operatorname{\text {goné̛j}<\text {Bur．}}$

naúkthát $a d v$ again $\quad ฐ>\tilde{\infty} \infty र ् ט<B u r$.
 common moor hen．
naùkwànpū $n$ pigeon çercฐจะ green imperial pigeon
naūngsaúng $n$ sister－in－law（wife＇s younger sister）
62ь＜Shan
naút $v$ feed $\quad$ maj

nayá $v$ new ъว๐๐ீ
nāyī $n$ o＇clock \＄จฤิ＜Bur．
nayó $n$ ridge s：ஃดํ＜Bur．
náyōk $v$ bully
nayóng $n$ great grandchild G氏ఠ ©
nayōngláq $n$ third month of the lunar calendar
\＄uईईऽ $<$ Bur．
nèk $v$ heavy 60：

lower garments such as pants and longyi．บǫa

nèk zíkzík $a d v$ heavily $60: 60 \div ก$ กํ
néng ${ }_{1} n$ sister－in－law бusm
néng $2 v$ short şô
neú ${ }_{1}$ quant few \＄లీ：
neú ${ }_{2} n$ traditional wind instrument s̀＜Bur．
ne $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{1} n$ area
ne $\bar{u}_{2} v$ mix suर्v＜Bur．
neù $n$ taro $\circlearrowright \substack{\S}$

neúneú adv little $\grave{\text { §̀ }}$＜Bur．

＝neúq quant particle attaches to nouns or verbs to
 particle attaches to nouns to indicate that quantity mentioned is an approximate number．
nēyā $n$ place ธяр＜Bur．
nēyātaí $n$ everywhere ธァpoर̂č：＜Bur．
ngá ${ }_{1} n$ five $c$ ஃ＜Bur．
ngá ${ }_{2} v$ steam ธulč：

$\mathbf{n g} \mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{2}} v$ exist ${ }_{\text {Яㅇ }}$
ngák $v$ lift up $\otimes$
ngàk $v$ chase $\sigma \omega c{ }^{c}$ 。
ngākaú ngākā refl myself clomsocl
ngám $v$ bite as win fish；snap；snatch with the
 clunu์oncill mopo
ngānaíkngá quant all，everyone of them ふ๐ะกㅜ：
ngáng $v$ look up 6ธっセnయృ
ngāng $v$ contracted form of existential verb and verbal directional marker．Эิบิำผ
ngapyín $n$ lazy person cujर्ट：＜Bur．
ngát $v$ starve cos＜Bur．
ngàt $v$ break श̊．
ngathwēyú $n$ man＇s name с60оя：


ngaúkà part as for œீ๑ণ

ngayeú $n$ hell cø̀＜Bur．
ngeút $n$ bird ç̧̃ $<$ Bur．

ngeūtū ngeūtá $n$ followers，servants cu์⿰亻弋工凡⿰亻弋工： ＜Bur．
ngīng ngīng onmt sound of dog crying $}$
ngók $n$ trunk çó＜Bur．
ngóm $v$ keep in the mouth ço coun
ngón $n$ gold 6จ
ngúp $v$ submerge ço
ngwē $n$ silver cc $_{\circ}<$ Bur．
ní $v$ laugh ${ }^{\text {१ิ }}$
nī $v$ lazy，bore प्रč：


nīkchí $n$ sarong $\infty$ ơ§
ním $v$ stay $6 \$$
nímzák ngāzák $a d v$ while simply staying $\sigma \$ \square c ̌$ ： ôç̧र्व：
$=$ ning part particle attaches to nouns or verbs to
denote similarity（equivalent in usage to adverbs

＝nīngyeù part particle attaches to nouns or verbs to denote similarity（equivalent in usage to

nít $_{1}$（na）$n$ two s $\delta<$ Bur．
nít $_{2} n$ year §§ $_{\substack{\infty}}<$ Bur．
níttít $n$ new year şø๐๐ø＜Bur．
nòk $_{1} v$ dull ъə Shan
nòk ${ }_{2} v$ taking out by putting one＇s hand into pocket，bag etc s̊ §ึ
nōknākchī $n$ brain
nōm $v$ soft sup

ફీరీ,


nù $\mathbf{1}_{1}$ clf classifier for counting animals moc
nù ${ }_{2} n$ one © ${ }^{\infty}$
nù $_{3} v$ swing $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$

núk ${ }_{2} v$ pull out só $<$ Bur．

nūkhwé $n$ son－in－law כ七øर्n＜Shan
nūklán $n$ nephew o̊os $<$ Shan
nùn $v$ wipe ŋ્ર
nūshēk $n$ small cưoñ refers to small／tiny animals．

nút $v$ sharpen $0_{0}$ ：

nweū $n$ lineage зจsư＜Bur．
nweūzú $n$ weaving instrument swow：
nwēyék $n$ place＇s name ssด̊oీ
nyān $n$ brain ટर्ฒ＜Bur．
nyáng $v$ 1）quarrel Ceč：å 2）oppose or reject CCciouv ＜Bur．
nyánq $v$ poor วِ㔾 be poor in quality


nyaūngpāng $n$ banyan tree فحصर्टטर्ट

nyeúp $v$ clip


nyeút ${ }_{2} v$ twist njo three or more big ropes ©

nyeútkát $n$ sticky $60: m र ् ט ~<~ B u r . ~$
nyī $n$ younger brother $\underbrace{\ominus}$＜Bur．
nyínphān $v$ miss ヘơీ：
nyīnyút $v$ unit బిల్రింీ＜Bur．
nyíq $v$ 1）discuss
nyít $v$ squeeze
nyìt $v$ quarrel əo૦ used particularly when women


nyón $v$ swallow


## 0 o

ó excl exclamation $3_{1}^{2}$
$\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ part euphoric particle which usually occur following speaker attitude particle seú $3 \underset{i}{\circ}$
ók $n$ brick з઼юर्య＜Bur．


 6ヵะ॥
òkshī $n$ 1）uncle $\infty(\underset{\sim}{\mathrm{O}}: 2$ 2）brother－in－law（husband of a woman＇s elder sister or elder brother of one＇s husband）．әзŋ

òkthaúng $n$ father－in－law summoò：term female used to call her parent－in－law summooi：m cajఃul

òktóng $n$ paternal grandfather vačum̧̧ $6 \infty ะ 11$
óm $v$ hold $\underset{\sim}{\circ} \mathrm{c}$
$\overline{\mathbf{o}} \mathrm{m} v$ do or make $讠^{u}$
óng $n$ coconut зэ¢ఃำ：＜Bur．
 $<$ Bur．



$\overline{\mathbf{o}} \mathbf{p}_{2} v$ close ८⿵人
ósací $n$ master，teacher ゅ๑®®®：


## P p

pá ${ }_{1} n$ feminine ง๐ைळ๐
pá ${ }_{2} n$ palm ヘरை 60 \％
pá ${ }_{3} v$ slice $\underset{\sim}{\infty}$ cut into thin layers or slices as in

pá ${ }_{4} c l f, n$ flower uई̊ auto classifier；repetition of final syllable form the word＇flower＇．papá
pá ${ }_{5} v$ imagine $\sigma \omega \frac{c}{}$ never appears as head verb．It attaches after the verb＇see＇or＇hear＇
$\mathbf{p} \overline{\mathbf{a}}_{1} v$ include $\cup l<B u r$.

$=$ pā 1）part and $\sigma \odot 2) v$ bring $\cup$

páchīkān $n$ earth turned up by a plough －
pacīsá $n$ loach cl：oucuopi：

pahōzī $n$ drum oup̊øصरِ
paī $v$ own $\cup_{\uparrow} \mathcal{C}^{c}<$ Bur．
paí ${ }_{1}$ quant over $6 m p$

paìk locn beside or near зақวะ $\$ 6 \infty:$
paík ${ }_{1} v$ be broken ஸòる
paík ${ }_{2}$ clf classifier for counting half of something

paítaúng locn tip зəตะบํㄷㄷ exclusively with banana

pák ${ }_{1}$ clf classifier for counting currencies．గju
pák ${ }_{2} n$ hundred $\rho$
pák ${ }_{3} n$ vagina 七un§ $^{\circ}$
pakaút $n$ 1）large wooden ladle susm์วิ｜ 2 ）wrist

pāknaík $a d v$ alike mo ư
páktékhalét $a d v$ prostrate co：ex：
pàkweú $n$ rain water $\stackrel{\bullet}{\circ} \div \square$
pālá $n$ elder or leader
 verb＇be broken＇，see the verb paìk
palák $n$ flat з๐ర్రీఁ derive from the verb＇be flat＇by－ al－infixation．
palán locn middle ъ๐ぃর্ৰ
palán palán $a d \nu$ very often，frequently ৫ஜ઼วைை

paláng $n$ bottle ûoč：＜Bur．
palásaték $n$ plastic ưט̛̃o๓® $>$ Eng．
palaúng $n$ millet s̊om：600čc：
palí $n$ package ъююó pack which is not tied with ropes or bamboo ties．ફ్నిదబ్రి

palì $n$ tree «จุ๐
palī palák $a d v$ idly पुर्c์y\}
palíng $n$ stick $\infty$ ®

palīng palāng $a d v$ tiny cưcu์ฎu์ŋయ
palíq attw attendant word which follows shīshī
＇fruit＇as in shīshī paliq ว๐๗์యి：ంก
palòt $n$ natural piles of things，plants 00ைை
థự i，
palú $n$ ogre ઝిヘัઃ：＜Bur．
palūng onmt sound of dropping stone into the water 1
palūng $n$ heap／pile ふัْ derived from＇accumulate＇ see the verb pūng

pám $v$ soak $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ} \dot{6}$
pām $v$ carry ${ }_{\uparrow}^{\circ}$ ：

pamūn $n$ place＇s name טنٌ




pán ${ }_{2}$ clf classifier for counting numbers trips $\cos ^{\circ}$ ©
＝pán ${ }_{1}$ part clause final particle indicating change of state mood．$\Theta_{\cup}^{\circ}$
$=$ pán ${ }_{2}$ subd particle attaches to verbs to indicate the sense of＇if＇ๆर्ट
$=$ panáq（pín）part 1）nominaliser oòเos 2）ablative © 3）demonstrative ${ }^{\text {3®®®๐ }}$

páng ${ }_{1} v$ invite Učơơ $_{\circ}<$ Bur．
páng ${ }_{2} v$ collapse $\int_{0}^{\circ}<$ Shan
＝páng part clause final particle；a contracted form of a directional marker that indicates action away from the deictic centre plus a change of state

pāng $v$ embank $\infty$ صృ

pàng ${ }_{2} v$ roast something in embers or hot ashes． 보ว̊ํ
pángtaí $n$ rabbit û§ $^{\text {§ }}$
pāngtaík $n$ place＇s name uईఃoịn


3əvરీ॥
pánnàkà subd if $\uparrow \mathcal{\text { ¢ }}$
panyā $n$ education upos＜Bur．
panyāshíq $n$ wise man טలृดْ＜Bur．

papá $n$ flower U $\hat{q}^{\circ}$ ．
papūng onmt sound of drum บ่วิఃః

$=$ páq part speaker attitude particle；of course！
0lıo！＜Bur．

pasàt $n$ name of many carp species cl：จ§ई̊
pát ${ }_{1} v$ wrap voó＜Bur．
pát ${ }_{2} a d v$ asleep $\operatorname{cup}^{p}$ exclusively with the verb＇sleep＇

pā ${ }_{2} v$ give birth culfo as in give birth by hatching．

pātā $n$ religion moss＜Bur．
patamyá $n$ ruby u®্ふ氏ை：＜Bur．
pataū $n$ towel
pataúk $n$ type of hardwood tree 860 nर
pathàmáq $n$ first $000 \otimes<$ Bur．
pathàmáqtán $n$ first class $000600 \oint_{\text {§ }}^{2}<B u r$ ．
pathawī $n$ universal 000 o̊＜Bur．
patóng $n$ boa هu：



pátteút $v$ regarding vơovo $<$ Bur．
patùn $n$ eel çq̧̧
patūng $n$ man＇s name uş̣
paú ${ }_{1} v$ plenty oul＜Bur．


pa $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{1}$ locn on top зъбư＜Bur．

paū $_{3} v$ show up，appear sul＜Bur．
paúk ${ }_{1} v$ reachable，or in good condition to travel． Gulf $<$ Bur．
paúk $\mathbf{k}_{2} v$ return Ưईీ
paúk $k_{3} v$ pull out as in grass or small plants G్రిईీ， only with small plant that has root ъర్రీఠీయ

paūk $v$ time
paúkkān $n$ pagan ư
paúkmaí $n$ place＇s name sulnợ coc：

paúkpaúk attw attendant word which follows lóm



paúksēng（pasēng）$n$ axe บุ 20 § $<$ Bur．
paúlaú $n$ floating sulcos $<$ Bur．
paūmaī $n$ widower
paùn $v$ strip $\varsigma \unrhd_{\unrhd}^{\text {p }}$ pull kernels off
paūng ${ }_{1} v$ roast ụó

paúngká $n$ basket থč\＆amč：
paúngká paúngtù $n$ various types of baskets
డonč：uconč：

paūngpaūng attw attendant word which follows
 డరఃడరఃఁఁะ denotes a pleasant smell．
paúngpheút $v$ mingle together бulर̊ध0 र्m＜Bur．
paúngsāng $n$ glutinous rice cooked in a green

paūngshī $n$ fish－trap made of bamboo．家 ${ }^{\circ}$
paúngsūng $a d v$ all ธuาč\＆థ̊＜Bur．

paūt $n$ lung ъə๐๐
paútí $n$ bohdi tree cosฉoc ć
paūwaú $n$ cuckoo bird રひ્રિçీ
paūweú onmt stump ดٌ̊ccó iconic noun
paūzaúng $n$ father－in－law сummo̊：term used by daughter－in－law＜Shan
pawáq $n$ life $>\circ<$ Bur．
payanatī $n$ place＇s name טlャp ${ }^{3}$
payáphú $v$ pilgrimage ふุøఃu：＜Bur．
pazàt $v$ be crumbled $\sigma$ றn 6 nob
pazèk $n$ fly wčamx
pazèkchíq $n$ pimple $\underset{\substack{\text { o．} \\ \hline}}{\text { ．}}$
pazèkmún $n$ black flies G్రoó
pazèkzaūk $n$ mosquito ©્રિ૭ીર્ર
pazeūkán $n$ old and no longer useful cloth


pē $n$ feet ou＜Bur．
＝pè part nominal relational marker indicating locative sense．（equivalent in usage to the preposition＇to＇）．
pék $v$ close نْós＜Bur．
pēpaūng $n$ earring s：mov
péq $n$ measurement Uِરِ $<$ Bur．
péshítpá $n$ eight curses 6m：gฺீ0l：＜Bur．
pētāng $n$ fortune telling，prediction $6 \cup 3 \mathfrak{c}<$ Bur．
peū $v$ look $n$ nes Looking after time to time as with


peú ${ }_{1} v$ keep $\infty$ ：
peú ${ }_{2} n$ bean ù＜Bur．
peúkút $n$ adze ùaર
peúnán $v$ obstinate бumó
peút $n$ eight 乌̊์ $<$ Shan
peùt $v$ lie ơ์
peūt $v$ over flow Uִత్రీ，సָ only as verb modifier．
peútshí $n$ hook use for fishing clః．્રpఃจำर
peúzì peúzàk $a d v$ act or speak perversely．
अฎ๐์యําก
phá $v$ flatter $\omega$ ：＜Bur．
phā ${ }_{1} v$ thin $\cup ะ$


phà clf classifier for counting bunches of banana ${ }^{\circ}$ 。
phaík $v$ scratch by chicken שִֹׁus

phaíkhū phaíktā $n$ carriers ъぃюई．
phaīng $n$ dam əoર์




phák ${ }_{2} v$ pair oj̀七ก์
phák $_{3} v$ stride 。
phák ${ }_{4} p r n$ his ${ }_{\text {Ot }}$
phákhūlū $n$ man＇s name טী：จ৩
phákkaú phákkā refl he himself Ouncon $_{\text {On }}$
phàkmák $n$ tomorrow usméq


phàktaì $n$ tomorrow morning upricisasn
phaláng phaláng $a d v$ open зว
phaleú $n$ carrier зə๐๐氏์ derive from the verb＇carry on shoulder＇by－al－infixation，see also pheú
phān part numerical classifier denoting frequency uई＜Bur．
phanaúk $n$ heel טGన̧ગธ̛＜Bur．
phāng $n$ mountain slope $\operatorname{com}$ ćcoč：

phānsín $v$ create $\omega \varsigma \mathfrak{\rho} \mathcal{c}_{\circ}<$ Bur．
phāseūmā $n$ prostitute બlouરી＜Bur．
phát $v$ wither s sֻ：
phátphúng phátyá $a d v$ scatter disorderly

phaú $v$ wash $60: 6 \times \infty$
phaū $v$ dig up бטर＜Bur．

phaúk ${ }_{2} v$ open ธטीर्ल＜Bur．
phaúk ${ }_{3} v$ ferment бטीर्ก＜Bur．
phaúkcaík $n$ locust \＄̧ $6 m x$


phaúkzaúk $v$ jog จ̊ईə


phaūng $n$ raft எળીर्ट
phaūthúk $v$ discover бטِ ọo

phayálaúng $n$ one striving to attain Buddhahood ＜Bur．
phayaūsáq $n$ flies wô type of flies．
phēk $v$ pare quर्ट pare down（wood，as in fashioning

phékhaù $v$ invite ¿̊oֹsà＜Bur．
phéng $v$ full OU؛
pheú $v$ carry oo

pheù part suppose $\infty$ ć negative VP only
pheūlā $n$ mountain slope $\operatorname{con}$ र́cmर́s：
pheún $n$ currency mó
phí $v$ sling ๙ow
phī ${ }_{1} v$ kick $m ई$


phīm $v$ embrace or hold up 60
phīng $v$ push oịc also possible to say＇phāngtamā＇

phít $v$ kick by animal mई（ ธఃః）
phít ${ }_{2} v$ sprinkle（ $(\boxed{)}$ ）$\varphi$ ईई
phó part honorific term for older male $\stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{2}: \mathrm{Q}_{2}^{2}$ ．
phō（aphō）$n$ male $\stackrel{i}{i}$
phócí $n$ old man жષْ̨：


phōng $n$ dust $\varphi \oint<$ Bur．


phóngtakón glory，power
phóngtóng $n$ jack fruit 0 ®̀̀


firewood for small amount，daily use．ळฤर्ゥ๐ை

phónlákhaúk $n$ tree bark ગธธ์วીగ

phóntalát $n$ leave วธీg๙ీ


phóq $v$ fill ${ }_{8}^{\circ}<$ Bur．
phósùtaù $n$ acolyte ©ْ̛0．ncox white－robed acolyte ＜Bur．
－phòt aux exceed，add more ociự

phú ${ }_{1} n$ silver ${ }^{\circ}$
phú ${ }_{2} v$ put on hat or umbrella $\operatorname{smo}$ č：
phū $v$ blow બ్ભంీ
phūceū $n$ chief ${ }_{0}^{0}$ ©
phúk onmt sound light items falling culolax

phūkná $n$ bamboo hat əธ由丂र्ल＜Shan

phūn $v$ wrap ${ }^{\text {E．}}$
phūntìng nīktìng $n$ clothing зәою์зә๐：
phwákaneú $a d v$ appear suddenly ©o：ms̀＜Bur．
phwéq $v$ compose ì $<$ Bur．
phyá $n$ tip qp：＜Bur．

phyát $v$ destroy quoर＜Bur．

phyét onmt sound of swift movement Gióas Gxలు
phyeū $v$ answer $\iota_{G}<$ Bur．
phyít $v$ be Go＜Bur．
pí $n$ four 60 ：＜Shan
pí $_{2} n$ year ${ }_{\text {se }}{ }^{\circ}<$ Shan


pís $v$ finish $\mathcal{U}_{6}$ ：＜Bur．
＝pí conj particle attaches to verbs to indicate the completion of an act．©
$\left.\mathrm{pi}_{1} v 1\right)$ smooth $\mathrm{\sigma}_{\mathrm{p}}$ 2）slip $\operatorname{\text {app}}$
$\mathbf{p i ̄}_{2} n$ country COS
pì $v$ stroke with water बqวoर्نosú
pīk $n$ beside nर्טฤ र्币 some pronounce also as paík
pīn $n$ tree or plant ъぃर्ट＜Bur．
pīng $v$ thin $\begin{gathered}\circ \\ \$\end{gathered}<B u r$ ．
＝píng part clause final particle；a contracted form of a directional marker that indicates action toward the deictic centre plus a change of state clause final particle．

pīnpán $n$ tire učuई̊＜Bur．
pīnpīnpánpán $a d v$ be wearily $\cup र ् c u c u ई\{ט ई: ~<B u r . ~$
pīnyín $n$ origin טર્વๆર્વః＜Bur．
$\mathrm{pit}_{1} n$ chip off ì

pìt $v$ come close จబख：mú

pítaúq conj and then，after that $\because: 60 \infty<$ Bur．


pō $v$ be excess ${\underset{Y}{\circ}<\text { Bur．}}^{\circ}$

pók $v$ help mê never appeared as head verb．
$\mathbf{p o ̄}_{\mathbf{1}}$（palōk）$v$ hatch oर
pōk ${ }_{2} n$ nest ふつ્10

pòk ${ }_{2} n$ classifier for counting numbers of bamboos．
єəpč：auto classifier；repetition of final syllable


pòkhá $n$ forest cos
pòkhānshí $n$ wild cat 6006 ncce
pòkhápòk $v$ be thick forest $60 \infty \infty$
pòkhú $n$ round bamboo basket for storing paddy บó
póksā $n$ problem ソ®® $_{\bullet \infty}<$ Bur．
pòkwàk $n$ boar comons
 to some shrubs．
pōm $v$ cover？зวْ：as in covering fruits to make them

pòn $v$ shrivel ${ }_{\mathrm{S}}$（of leaves）shrivel up（through


pōn $v$ teem 凤 teem；exclusively as in ants and bees．

pón ${ }_{1} v$ muddy（6๑） $\operatorname{scon}$

póng $n$ bucket $\cup$

pōngmān $n$ regular نْ̣̂jई＜Bur．
pōngná $n$ Brahmin $\cup \underset{\text { Mm：}}{\text {＜Bur }}$ ．

pōngzān $n$ pattern نْ®ْ＜Bur．

pún $v$ worn out ${ }_{1}$ ©


p $\bar{u}_{2} v$ emerge $\wp_{\circ} \tilde{m}^{\circ}$
p $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{3} v$ worry $u$


pūháng $n$ name for variety of Kadu

púk $n$ belly
púkhák $v$（of gas in the abdomen）become agitated．600

púkká $v$ hungry $\infty$ ©Č：Dos
púkkanà $v$ have frequent motions of the bowels．，

púkkāng $v$ belly swell சิ̣ñ
púktáq $n$ Buddha ソֻּ
púktheú $n$ navel จई์

púkzalaút $v$ diarrhoea ov：coup

púmatíq páqmatíq $n$ expressing in Burmese for not knowing anything．＜Bur．
pūng ${ }_{1} v$ accumulate $\underset{\sim}{\circ}<$ Bur．
pūng ${ }_{2}$ onmt sound of drum ソֻ่லْ
pūngpūng attw attendant word which follows lúng
 translated into English as pleasant white．
pūngtaūng $n$ drum $\underset{\text { í }}{ }$
pūnsūn $n$ hay ธmo์ণุจ
pūnyūn $n$ tree ગ๐ఠீ
púp $v$ suck $\underset{1}{1}$ ú exclusively with candy．

pút ${ }_{1} v$ be tender or soft ${ }^{2}$ ：
pút ${ }_{2} n$ kind of rice $\infty$ ò delicacy made of glutinous rice，oil，sesame，groundnut，etc．
pútát（pútalát）$n$ leaf of betel nut plant mֹీ：จగर
 weak；flaccid．
pútsún $n$ soil？ふวฉฺ์ earth scooped out when


pūzaū $v$ scarify ưঞoీ＜Bur．
pwá $v$ multiply ů：＜Bur．
pwáq $v$ pulpy $\cup<$ Bur．
pwáqzíqzíq $a d v$ complain $\cup \odot ̊ \odot<$ Bur．
pwát $n$ mud ữ $\mathfrak{o}$＜Bur．

pweú $n$ celebration đ̀＜Bur．
pweúq $n$ degree ò̀。＜Bur．

pyák $v$ ruin पुर्ळ＜Bur．
pyān ${ }_{1} v$ again or return＜Bur．
pyān ${ }_{2} v$ fly थ̛j＜Bur．

pyāng $_{2} v$ repair Ứ̛ ${ }^{\complement}<$ Bur．
pyānmā $n$ place＇s name ©

pyāpyā $a d v$ blue نِƠO＜Bur．
pyaū $v$ happy бuर्p＜Bur．



pyaūpá $v$ happy єчpरol：＜Bur．
pyaūpyaūpápá $a d v$ happily єuṕpupolะuः＜Bur．
pyīn $n$ timber पyर्ट＜Bur．
pyíq $v$ full U\}

＜Bur．

$\mathbf{p y i ́ t}_{1} v$ make a mat of thatch（for roofing）yje
＜Bur．
pyít ${ }_{2} v$ abandon $\cup \propto_{0}<$ Bur．

pyítzīn $n$ shooting place טீ์๓
pyōk $v$ give a birth mev：6g：as with human

pyúng $n$ gem bearing soil Ê｜̧̧：＜Bur．
pyúq $v$ do $\mathscr{U}_{u}<B u r$ ．

## S s

sá $n$ salt $2 \infty$ ：＜Bur．
sā $n$ son $\infty$ ：have particular meaning for male

－sà ${ }_{1}$ part merely
－sà ${ }_{2}$ part diminutive particle 60：
$=$ sà part particle attaches to verbs or verb complexes to convey a negative imperative sense గ్రిuం

## 

saàng（sàāng）$n$ inside of the mouth วooč：feel a sour or uneasy sensation in the mouth（making one want to eat，drink，or smoke）
sààngát $v$ hip cup ヘํํํ


sací $n$ centipede mर्c：6（2qp：
saēk $n$ daughter ગృધిః combination of sā＋ek＇child＇ ＋＇female or wife＇＝daughter
saén $n$ sweet chestnut ก̣̊：งิ：

saī $v$ relevant ஹ્વిट$<$ Bur．
saík $v$ be torn $\mathcal{C}$

saíngtalá $n$ necklace o๐่
sák $_{1} v$ rest $\$$ ：
sák ${ }_{2} v$ send $\stackrel{\ominus}{\circ}$
sák $_{3} v$ join ఐof์＜Bur．
sāk $v$ itch $\omega$ ぃ：
sakā part diminutive marker 60：
sakalá $n$ sound or voice зәэ
sakaú $n$ teak wood mo
sakaùng $n$ midnight 00 ई：6mc

sákphák $v$ messy ঞoơ
sáksán $v$ breathe зวงก์ง

sàksè $n$ witness ગుగ์600＜Bur．

salà $n$ banana çर्mбup leaf uर्m leaf（used for wrapping things，rolling cheroots，roofing house）


salán salán $a d v$ speak repeatedly oûaloovilaUn
sáláng naúláng attw adverbial expression to indicate a mother whose children are grown up and she is free and independent．



salàpaúk $n$ banana core çर্గбиръ
salaú $n$ oil əoి see also saú
salaù $v$ rough neve as in leaves and timbers



salē $n$ leather ગ๐6ๆ
salí $n$ tongue ơp
salíp $n$ cockroach ن̛̣
salít $n$ gall วup̧：6®
salóng part all Фヘ̛̣：＜Bur．
salóng $\mathbf{2}^{n}$ mat $\varphi p$
sām $n$ three ソْ：
samát $n$ sand ò
sāmépweú $n$ exam ๑ธชぬ：$<$ Bur．

sán $v$ breathe of

$\boldsymbol{s a ̄} \mathbf{n}_{2}$（salān）$n$ meat ъəゝっ：
sān ${ }_{3}$ part verbal particle that attaches to verb to denote the action expressed by the verb is for the purpose of leading and guiding．only as verb modifier．
sān $_{4} v$ be tuber 饣
sanà $n$ nose sscalर：used with animals＇noses only．

sanàchī $n$ mucus इֹर्बจ：
sanàn $n_{1} v$ snatch $\sim_{i}$

sanáp $v$ wedge vưũoč．
sanàpòk $n$ nostril \＄＞
sanátnát attw attendant word which follows pīng
 O§ $600: 600:$

sāng $v$ enter oc
sàng $v$ send message
sāngkán $n$ Buddhist monk＇s rope $\sim$ mీ§：
sāngpaláng $n$ king


sāngsūng $n$ shirt ъャగู

sānsalún $n$ naked mîuopㄹํํ：
sántát $v$ test or try out ه氏์ీ：vu์＜Bur．
sanú $n$ thatch roof згழ్రి：
sanúnúp $v$ roofing ふ๐¢언언：
sānzá $v$ reign ø̊os＜Bur．
sáp $v$ spread əč：
sapáksà $n$ dish $u x^{\circ}$ ．

sapaúng part first
sapaūng $n$ herb ${ }_{1}{ }^{\circ} \omega \mathcal{C}_{8}$ Amomum corynostachyum kind

sapaút ${ }_{1} n$ foam з๐囚્రీર

sapíkàt $n$ palm tree $9 \circ$ Anogeissus acuminata．large timber tree yielding a strong and resilient


sapù $n$ horse G્રીત．
sapút sapát $a d v$ soaking wet ْ̊๐ัจ่วิ
sāpyōk $v$ birth mธงะ．ย์ํ
sàsà $a d v$ slowly 6 GU：60్：
sasāng $n$ ridged gourd จoิดર์วิ่
sāsēk $n$ mother $̊$ ฉ์์
sát $v$ pay back $o v o u<B u r$.
sàt $_{1} v$ descend $\infty$ ᄃ์
sàt ${ }_{2} n$ husked rice $ə \infty ई$
satá $n$ moon or month $\sim$
satā $n$ this month ${ }^{3}$ ®
satáng $n$ news ગఎ૦ఁ์．




sateūmūnkū $n$ mustache sofaغ：．ひฺ：
satí ${ }_{1} v$ remember ว๐๐๐
satí $_{2} v$ point
satílū $v$ remember $๐ \infty ๐ ํ$
satóng $n$ grandchild 6 U日ㅇ

sàtshī $n$ broken rice，fried rice $\infty$ §గి，$\infty$ § 6 of
satúv 1）noisy $\propto_{1}$ 2）boil ఠ๑ə
satún $n$ mouth $01: \triangleright \mathfrak{u}$
sátyáq $n$ chestnut ก̊：๖ิะ
saū $v$ insert through $\cup_{0}^{\circ}$
saú ${ }_{1} v$ collect ગิఠิ．
$\boldsymbol{s a} \mathbf{u}_{2} v$ nutty taste $\wp \mathfrak{\text { ô }}$
saú ${ }_{3} v$ urge $\sigma$ ofo 0 ＜Bur．
saù ${ }_{1} v$ be awaken ફ̊：
saì $_{2} v$ be bored（C）：as in tired of hearing something

saúk $_{1} n$ feet ъə๐๐र्ट
saúk $_{2} v$ secluded＠๐oీ囚્રિં live a secluded
saúknú $n$ 1）one thousand ぃø์́cosर्ट 2）one feet कธ์́onर्ट

saún $n$ food əo氏ะ food offered to monks or the Buddha．

saúng $v$ bang，jolt $\operatorname{sa0} \hat{c}$＜$<$ Bur．
saúng $_{2} v$ wait $\cos { }_{0}<$ Bur．
saūng $n$ two şई $<$ Shan
saúngnù $n$ twenty şֹఠoov＜Shan
saúngpák $n$ two hundred ફ̧øீ $<$ Shan




sécaú $v$ wash $60 \div 6$ ®r $<$ Bur．
sék $n$ mind ®ْoर＜Bur．
sēk ${ }_{1} n$ louse 00 §：
$\mathbf{s e ̄}_{2} n$ poison здюั์
sèk $n$ person ${ }_{n}$


sépéng $n$ opium ઝัई：
séphówákháq $n$ cost for medical treatment

sēt $n$ sleeping area зั์์טు
seú $v$ ring（৩א์）øoó
$=$ seú part speaker attitude particle enclitic to nouns and verbs to denote politeness． $6 \sim$
$\boldsymbol{s e} \overline{\mathbf{u}}_{1} n$ ten əow $<$ Bur．
$\mathbf{s e u}_{2} n$ blood ${ }^{2}$ ：
$\mathbf{s e} \bar{u}_{3} v$ pour water from a kettle．©
$\boldsymbol{s e} \overline{\mathbf{u}}_{4} v$ take out something form water $\mathfrak{\sim}$ exclusively taking out something from water．
seúqnanāyī $n$ 12．o＇clock $\rho_{\mathrm{J}}$ ゅจ̊＜Bur．
seúqngá $n$ fifteen əoữc：$<$ Bur．
seút ${ }_{1} v$ join əoर्ก＜Bur．
seút ${ }_{2} v$ scatter seed зәєゅセ્へ
seút ${ }_{3} v$ offer ఐைీைం＜Bur．
seūtaūng $n$ 10．cubit əoúuconcर measure by the cubit．＜Bur．
seútcā $n$ powerful magical weapon هֹை
seútkeù $n$ thatch כుగీఁט $<$ Bur．
seúttáq $v$ offer ๖ைగீை＜Bur．
shā $v$ small cuर्טia6๐：
 sháng $v$ clear જીદぇ＜Bur．
shāng $n$ novice $\prod_{\uparrow} \uparrow$
shángphaú $n$ ship 0 วิ์
shaúk $v$ address ธヘ্Npñ＜Bur．
＝shaúk part contracted form of a diminutive and comitative particles．（sà＋yaúk） 60 §．
shaúkpán $n$ pomelo ต઼ฺฺ์
shēk $v$ small cư
sheūlyá $v$ be very long ๓ર્ચヘિ：＜Bur．
shí $v$ die 60

$\operatorname{shi}_{2} v$ bear fruit（३วิะ）ญิะ
$\mathbf{s h i}_{3} n$ medicine $60^{\circ}$
$\operatorname{sh}_{4} n$ fruit зวэิะ
$\operatorname{shi}_{5} v$ comb 狍：
shì ${ }_{1} n$ four 60：
－shì ${ }_{2}$ part diminutive marker 60：see also sà


＝shík part contracted form of a negative imperative and a clause final particles．
（sà＋zík＝shík）ફ̀6on．
shìlák $n$ gooseberry å：QulUc emblic．myrobalan
shīlák $n$ gooseberry å：©ฺ\｜
shīm $v$ cold থई
shīnát $n$ the day after tomorrow 毋ைைீว
shīneún $n$ three days after tomorrow

$\operatorname{shing}_{1} v$ deteriorate oค่：os deteriorate and cease to be ；become extinct．


shínón $n$ two days after tomorrow $७$ €ீ：
shíp $n$ ten əoư

shīpheūn $n$ scar зวьวøर्ण
shípnú $n$ ten ळəou์
shíq $_{1} v$ exist ${ }_{\bigcirc}^{\circ}<$ Bur．
shíq $_{2} n$ portion ${ }^{\circ}$
shīshā $n$ child mev：
shīshí attw attendant word which follows katàm ＇beautiful＇as in katàm shīshí ợ̧uט
shīshī $n$ fruit ъจั：
shīshī palíq $n$ various types of fruits วృธ์యిః๐ก์
shít $n$ eight 乌ீ์＜Bur．
shītalát $n$ tobacco $\sigma \infty$ ：ดֹูగ్రి：

 due to adverse effects of amulets，charms，etc．
shīzú $n$ hair knot æoํ
＝shók part contraction of the negative imperative form sà and clause final particle yók．ई．${ }^{3} \mathfrak{l}^{\circ}$
shóq $v$ decrease бvp＜Bur．
$\operatorname{shúng} v$ loose 円̊̊＜Bur．
shúqzá $v$ look gø๐：＜Bur．
shwé $n$ sound make for chasing chicken

shwē $n$ gold 6囚＜Bur．
shwēaūng $n$ man＇s name ธจєзว์
shwēúqtaūngcówaí $n$ place＇s name




$\boldsymbol{\operatorname { s i n }} v$ spicy $\odot \mathcal{U}$
$\sin _{1} n$ iron ${ }^{\circ}$
$\sin _{2} v$ wash（hand）620：
$\sin _{3} v$ sprinkle $\odot \ll$ Bur．
$\sin _{4} n$ elephant $\triangleright \mathcal{c}$
sìn $n$ mind ®๐์
síngngeút $n$ fig ธ๑วฺ๐ई：
sìnhú $n$ heart sヘ̛̣：
sìnká pùkká $a d v$ worry ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}$ óu
sínkheúqtà $n$ came down ๖očః๖̀s＜Bur．
sīnpháng $n$ grubbing hoe $\mathfrak{\circ}$ „øč。

sīnpyaūng $n$ elephant əoćcức＜Bur．
sínteút $v$ descend $\infty$ čoun $<$ Bur．



sít $v$ authentic ъ๑๐ீ＜Bur．
sít $_{2} n$ war $\odot \subset<$ Bur．
sítchī $v$ march to war ๑ீ์จิ＜Bur．
sítkhín $v$ go for war Фธ์əर्ट̌＜Bur．
síttá $n$ soldier Фீ์อయః：＜Bur．
síttán $n$ record Фீ์o 氏ை：＜Bur．
síttī $n$ soldier ๑ீ์ைைર＜Bur．
síttū $n$ soldier ๑®์ற

síttúk $v$ battle Фธ๐๐ุ̊ก
són dominate $\stackrel{\odot}{\odot}_{\circ}^{\circ}$＜Bur．

slang：to make mischief or cause trouble（between two parties）．

sòksòk onmt cough єəpč：⿰㇒㠯’：
sóm $n$ three ソั：＜Bur．
sōm $v$ used up $n_{i} \oint$
sóng $a d v$ superlative degree ஹீ：＜Bur．
sóntàng（saúntā̄）$n$ food əo氏๒：
 $<$ Bur．
sōteúq $n$ one that is called かò＜Bur．
sú $v$ smell rank（fish or flesh）లูిడo゚ई
sū $n$ slave गईई

$\mathbf{s u ́ k}_{\mathbf{2}} v$ moldy
sūn $v$ pound gֻve exclusively with grains such as


sún $n_{1} v$ sew or stitch श\｜र्ن

sùng $n$ mortar ${\underset{L}{\circ}}_{\circ}^{\infty}<$ Bur．
sūng $v$ complete $\oplus<$ Bur．


$\boldsymbol{\operatorname { s u }} \mathrm{p} v$ wear（hat） $\operatorname{conc}^{\mathcal{c}}$
súq $n$ present $ə_{\uparrow}<$ Bur．
súqlát $n$ gift œุ৩ó＜Bur．
sút $v$ start fire or burn $\stackrel{\circ}{\text { กl }}$
sūt $n$ mosquito net $\underset{\text { arćconc }}{ }<$ Shan
swá $n$ tooth ગoo：
swáng $n$ master ૩จ๑ఁ์
swáng $_{2} v$ rich থ｜
swáng $_{3} v$ put ગ્م
swángyōk $v$ prosperous єmč̌．
swásweū $n$ eye－teeth ззоर́s
swé $v$ 1）sharpen 600：2）grind 600：as in 00\＄ט̌21：600：
sweú $v$ obsessed with Фेөr
sweū $n$ tusk øư＜Bur．
sweúmát $v$ concept શồ઼oֹ＜Bur．


## T

－ta（－taú）part particle attaches to foreign loan verbs．
tá ${ }_{1} v$ block 0 ：$<$ Bur．
tá $n$ son かっ：＜Bur．
$=$ tá part particle attaches to nouns or verbs for emphasis．̀̀
tà $v$ 1）receive ${ }^{2} 2$ ）accept 3 ）collect ${ }^{2}$


＝tā part realis nominaliser os＜Bur．

tacámín $n$ Sakkra 0 గ్రొః๗ఁ์：
tachá $n$ other place o®ros＜Bur．

$\boldsymbol{t a c i}_{2} n$ thigh бuर
taeūkáq $n$ acre oธீ厄m＜Bur．

tahaù $n$ ladder 60 opls
tahaūng $n$ hole oૂčィยulm
tahú $n$ hand ©ớ
taí $v$ measure ộç ${ }^{\circ}$＜Bur．
taì $n$ morning \＄̊ ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$
taī $n$ post ộc $<$＜Bur．

taík $v$ offer a drink op̂op＜Bur．

taíkpweú $n$ battle ộmธ̀＜Bur．
taïktaïk $a d v$ attendant word which follows zàk ＇hard＇as in zàk taīktaīk ↔－ை
taíkú（ténkú）$n$ wing зəธ๐๐ธ
taīpāng $v$ discuss ộçuč＜Bur．
taípī $n$ country ỗc：యuల＜Bur．
taītán $v$ report ồcos ${ }^{\circ}$＜Bur．
taítapá $n$ other country ộčoภø์u：＜Bur．

ták $v$ hook 巳ِ㔾
＝ták part particle attaches at the end of utterance
to denote reported speech．ò hearsay marker

tāk $n$ hand ৩र्ल
tāk ${ }_{2} v$ lick ©్సk
tàk $v$ weave $\omega$ र्m

taká ${ }_{1} n$ one car cosm：＜Bur．
taká ${ }_{2} n$ bridge oำว



takeū $a d v$ really ommvo＜Bur．
takhā $n$ one time ooฮə＜Bur．
takhápaúk $n$ door oْ2！ะธulई door step
takhāteú $a d v$ at once osธ์حloņ：＜Bur．
takháwáq $n$ at a door step oْว）：̊๐＜Bur．
takhīn $n$ master ગఎəર์＜Bur．
takhó $n$ thief
takhúttà $n$ place＇s name 0 ๖əळ
tākī $n$ member of the Cakya dynastic clan $0 \gg$ mi
tākīwīn $n$ clan＇s name＞＞mீoc＜Bur．
tākkasú $n$ elbow oْsoncर्cəoீ
tāklín $n$ shuttle（of a loom）© © ईీ


tākmú（tākmūng）$n$ thumb ヘธֹ์๐
tākpá $n$ palm 60 \＆



tākshīasít $n$ knuckles $৩$ रioo
tākshīkathùn $n$ little finger $\mathrm{\sim}$ move̊

talá $n$ thread จરરك





talāt $n$ leaf ฎर्๗
talaút（taút）$n$ solid ъə̀
$=$ talé part speaker attitude particle that occurs at the end of the clause to denote surprise realisation．ळúver：
talèp $n$ turtle ơ์
talèt $n$ bow 60 ：

taleút ${ }_{1} n$ one tool or implement ఎர์యरీ＜Bur．
taleút ${ }_{2} v$ move 6．
taleùt（teùt）$n$ tongs جِứnc derive from the verb ＇clip＇by－al－infixation，see also teùt
talìnghā $n$ last year usím
talīp $n$ package ъююоर
taló $n$ post $\underset{\text { Z．Op̀र }}{ }$

tām $v$ search эрє๐
tamān $n$ soil of rice fields $\infty$ ぃई：

tamāyūng $n$ community hall هબ઼્ીi $<$ Bur．
tameū $n$ deer ગఎゅर्ट
tamí $n$ daughter 0 ๒ิ：＜Bur．
tamì $n$ other people ongp：

tamíng $n$ seed $\Theta \varrho^{\circ}$ seeds saved for transplanting ©쎙․
tamìsā $n$ human $\sim_{n}$
támyít $v$ forbid on：
tamyó $n$ one kind $\infty \odot ์ \cup) \mid: ~<B u r . ~$
tamyóqneūlúng $n$ people from the whole town

tán $n_{1} v$ beat oิเงุดก์
tán $n_{2}$ quality $\omega$ ई：＜Bur．
tān $n$ numerical classifier used in counting different legs of a journey，component parts of abstract concepts．$\infty ई<B u r$ ．
tān $n_{2} n$ iron か๐＜Bur．
tān ${ }_{3} n$ pain उर्ञ＜Bur．
tān ${ }_{4} n$ stick o $<$ Bur．
tān ${ }_{5}$ part verbal particle that attaches to verb to denote acceptance．derived from the verb tām ＇search＇？
tanát $n$ gun couso $<$＜Bur．
tanátkhá $n$ thanakha ગుฐn์วะ ground－up bark of the tree of the same name．＜Bur．
tānchaūng $n$ bucket ગْธจpč＜Bur．
tanéq tanaík $n$ at one day ఎఠ์

táng $2 n$ basket conč：
táng ${ }_{3}$ onmt sound of breaking ఎథீథ்மீீீ

tāng ${ }_{1} v$ put onto هc $<$ Bur．
$\operatorname{tāng}_{2} n$ knife อ๐

tāngkā $n$ Sangha；member of Buddhist Order．
＜Bur．จำง
tāngka $\bar{u}_{1} n$ sword बใ๑ฺર

tángkwoì $n$ a basket which holds twenty four pē （approximately a bushel and a half）．ゥథீ๐र्c：จे ＜Bur．
tángngà $n$ fish c ：


tāngshī $n$ pointed knife Alః\＆（bxcc

tānlyeúttá $n$ four－edged dagger which forms part of the Myanmar regalia．دیईヘpmos：＜Bur．
tānón pot 3 ई $3 \overbrace{i}^{\circ}: ~<~ B u r . ~$
tanòk $n$ trunk çoરi૩วๆવ์．


tāntayáq $n$ doubt vosuc＜Bur．
tānwayáqyāzà $n$ man＇s name ふْంฤ९＠
tányát $v$ be cross over $\omega ई: \sim ई:<$ Bur．
táp clf classifier for counting flat objects зจŋјर्ט
tapalín $v$ vibrate $\omega_{i}$ §จ
tapàn $n$ sub－group of Kadu also know as Mauteik

tapát ${ }_{1} n$ encircle ゥळ์טo $<$ Bur．
tapát ${ }_{2} n$ one week ゥథ์טo $<$ Bur．
tapaú $n$ principle $0.6 \infty<$ Bur．
$\operatorname{tapaúk}_{1} v$ speak 6
tapaúk $_{2} n$ calf 6 ర్రుペ：
tapaúkkā $v$ explain बƯU

tapaútayá $n$ example ььэை๐ю：＜Bur．
tapaútayámā $n$ example or in principle

tapaútū $v$ agree $0.6 \infty \infty<$ Bur．
tapék $n$ monk＇s bowl ગưoर
taphā $n$ foot or sole 6 ®obol：
taphyān $n$ measure cêరીఝీ Myanmar measure of time（equivalent to four seconds）．
tapíq $n$ servant osữ $<$ Bur．

tapītī $a d v$ real onmúv＜Bur．
tapyá $n$ one plank o®¢̛̣：＜Bur．
tapyā $n$ stick for driving draught animals o๐ $\varphi p$
tapyān $n$ about the length of the whole bamboo oUU§＜Bur．
tasà $n$ ornament $\infty ई \infty><$ Bur．
tasák $n$ life long，one whole life ळouर्m
tashaúk locn along oธీஎヘppe＜Bur．
tashī $n$ uncle

$\boldsymbol{t} \boldsymbol{t a s h o ̄} n$ spy
tát ${ }_{1} v$ attach $<\mathfrak{v}<B u r$ ．
tát ${ }_{2} n$ wedge $\sim \mathcal{u}$
tá ${ }_{3}$ part verbal particle attaches to a verb to denote the acquiring of some knowledge，skill，capability etc．ゥoर्ऽ＜Bur．
tāt ${ }_{1}$ clf classifier for counting numbers of leaves ฎீ์ see also talat

tàt $v$ kill ગఎơ＜Bur．
tataítaí onmt sound of gun fire o $\frac{3}{1}$ र．

tatát $n$ one cluster ๑osर्ט $<$ Bur．
tatātayá $n$ generosity ગ૭જ્રી๗甲：＜Bur．
tataúlúng $n$ whole forest os $\quad$ onơㅇ $<$ Bur．

tataūútāng $v$ term used while addressing to

tatawā $n$ animal ๖๐ळ๐＜Bur．
tátchúk $v$ constipate هી๗ર્ચાર
tathú $n$ knee $\frac{10}{}$ ：
tathúthaúk $v$ kneel $3: 600$ nर

tatī tī（tatī，tī ${ }_{\mathbf{3}}$ ）$v$ lay egg ટટ

tátlúng $n$ magic ball＠losへ̣：


táttayáq $n$ third $\infty \circ \sim<$ Bur．
tatū（tū $\left.{ }_{4}\right) n$ seed ふьø
tatū zapúq $n$ seed $\varrho_{0} \|^{\circ}$ ©®
taú ${ }_{1} n$ jungle son＜Bur．
$\tan _{2} v$ carry $\mathfrak{v} \mathfrak{\omega}<$ Bur．
$\boldsymbol{t a} \overline{\mathbf{u}}_{1} v$ wear（shirt）
$\boldsymbol{t a} \bar{u}_{2} v$ 1）fit $\cos$ 2）enough $\cos$ 3）proper 4）be related $<$ Bur．

$\boldsymbol{t a} \overline{\mathbf{u}}_{4}$ part honorific terms to show reverence，power， sacredness，royalty when speaking to monks．con ＜Bur．

taù $v$ perforate ธטlल
taūcí $n$ woman ъәш：กุ่：address term used by a husband to his wife．
taúk ${ }_{1} v$, slg do／hit סुưט̛̃ slang．an expression to do or to use something forcefully．
taúk $\mathbf{k}_{2}$ onmt sound of clicking sound when someone

taūk $n$ cattle＇s hump sొ：cự
taúkōleū $v$ hunting conmion

taúktaù $n$ gecko monno’





taúng $n$ ten thousand $\cos \mathcal{c}_{:}<B u r$ ．
taūng $n$ feet cosc

taūngkapyān $n$ place＇s name $\cos \hat{c} m$ ¢̛
taūngkúng $n$ place＇s name $\sigma 0 x$ cn
taúngláng $n$ big circular tray on a stand used for serving meals．

taūngmwé $n$ rod сončธọ：＜Bur．
taúngpān $v$ apologise $60 x c_{\text {ću§ }}<$ Bur．
taùngsaúkmú $n$ caterpillar aus：
taùngséng $n$ fly（big with green colour）wícmo
taúngyú $n$ place＇s name є3रč：्u：
taúp $v$ end oํ：
tawaík $n$ around ๓ợ๗＜Bur．
tawák $n$ half ゥø์on $<$ Bur．
tāwūn $n$ responsibility omoई＜Bur．
tāwūnceū $v$ responsible osoई6m＜Bur．
tayá $n$ law ゥণ»＜Bur．
tayā $n$ one hundred ゥீ์ๆ＜Bur．
tāyā $v$ pleasant sous＜Bur．
tāyācīnú $v$ pleasant

tayát $n$ one stop $\infty ఠ ீ \mathfrak{\cup}<$ Bur．
tayaù $n$ undressed cotton ol

tayūyū $a d v$ jelly soft ふ๐ว
tazáqtazáq $a d v$ bit by bit，step by step，gradually мoo＜Bur．
tazí $n$ one cart のøீøి：＜Bur．
tazúq $n$ one group ఎণீ＜Bur．
－tē（twē）part general plural maker 60 ＜Bur．


tēcaúng $n$ way to die 6006 nex $c_{\text {：}}^{\text {＜Bur．}}$
técháng $n$ song ગิશરఁఁఁ＜Bur．
ték $a d v$ quite つ̛ீ
tèk $v$ break leaves ฉ．๐యर्ט॥ as in breaking leaves．

tékhòt $n$ pan 6 U్య 3 i：
tékpáq $n$ innate wisdom $\mathfrak{\cup} \cup>$ Pali
tékshī $n$ pot 3 ว̊̊ kātékshī $n$
tén $v$ gather ગ゚લ์＜Bur．

téng ${ }_{2} v$ plant ${ }_{\text {® }}^{1} \mathfrak{n}$ exclusively with seeds

tēngwīn $v$ be ordained into monk hood ગْ\＆๐c ＜Bur．
$=$ téq． $\mathbf{q}_{1}$ subd reason，because $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$
$=$ té ${ }_{2}$ part realis nominaliser ò̀＜Bur．
teú ${ }_{1} n$ hut ò＜Bur．
teú ${ }_{2} v$ cut superficially ๑
teú $_{3} v$ wait $\cos \tilde{\delta}$
te $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{1} v$ walk ธu్ppr exclusively with walking on a


te $\bar{u}_{2} v$ establish $\infty \hat{\jmath} \sigma \infty 0 र$ र $<$ Bur．
$=\boldsymbol{t e} \overline{\mathbf{u}}$ part clause final particle enclitic to verbs or verb complexes to indicate realis mood．ous $<$ Bur．

teúkhō $v$ putting up at a place onşơ̊＜Bur．
teúm $1 v$ concentrate
teúm ${ }_{2} v$ pillow зoํ
teùn clf classifier for counting unspecific objects or kinds ${ }^{2}$
teúnsú $n$ bamboo clip ol：mर्çữ used when roasting

teúp $v$ throw ט®
teút $v$ listen $\$: 600 x$ c
teūteū $a d v$ lightly onss
teútpū $v$ hear $\underbrace{3}:$
teútpūpá $v$ hear confusedly Eس＞：6unc

 osøर्ट:
thá $v$ keep 00 : < Bur.
thà $v$ be G̛o
-thà aux must, have to ๆ

thaík $n$ should ○ọ
thaíktān $v$ deserve oimon
thaíng $v$ slow as: $_{\text {s }}$ Bur.
= thák part particle attaches to verbs to form a


thām $v$ near $\stackrel{\text { े}}{ }$
$=$ thāmā part clause final particle enclitic to verbs or verb complexes to indicate hortative sense. ๆ๘ъ๓र์
thán $v$ carry $0^{\text {of: }<\text { Bur. }}$
$=$ thān part to or toward $\propto^{<}<$Bur.
tháng $v$ overcast 3º $^{\circ}$
thàng $v$ just happened GुơTo m
thāng ${ }_{1} n$ think $\infty$ c $<$ Bur.

thángāk $n$ jaggery مईీన్య్యर्m palm sugar; jaggery.
thāthātweù $n$ female's name $00 \times \infty ః \frac{1}{0}$




thaù $v$ carve óč?
thaúk ${ }_{1} v$ point out $6000 \mathfrak{m} \in<$ Bur.

thaūng $v$ boil గั||ข์ something boil for a long

thaūng ${ }_{2} n$ jail $\cos \varepsilon$ र Bur.
thaūng ${ }_{3} v$ up right $\cos \delta<$ Bur.
thaùng $v$ be old (loan word from Shan) $3_{\text {? }}^{\circ}<$ Shan
thék ${ }_{1} v$ shock $\propto \mathfrak{\delta}$ <Bur.
thék ${ }_{2} n$ tip $\propto \hat{\cup}<$ Bur.
thēk $v$ pinch ฉoos
théktí $n$ first class ஹỡo̊ః < Bur.
théng $v$ control $\propto 0$ §̊: <Bur.
thèng $v$ deep $\ddagger \kappa^{\kappa}$ exclusively with well.


thēp $v$ prevent onso̊: obstruct; block; prevent.

théq $v$ add ఐरِك <Bur.
theú ${ }_{1} n$ navel จईर्ल as in púttheú 'navel' จર์

theū $n$ plough $\infty \mathfrak{\int}^{\mathfrak{U}}<$ Bur.
theù $v$ thick $\propto_{n}^{\infty}$
theūn $v$ repeat $\infty \delta$ used when changing flower



thī $1 v$ dream טर्ल
thī ${ }_{2} v$ scoop ढmर्टर्v exclusively with scooping water

thi $\overline{\mathbf{i}}_{3} v$ shine $\omega$ as with moon shine.
thīn $v$ press :
thīng $n$ village ${ }^{\circ}$
thīngpālá $n$ village leader ฉơ중:

thīngsá $n$ villager פгэ:
thīnpaū $v$ known ळर्टбul <Bur.
thīnthú $n$ tree כóvucomexill

thíq $v$ touch $\infty<$ Bur.
thít $v$ nick $\infty \odot$ make a nick or notch. $<$ Bur.
thó $v$ joust $\propto_{1}^{\circ}$ < $<$ Bur.
thō $v$ push oईీ



thō $\mathbf{k}_{2} v$ arrive ธ甲र्ை

thōm $v$ blunt knife
thómà $n$ short moment amon
thōmpòk $n$ gun 603 por slang: literally short length


thōn $n_{2} v$ plough ooई
thóng ${ }_{1} n$ lime ọ̊：＜Bur．
thóng ${ }_{2} v$ sit
thónghaúng $n$ old custom oi：6uxč：＜Bur．
thóngtít $n$ new custom oْ：ロ๐®
 ＜Bur．


 －anxo
thòt $v$ pluck a：for the purpose of eating．

thú $v$ different $\infty_{n:}<$ Bur．
thū $v$ 1）pound $\operatorname{cooc}^{\kappa}$ ： 2 ）dig $\infty_{1}^{\circ}$

thúchá $v$ different $\infty_{n}: O_{0}:<$ Bur．
thúk $v$ take out or extract＠o
thúm $v$ black इผ
thún $v$ harrow oo§＜Bur．
thūncīn $n$ sensitive plant Mimosa pudica．©o̊mọㄹ

thúntaúk $v$ shine o
thūthaūng $v$ establish $\propto_{\| 600}^{\infty}<$ Bur．
thwáng $v$ 1）carve，gouge or to clear the field for

tí $n$ penis ペธ์ธo

$\mathbf{t i}_{1}$（ $\left.\mathbf{t a t i ̄}\right) n$ egg
$\mathbf{t i}_{2} v$ sweet $\stackrel{\circ}{\|}$
$\mathbf{t i}_{3} v$ lay egg（ฉ）乞 imitative verb derived from the word＇egg＇tatī

tím $v$ hide $u{ }^{\text {§ }}$ ：
tìm $v$ put down থ｜డ00x
 પ్రీగీmaృ
tín $v$ revile oo used excessively with obscene


＝tìng part purposive nominaliser $\stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{\bullet}^{\circ} \oplus \rho$

tīnmaung $n$ man＇s name očcぁn
tínq $a u x$ should
tíntān onmt hanging oذ̀எைxఁ์：
tīp $v$ pack；bundle；wrap with paper or leaves œoof

tít $n$ one ऽø $<$ Bur．
títánq $a d v$ separately $ొ$ ふొ．


tó $v$ increase $\rho_{i}^{\circ}:<$ Bur．
tók $\mathbf{k}_{1}$ onmt sound of shaking something off

tók ${ }_{2}$（atók）$v$ hold on a moment $\sigma \$ 3 \mathfrak{i}^{\circ}$ ：
tōk $v$ collect firewood oov：az
tòkcī $n$ palm tree $\omega$ č：ธul Caryota mitis．kind of large palm yielding hardwood．
tókháq $n$ trouble $\underset{1}{2} \prod_{2}<$ Bur．


tókweú $n$ sweat aəd $^{\circ}$
tōm $n$ below ๘ъว์
tōn $v$ short ${ }_{\circ}^{\circ}$

tóng $_{2} n$ three
tóng ${ }_{3} n \log$ ○울
tóng ${ }_{4} v$ place onर exclusively with putting a

tóng ${ }_{5}$ onmt sound of falling something．उई：
tōng ngōng tōng ngōng onmt sound of a gong 6แč：०ి：०
tóngcìng $n$ three times
tóngkhā $n$ three times or trips ્ְْْ2l＜Bur．
tōngkwán $n$ ring or loop méc：ก̛̣n
tóngmótá $n$ three years／seasons old
tóngpaúlaú $n$ place＇s name osई：ธulcos
tóngzúq $n$ three groups
tō $\mathbf{p}_{1} v$ fist $\propto_{1}^{\circ}$ :

-tóq part particle attaches to nouns to denote plurality. © $\circ_{\text {R }}^{\circ}<$ Bur.
tóteút $v$ improve o̊ㅇosos < Bur.

tú $_{1} n$ language oms $^{2}$



tún $_{3} v$ pound $\infty_{1}$
$\operatorname{tu}_{1} v$ same ${\underset{\sim}{\pi}}^{\infty}$ Bur.
$\operatorname{tu}_{2} p r n$ third person singular form. $\overbrace{n}<$ Bur.
$\mathbf{t u}_{3} v$ carry on head ๑๐र्๗
$\mathrm{t}_{\mathbf{u}}^{4} \boldsymbol{v}$ be cut off Uós
tù $v$ grow culf exclusively with seeds. उə6هu

túk $v$ transport ộ̣̂ई transport (things) in ox's cart

túk $v$ battle ộీ ${ }^{\infty}$ transport (things) in ox's cart or

tūktān $n$ cemetery ص્વિ૭ई <Bur.
túktháqkúqmàráq $n$ man's name
túktúk attw attendant word which follows kasín 'cold' as in kasín túktúk əย์6ъวะ63จะ
tūlōlō $a d v$ onomatopoeic word Єִరీエீ®̀ < Bur.

tūm $v$ blow flute H̛ơ exclusively with flute



tūmín firearm oncis <Bur. a percussion lock
firearm ๙uి: 600\$0
tún $v$ pull əò
= tún part clause final particle enclitic to verbal
predicates to indicate the action express by the verb is still in progress. 60:Oow
tūngngāk $v$ bow ธalc\&లై
túngngún $n$ bee up:
túpíkkà $n$ pinnacle œơm < Bur.
túq $v$ fake $o_{\imath}<$ Bur.
túqtayáq $n$ second зо๐ $\omega<$ Bur.
túqtúqpáqpáq $n$ man's name
tút $v$ cut G̛os
twá $v$ go एo: < Bur.
twák $v$ calculate ळூணீனీ < Bur.
twé $v$ think 60 。 $<$ Bur.
tweú onmt sound make for chasing bird


## U u

$\mathbf{u}_{1} n$ head $\complement^{2}$ ：＜Bur．
$\dot{\mathbf{u}}_{2} v$ deep $\$ \kappa^{\kappa}$ exclusively with water．

$\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{1} v$ drink $\cos \delta{ }^{\kappa}$
$\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{2} n$ fowl 厄ூศ
$\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{3}$ excl oh！${ }_{3}$
ūhá $n$ crow ñํ



ùhánphám $v$ yawn зoวof：

ūhaút $v$ thirsty $\sigma ૧ ண \gg$
ūkán $n$ wild fowl conerer

ūkaú $n$ koel 20
ùkkalùkùk onmt sound of a big rooster crow

úkzā $n$ thing থゅ＜Bur．
ūlā $n$ rooster ల్రિணம
ūlēk $n$ pheasant bird ๆ $^{\infty}$
ūlizáng $n$ chicken coop セr๗ీ
ūlūshī $n$ star ©rou
ūm $v$ swell ธ甲र
 ung dem that $u_{\text {p }}^{0}$
únyút $v$ bow one＇s head in respect to someone $\mathfrak{\imath ి}$ ºsई ＜Bur．
ūpá $n$ hen ஜિmீه
úpáq $n$ man＇s name 2 ̊ః


úqyīn $n$ garden રuppર＜Bur．
úshík $v$ shallow ơ่


ūthū $n$ nest שrocke⿱心夊 hen＇s nest
ūtī $n$ egg య્રિ્ֹર
ūweú onmt sound of infant cry mac：cucço
 smpáuरీ．
úzá $n$ priority
ūzík $n$ bird çर्m
ūzík ūkán $n$ fowl çč์ધp：
ūzík ūyá $n$ various types of fowls ©્રિmç，
ūzíkpalúk $n$ bird＇s nest çmopin
ūzíksá $n$ bird çर्币

## W w

wá $_{1} v$ jump down ${ }^{\text {§ }}$ §
$\mathbf{w a ́ a}_{2} n$ bamboo 0 ：＜Bur．




$\mathbf{w a i ́}_{2} n$ cane or rattan $\mathfrak{c}^{\circ} \dot{\varrho}$


waì $v$ do obeisance（with palms raised together on

waík $v$ round ${ }_{1}{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}<$ Bur．
wák $v$ 1）wide nuर्⿱⿰㇒土儿夊 2）loose єəpć used with clothing

wàk $n$ pig on
wákkáhángtì $n$ wild yam or์夭ષી己
wàkzáng $n$ big pen onę́

waleú（weú）$n$ liquid зə๑ર์
waleúsín $n$ liquor ૩๑ฤर्๗ literally spicy or hot liquid．
wán $v$ chop จơ
wān $n$ fire ${ }^{\text {® }}$ 。
wā $n_{2} v$ clear óç̧̧์：exclusively with clearing small

wàn clf numeral classifier for counting numbers of days
\＄ை
wān hítzalaúng $n$ iron hook attached to a long pole used in fighting fire．बి．ฉิ｜

wánaúk $n$ east，in front зə๐я．
wāncīng $n$ charcoal ©：60º
wáng $n$ compound فृ̃ంč：
wangán $n$ pot＇s case зว̊ะァ๐๐：
wángshì $n$ younger brother of one＇s husband（of women）${ }^{1}$ ம๐б
wángshì $n$ uncle $\infty 63:$ one＇s father＇s younger

wāngwáq $n$ entrance oco＜Bur．
wánhú $n$ rice sieve＠๐m
wānkākcīng $n$ live coal ધ̈：ว̀
wānkāng $n$ firewood that didn＇t burn and those left in the fire place $\dot{\text { Qi }}$ ：




wànpyák $v$ light went off \＆：ujn
wānsāng $n$ cup ธ๐ைก์ธ๐ว์์ exclusively a cup used for drinking water
wānsūng $v$ smoke ย日．วิะ

wāntāt $1_{1} n$ stove ${ }_{\text {Qiel }}^{\circ}$ fire place within a house
wāntāt ${ }_{2} v$ light b：oo
wántòk $n$ west，behind ふəธวก์
wāntū $n$ burning fagot or firebrand $\dot{\text { \＆}} \stackrel{\circ}{ }$
wānyá $n$ torch \＆ine bamboo torch ol：（asicoom ©

wānzék $v$ kindle（fire）ยิ．

wáq $n$ circle o
wáqlúng $n$ circle ợ̊：＜Bur．
wasá $n$ flotsam
 stringy mass of fibres from the dried fruit of the sponge gourd used as a spongeor scourer．
washì $n$ comb วิะ
washìlā $n$ crested зəธьつผ์

washìtū $n$ fruit m60ைวา：วิะ



wàt $n$ leech றృјर्ळ


wēphān $v$ critique $60 \vartheta ई<B u r$ ．
weū $v$ hang（bag）शoर exclusively with hanging on



weú kasúm $n$ goblet எø๐


weúkú $v$ bathe ธ๑จํ．
weúmakōk $n$ person who do not bath ธุยશํ
weúpaìk $n$ bank Gดロर्ט
weúsalí $n$ wave ỡč

weūtanā $n$ pain бозя $<$ Bur．
weúwá $v$ jump down ఇईๆจ as into the water

wílú wánglú $a d \nu$ vaguely 60600）：0？vaguely； hazily；indeterminately．
win $n$ member oर＜Bur．
wīnkāntáq $n$ man＇s name oćno＞
wíqpatù páq $n$ man＇s name òvosu
wíqpétcamà $n$ consequence oiunֹeres result，effect，
consequence of one＇s deeds．＜Bur．
wúng ontt sound of dropping a massive object o o $\oint^{2}$
wúntō $n$ place＇s name oईీٌǫ
wūsùt（wasùt）$n$ knot hair ฉơo
wút $v$ wear oó $<$ Bur．
 past sins and misdeeds．＜Bur．

## Y y

yá $v$ bright $\sim \mathcal{c}^{\text {s }}$
＝yá conj particle attaches to nouns or verbs to indicate the meaning＇also＇or＇either．U్రీర్రీ，Cరí60 yā $\bar{a}_{1} v$ gauge，size up çp＜Bur．
y $\bar{a}_{2}$ part verbal particle that attaches to verb to indicate an excessive meaning．
yaà（yákà）$n$ now зจุ
yàā $n$ one day oर夭ø $\mathfrak{\infty}$
＝yaà part euphoric particle．Geciccouiu
yahāk $n$ rope $\widetilde{C r}^{0}$ ：
yahán $n$ monk－hood đuईई์
yahaūk $n$ husk ©̀ ©
yahaūkchí $n$ tender husk ờs can feed the animals．

yahaùng $n$ river बจpč：
yahaùnghaláng $n$ head river बिpcisp：$^{\text {p }}$
yahaùngtóng $n$ river G్రీ

yahùng $n$ well ธ甲обर्वః
yahùng ${ }_{2} n$ steamer бulर̊\＆apर pot with a perforated bottom ${ }^{2}$ forming the upper part of a steamer （cooking utensil）．
yàk $n$ 1）now ъจุ 2）day ๆ઼र्๗
－yák
yàkmák（yamák）（yàk）$n$ today ${ }_{3}{ }^{\circ}$ ¢я，

yáktánwán $n$ whole day osธ§n§
yalán $v$ long Яરِ never used as a head verb．
yalaùt $n$ bud згబ్రీ．

yalū $n$ vine şow
yalūcaík $n$ cucumber 0 ฉఃะコి：
yalún yalún $a d v$ imitative expression；in tows or rows of many things з๖๐ัวฉิ
yamà $n$ crocodile ${ }^{\text {blappć }}$
yameùshī $n$ dipper فqưo
yāmpák $n$ hemp ธợp
yāmpū $n$ banded snake head fish Clถ̊．
yán $v$ struggle १̣̂์
yān $v$ fight §ई＜Bur．
yānān $n$ bush ขึl
yanéq $n$ today $\omega$ ©я。 $<$ Bur．
yanéqchíngthíq $n$ until today $\omega$ ตรจిโ $\infty^{\circ}<B u r$ ．
yáng $v$ be straight $\varsigma$ ©oc
 which water and flowers are placed as a religious offering．
yānsapú $n$ freshwater catfish clıa
yāntháq $n$ fight $\uparrow \mathfrak{q} \infty<$ Bur．



yáp ${ }_{2}$（nyāp）$n$ wax veunč：
yā $\mathbf{p}_{1} v$ fan cలగీశoर
yā $p_{2} v$ cross Groón：
yapá $n$ shoulder uå：
yapà $n$ string bean ù
yát $v$ stop $\uparrow \mathfrak{u}<$ Bur．
yàt $v$ clip／cut pucivion exclusively cutting plants
with knife．ఎ：ర్రీ
yātanā $n$ jewel ๆ๐ァ＜Bur．
yatéq $n$ hermit ๑600＜$<$ Bur．
yátyát zaúngzaúng $a d v$ with difficulty an์วณ์ว̀
＜Shan？



yaū excl exclamation $\sigma \mathfrak{\rho}$
yaúk $\mathbf{k}_{1}$ clf classifier for counting numbers of people ธussर＜Bur．
yaúk ${ }_{2} v$ arrive ஞ甲र्ゥ＜Bur．
$=$ yaúk ${ }_{1}$ part nominal relational marker indicating a comitative sense．ईे．
$=$ yaúk $_{1}$ subd particle attaches to a verb to indicate purpose ๘зวธ probably reduced form of hayaúk．
yaúkā $n$ disease $\sigma$ กी＜Bur．
yaúkcá $n$ man susn̂́p：＜Bur．
yaúkpháq $n$ brother－in－law єusm์́ $<$ Bur．
yaūng $v$ fake susc $<$ Bur．
yaúngmáq $n$ ladle $\sigma \omega x \mathcal{c}_{\circ} \circ<$ Bur．
yaūngpáng conj because of or the reason for ${ }_{\text {®ncoc }}$




yāzā $n$ king 甲＠＜Bur．
yé $v$ write 69 ＜Bur．
yē $n$ water 6 ¢ $<$ Bur．
$=\mathbf{y e ̄}$（yeú ）part particle attaches to the name of


yēk $n$ hill field coscums

yeú $v$ get up $\infty$
$=\mathbf{y e u}$ ū conj and qư
$=$ yeù ${ }_{1}$ part particle attaches to nouns to denote similarity（equivalent in usage to adverbs＇like＇， ＇as＇）$\bigcirc_{\mathrm{T}}$ anyeù dem
$=$ yeù ${ }_{2}$ part speaker attitude particle $\overbrace{1}^{\circ}$

$=$ yeún part nominal relational marker indicating purpose or beneficiary．ъољк

yeút $n$ day ๑र्ゥ＜Bur．
yeútín $n$ axe Ə̀зč：＜Bur．
＝yí part also טయ์：
yīm $v$ arrest $\omega$ ®．$^{2}$
yīnnā $v \operatorname{sad}$ ๆćqp＜Bur．


yìpalák $n$ kind of bean Gsùjo：
yít $v$ spin $\ominus^{\odot}<$ Bur．
yīthú（yathú）$n$ long handled axe əई
yítíyátá $a d v$（act）ambiguously，evasively；shilly－ shally；（behave）dilatorily；（fool）away，around ஸిఃคి：un：on：

yó $n$ ridge ஸ̣̊＜Bur．
yók $n$ disgrace ûo
yōk $v$ eat $\infty:$
$=$ yók part clause final particle enclitic to verbs or verb complexes to indicate the action expressed by the verb is a temporary or an intrusive action．
ऊْ̊룽
yōkhaút $v$ hungry ن̛̣̂์om

－yōkyá aux particle attaches to verbs to denote the sense of difficulty to do something．aగる cannot


yōng $v$ trust $u_{i}^{\circ}<$ Bur．
yōngcī $v$ believe ựņ̧̧＜Bur．
yóngkáng $n$ horn থึ｜
yóngshī yóngzán $n$ sibling $6 \omega$ čş
 yōp $v$ stop crying ळo๐
yōpshīshí $a d v$ quiet ळo๐๐o๐ó
yōtē $v$ respect ${ }_{\text {®ib }}^{60}<$ Bur．
yóyà $n$ tradition ดิะ甲＜Bur．
yóyó $a d v$ simple ดิ่งดิะ＜Bur．

$\mathbf{y} \overline{\mathbf{u}}_{1} v$ take ${\underset{u}{u}}^{0}<$ Bur．

yúk $n$ image و⿺𠃊⿻丷木犬＜Bur．
$=y$ ún part clause final particle enclitic to negated verbal predicates to indicate the meaning of＇still
hasn＇t V＇． $60 \div$ n：
yūnī（yūníq）$v$ hate ${ }_{\text {Q }}^{\text {Q }}$ ：
 inordinately．
yút ${ }_{1} v$ recite øoर＜Bur．

yútyút $a d v$ imitative expression ©రひీงْ®̀ follows the verb＇soft＇as in tí yútyút suoरwoó
ywā $n$ village ® $<$ Bur．
ywākaúng $n$ village crier ஜ๐бюை＜Bur．
ywé $v$ select बøะ＜Bur．．

## Z z

zá ${ }_{1} v$ eat $\infty:<B u r$.
zá 2 valive Ðc์ગుई
zá ${ }_{3}$ clf classifier for counting numbers of kinds ยำเはひ

$z_{\mathbf{a}_{2}} v$ far 60：



zák $_{2} n$ machinery on＜Bur．
zák ${ }_{3}$ onmt sound of pulling a rope swiftly＠nֹるईे

zàk $v$ afraid எஜூగீ
zàk $_{2} v$ hard ↔
zàk taīktaīk $a d v$ be hard ↔олољ
zakáqīngtīng $n$ spider uč̣m

zákkū $n$ paper ャюmㄴ＜Bur．
zákseù $n$ fish scooping net $u$ mోờ
záktaú $n$ Settau øగைธ๐
zàktaú $n$ place＇s name هగ์์om
zákzák $a d v$ deliberately ગుగీయుగీ＜Bur．

zalàk $v$ loose $\operatorname{\text {app}}$
zalàk zalàk $a d v$ loosely єจpčธจpर



zalaùk $n$ rest house هๆर＜Bur．
zalaút ${ }_{1} v$ drift sop
zalaút ${ }_{2}$ quant measurement Фฎю์ dry measure equivalent to 0.14 bushel．＜Bur．





zalìt $v$ disgusting حొథ์vó
zalìt zalàt $a d v$ disgusting ฎ̊®ๆ filthily；dirtily；

zálóqmyá $v$ eat $\infty: \overbrace{0}$ gp：＜Bur．
zalùn $n$ tree core зop
zalūng $n$ sink $\odot \stackrel{\text { º }}{\text {＜Bur．}}$
zamík $_{1} n$ sun $\sigma$ §
zamík ${ }_{2} n$ shrub Фધ్రంగీ edible shrub．derived from

zán $n_{1} v$ test $\begin{gathered}\text { © } \\ \text { ：}<\text { Bur．}\end{gathered}$
zán ${ }_{2} n$ younger sister อิ๖
＝zán part interrogative particle enclitic to verbal clauses to indicate rhetorical question．৯
zān $n$ levitate qpई
zàn $n$ mirror 0 §ई
zanà $v$ light $\sigma$ ？
zanàt $v$ squeeze ©
zāncwáq $v$ levitation pps $\underset{\sim}{\text { cos }}<$ Bur．
zāng $n$ shelf $\odot \mathcal{c}$
zàng part part 6๐กัํา์
záng $v$ add，put in $\propto$ §كِ
záng ${ }_{2}$ part contraction of a jussive marker and a
directional verbal particle（zíng＋àng＝záng）．
záng ${ }_{3}$ part sympathetic 甲
＝záng part particle attaches to nouns for
emphasis．̀̀
zángkōk $n$ lizard ưofoč
zángpapá $n$ flower emะolụ̂̊
zángsà subd particle attaches to a verb to convey the sense of being limited in degree or extent （equivalent in usage to adverbs＇just＇，＇only＇）
zāngyeún subd barely $\stackrel{\text { ºço }}{\text { ® }}$
－zāngzeú aux particle attaches to verbs to convey



záp $v$ sieve rice $ə \$$ ©
$z a \overline{p_{1}} v$ stand $\uparrow \mathfrak{v}$
zāp ${ }_{2} v$ stinging ${ }_{\text {® }}$ stinging as with wound．

zāpatí $n$ sparrow mmec：
záq $v$ begin $\odot<$ Bur．
zát ${ }_{1} v$ upright $\wp^{\delta}$
zát ${ }_{2}$ locn near of $<$ Bur．

zátkhúqtékpáq $n$ all knowing power ๓æวృ๐๐
＜Bur．


zaúhá $n$ thorn $\wp_{n}$ ：exclusively with tree＇s thorn．

zāúk $n$ book пзฉ์
zaūk ${ }_{1} v$ pour बonč：
zaūk ${ }_{2}$ locn on top зə七ư

zaúkkaīngkaíng $n$ armpit ñำट́：
zaúkkalaìng $v$ stack up $\sim$ ç as in sieving husked

zaùkleú $n$ small basket $u$ minićconc：ac：
zaúkzá $v$ wait coço๐ః＜Bur．
zaún $v$ follow after someone ণ̦̣̂e＜Shan
zaúng $_{1} n$ honorific term for supernatural beings

zaúng $2 v$ wait cos ${ }^{\circ}<$ Bur．
zaúng ${ }_{3} v$ early 600
zaūng $n$ blanket $\cos र<$ Bur．
zaúngshī $a d v$ early əúcmens

zaúpaúmaí $n$ man＇s name cossulợ｜č

zaúshòk $n$ rice $\infty$ ई

zayà $n$ some oธ์ขิ｜．
zé $n$ market 。qf：＜Bur．
zē part jussive marker $60<$ Bur．
zék $n$ measurement ©̊os＜Bur．
zèk $v$ bite ṃ̣̂
zèksalá $n$ witch ${ }^{\uparrow} \oint^{\circ}$
zēng $v$ soak $\circ$ © $\langle$＜Bur．

zēngkhaū $v$ challenge | §̧бə |
| :---: |

zéq $v$ completed $6 \odot<$ Bur．
zētanā $n$ charity 6000 p
zeū $v$ easy ญu์
zeú ${ }_{2}$ part might à same with zángzeù

zeùnzaleú $n$ carambola cmर์天：qpะวิ：
zeùt $v$ cut superficially ๑
$\mathbf{z i}_{1} v$ finish 会：
$\mathbf{z i ́}_{2} v$ ride ${ }^{\circ}:<$ Bur．
$\mathbf{z i}_{3} n$ plum ${ }^{\text {＠}}$ ：$<$ Bur．
$\mathbf{z i ́}_{4} n$ border هయ̧：＜Bur．
$\mathbf{z i}_{1} n$ drum ه\｛र्త＜Bur．
$\mathbf{z i}_{2} v$ chop or break into many pieces ธulmi ธulnీశ్రీ．


$\mathrm{zi}_{3} v$ smile 埧：
$\mathbf{z i}_{4}$ part each ${ }_{\odot}$＜Bur．
＝zík part clause final particle enclitic to verbs or verb complexes to indicate finality．6on
zīká $v$ busy هर्తைm：＜Bur．
zíkán $n$ discipline هصృత：m氏์：＜Bur．


zīmān $v$ plan $\varnothing$ ®ْ $<$ Bur．
zíng part verbal particle attaches to a verb denoting effectuation and jussive．
zīng $v$ ask 6b：\％onco

zīngkweúlák $n$ pangolin $\supset$ č：aəə $^{\text {u }}$
zíngyōk $v$ order âčom：



zìnpúk $n$ bush బֵưo
－zíp aux particle attaches to verbs to convey the notion of always and as usual．зヵ
zípīn $n$ plum tree बి：vर＜$<$ Bur．

zít ${ }_{1} v$ urinate 60：6ulल
zít ${ }_{2} v$ few इê：
zīt $v$ sieve Ф์ $<$ Bur．

zítná quant few $\mathfrak{\text { §̀ }}$
zítsáq $a d v$ little or few $\grave{\text { p̀s }}$
zítweú $n$ urine əoి：
zíye $\overline{\mathbf{u}}_{1} n$ carts and vehicles ®．$\because 6 \emptyset<$ Bur．

zīzák kānzák $a d v$ impediment ъ๐๐®ъ๘๐！
zīzák zīzák $a d v$ cut or grow repeatedly з๐๐ט́סoúculn grow or cut something so tightly



zōk $v$ transplant $\stackrel{\circ}{\infty}$ ผ exclusively with planting trees

zōkkántàk $n$ taro ن̊ईっจํ
zōkshī $n$ breast
zón $v$ leak ${\underset{\sim}{c}}_{\circ}^{\circ}$
zón part continue ฉon used only with negated verb

zòp $v$ join $\infty$ रీ



zú $v$ chain or to thread


zūn $n$ salt ふ๐：
zūng $v$ complete $\underset{\perp}{\oplus}<$ Bur．
zūngtalīn $v$ complete $\underset{1}{\text { ®iv }}<$＜Bur．
zúnqceú $v$ offer away ゅ§たた＜Bur．

zúp $v$ suck ${ }_{\mathrm{L}}$ ú

zúq$_{1} v$ accumulate or gather ${\underset{L}{i}}^{\infty}<$ Bur．
zúq $\mathbf{q}_{2}$ clf classifier for counting clusters or groups

zúqzí $v$ compile థهصయ̧：＜Bur．
zút ${ }_{1} v$ wet $\stackrel{\circ}{\odot}$
zút ${ }_{2} v$ put on $\odot \mathfrak{U}<$ Bur．
zweú $n$ scale نْos

## Appendix B: Interlinearised Kadu texts

Table 31 provides all the interlinearised texts from which I extracted the examples in this thesis. It contains 32 texts labelled simply as text 01,02 , etc... in my corpus. The first three texts are not natural texts; they are, rather, grammatical questionnaires. These were gathered in my initial stage of research in order to understand the grammatical patterns of the Kadu language as quickly as possible. All other texts are recorded in language natural settings.

| Text No. | Speaker | Title | Time |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Text 01 | Ne Tha lung | Grammtical questionnaire 1 | $41: 50$ |
| Text 02 | Aung Than Nwe | Grammtical questionnaire 2 | $52: 22$ |
| Text 03 | Aung Than Nwe | Grammtical questionnaire 3 | $29: 05$ |
| Text 04 | Pa Maung | Kadu migration story part one | $06: 14$ |
| Text 05 | Shwe Maung | Kadu migration story part two | $03: 47$ |
| Text 06 | Shwe Maung | The king and the lizard | $03: 46$ |
| Text 07 | Shwe Maung | The powerful Kadu drum | $15: 15$ |
| Text 08 | Shwe Maung | Story of the lazy Euham | $15: 26$ |
| Text 09 | Aye Aung | A tiger and a rabbit | $08: 05$ |
| Text 10 | Aye Aung | The origin of Kadu | $09: 28$ |
| Text 11 | Aye Aung | Marriage customs | $05: 24$ |
| Text 12 | Thin Maung | A story about four brothers | $09: 27$ |
| Text 13 | Thin Maung | The unthankful prince | $09: 20$ |
| Text 14 | Pa Thin | Kadu song | $00: 38$ |
| Text 15 | Ma La Seing \& Ma Nai | The jealous brother | $39: 42$ |
| Text 16 | Ma La Seing | The two brothers | $03: 29$ |
| Text 17 | Win Naing | My family | $11: 27$ |
| Text 18 | Shwe Maung | Hunting a tiger | $16: 59$ |
| Text 19 | Maung Maung | an Owl story | $01: 24$ |
| Text 20 | Kyaw Ze Yah | How Kadu reached to a Palace |  |
|  |  | 03 |  |


| Text 21 | Khin Yi | How to make wild yam food | $02: 30$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Text 22 | Khin Yi | How to make food form yam tuber | $01: 31$ |
| Text 23 | Tin Sein | A daughter who wanted a husband | $11: 04$ |
| Text 24 | Tin Sein | The three sisters | $04: 06$ |
| Text 25 | Lah Sein | Mr. Maung Nyan | $15: 57$ |
| Text 26 | Khi Yi | The nun who wanted to eat fish | $02: 59$ |
| Text 27 | Htun Lah | The life of a hunter | $04: 02$ |
| Text 28 | Htun Lah | How to clear a field | $04: 59$ |
| Text 29 | Htun Lah | How to trap animals | $03: 30$ |
| Text 30 | Khin Yi | How to make rice noodles | $07: 59$ |
| Text 31 | Khin Yi | How to make rice cake | $07: 17$ |
| Text 32 | Nin Zuh Khai | How to do rice planting | $09: 57$ |

Table 31: List of recorded Kadu texts

Out of 32 texts, I have presented five texts of different genres. The first two texts are traditional fictional stories 'a tiger and a rabbit' and 'a jealous king', respectively. The two texts that follow are narrations of actual life experiences. One of them talks about a family situation and the other talks about an experience of encountering a tiger. The last text is procedural narrative, telling us about how to make wild yam food. These texts are presented almost exactly the same as they were recorded. A few alterations made to these texts are the removal of hesitations and unnecessary noises. False starts and unnecessary repetitions are provided with $\}$ brackets. All texts are glossed with English and Burmese. Burmese glosses are provided with the intention of making the data available to Burmese students of linguistics and Kadu younger generations who are being brought up learning to read and write Burmese. English free translation is also provided.

## Text09: ‘A tiger and a rabbit’

1. maeútóngták maléq òkthaúng athaúngtàk heúpeúpínnáq pūngpyīnká yàk aswē hāhángyeúnnaà heúkāàngkákmā.

| maeúeútóng | =ták maléq òkthaúng athaúng | -tàk òk | tóng | -tàk |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| long.long.ago | =HS 1PL father-in-law mother-in-law | -PL grandfather | big | -PL |
| 69\%69\%0¢¢ |  | $\bigcirc \bigcirc_{\text {¢0, }}$ | กio | $\bigcirc_{\circ}^{\circ}$ |
| heú peú | $=$ panáq pōngpyīn =ká yàk | aswē hàháng | = yeún | = naà |
| tell keep | =NOM story =TOP now | friend Kachin | $=\mathrm{BEN}$ | =only |
| suoue ms: |  |  | ъ๐๐¢ | $\stackrel{\square}{3}$ |
| heú kā | -àng -kák =mā |  |  |  |
| tell show | -DIR1 -want =RLS |  |  |  |
| ¢000 U |  |  |  |  |
| 'I want to laws) told | tell a story that our parents | (Lit. father nd.' | -in-law | s and |

2. nga heúkāàngkūpanáqká kasàtóngyaúk paíngtaí aswētangeūchín thàcípanáq ngaúkà nímcímaták.

3. àngningyeùzáng nímcíká paíngtaí ngaúkà zàkmaták.

4. kasàtóngtè zàkmaták.

5. màkná zàkná \{màkná zàkná\} zákmatákseùé.

| màk | = ná zàk | = ná màk | = ná zàk | = ná |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| be.a.long.time Er | =COMPR afraid 60 बஜिoर | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { COMPR be.a.long.time } \\ & 60 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { COMPR } \text { afraid } \\ & 600 \text { ف్రిలీ } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { COMPR } \\ & 60 \end{aligned}$ |
| zák =mā | $=$ ták = seùé |  |  |  |
| catch = RLS | = HS = SAP |  |  |  |
| Əِّ ouर | O) 60 |  |  |  |
| 'The longer | it lasted the | more afraid the ra | it became, | is said |

6. zàkpánkaú àngnīngyeùzáng paíngtaikká manīngyeù cānphāntalá ngaúkaú ịpcímátè wānsútpán kátpeúyàngkūpanáqtè hīngká cānphāntaúnímmā seùé

7. anáqtè maningyeù ōmàngthàkūzányeù.

8. àngnīngyeùzáng aswē paíngtaí ngaúkà àngpanáq kasàtèá wānsútpán kátpeúyàngkūpanáq hīng īppátnímmátè.


9. kasàtàkká nākceūtè hāmaták léq òktàk heúpeúmā léq ataūtàk heúpeúmā.

10. achī chīmā aheúyákhà àngpanáq pūngpyintalé.

11. àngnīngzáng nahūtèká kasàtàkká īpmā.

| àng | = nīng | = záng nahū | $=$ tè | $=k{ }^{\text {a }}$ | kasà | -tàk | =ká | ipp | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | $=$ manner | =EMPH midday | =A.AG | $=T O P$ | tiger | -PL | =TOP | sleep | =RLS |
| зว̀3 | $\bigcirc$ | ùņ Esvou | ¢ั | micosion |  | $\bigcirc$ | misomion | ช์์ | ous |

12. nahūtè īpmátè satēngkāntóngpéq īpcímaták.

| nahū | $=$ tè | īp | mà | $=$ tè | satēng | kān | tóng | = pè īp | -cí | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | =ták . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| midday | =A.AG | sleep | time | =A.AG | thatch | CLT.field | big | =LOC sleep | -PL | =RLS | = HS |
| 6sous | ¢ | ૩น์ | ૩จัฟ | ¢ |  | əč: | กิ. | (1) ふर्ט | ® | ouर | ò |
| 'When said.' | hey) | sle | in | d | ne, | ey) s | t | a thatch |  | , it |  |

13．satēngkāntóngpè īpcíká àngnīngyeùzáng paíngtaí ngaúkà mīnyeúìngkà haíkmākà acān lūpánták hīngká


14．＂ā ngáq acān anáqpè taúktamanaíktá hingtè yàkká＂．

| ā ngā acān anáq | $=\mathrm{pè}$ taúk | －ta | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | ＝naík | ＝tá | hīng | $=\mathrm{tè}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| oh 1SG plan this | ＝LOC do／hit | L．SUFF | ＝RLS | ＝only | ＝EMPH | 3SG | ＝A．AG |
| ऊ वी зセセٌ \％ | （1）O）¢ưט® |  | ouv | ¢1ùsud | ù | 0 | ¢ |
| yàk＝ká |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| now＝TOP |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 32จ misomiom |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＂Now，I will act | out my pla | on th | tig | ．＂ |  |  |  |

15．haíkmākà wānsútpán kátpeúyàngmaták kasàtèá．

| haíkmākà wān | sút | ＝pán kát | peú | －àng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | $=$ ták kasà | $=$ tè |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| as．for．that．time fire | start．fire | ＝COS run | keep | －DIR1 | ＝RLS | ＝HS tiger | ＝A．AG |
| Зъว入） | คํ |  | $\infty \times 1$ | ƠT | ous | ò mp： | ¢ |
| hat time，（th | abbit） | d | tig | a and |  | y，it | sa |

16．amākà kasàká wānhūàngmaták．

| amākà kasà | ＝ká | wān | hū | －àng | ＝mā | ＝ták |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that．time tiger | $=T O P$ | fire | burn | －DIR1 | ＝RLS | ＝HS |
|  | misossios | $\stackrel{\text { bi }}{ }$ | 60xc | Oิ์ก | ouv | o＇ |
| ＇That time， | he tiger | got | urnt， | it i | said |  |

17．kasà wānhūàngká kasà ngaúkà tínhaútpánták．

18. haíkmākà paíngtaítè zaúntapánták.

19. kasà ngaúkà wānhūhalák thààngmaták.

20. wānhūhalák thààngká àngpè kasà ngaúkà shíyeúpánnaà zaúntapánták.

21. zaúntaūká àngnīngyeùzáng mahángpè úng taká wānhūhalákpè teúpán nímhángpánták.

22. maléq òktàk heúpeúmā.

| maléq | òk | -tàk heú | peú |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 PL | grandfather | -PL tell | keep |
| $\bigcirc$ | з¢̣¢ |  | $\infty$ |

23. aswē hāhán yaà nāngyeún heúyàngkū.

24. àngnīngzáng takákánpè teúpán nímká kasà zaúnìngkà kasà ngaúkà cūngtahángzángpínták.

25. "ateú nāng ngātè wānsútpán līpeúká ngaúkà nāng ngaúkà lāppán yàkká."

26. "nāngtè ngā yōkkū."

| nāng | = tè | ngā yōk | $=\mathrm{ku}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2SG | =A.AG | 1SG eat | =IRLS |
| จธ¢¢p: | ¢ | c) $\infty$ : | טu์ |
| "I will eat you." |  |  |  |

27. àngnaíkmà ngaúkà paíngtaí ngaúkà zàkhángpángták.

| àng | = naík | mà | ngaúkà | pángtaí | ngaúkà | zàk | -háng | = páng | =ták. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | =only |  | as.for | rabbit | as.for | afraid | -back | = DIR1:COS | = HS |
| зวิง |  | ૩จิ\| | ஹฺ¢¢ | $\omega_{1}{ }_{\text {¢ }}$ | ญ๐¢¢¢ | ¢గ్లை | U§ | Ơm¢ | o' |

28．zàkhángàngkà＂ā mànīng leīngtahángtháqkūzán ngākà hīngtèkáyeù＂．

| zàk | －háng | －àng | ＝ká |  | mà | ning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| raid | －back | －DIR1 | ＝TOP | oh | WH | $=$ manne |
| －ִors | U§ | OTO | m | з | $\infty$ | $\bigcirc$ |


| lēng | －ta | －háng | －thà | $=\mathrm{ku}$ | ＝zán ngā | ＝ká | hīng | $=$ tè | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | $=y$ eù |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| lie | L．SUFF | －back | －must | $=$ IRLS | ＝Q 1SG | ＝TOP | 3SG | ＝A．AG | ＝TOP | ＝SAP |
| ヘ̌⿺𠃑 | － | U§ | ๆ | טu์ | o cl | misomiom | O10 | $\Gamma_{i}^{\circ}$ | misossom | $\mathrm{O}_{0}^{\circ}$ |

29．àngningyeùzáng àngpàpè tazáqzáq pīk taká eútnàngthāmpáqpè chíntàngmatákseùé．


30．chíntàngká àngnīngyeùzáng àngpè taká ātnímpàpè thōkàngmátè ngaúkà kasàyítá tazáqtazáq káttingmā ngaúlakàé．

| chín | －ta | －àng | ＝ká | àng | ＝nīngyeù＝záng àng | ＝pè |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| come．near | L．SUFF | －DIR1 | ＝TOP | that | ＝manner＝EMPH that | ＝LOC b |  |
| ขp＜u：mu | － | บิก | misosıos | $3{ }^{3}{ }^{\text {a }}$ |  | $\left.{ }_{1}\right)^{2}$ |  |
| āt ní | ním＝p |  | $=\mathrm{pè}$ thōk | －àng | má＝tè ngaúkà kasà | ＝yí | ＝tá |
| broken st | stay＝AL |  | ＝LOC arrive | －DIR1 | time＝A．AG as．for tiger | ＝also | ＝EMPH |
|  |  |  | （o）فصर） | บิ์ |  | טว์： | ù |
| tazáqtazáq | k kát |  | －ìng＝mā | ngaú | $=$ lakà＝é |  |  |
| bit．by．bit | run | UFF | －DIR2＝RLS |  | $=$ MIR＝SAP |  |  |
| osoo | 60 O |  |  | ¢16000 | moni：63\％ |  |  |

31．àngningzáng káttaìngká kasà ngaúkà eúthángpángták àngpè．

| àng | ＝nīng | ＝záng kát | －ta | －ìng | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | kasà ngaúkà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | $=$ manner | $=$ EMPH come．close | L．SUFF | －DIR2 | ＝TOP | tiger as．for |
| зวั่ | Y | ט̀irg mú | － | à | misomion | mp：ஹீ¢¢์ |

```
eút -háng = páng =ták àng = pè .
drop -back =DIR1:COS \(=\) HS that \(=\) LOC
```



```
'When (it) came closer, the tiger fell down there, it is said.'
```

32．eúthángká haíkmākà paíngtaí ngaúkà kátteúphángpángták．

| út | －háng | ＝ká | haíkmākà | pángtaí | ngaúkà | kát | teúp | －háng | ＝páng | ＝ták |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| op | －back | ＝TOP | as．for．that．time | rabbit | as．for | run | throw | －back | $=$ DIR1：COS | ＝HS |
| J | US | misomion | З३วว100 | $\omega_{1}{ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | শฺฺๆc | 60 O | ט® | US | Oָm¢ | ò |

33．á káthángpíng yàkká laúktahángpányeù．

| ā kát | －háng | ＝píng | yàk | ＝ká | laúk | －ta | －háng | ＝pán | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| oh run | －back | $=$ DIR2：COS | now | ＝TOP | release | L．SUFF | －back | ＝COS | $=$ SAP |
| ॐ 6U0： | U§ | cose | 322 | misomion | ヘoर | － | U§§ | 领综： | $\stackrel{\bigcirc}{\circ}$ |

34．ā līphángzík anáq kasà ngaúkàyeù zūn yahùngpè teúpán nímhángpánták


35．zūn yahùngpè teúpán nímhākà àngnīngyeùzáng kasàyítá shīyeúpán yák pánnù ngāhángpán hīngyeù shíyeúpánnaà zaúntahángpángták．

36. aswē kachīn maléq òk heúpeúpínnáq pōng.

37. eù mayūngyīn pōngpyīn mát yōngyīnleú pōngpáq. (Burmese)

```
eù mayūngyīn pōngpyĩn mát yōngyīnleú pōng = páq.
yes! no.believe.if story note believe.if.also story =SAP
```



```
'If you don't believe it, take it as a story. Even if you believe it, it is
(still) a story.'
```

38. àngnīngyeùzáng zūn yahùngpè teúnímká lāpmákhángpángták.

39. kasàyítá lāpmákhángàngká "á lāphángpíngtale"".

40. kasà wānhūhalák ngaúkà "lāphángpíngtáyeù".

| kasà wān | hū | -halák | ngaúkà | lāp | -háng | = píng | = tá | = yeù |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tiger fire | burn | -roughly | as.for | catch | -back | =DIR2:COS | =EMPH | =SAP |
| mp: ${ }^{\text {bi }}$ | $600{ }^{\text {c }}$ |  | วฺิๆ¢ | ¢ | O§ | cose | ¿ | $\stackrel{\text { ¢ }}{\text { ¢ }}$ |

41. àngnīngzáng hīngyítá màningyeù acān thúkthàkūzányeù àngning acān thúktapánták.

| àng = nīng | = záng hīng | $=\mathrm{yi}$ | $=$ tá mà | = nīngye | acān |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that =manner | =EMPH 3SG | =also | =EMPH WH | =manner | plan |  |  |
| зว3ิ |  | ט\}์: | ù miouv | Oֻ100¢ | 3 セั |  |  |
| thúk -thà | $=k \mathrm{u} \quad$ zán | $=y e u ̀ ~ a ̀ n g ~$ | = nīng acān | thúk | -ta | = pán | = ták |
| take.out -must | $=$ IRLS $=$ Q | =SAP tha | =manner plan | take.out | L.SUFF | = $\cos$ | = HS |
| œ๐¢์ ๆ | טर्ण へे |  | $\bigcirc \bigcirc$ | ¢ós | - |  | o' |
| 'Like that, Thus he made | he rabbit, another pla | as well, <br> n, it is | (said) "how said.' | hould | make | othe | la |

42. paíngtaí ngaúkà nyān ngāmā ngaúlakàé.

43. nyān ácí ngāmā ngaúlakà.

| nyān ácí | ngā | = mā ngaú | = lakà. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| brain extremely exist |  |  |  |
| $=$ RLS | say | $=$ MIR |  |

44. àngnīngyeùzáng "taúk achīyá"

45. hīngtèká panáq zūn yahùngpèà weúkúpánnàkà meúhàmā heúyàngmanaík hīngtè anyeù.

46. zāppán shízàng thàmāyeù.

| zāp | = pán shí | záng | = thāmā | $=\mathrm{yeù}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| stinging | $=\operatorname{COS}$ die | JUSS:DIR1 | = HORT | =SAP |
| هú |  | 60ヘิ์n | ๆбろวर्ट | $\bigcirc \bigcirc$ |

47. àngnīngyeùzáng "ateú lāphángpán nāng ngātè saūngpán ngāpán nāng peúttaúkà".

48. "saūngpán ngāpán kalìngpán ngāpán."

49. "kalìngpán ngaúpánkaú yák pánnùká nāngtè ínpeúyeūnpán."

50. ínpeúyeūnpán ngaúpánkaú àngningzáng àngpè zūn yahùnghaík "inyōkkaìshók aswē kasàyeù".


51．＂nāngyaúk ngayaúk ngaúkà satēngkānpè nímcímàhayaúk mékswē thàcímā．＂

| nāng | ＝yaú | ngā | ＝yaúk n | ngaúkà | satēng | kān | $=$ pè ním | －cí | mà | ＝hayaúk |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2SG | ＝COM |  | ＝COM | as．for | thatch | CLT．field | ＝LOC stay | －PL | time | $=$ since |
| จर्¢p： | \＄． | cl | \＄．${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | ญ๐¢¢¢ | دֹאֹcus | a $\chi_{\text {\％}}$ | （b）69 | $\cdots$ | ૩จิโई | mospu：m |
| mékswē | thà | －cí | ＝ ma |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| friend | be | －PL | ＝RLS |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| －0¢6º | 608 | $\cdots$ | ouv |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

52．＂ngāká zōtzīnpánnáqà sútzàk ngāàngmáq nāngtèyeù．＂

| ngā | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | zōtzīn | ＝pán | ＝naà | sút | ＝zàk | ngā | －àng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | ＝TOP | do．inadvertently | $=\cos$ | ＝only | start．fire | ＝while | exist | －DIR1 | ＝RLS |
| cl | misomion | －0¢6๐0！ | 隹综： | ${ }_{j}^{0}$ | ¢ | ospırym | คْ | Ợก | ous |
| nāng | $=$ tè | $=y e u ̀$ ． |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| go | ＝A．AG $=$ | ＝SAP |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 0＞\％ | $\sim_{1}$ | Ơơo |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＂It | inadverte | ently caught | re an | you g | got bur | d．＂ |  |  |  |

53．＂zōtzīnpán sútzàk ngāpánlakaù．＂

| zōtzīn | ＝pán sút | ＝zàk ngā | ＝pán | ＝lakaú |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| do．inadvertently | $=\operatorname{COS}$ start．fire | ＝while exist | ＝COS | $=$ MIR |
| 200¢620 |  |  | 行综： | ¢isomm： |

＂I inadvertently burned you．＂

54．＂àngpè nāng wānhūàngmā atínhaútnàngsà．＂

| àng | ＝pè nāng wān | hū | －àng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |  | tínhaút | －àng | ＝sà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | $=$ LOC 2SG fire | burn | －DIR1 | ＝RLS | NEG＝ | angry | －DIR1 | ＝NEG．IMP |
| ว่3ิ |  | 600c | บิก | ouर | $\bigcirc$ |  | บิ์ก | \＄े |

55．＂yákyítá nāngtè meúhángzángkákmā ngākáyeù．＂

| yàk | ＝ yi í | ＝tá | nāng | $=$ tè | meú | －háng | ＝záng | －kák | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| now | ＝also | $=E M P H$ | 2SG | ＝A．AG | good | －back | ＝EMPH | －want | $=$ RLS |
| 32 | งబీ： | ù | əर्¢р： | ¢ | 6mec： | U§ | ùir | จर्ट | ous |
| ngā | ＝ká |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1SG | ＝TOP |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| cl | mi60s： | $\infty$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

56. "nāng yàkká wānhūhalákpanáq meúzàngkákpánnàkà anáq zūn yahùngpè kúpánnàkà meúkūták."

| nāng yàk | =ká | wān | hū | -halák | panáq |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G now | =TOP | fire | burn | -roughly | =NOM |
| ¢¢p: зар | misossom |  | cosc |  | oう̀m |


57. "é àngpè zūn yahùngpè nāngzeútá kúwàng."

58. "meúyàngkaláyeù" hīng zūn yahùng sátnàngmā weúkúàmátèà paíngtaíká káthángpángták.

59. káthángàngká àngnīngyeùzáng mahángtóng úng thōkhángpángták haíkmā ngaúkà.


60．káthángàngká＂ā panáq paingtaí ngatè peúttaúlakàyeù．＂

| kát | －háng | －àng | ＝ká | à | panáq | pángtaí | ngā | ＝tè | peùt | －ta | ＝lakà | ＝yeù |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| run | －back | －DIR1 | ＝TOP | oh | DEm | rabbit | 1SG | ＝A．AG | lie | L．SUFF | ＝MIR | ＝SAP |
| 6 U： | U§ | กั¢ | micomiom | ॐ | $\stackrel{9}{3}$ | $\omega_{1}^{0}$ | c | $\bigcirc$ | O¢\％ | － | －mpo： | กั่งกำ |

61．＂sāmpán ngāpán hīng ngatè peúttaúkàyeù．＂

| sām | pán | ngā | ＝pán | hīng | ngā | ＝tè | peùt | －ta | ＝ká | ＝yeù |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| three | CLF．times | exist | $=\cos$ | 3SG | 1SG | ＝A．AC |  | L．SUFF | ＝TOP | ＝SAP |
| บ์์ | ¢8 | ดํา | 约综： |  | d | $\stackrel{\circ}{\sim}$ | ペ¢ | － | micomion | ¢1⁄\％ |

62．＂anyeùká achīyá yák pánnùká hīngtè yōkkūnaỉk yōkmātkūnaík ínthà hīngtè．＂


63．＂tú yōngtaūká achīyá ácí peúttamā hing．＂

| tú | yōng | －ta | ＝ká | $\mathrm{a}=$ | chī | ＝${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ácí | peùt | －ta | ＝mā hīng |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| language | trust | L．SUFF | ＝TOP | NEG＝ | true | ＝NEG | extremely | lie | L．SUFF | ＝RLS 3SG |
| ๑mะ | $u^{\text {c }}$ | － | micomam | － | upos | ๗． | з๐： ®ne $^{\text {a }}$ | O¢\％ | － | ou์ |

64．anyeù ngaúpánkaú kaphútóng ngaúkà khweūtaūpán nímkà ngāmaták．

65. \{thōkhángpánták\} àngpè saúngtaúnímhángpánták paíngtaí ngaúkà haíkmā ngaúkà.

| $\{$ thōk | -háng | $=$ pán $=$ ták $\}$ | àng | $=$ pè saúng | -ta | ním | -háng | = pán | =ták |
| ---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

pángtaí ngaúkà haíkmà ngaúkà .

66. anyeù ngaúpánnàkà àngpanáq zūn yahùngpè kúwàngpanáq ngaúkà \{zāppánká\} hingká zāppánnaà àngnīngyeùzáng shíyeúpánnaà zaúntahángpánták.

67. zaúntaúpánnaà haíkmākà àngnīngzáng hīng thóngnímpè kaphúyí khweūtaúnímmaták.

'The tiger followed the rabbit again but there was a snake coiling at the place where (the rabbit) was waiting, it is said.'

68．nímpánkaú àngnīngzáng àngpanáq peùttahángkū acān ōmhángpánták．


69．ā ngatè yōkkūnaíkták anáq achákkálakà．

| ā ngā | $=\mathrm{tè} \quad \mathrm{yo} \mathrm{k}$ | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | ＝naík | ＝ták anáq achák | $=$ ká | $=$ lakà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| oh 1SG | ＝A．AG eat | ＝IRLS | ＝only | ＝HS this time | ＝TOP | $=$ MIR |
| ॐ cl | $\bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$ | טu์ |  |  | misomion | ＜smi： |
| ＂Well， | his time， | （the | iger） | 11 eat me．＂ |  |  |

70．＂anáq achákká apeúyeūnpán＂ngaúmāyeù．

| anáq achák | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | $\mathrm{a}=$ | peú | －yeūn | ＝pán ngaú | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | $=y \mathrm{yeu}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| this time | ＝TOP | NEG＝ | keep | －can | $=\operatorname{COS}$ say | ＝RLS | ＝SAP |
|  | misomion |  | $\infty$ ） | S¢ |  | ous |  |
| （The tiger） | said＂Th | is | ，（I） | won＇t | let him（ge | away） | ＇，it |

71．＂yōkmātkūnaík ngatèyeù＂acān thúktahángmanaík ngaká．

| yōk | －māt | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | ＝naík | ngā | $=$ tè | ＝yeù acān thúk | －ta | －háng | $=$ manaík |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| eat | truly | ＝IRLS | ＝only | 1SG | ＝A．AG | ＝SAP plan take．out | L．SUFF | －back | ＝only．if |
| ゆ： | उ－¢ § | טर्ט | ¢1uluoud | c | ¢ |  | － | U§ | $\stackrel{0}{1}$ |
| ngā | ＝ká |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1SG | ＝TOP |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| c） | misom | om |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

72．acān thúktahángpánták haíkmākà．

| acān thúk | －ta | －háng | ＝pán | ＝ták haíkmākà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| plan take．out | L．SUFF | －back | ＝COS | ＝HS as．for．that．time |
| зセ్ర ¢ ¢ | － | U§ | 歇综： | ò 3ัววlos |
| hen（the | bbit） | made | plan | gain，it is sa |

73．acān thúktahángká àngnīngzáng＂ā panáq kaphútèà ómzíngyōkàngmanaík hīngtè＂．


74．＂kaphú ómpánnàkà hīngtè haūshíyàngkaláyeù．＂


75．àngnīngzáng athà nāngtè yōkkūnaík yàkká．


76．＂yōkkūnaîk ínalùwá．＂

| yōk | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | ＝naík | ín $=$ | $\mathrm{a}=$ | lū | ＝á |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| eat | ＝IRLS | ＝only | NEG＝ | NEG＝ | get | ＝NEG |
| $\infty$ ロ\％ | טư | ¢1ulung్入 | ${ }^{\circ}$ | a | १ | nit |
| ＂（I） | will | at（you） | u）， | matt | \％wh |  |

77．＂achīlé ínyōkshóklé．＂

| $\mathrm{a}=$ | chī | $=1$ lé | ín $=$ | yōk | ＝shók | $=1$ é |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NEG＝ | true | ＝SAP | NEG＝ | eat | ＝NEG．IMP－INTRUSIVE | ＝SAP |
| ${ }^{*}$ | upo | 60： | ${ }^{\circ}$ | め： | \＄3 ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ： | 60： |
| ＂No！， | don＇t | eat | me ye |  |  |  |

78．＂aúpè nāng meúhàpanáq shī ngaká aúpè taūngmwé khweūtaúpeúmā \｛ngaká\}."

| aú | ＝pè nāng meú | －hà | $=$ panáq | shī ngā | ＝ká | aú | $=\mathrm{pè}$ | taūngmwé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| here | ＝LOC 2SG good | －know．how | $=$ NOM | medicine 1SG | ＝TOP | here | ＝LOC |  |
| ${ }^{9}$ | （o）دर्çp： $6 m$ č： | कoर | os̀om | 60\％¢ | misomion | 3 |  | conçfo： |
| khweū | －ta peú | $=\mathrm{mā}$（ ngā | ＝ká | ）． |  |  |  |  |
| coil | L．SUFF keep | ＝RLS 1SG | ＝TOP |  |  |  |  |  |
| $6{ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\infty \times$ \％ | ouv d | misomion |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＂Here， | ，（I）have coil | led a rod， | the medi | icine to he | you．＂ |  |  |  |

79．＂taūngmwé ómpán túpánnàkà nāng meúyàngkū．＂

| taūngmwé | óm | ＝pán tú | pánnàkà | nāng | meú | －àng | $=\mathrm{ku}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| rod | hold | ＝COS prop．up | if | 2SG | good | －DIR1 | ＝IRLS |
| 60nčos： | ¢i¢ |  | ๆc | ə¢¢p： | 6 mc ¢ | Oิ¢ | טर्ט |
| If（you） | ）ho | this rod | prop | it up， | （you） | will | be |

80．＂nāngyaúk ngayaúk yàkká mahángpè nímhālūkū．＂

| nāng | ＝yaúk ngā | ＝yaúk yàk | ＝ká | maháng | ＝pè ním | hā | lū | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2SG | ＝COM 1SG | ＝COM now | ＝TOP | that．thing | ＝LOC stay | walk | get | ＝IRLS |
| จर्çp： | \＄．cl | ईे．ふจ | misomion | บฺum | （b）69 | 20： | ๆ | 囚ư |

81．＂pyaūpyaūpápásà satēngkānpè nímhángcànglūkū aswē kasà＂chaúqtahángpánták．

| pyaūpyaūpápá | －sà satēng | kān | ＝pè ním | －háng | －cí | －àng | lū | $=\mathrm{ku}$ aswē kasà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| happily | －DIM thatch | CLT．field | ＝LOC stay | －back | －PL |  | get | ＝IRLS friend tiger |
| sup̧upulou： | 60：गuncu | ə¢์： | （1）6\＄ | U§ | $\stackrel{\square}{\square}$ | Ơ¢ | १ | ชư उəә๊ गр： |
| chaúq－ta | －háng＝pán | $=$ ták |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| soothe L．SUFF | －back＝COS | $=\mathrm{HS}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6จp | U§ U U⿴囗⿰丨丨⿹勹冫 | ò |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＇（The rabbit） the thatch fi | soothed（th <br> eld again＂， | tiger it is sa | $\begin{aligned} & \text { "My frí } \\ & \text { id.' } \end{aligned}$ | nd ti | r， | we） | n | ve happily in |

82．àngnīngzáng á achīyá mahángyí nyángtamaták kasàyitá．


83．＂achīyá nāng sāmpán ngāpán anáqpā shìpán ngāpán．＂

| $\mathrm{a}=$ | chī | ＝á nāng sām | pán ngā | ＝pán anáq | pā | shì | pán |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NEG＝ | true | ＝NEG 2SG three | CLF．times exist | $=\operatorname{COS}$ this | include | four | CLF．times |
| ${ }^{\bullet}$ | uฺơ |  | ®¢¢ $\mathrm{¢}^{\text {¢ }}$ | 㧫徎：${ }^{\circ}$ | 01 | 60： | cis |
| ngā | ＝pán |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| exist | ＝Cos |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| คํ | 雄综： |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＂No， | Ou（ | icked me）thre | times，inclu | ding this | it＇s）f | four | times．＂ |

84．＂tamì ngaúcíkà tóngcēng tóngkhā ngaúmā anyeù．＂

| tamì | ngaú | －cí | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | tóng | cēng | tóngkhā | ngaú | $=\mathrm{ma}$ an | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| other．people | say | －PL | ＝TOP | three | time | three．times | say | ＝RLS DEM | ＝manner |
| Ong | かiccos | $\bigcirc$ | mi60sıos | － |  | บْ：2才 |  | ous ${ }^{\circ}$ | Oto |
| pe | le sa |  | is）up | to tl | $\text { ee } t$ | ( | u can | orgive up | three |

85．＂yàkká nāng shìpán seú ngāpáng nāngká．＂

| yàk $=$ ká | nāng shì pán | ＝seú ngā | ＝páng nāng | ＝ká |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| now $=$ TOP | 2SG four | CLF．times | ＝SAP exist | ＝DIR1：COS 2 SG | ＝TOP | ．

86．＂anáqpā shìpán ngāpán nāng peúttaúkà yaà peúttahángpán nāng ngatèyeù．＂

| anáq | pā | shì | pán | ngā | ＝pá | n nāng | peùt | －ta | ＝ká | yaà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| this | include | four | CLF．times | exist | ＝CO | S 2SG | lie | L．SUFF | ＝TOP | now |
| ${ }_{3}$ | 01 | 60： | nes | ค่ |  | －aर्¢p： | Ơ์ | － | mi60sion | 3 วจ |
| peùt | －ta | －háng | ＝pán | nāng | ngā | $=$ tè | $=y e u ̀$ |  |  |  |
| lie | L．SUFF | －back | ＝Cos | 2SG | 1SG | ＝A．AG | ＝SAP |  |  |  |
| ペ์ | － | U§§ | C⿵⿰㇒一也夊心． | จर्ट甲p： | c | $\cdots$ | Oำ\％ |  |  |  |

＂Including this，it＇s already four times you tricked（me）．Now，you are tricking me again．＂

87．＂ínpeúttawá ínpeúttawáyeù．＂

| ín＝ | peùt | －ta | ＝${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ín $=$ | peùt | －ta | ＝${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NEG＝ | lie | L．SUFF | ＝NEG | NEG＝ | lie | L．SUFF | ＝NEG | ＝SAP |
| $\stackrel{\square}{\circ}$ | ヘั¢ | － | 2： | ${ }^{*}$ | ペ¢ | － | ヱ์ | ƠTƠO |
| ＇I am | not | icking | （you） | ．I | no | trick | g（you） |  |

88．àngnīngzáng á＂achīlé nāng．＂


89．＂aúpè anáq taūngmwézáng zántaphángàng ngatè yōkkūpanáq ínngaúwàngsàyeù．＂

| aú | $=$ pè anáq taūngmwé | ＝záng zán | －ta | －pháng | －àng ngā | ＝tè |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| here | $=$ LOC this rod | ＝EMPH test | L．SUFF | －prior | －DIR1 1SG | ＝A．AG |
| 3 |  | טirs هfot | － | इ¢ ${ }_{\text {¢ }}$ | Ọn d | \％ |
| yōk | $=\mathrm{ku}$＝panáq ín＝ | ngaú－àng | ＝sà |  |  |  |
| eat | ＝IRLS＝NOM NEG＝ | say－DIR1 | ＝NEG | IMP |  |  |
| $\infty$ ロ\％ | ชर्ט oड̀m $\checkmark$ | が160్ర Ơ¢ | ईे |  |  |  |
| ＂Don | ＇t say that you will | eat me，just | st hold | this | d first |  |

90．＂anáqtèzáng taūngmwé ómpán zántaphángàngyókyeù．＂

| anáq | $=$ tè | ＝záng | taūngmwé |  | ＝pán |  | －ta | －pháng | －àng | ＝yók | $=y$ ù． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| this | ＝A．AG | ＝EMP | rod | hold | ＝COS | test | L．SUFF | －prior | －DIR1 | ＝intrusive | ＝SAP |
| 3 | ¢ | ùro | coscorso： | றic | 豹徎： | ๑¢์ | － | इ¢ ¢ | บิ์n | $3{ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\bigcirc$ |

91．àngnīngyeùzáng＂chīmātlá nāng．＂

| àng | $=$ nīngyeù | ＝záng chī | －māt | $=1 \mathrm{a}$ | nāng |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | ＝manner | ＝EMPH true | truly | ＝Q | 2SG |
| зว3 |  | ùro̧ upós | 32¢ई | vicos： | จर्¢p： |
| Lik | that， | e you sur |  |  |  |

92．＂chīmātnāyeù．＂

```
chī -māt =mā =yeù.
true truly =RLS =SAP
upoई उวU्\ई \inftyर्ט Ơ
"Yes, it is really true."
```

93. "chīmātnā ngaúpánkaú chīmātnā naú".

| chī | -māt | $=$ mā ngaú | = pánkaú | chī | -māt |  | =ná |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| true | truly | =RLS say | =as.it.is.the.case | true | truly |  | =SAP |
| unos | उəけई |  | ๑र¢6m | upos | उ๐け¢ ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ |  |  |

94. "é chīmātnā."

| chī | -māt $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| yes true | truly =RLS |
| 63\% unos | अण¢ई ¢u์ |
| s, it | is true. |

95. "aswē kasàyeù nāngtè ngā lakò nímmaūkìngpanáq maeú neútalá chīpán seú maūng maikmà peúttalá."

96. "yaū nāng sāmpán ngāpán seú anáqpā shìpán ngāpán seú."

```
"Well, you (already tricked me) three times. Including this, it is now the
fourth times."
```

97. "ā àngpè tamyó lētā àngpínkà hinnkàlé."

| ā àng | = pè tamyó | $=$ lētā | àng | = panáq | =ká | hīn | =ká | $=1$ lé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| oh that | =LOC one.kind | =1 know! | that | = NOM | =TOP | tease | =TOP | =SAP |
| щ зัง |  | טlm | зว่ | ¢ฺิom | micosiom | ه16spor | misomiom | 60 |

98．＂manīng hīnlá ngāká shíkū ōmpán seúyeù．＂

| mà | ＝nīng hīn | ＝lá ngā | ＝ká | shí | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ o m | ＝pán | $=$ seú | $=y e u ̀$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| WH | ＝manner tease | $=\mathrm{Q} \quad 1 \mathrm{SG}$ | ＝TOP | die | ＝IRLS make | ＝COS | ＝SAP | ＝SAP |
| mosus | ソ゚ ه16por | vicus：cl | misomion |  | טर्ט ヘָט | 行家： | 60 | Oicoio |

99．＂kaí anyeù ngaúpánnàkà chīmātnā ngaúpánnàkà yák pánnùkà naú ínchīyá ngaúpán nāngtè ngā yōkkūyeù．＂

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { pán nù =ká =ná ín= chī =á ngaú = pán nāng =tè ngā } \\
& \text { CLF.times one =TOP =SAP NEG= true =NEG say =if 2SG =A.AG 1SG }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { yōk }=k \bar{u} \quad=y e u ̀ \text {. } \\
& \text { eat =IRLS }=\text { SAP } \\
& \text { ळः णर्ण ஸ゚ } \\
& \text { "Well, if so, if it is the case, "this time, if it is not the case, I will } \\
& \text { eat you" }
\end{aligned}
$$

100．＂keù zántàngkū yàkká＂kaphútè ómàngmaták．

| ù zán | －ta | －àng | $=\mathrm{ku}$ yàk | $=$ ká | kaphú | $=$ tè $\quad$ óm | －àng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | ＝ták |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| right！test | L．SUFF | －DIR1 | ＝IRLS now | ＝TOP | snake | ＝A．AG hold | －DIR1 | ＝RLS | ＝ HS |
|  | － | บิ์ก | 凶र्ण зว | misomion | 6 6 | ற | บิก | ous | o＇ |
| Vell， | will | ry | t）out．＂ | （The tige | ）ho | the s | ，it | is | d．＇ |

101．haîkmā kaphú haūshíyàngmaták．


102．é àngpanáqpè taúpmā．

103. aswē hàháng anáq mayūngyīn pūngpyīnmát.
aswē hàháng anáq mayūngyīn pōngpyīn mát .
friend Kachin this no.believe.if story note

'My friend Kachin, if (you) don't believe (it), take (it) as a mere story.'

## Text15: ‘A jealous king’

1. maeúeútóngták àngpanáq halawà ngaúkà ēktóng shíyàngká ēkshì lāhángmaták hīngká.

2. ēkshì lāhángká phákhūlū phúlùthaū ngaúpanáq amúnashì eútpeúmaták sā.

3. sā kalìnghú eútpeúká naúkthát lāpanáq ēkshìká àngnáq sātàktè alākákáták hīngká.

4. ínlākákpánták ngaúpánkaú "nāng sātàktè tánshỉkū ngaúpán tánshí tachápà sátkákyí sátà".

| ín $=$ | lā | -kák | = pán | =ták | ngaú | = pánkaú | nāng sā | -tàk | $=$ tè |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NEG= | take | -want | =COS | = HS | say | =as.it.is.the.case | 2SG son | -PL | =A.AG |  |
| $\checkmark$ | ${ }_{u}$ | จर्ट |  |  | 2ִ1600 | ๆर́60m: | จर्¢p: 50 \% |  | ¢ |  |
| tán | shí | $=\mathrm{ku}$ | ngaú | = pán | tán | shí tachá | = pà | sàt | -kák | $=\mathrm{yí}$ |
| beat | die | =IRLS | say | =if | beat | die other.place | =ALL | descend | -want | =also |
| อิะดิก | 600 | טư | が1600 | ๆ¢ | ¢๐เดิ์ | 600 o®్ర: | Poun | r | থर्ट | งว์: |
| sàt | -à |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| descend | -EU |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | 6จ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 'As it is the case that (she) didn't want those sons, (she) said (to her husband), "If you are going to kill your sons, kill them. (If not), send them to another place. Send (them) away." |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

5. "anyeù achīyá ngaúpán nāng sātàkyaúk ngaúpán ngā ínanímmaūkkáká" anyeù ngaúmaták.

6. "anyeù ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú \{àntákká\} ā anímmaūkkáká nga nāng sātàktè tachápà sákkákpán sákà" anyeù ngaúmaták.

7. anyeù ngaúzípká "é maūng manīng ngā sātàklakà maning sátàkalá" anyeù ngaúmaták.

| an | $=y e u ̀ ~ n g a u ́ ~$ | -zíp | =ká | é m | maūn | ng mà |  | = nīng | ngā |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DEM | = manner say | -always | ys =TOP | yes b | boy | WH |  | $=$ manner |  |
| ${ }_{3}$ |  | 30 | misomiom |  |  |  | ous | $\bigcirc$ | c) |
| sā | -tàk = lakà mà |  | = nīng sák | -à |  | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | $=1 \mathrm{a}$ | an | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ |
| son | -PL =MIR WH |  | $=$ manner send | -EUPH | H IR | IRLS | = Q | DEM | =manner |
| 00: | ○○. ¢ ¢ ¢ ¢ - mı | טư | $\bigcirc$ |  | G | Qư | vios | - ${ }^{\circ}$ | Oֻ¢ |
| ngaú | $=\mathrm{ma} \quad=$ ták . |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| say | $=$ RLS $=$ HS |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 201600 | oư ò |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

8. "á achīyá anyeù ngaúpánnàkà nāng sātàkyaúk nāngyaúk atūtū nímmaūkkákmā ngaúpánnàkà ngatè phákhángīpàngkaú" anyeù ngaúmaták.

9. "aū meúpán meúpán nāng anyeùtóng ngāzípmàngpanáqkáyeù" \{ēktèká aphákáták\} sātàktè àngnáq sā halawà kalìnghútè àngnáq phákhūlū phúlùthaū ngaúpanáq amúnashì kalìnghútè sákàmaták àngnaikmákhàtè ngaúkà pòkhápàpè.


| kalìng | hú | $=$ tè àng | $=$ paná | phákh | ūlū phúlūth | aū ngaú | = panáq | amúna |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| two | CLF.person | =A.AG that | = NOM | PN | PN | say | $=\mathrm{NOM}$ | sibling |  |
| \$¢ ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | 6uses | ¢ْ з ${ }_{\text {¢ }}$ | oฺom | טl:ว̊ |  | 216000 | oìm | อู૩ฮกคั |  |
| kalìng | hú | $=$ tè sák | -à | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | =ták àng | $=$ naík | mákhà | $=$ tè | gaúkà |
| two | CLF.person | =A.AG send | -EUPH | =RLS | =HS that | =only | time | =A.AG | as.for |
| \$¢ ${ }^{\text {® }}$ | suon์ | ¢ ¢ ¢ ¢ | $6 จ$ | ous | ¢๐. ふวั่ | Oluioutu | ૩จิईญววา | ¢ |  |
| pòkhá | = pà | pè |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| forest | =ALL | LOC |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 605 | ºlen | ${ }_{1}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| "Well, all right, if you are being like that." \{He didn't divorce his wife, it is said\}. (The husband) at that time, sent (his) two sons, who are called Phakhulu and Phuluthaw, to the forest, it is said.' |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

10. "awàyaúk nāngcíthāmā pòkhápàpè nāngcíthāmā úng pòkhápàpè nāngcíthāmā" ngaúpánnaà shishātàktè anyeù mók chaúqtaúpánnaà "atá tīp atá tī" ngaúmaták.

11. atásà tīppánnaà kaūpán lānāngmaták pòkhápàpè.

12. pòkhápà kaūpán lānāngká àngnaîkmákhàtè pòkhápè thúkká á atá yōkcízîk atá yōkcizík ngaúmaták.

13. hīng sātàk yàkká atá yōknímcímā zátcátè hīngká útpeúpán līhángpeúpán seùé.

14. "awà yák chíníkphángkūná" ngaúpánnaà peúttaūpánnaà līhángpeúpánták hīngká.

15. címpàpè līhángpeúká ínmákhàtèká sātàk ngaúkà yàkká pòkhápè seùé halángnákìng halángkà nák awàká alīhánghà "héwà līhángzík halángnāksōmpìng, héwà līhángzîk" àngnaíkmàkà màhameúzeútá alīhángá seùé.

| cím | = pà | $=$ pè lī | -háng | peú | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | ín | mákhà | $=$ tè | =ká |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| house | =ALL | = LOC come | -back | keep | =TOP | um.yes! | time | =A.AG | =TOP |
| з๐¢ | ºlver | (\%) | U§ | $\infty$ ) | misossom | зәट์: | ૩วขิईวว่ | ¢ | micosiom |



16．ínlīhángká pòkhápè nímmákcàngthàmaták īpmákcàngthàmaták．

| ín＝ | lī | －háng | $=$ ká | pòkhá | ＝pè ním | －à | －càng | －thà | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | $=$ ták |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NEG＝ | come | －back | ＝TOP | forest | ＝LOC stay | －EUPH | －PL：DIR1 | －must | ＝RLS | ＝HS |
| ${ }^{\circ}$ | os | U§ | misossios |  | （1）69 | 6จ | ツִorn | ๆ | ouv | o＇ |
| īp | －à | －càng | －thà | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | $=$ ták ． |  |  |  |  |  |
| sleep | －EUPH | －PL：DIR1 | －must | ＝RLS | ＝HS |  |  |  |  |  |
| ๙๐์ | 6จ | mơn | ๆ | ous | ò |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＇When <br> fore | $\begin{aligned} & \text { (the } \\ & t, \text { it } \end{aligned}$ | father） <br> s said | did not | come | back，they | had to | stay a | d sle | in |  |

17．īpmákcángthàká zák zák īpmákcípánták．

| īp | －à | －càng | －thà | $=k a ́$ | zàk | zàk | īp | －à | －cí | ＝pán | ＝ták ． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sleep | －EUPH | －PL：DIR1 | －must | ＝TOP | afraid | afraid | sleep | －EUPH | －PL | ＝COS | ＝ HS |
| ૩ว์ | 62 | mソ์n |  | misomiom | ¢Tros | ¢గ్లో | วर์์ | 6จ | $\sqrt{3}$ | 豹综： | ○่ |

18. īpmákcángká àngnaikmákhàtè ngaúkà hamántàkhaík phānsíntaúpánnaà īmaták.

19. eú panáq maták ōmyōktìng \{anyeù seùé\} tāngkaūtóng haūwà ìngmaták.

20. alōlōyeù teūzák ngāzák nímzák ngāzák \{sàyeù\} āntalīp sàttalīpsà anyeù amyósà úngpè maták ām téngpán yōkàngtìngsàyítá paūtìngmaták alōlōyeù.

21. paūtìngká teúshāyítá alōlōsà \{anyeùsà\} ngāzāngzeúká àngnáq tāngkaūtóngyaúksà maháng ōmpánnaà teúshāpè nímmákcímaták àngnaíkmákhàtè amúnashì.

'After (these) appeared, a small hut also appeared on its own accord. Then the two brothers (cultivated) with the sword and lived in the small hut, it is said.'
22. nímmákcíká àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaú àng teúshāpè àngnáq hamántàk īpeúpanáq alōlōsà paūzíngpanáq tāngkaūtóngyaúk yēk wányōkmaták.

23. yēk wánpánnaà àngpè téngmaták.
```
yēk wán = pán = naà àng = pè téng =mā =ták.
hill.field chop =COS =only that =LOC plant =RLS =HS
```



```
`They cleared the field and planted (paddy), it is said.'
```

24．āntē téngpánnaà àngnáq āntē yōkpán nímmákcímaták．

| ān | －tē téng | ＝pán | $=$ naà àng | $=$ panáq ān | －tē yōk | ＝pán |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| paddy | －PL plant | $=\cos$ | ＝only that | ＝NOM paddy | －PL eat | ＝COS |
| هu： | 60 ¢ ¢ ¢ ¢ | 凩笑： | ${ }_{j}^{0}$ 3̀3 | oiom هul： | 6000 | 凩恧： |
| ním | －à－cí | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | $=$ ták ． |  |  |  |
| stay | －EUPH－PL | ＝RLS | ＝ HS |  |  |  |
| 69 | 6จ | ouv | ò |  |  |  |
| ＇（The | ey）planted | paddy | ，ate it a | nd lived（ther | ），it i | s said |

25．anyeù nímmákcîká tanéq tanaîk cáqtaùká yēk wányōkákcímaták．

| an | ＝yeù ním | －à－cí | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | tanéq tanaík cáqtaù | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | yēk |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DEM | ＝manner stay | －EUPH－PL | ＝TOP | at．one．time as．for | ＝TOP | hill．field |
| ${ }_{3}$ |  | 6จ | misossios |  | misomiom | concus |
| wán | yōk－à | －cí＝mā | ＝ták ． |  |  |  |
| chop | eat－EUPH | －PL＝RLS | ＝ HS |  |  |  |
| จoर | ๑๐ 6จ | （3）ous | ò |  |  |  |
| ＇When <br> thei | （they）liv <br> livelihood） | ed like tha it is sa | t，one day aid．＇ | （they）cultivat | a hill | field（for |

26．amúnashì kalìnghú yēk wánpánnaà yōkákcímaták．


27．yōkákcíká āntān màkmákhàtè ngaúkà \｛yàk ngaúningyeù\} hing amú ngaúkà hing nashittè hing amúká phákhūlūlakaúé hīng nashīká phúlùthaūlakaúé．

＇When ate／cultivated for themselves，after sometimes，\｛like this manner\} the older brother（said）to the younger brother．．．the older brother was Phakhulu and his younger brother was Phuluthau．＇
28. anyeù ngaúpánlakaú hīng amú phákhūlū ngaúkà yákà mákhàtè ngaúkà "maūng ngā úngpàpèà nāngphángkūná nāngká nímphángnáyeù" ngaúmaták.

29. "nímphángná" ngaúpánnaà hīngká pòkhápà nāngmaták.

| ním | -pháng | =ná ngaú | = pán | $=$ naà | hīng | =ká | pòkhá | $=\mathrm{pa}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| stay | -prior | =SAP say | = COS | =only | 3SG | =TOP | forest | =ALL |
| 6\$ | \$¢ ${ }_{\text {S }}$ |  | 凩第: | ${ }_{j}^{0}$ | O) | mi60sım | 603 | $\mathrm{O}_{10}^{016 m}$ |
| nāng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | =ták. |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| go | =RLS | = HS |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| )3: | ous | o' |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| '(He | said) | "Stay here, | my dear | and | ( he) | went into | the f | rest, |

30. àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà \{yàknīngyeù\} taítapátàk ngaúkà "sāngpaláng ōmkūkáq apòwá" ngaúpánnaà úng thīngpàpanáq sèktàk ngaúkà sāngpaláng tāmìngyaúk hīngyitá pòkhápè nāngìngyaúk "hingtè sāngpaláng ōmzíngthām"ā ngaúpánnaà sāngpaláng ōm pheúpán lāpánták àngnaíkmákhàtèká hīngká.


| ōm | zíng | ＝thāmā | ngaú | ＝pán | ＝naà | sāngp | áng ō | ōm | pheú | ＝pán |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| make | JUSS | ＝HORT | say | ＝COS | ＝only | king |  | make | carry | $=\cos$ |
| ¢र्u | 60 | ๑ઢ૩ว¢์ |  | 凩推： | $\stackrel{\square}{1}$ | Яર્વ઼્¢ |  | vúu | －¢ీ： |  |
| lā | ＝pán | ＝ták àng | ＝naík | m |  | $=$ tè | ＝ká |  | hīng | ＝ká |
| take | ＝COS | ＝HS that | ＝only | tim |  | ＝A．AG | ＝TOP |  | 3SG | ＝TOP |
| ${ }_{11}$ | C⿵门日， | ○̀ зวิิ | Giulioug | 비 |  | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ | miso | cosios | O | misomiom |

＇Then people from another country said＂There is no one to be a king＂．While the people from other villages came out in search of a king，（the older brother）was on his way to the forest and they met him there．They said ＂Let＇s make him the king＂．Then they made（him）a king and carried and took （him）away，it is said．＇

31．pheúpánnaà làngká àngnaíkmátè ngaúkà teúpè ngaúkà àngpanáq hīng nashī phúlìthaū eútpeúyákmaták．

＇When（they）carried him away，（he）left his younger brother Phuluthau in the hut，it is said．＇

32．eútpeúyákká àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà anyeù ngaúmaták．


33．＂aū léq amúká maíkmà līhángkalá，léq amúká maíkmà līhángkaláyeù＂ngaúpánnaà myaūtaúpánnaà halángnákàngmaták \｛hīngyitá\}.


| ngaú | ＝pán | $=$ naà myaū | －ta | ＝pán | ＝naà haláng | nāk | －àng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | ＝ták |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| say | $=C O S$ | ＝only wait．for | L．SUFF | ＝COS | ＝only sky | dark | －DIR1 | ＝RLS | ＝ HS |
| ஹoicuo |  | Q 6 Ofo | － | C⿵冂人）： | ¢ לi：mmcomc | จ｜र्์ | Ơ¢ | ouv | ò |
| hīng | ＝yí | ＝tá |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3SG | ＝also | ＝EMPH |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| O | vనీ： | ù |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 'He (t } \\ & \text { waitir } \end{aligned}$ | the you ng（him） | nger brother） <br> ），（it）became | said， dark， | ＂When it is | ill my brother said．＇ | me | ck?" | and | while） |

34．halángnákàngká hinng amútèká tamì kaūlāpánlakà úngpè sāngpaláng ōm sèktàk kaūlāpánlakà hingká ínalīpán seú àngnaíkmákhàtèká．


35．ínalīhángká àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà aū léq amúká halángnāktítá ínalīhángpán yákmákká ngāhaìngsànaík ngapánlá ngaúpánnaà līhángmaták hingkká．

| ín $=$ | $\mathrm{a}=$ | lī | －háng | ＝ká | àng | $=$ naík |  | mákhà | $=\mathrm{tè}$ | ngaúk | aù | maléq |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NEG＝ | NEG＝ | come | －back | ＝TOP | that | ＝only |  | time | ＝A．AG | as．for |  |  |
| $\checkmark$ | ${ }^{*}$ | os | U§§ | misomion |  |  |  | ૩วขิईวววใ | คั | ญ๐¢¢¢์ | ๘ъว์ | $\bigcirc$ |
| amú | ＝ká |  | halángnāk | ＝tí | $=$ | in＝ |  | $\mathrm{a}=$ | lī | －háng | ＝pán |  |
| brother | ＝TOP |  | dark | ＝also |  | MPH NEG＝ |  | NEG＝ | come | －back | ＝COS |  |
| उธீกฺ | miso | oss | 1－2 ${ }^{\text {du }}$ | ๆર์งృฺ： | ù |  |  | ${ }^{\circ}$ |  | U§ | 凩恧： |  |
| yàkmák | ＝ká |  | ngā | haìng－sa | －sà | $=$ naík |  | ＝pán | $=1 \mathrm{a}$ |  |  |  |
| today | ＝TO |  | exist＝ex | xclusive－D | －DIM | ＝only | 1SG | $=\mathrm{COS}$ | $=\mathrm{NOM}$ |  |  |  |
| ${ }^{369}$ | mi6 | mom | คํ จЩ |  | 60： |  |  | 豹犋： | $\infty$ |  |  |  |


'When he had not returned, then (the younger brother) said "Though it is dark, my older brother has not returned. Today, I am left by myself." and came back (home), it is said.'
36. līhángká lámpè ngaúkà acísweū lūwìngmaták.

37. acísweū lūwìngká acísweūsà pheúpán līhángmaták.

| císweū lū | -ìng | = ka | acísweū | -sà pheú | = pán lī | -háng | = mā | =ták . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| usk get | -DIR2 | =TOP | tusk | -DIM carry | $=\cos$ come | -back | =RLS | = HS |
| ఐर์æuর ๆ | ว | misomion | əoఁæ్రu | 60: ¢¢์: |  | O§ | ous | ò |
| ( | fou | ot a tusk | , (he) | arried | tusk (on | his | uld | ) and |

38. "yákmákká léq amúká alīhángpán léq awà útpeúmā ngaúpín atheúpè léq amúyitá útpeúyákhángpán ngatèkáyeù yákmákká ngaká màhameúyaúk nímkalá pòkhápè ngāhaìngsàká" ngaúpánnaà acísweūsà pheúpán līhángmaták.


39. acísweūsà pheúpánnaà līhángká àngnáq hīng heūtìng kaūngtìngpèà cháqtaúpánnaà peúhángìngmaták àngnáq acísweūtè.

40. àngnáq acísweūtè cháqtaúpánnaà hīng heūtìng sàttìngpè

41. àngnaíkmátè ngaúkà sīnsweūsà cháqtaúpeúhángìngká àngnáqpè hīngká kaūng kaūngpán heū hamàng ōm ōmká anáqsà cháqtaúpán peúpánnaà hīngká yēk wánmyeútaí wányōkmaták.


42. phàkmákninngyeù yēkpàpè nānghángmaták.

| phàkmák | = nīngyeù | yēk | = pà | $=\mathrm{pè}$ nāng | -háng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | =ták . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tomorrow | =manner | hill.field | =ALL | = LOC go | -back | =RLS | = HS |
| usmరీ§ | ヘixoç | soncus | ºlen | ${ }_{1}^{0}$ O On: | U§ | ous | o' |
| he nex | day, he | went | to | fields, | it is | said |  |

43. yēkpáqpè nahángká anáq acísweūheúqyeù anáq \{sinphyūmeū ishíqshā\} acílúng pūngpūngshà īshíqshà pūpánnaà hīngyeún atá sapáksà mōkákmaták.

44. mōkpán īmaták.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { mōk = pán ī =mā =ták . } \\
& \text { cook }=\text { COS give =RLS }=\text { HS }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { '(S/he) cooked (for him), it is said.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

45. \{àngnáq acísweūhaík pūpánnaà\} àngnáq īshíqshà cíceū katàmmaták katàmyítá katàmshishísà ták.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { \{àng = panáq acísweū =haík pū =pán = naà\} àng =panáq īshíq shā }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { cíceū katàm =mā =ták katàm = yí = tá katàm shīshí -sà =ták . } \\
& \text { extremely beautiful =RLS =HS beautiful =also =EMPH beautiful ATTW -DIM =HS }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ' This girl was very beautiful, it is said. (She was) extremely beautiful, it } \\
& \text { is said.' }
\end{aligned}
$$

46. àngnaíkmátè ngaúkà pūpánnaà atá sapáksà mōkákkánaà hīngká "aū yàkmákká màhameú mōkizeúlá ngātèká anáq atá sapáksàká màhameú mōkpán izeuuláyeù" \{phàkmáknīng ngāyítá\} yōkyí cíceū yōkmeúmaták.

47. phàkmáknīngyeù ngāyítá túmpaūngpaūngsà yōkmeúmaták.

| phàkmák | = nīngyeù ngā | = yí | = tá | túm | paūngpaūng | -sà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tomorrow | =manner exist | =also | = EMPH | fragrant | ATTW | -DIM |
| Usçoç |  | ヘ0̧: | ù | $60_{0}$ | 66゙\%6\% | 60: |
| yōk meú | $=\mathrm{ma} \quad=\mathrm{ták}$. |  |  |  |  |  |
| eat good | =RLS =HS |  |  |  |  |  |
| ๑: 6mč: | - ouर ò |  |  |  |  |  |
| 'And the n is said.' | next day, as | Ell, | fo | d was) | fragrant a | del |

48. naúktèká phàkmáknīngyeùyítá nahángpánták hīngká yēk wánhángàká līhángpánták \{àngnaíkmàtè ngaúkà līhángpánták\}.

| naúk | $=$ tè | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | phàkmák | = nīngyeù | $=\mathrm{yí}$ | = tá | nāng | -háng | = pán | =ták |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| later | =A.AG | =TOP | tomorrow | = manner | =also | =EMP | go | -back | $=\cos$ | = HS |
| 6pon | คั | misomiom | usmés | ¢ֻ100 | טญ์: | ù | Sos: | $0 ¢$ | 旳豚: | o' |
| hīng | =ká | yēk | wán | $g$-à | =ká | lī | -háng | = pán | =ták |  |
| 3SG | =TOP | hill.field | chop | -EUPH | =TOP | come | -back | = COS | = HS |  |
| Or | mıos: | sonscus | จoर́ | $6 จ$ | misomion |  | U§ |  | ò |  |
| -àng | =naík | mátè ng | aúkà lī | -háng | án $=$ tá |  |  |  |  |  |
| -DIR1 | =only | when as | for come | -back = | OS = HS |  |  |  |  |  |
| ƠT¢ |  |  | os | U§§ | ò |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 'The } \\ & \text { (He) } \\ & \text { is s } \end{aligned}$ | next d went to id\}' | , as we cultiva | l, he w e and ( | t back came ba | - cultiv <br> ck, it i | ate t] sai | fie <br> \{Th | d), i he | is sai ame ba | d. it |

49. hīng līhángpán ngaúpánnàkà sāngpán nímhángpán ngaúlakàé.

50. anáq īshíqshāká hīng līhángpán sāngpán nímhángpánták eú asweùnaúpè.

51. àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà nímhángàká àngnaíkmákhàtèká hing nahángpán ngaúpánnàkà pūpánnaà mōkīhángpìngták.

52. hīng apòmákhà pūpán mōktalé.

| hīng | $a=$ | pò | mákhà | pū | = pá | mōk | = talé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3SG | NEG= | exist | time | emerge | = CO | cook | =SAP |
| O11 | $\theta$ | คํ | ૩จิโโรวว | - ¢ |  | จผ์ |  |

53. ỉká phàkmáknīng ngātí anyeù shīnátnīng ngātí anyeù kalìngyák sómyák màkàngmákhàtè ngaúkà "aū ngā chaúngzáng chaúngtayókkū anáq īshíqshàtè" ngaúmaták.

'Then she cooked (for him) and the same thing happened on the next day and the next two days. After two or three days, (he) said, "I will spy on this girl", it is said.'
54. "ngāyeún atá sapáksà mōkīpín sèktè chaúngtayókkū" ngaúmaták.

55. "lāpkón chaúngtayókkū ngā" kalìngyàk súmyàk màkàngmákhàtè ngaúkà chaúngtapánták àngnaíkmákhàtè.

56. chaúngtaúkánaà àngnaíkmákhàtèká mōkpán nímhángpìngták.

57. hīng nāngpeúpán ngaúpánnàkà hīng nāngpeúmákhàtè mōkpán nímháng hīngká.

```
ním -háng hīng =ká
stay -back 3SG =TOP
69 UUई OU misossom
'When he's gone, by the time he is gone, she cooked and stayed (in the hut)
again.'
```

58. àngnaíkmákhàtèká lāpkón "ateú nānglakà aúpè atá sāng sāngpánnaà mōkkà nānglakáyeù".

59. àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà é chīmāyeù àngnáq shīshāyítá seùé.

60. "é chīmāyeù nāng hawàsà anyeù ngāním lamàyeù yūpánnaà nāngyeún ngā kūnyītaūīyákmā" \{anyeù seùé naú pōngzānká\}.

61. "nāngtè ngā azànká mítpánnaà ōmpókákmā" \{anyeù seùé\} "ngātè atánshíshók", "intánshíyáyeù" naúktèká.

62. àngnáqhaík lāpán nímcàngmaták àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà.

63. lāpán nímcàngká àngnaíkmàtè ngaúkà \{àngpanáq meútnátóng\} hīng amú phákhūlū tamì taípīpàpè sāngpaláng ōmàpanáq sèk ngaúkà.

64. àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà \{àngnáqtàk ngaúkà\} mōksótàk ngaúkà katùngìngmaták àngnáq taípīpanáq tamìsātàk taúkōleūtìngkánaà ànták ēksāhalánáqà katàmshishísà lakò.

65. "àngnáq acíshà sīnphyūmeūshà ngaúpanáq cíceū katàmmā" ngaúlakàé.

66. katàmpánták ngaúpánkaú àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà "a àngnáq àngnáqyópè" \{anyeù seùé naú pōngzānká\} sāngpalángyeún heúhángàtalé.

67. "àngnáqyópè seùé" ngaúmaták.

| àngnáq | yó | $=\mathrm{pè}$ | = seù | ngaú | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | =ták |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that.one | CLT.ridge | = LOC | =SAP | say | =RLS | = HS |
| ふว31 | ดٌ | $\left.{ }_{1}\right)^{0}$ | 60 | ®1600 | ouv | ò |
| '(They) | said "O | that | idge | , it | s sai |  |

68. "àngnáq sīnphyūmeūshàyí cíceū katàmmā àngnáq ēksāhalá nímcímā" \{anyeù seùé naú\}.

'"The elephant girl is extremely beautiful. The couple lives at that place" \{the manner (it was told)\}.'
69. katùngìngmā ishhishàyaúk ànták ēksāhalá nímcímā katùngìngmā anyeù heúhángpánták.

70. sāngpalángtàkká \{nāngyítá\} maeú thóngzānshíqtíqataí tamì ēk katàmshishísà ngaúpán lākákmā seùé.

| sāngpaláng | -tàk | $=$ ká |  | nāng | $=\mathrm{yí}$ | = tá |  | maeú | thóngzānshíqtíq | ataí |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| king | -PL | =TOP |  | 2SG | =also | = EMPH |  | long.ago | as.the.custom | pattern |
| ๑ર์઼઼¢ | $\bigcirc_{\text {¢ }}$ 。 | mis | > a | əçup: | טวฺ: | u |  |  |  |  |
| tamì | ēk k | tàm | shīshí |  | ngaú | = pán | lā | -kák | $=\mathrm{ma} \quad=\mathrm{s}$ | . |
| other.people | wife b | autiful | ATTW | -DIM | say | =if | take | e -want | t =RLS =SAP |  |
| Ongp: | @§ి: |  | ¢̧̧usio | 60: | ஹo¢60 | ๆ¢ |  | จर्व | ouv 60 |  |

71．lākákpánták ngaúpánkaú àngnaíkmàtè ngaúkà＂ā kaūwàthàkūyeù＂ngaúmaták．

| lā | －kák | ＝pán | ＝ták ngaú | ＝pánkaú | àng | ＝naík | mátè ngaúkà | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| take | －want | $=\cos$ | ＝HS say | ＝as．it．is．the．case | that | ＝only | when as．for | oh |
| ${ }_{u}$ | থर्ट | 旡徎： | o＇o冂16000 | ๆ¢์60＞ | зว3 ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ¢1ర1000్入 |  | 30 |
| kaū | －à | －thà | $=\mathrm{ku} \quad=y \mathrm{eu}$ | ngaú＝mā | ＝ták ． |  |  |  |
| call | －EUPH | －must | ＝IRLS＝SAP | say＝RLS | ＝ HS |  |  |  |
| ธว | 62 | ๆ |  | がにర్ర ous | ○่ |  |  |  |

＇As it is the case with kings，that time，（the king）said＂Well，（you）must go and call（her）．＂，it is said．＇

72．\｛é kaūzíngákkákmā\} "àngnáq ēksāhalá nímpanáqtè kaūzíngákkákmāyeù" ngaúmaták.


73．àngnaíkmàká kaūcípìngták kaūcîká àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà úngpè thōkpánták．


74．thōkàngká àngnaíkmákhàtè＂aū màhameúzáng māntáklakaú＂ngaúmaták．

75. "ngā nashī lamàè".

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ngā nashī = lamà =é . } \\
& \text { 1SG younger.sibling }=\text { MIR }=\text { SAP }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { "(It's) my younger brother." }
\end{aligned}
$$

76. \{ēksāhalátóng kaūwàngmāé.\}

| ēksāhalá | tóng kaū | -àng | $=\mathrm{mā}$ é |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| husband.wife | big call | -DIR1 | =RLS ${ }^{\text {yes }}$ |
| vçous: | అิ: ธข | Ơ¢ | ¢ư 63\%: |

77. \{ēksāhalátóng kaūpánnaà àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà "aū màhameúzáng māntáklakaú" hīng maháng lamàyeù àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà.\}

78. àngnaíkmàtè ngaúkà é hing ēktè lākákpán seú \{àngnaíkmàtè\}.

79. hing ēktè lākákpánták ngaúpánkaú hīngtè tēcaúng cāntamaták.

80. nashïtè ayé aōmyeūnpán àngnaikmákhàtèká ayé aōmyeūnká hīng ēktè lākákpánták ngaú anyeùyaúkzáng tēcaúng cāntamaták àngnaíkmákhàtèká.

81. hinng shímásà hīng ēktè lālūkū \{anyeù seùé naú\}.

82. "lālūkū" anyeù ngaúkà àngnaíkmátèká ngaúkà "úngnáq nakátàk nímpanáq weúaīngpè naká zōkshī lāthàkū" ngaúmaták.

83. naká yōkshíyànghayák \{shíyànghayák\} cāntamā.

| naká yōk | shí | -àng | $=$ hayák | \{ shí | -àng | $=$ hayák | \} cān | -ta | = ma |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dragon eat | die | -DIR1 | =so.as.to | die | -DIR1 | =so.as.to | plan | L.SUFF | =RLS |
| \$ก: ๑: | 600 | Oิก |  | 600 | Ơ¢ | 毋oֹ6ъวर्ट | అึox | - | ous |
| (He) pl | d | $r$ th | dragon | k | (L | eat to | death) | (him) |  |

84. "àngnáq nakátàk nímpeúpanáq nēyāpè naká zōkshīwaleú lāthàkūyeù" ngaúmaták.

85. anyeù ngaúmaták "nāngtèlē sāngpaláng kaūmā".

86. anyeù ngaúpánkaú nāngákmaták.

| an | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ | ngaú | = pánkaú | nāng | -à | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | = ták . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DEM | = manner |  | =as.it.is.the.case | go | -EUPH | =RLS | = HS |
| ${ }^{3}$ | ヘิ1 | 〇11600 | ๆ¢́60m: | Oo: | 62 | ouर | ò |

87. sàngpaláng kaūmā ngaúkà nāngákká àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà sàngpaláng ngaúkà anyeù ngaúwaìngmaták \{yàk nāngtè ngaú ngaú ngaúnīngyeù\}.

88. "àngnáq nakápanáq zōkshīwaleú lāthàkū nāng, \{anyeù seùé\} ínalūpánnàkà tánshíkū" ngaúwaìngmaták.

89. "àngnáq khūnnayétmyaúkpèká anáq nāng alūwìngá ngaúpánnàkà nāngtè tánshíkū" anyeù ngaúmaták.

90. ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú àngmákhàtèká hīngká \{līhángpán\} mánsà nyóngeūtaúpán myétnangeūsà ōmpánnaà līhángmaták.

91. līhángkánaà hīng ēk ngaúkà \{àngnáq amú ngaúmaták hamàngkà\} "hamàngkà ngaúwaìnglá" ngaúmaták.

92. "ā ngā aheúkákálē", "aū heúyàng heúyàng amú, hamàngkà ngaúwaìnglá sàngpaláng naú nāngtè naú" anyeù ngaúmaták.

93. "aū ngatèà" ngaúmaták "àngnáq nakápīpèà naká zōkshīwaleú lāthàkūták ngatè maūng".

zōkshī waleú lā -thà =kū =ták ngā = tè maūng.
breast liquid take -must =IRLS =HS 1SG =A.AG boy

"Well, (the king) told me that $I$ have to bring dragon's milk from the dragon's country.", it is said.'
94. "àngnáq ínlūpánnàkà tánshíkūták seùé ngatè" anyeù heúyàngmaták hīng ēk zīngyūkánaà.

95. heúyàngká àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà hīng ēkhaíkà ngaúmaták.

| heú | -àng | =ká | àng | $=$ naík | mákhà | $=$ tè | ngaúkà | hīng | ēk | $=$ haík | -à |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tell | -DIR1 | $=$ TOP | that | =only | time | =A.AG | as.for | 3SG | wife | = ABL | -EUPH |
| ¢OOUS | Ợ | misomion | зว3 |  | วจิฐรวา | $\cdots$ | শฺฺ¢ | 0 | @ฺ\% | miol | 62 |

```
ngaú \(=\mathrm{mā}=\) ták.
say =RLS =HS
```



```
'When he told (her,) then his wife told (him)..., it is said.'
```

96. "aū hamàngkazeú apútàngsà \{hamàngkazeú apútàngsà\}" ngaúmaták.

97. "ngā heúyàngkū" ngaúmaták.
ngā heú -àng = kū ngaú =mā =ták.
1SG tell -DIR1 =IRLS say =RLS =HS
 '(The wife) said, "I will tell you (what to do).", it is said.'
98. "pháktaìnīng ngaúkà halángyákánaà ngā heúyàngpanáq ataí nāngzeù nāngnáyeù" ngaúmaták.

99. hīng halátèá àngnaíkmà ngaúkà "ngā heúyàngpín ataínāngzeù nāng nāng" anyeù ngaúmaták naúktè àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà atá tīppán īmaták hīngyeún

100. atá tīppán īpánnaà "anáq atátè" ngaúmaták "tawákká weúpè naútnàngná" ngaúmaták.

101. "tawákká kóngpaūpènaà zúntceútàng īyàngnáyeù" ngaúmaták.

| tawák | =ká | kóng | paū | $=\mathrm{pè}$ | = naà zúnqceú | -ta | -àng |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| half | =TOP | hill | on | $=\mathrm{LOC}$ | =only give.away | L.SUFF | -DIR1 |
| ๑®์०ก | misosion | n¢. | Gut | (1) | ¢ - ¢ ¢ | - | บิ์ |
| ī - | -àng =ná | $=y \mathrm{u}$ ù | ngaú | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | = ták . |  |  |
| give | -DIR1 =SAP | $=$ SAP | say | =RLS | = HS |  |  |
| 60: | Oิ¢ 6 ¢ | $\bigcirc$ | Oil6 | ous | ò |  |  |
| 'And said. | (the wife) | said, | like | this, | "Feed the oth | $r$ half | onto |

102. hīng ēk ngaúwàngpanáqnīngyeù nāngákmaták hīngyítá "anáq ataí nāngnáyeù" ngaúmaták.

103. anáq ataí nāngpánnaà àngnáqpè thōkmákhàtè àngnáq atá hīng ēk ngaúnīngyeù ōmīyàngmaták hīngyítá.

104. ōmīyàngká àngnaîkmákhàtè ngaúkà hīng ēk \{ngaúwàng\} ngaúningyeù ngaúwákpánták hingyítá.

105. ngaúwàngká àngnaikmákhàtè ngaúkà \{hing naútnàngpanáq ín\} "Yákmákhaîk záqtaúpán anáq atátèà yōkákcàngyók" manīngyeù manángyeù anyeù tapaúkàng ngaúwànglakaúé.

106. nakátàk ngaúkà hīng atátè yōkànglūpánnaà pūsōmìngmaták pyaūpásōmìngmaták.

107. pyaūpásōmìngkánaà "aū yákmákpè mángyákká léqtèà zúntceútingpanáq atátè ngaúkà maléqká yōkpápmákàngká mapanáq amaūngsàkàyeù".

108. "aū ngā ngā" ngaúmaták "ngātè ngaúkà" ngaúmaták.

109. "sàngpalángyaà seùé anáq zōkshīwaleú laingthàkūtákyeù ngaúmā anáq ínlūpínnàkà ngātèká tánshíkūták anáq tóngyeútmyaúkpèyeù".

110. nakámáqtàkyítá hing zúntceútàngpanáq atá yōkpápmákpáng ngaúpánkaú zōkshīwaleú nyíttaūpányí ì̀ngmaták.

| naká | máq | -tàk | = yí | = tá |  | g zúnqceú | -ta | -àng | $=$ panáq |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dragon | female | -PL | =also | = EMPH | 3SG | give.away | L.SUFF | -DIR1 | = NOM | rice |
| \$n\% | ${ }^{\circ}$ | $\bigcirc$ | ט\}์: | ù |  | ๑§セセ̧ | - | บิ์n | oilom | $\infty$ ¢ $\chi_{\text {¢ }}$ |
| yōk - | -páp -à | -à | = páng | ngaú |  | pánkaú | zōkshī | waleú |  |  |
| eat -b | -been -EU | EUPH | $=$ DIR1:COS | say |  | s.it.is.the.case | e breast | liquid |  |  |
| ๑: | ¢itid 6 |  | O̊¢¢ర | 201600 |  | c6os | ¢ | зัฺฺ |  |  |
| nyít | -ta | $=$ | án = yí | ī | -ìng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | =ták . |  |  |  |
| squeeze | e L.SUFF | $F \mathrm{~F}=\mathrm{CO}$ | S =also | give | -DIR | $22=$ RLS | = HS |  |  |  |
| ว®® | - | $\mathrm{Ol}_{6}$ | งว์: | 60: |  | ouर | ò |  |  |  |

111．zōkshīwaleú nyíttaūpán ìpanáqhaík apyīn lakò saēk hawà īyákhángìngtúnták \｛hīngyitá\}.


112．létsaūng īyákheúqtúnták．

| leútsaūng | ì | －à | －heúq | ＝tún | ＝ták． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| gift | give | －EUPH | －back：DIR2 | ＝still | ＝HS |
| वर्memex | 60 ： | ¢จ | U¢̧ | 60：00u | ¢宀 |

113．àngnaîkmátèká ēk kalìnghú ngāpánták \｛àngnaikmákhàtèká\}.

| àng＝naík | mátè | $=$ ká | èk kalìng | hú | ngā | ＝pán | $=$ ták |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that＝only | when | ＝TOP | wife two | CLF．person | exist | ＝COS | ＝ HS |
|  | ふวl¢〕 | micomion |  | 6uns | ไํ |  | ò |
| àng＝naík | mákhà | $=$ tè | $=\mathrm{ká}$ |  |  |  |  |
| that＝only | time | ＝A．AG | ＝TOP |  |  |  |  |
|  | उจำ | mi | mi60sım |  |  |  |  |
| ＇That time， | （He）has | s two wiv | ves，it is | said．＇ |  |  |  |

114．ēk kalìnghú ngāngká àngnaikmákhàtè ngaúkà àngnáq nakámáqyeū acímáqyeū seùé kalìnghú ngāpán seú hingkáé．

| èk | kalìng h | hú | ngāng | ＝ká |  | àng | ＝n |  | mákhà | ＝tè | ngaúkà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wife | two C | CLF．person | exist：dir1 | ＝TOP | th | that |  |  |  | ＝A．AG | as．for |
| ®ฺిః | \＄¢ ¢ | cuss | ดักัญ | miso | mıom | зวิ3 |  |  | зจิ｜¢ววา | $\stackrel{\sim}{1}$ | ஹొๆ¢ |
| àng | ＝panáq | q naká | máq | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ |  |  | ＝ ma | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ | ̄̄＝seùé | kalìng | hú |
| that | ＝ NOM | dragon | female | ＝and | elephan |  | ＝RLS | ＝and | ＝SAP | two | CLF．person |
| ว่ง | òฺon | \＄ก\％ | $\stackrel{\square}{\circ}$ | ษน | จoर |  | onv | ๑น์ | 60 | \＄¢ | suoss |
| ngā | ＝pán | ＝seú h | hing $=\mathrm{k}$ |  | ＝é |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| exist | $=\cos$ | ＝SAP | SG＝Top |  | ＝SAP |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| คํ | 家俔： | 60 | ${ }^{\prime \prime}$ | cosiom | $633 \%$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 'Sir } \\ & \text { and } \end{aligned}$ | nce，（He） an elep | e）got phant lad | wo wive ady． | that | at time | me， |  | ot tw | wo（wive | s), a | dragon lady |

115. àngnaikmàtè ngaúkà anyeù ngāpánnàkà naúktèká khūnnayétmyaúktèká séttáqtahángpán seú naú hīngká sàngpalángyeún.

116. zōkshīwaleú īhángpán seúé naká zōkshīwaleútè.

| zōkshī | waleú |  | -háng | = pán | $=$ seùé | naká | zōkshī | waleú | = tè |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| breast | liquid | give | -back | = cos | =SAP | dragon | breast | liquid | =A.AG |
| $\stackrel{8}{8}$ | ૩๑ฺ์ | бU: | U§ | 领侻: | 60 | \$nt | ¢ | ว๑ฺ์ | $\stackrel{\sim}{\sim}$ |

117. îháng ngāká àngnaikmàtè ngaúkà sàngpalángká "yaú hingtèká ngā shízíngàngthāmāyeù [nakátàk yōkshíyàngthāmā ōmlakà hīngkál ngayeún anyeù naká zōkshīwaleú séttáqtahángpìngseú inshíyàngá seú" anyeù ngaúnímmaták.


118．＂naká zōkshīwaleú séttáqtahángpìng ngayeún ínshíyàngá seú＂anyeù ngaúnímmaták．

| naká | zōkshī | waleú | seúttáq |  | －ta | －háng | ＝píng | ngā | $=$ yeún |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dragon | breast | liquid | offer |  | L．SUFF | －back | ＝DIR2：COS | 1SG | ＝BEN |  |
| \＄n\％ | 尔 | з๑ฺ์ | ๖గ์ర |  | － |  | ose | c | ъ๐¢ை |  |
| ín＝ | shí | －àng | ＝á | ＝seú | ú an | $=\mathrm{yeù}$ | ngaú | ním | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | ＝ták ． |
| NEG＝ | die | －DIR1＝ | ＝NEG | ＝SAP | P DEM | ＝mann | ner say | stay | ＝RLS | ＝ HS |
| $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{*}$ | 600 | Ôm | ภ． |  | 3 | OTOT00 | 216000 | 69 | ous | ò |
| ＇（The king）said，like this，＂He didn＇t die and（instead）offered me the dragon＇s milk．＂，it is said．＇ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

119．naúktèká nímhángpánták kalìngyàk sómyàk．

| naúk | $=$ tè | $=k a ́$ | ním | －háng | ＝pán | ＝ták kalìng | yàk sóm | yàk |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| later | ＝A．AG | ＝TOP | stay | －back | $=\mathrm{COS}$ | ＝HS two | now three | day |
| 6pon | $\sum_{i}$ | misomion |  | U§ |  | ò sơ |  | ๆ¢㇒ |
| ＇Lat | they | stayed | re | or（ | other） | two or th | e days．＇ |  |

120．nímháng ngāngkánaà naúktè yūzíngyōkhángpánták hīng múcímátyàtáktè．

| ním | －háng ngāng |  | ＝ká | ＝naà | naúk | $=$ tè $\quad \mathrm{y} \bar{u}^{\text {l }}$ | zíngyōk | －háng | ＝pán | ＝ták |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| stay | －back exist：dir1 |  | ＝TOP | ＝only | later | ＝A．AG take | order | －back | ＝COS | ＝HS |
| 69 | U§§ คิํ |  | misomiom | $\stackrel{\otimes}{1}$ | ason | $\stackrel{\sim}{1}$ |  | $0 ¢$ | 凮综： | ò |
| hīng múcímátyà－tàk＝tè |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3SG | official－PL | PL | ＝A．AG |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| O10 |  |  | ¢ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＇While（they）stayed，later，the king ordered his officials to go and spy（on them），it is said．＇ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

121．＂yūhángàyók àngnáq amaūngsàtè＂ngaúmaták＂shípànglá hamàng ōmpángláyeù＂．

122. yūzíngyōkàngká àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà "yaū shíkūpanáqhaík apyin lakò lápmà lakò īshíqshà hawà tótaúnímhángpányeù" ngaúmaták.

123. "katàmshīshísà àngnáqyítá" ngaúmaták "lápmà lakò ishíqshà hawà tótahángpìngyeù" ngaúmaták.

124. ngaúká àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà kalìnghú ngapìng yàkká ēk \{anyeù seùé naú pōngzānká\}.

125. "yaú anyeù ngaúpánnàkà hīng nashitè shíhayákká hīngká maning cānzithàkalá" anyeù seùé hingkká.

126. "maninngyeù cānzithàkalá" àngnaikmàtè ngaúkà "palú zōkshīwaleú lāthàkū" ngaúmaták àngnaikmákhàtèká.

| mà | $=$ nīngyeù cānzī | -thà | $=\mathrm{ku}$ | =lá | àng | =naík | mátè ngaúkà |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| WH | $=$ manner plan | -must | IRLS | = Q | that | =only | when as.for | ogre |
| msionus | 5 ¢ั C゚o̧̧ | ๆ | טw | cıos: | з̀з ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | प્રucroud | ววใ¢ை ฉ冂ำ¢ | วักั์ |
| zōkshī | waleú lā -thà | $=\mathrm{ku}$ | ngaú | = ma | =ták |  |  |  |
| breast | liquid take -must | =IRLS | say | =RLS | =HS |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{\text { \% }}{\text { ¢ }}$ | วจฺ์ ư ๆ | ${ }_{0}$ | 21600 | ouv | ¢ |  |  |  |
| àng = | = naík mákhà | $=$ tè | =ká | \}. |  |  |  |  |
| that $=$ | =only time | =A.AG | =TOP |  |  |  |  |  |
| зวัง |  | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ | misom |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { '(The } \\ & \text { to bri } \end{aligned}$ | king) thought, ing (me) ogre's m | $\begin{aligned} & \text { "What. } \mathrm{s} \\ & \text { milk." } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { should } \\ & \text { it is } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { I plan } \\ & \text { s said } \end{aligned}$ | n?", | hen. | king) sai | , |

127. "àngnáq palú nímpanáq cúnpè thōkkón nāngpánnaà palú zōkshīwaleú lāthàkū" zíngyōkmaták \{àngnaikkmákhàtèká\}.


128．kaūzíngyōkhángpánták àngnáq halawàtè＂kaūhángàyūyeù＂ngaúmaták＂àngnáq amaūngsàtè＂．

| kaū | zíngyōk | －háng | ＝pán | ＝ták àng | ＝paná | halawà |  | tè |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| call | order | －back | ＝cos | ＝HS that | ＝ NOM | man／husband |  | AC |
| ¢2 | จ̊¢¢m： | O§ | 䧺侯： | ๐ั่ зว่ํ | ¢ฺ่า๐ | summip： |  |  |

kaū－háng－à yū＝yeù ngaú＝mā＝ták àng＝panáq maūng－sà＝tè ．
call－back－one look＝SAP say＝RLS＝HS that＝NOM boy－DIM＝A．AG

＇（The king）ordered（them）to bring him．He said，＂Go and call this boy．＂，it is said．＇

129．kaūhángàyū ngaúká nāngákhángpánták．

| kaū | －háng | －à | yū | ngaú | ＝ká | nāng | －à | －háng | ＝pán | $=$ ták ． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| call | －back | －one | look | say | ＝TOP | go | －EUPH | －back | ＝cos | ＝ HS |
| ¢2T | Uई | ๑¢ |  | 2160 | mismom |  | 6จ | Uई | 凩佰： | ¢ |

130．nāngákhángká＂àngnáq taípīpè thōkkón àngnáq palú zōkshīwaleútè lāthàkūyeù＂ngaúmaták．


131．anyeù ngaúká àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà nyóngeūtaūpán līyákhángpánták hinngká＂àngpanáq ínalūwìngá ngaúpán nāngtè tánshíkūyeù＂ngaúmaták．


```
ngaú \(=\mathrm{mā}=\) ták.
say =RLS =HS
```



```
'As it is the case, that time, he came home with sadness. (The officials)
told (him), "If you can't get it, (the king) will kill you.", it is said.'
```

132．ngaúkánaà mán chīpókhalúksà ōmpánnaà mánsà myétnangeūyaúksà ōmpán līyákhángpánták àngnaikmákhàtèká．


133．līyákhángká ēktàkká zīngyūwákhángcípánták＂amú amú hànīng ngaúwaìnglá naú nāngtè＂\｛hànīngyeù ngaúwaìnglá\} ngaúmaták.

| lī | －à | －háng | $=\mathrm{ká} \quad$ èk | －tàk | ＝ká |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| come | －EUPH | －back | $=$ TOP wife | －PL | ＝TOP |  |  |
| － | $6 จ$ | U§ | misomion esి： | $\bigcirc$ | misomion |  |  |
| zīng | yū | －à | －háng－cí | ＝pán | ＝ták amú | amú hà | ＝nīng |
| ask | take | －EUPH | －back－PL | $=\mathrm{COS}$ | ＝HS brother | brother WH | ＝manner |
| 68：160m | č：${ }_{n}$ | 6จ | U§ 巨ூ | 成佺： | ૦̀ ૩๘ீกั |  | $\bigcirc$ |
| ngaú | －à | －ìng | ＝lá＝ná nã | nāng | ＝tè $\quad\{$ hà | ＝nīngyeù |  |
| say | －EUPH | －DIR2 | $=\mathrm{Q} \quad=\mathrm{SAP}{ }_{2}$ | 2SG | ＝A．AG WH | ＝manner |  |
| শీ\|cర్రీ |  | る | vi＜s：6p | จčup： | ¢i sư | ¢100 |  |
| ngaú | －à | －ìng | ＝lá ngaú | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | ＝ták $\}$ ． |  |  |
| say | －EUPH | －DIR2 | ＝Q say | ＝RLS | ＝ HS |  |  |
| શôleర్ర | 6จ |  |  | ouv | ○่ |  |  |
| ＇When brothe | （he）r er），what | eturned <br> at did | d，his wives （they）tell | asked <br> you？＂ | d（him）agai it is sai | n，＂Husban d．＇ | (lit. |

134. "sàngpaláng hànīngyeù ngaúwaìnglá naú nāngtè" manīngyeù manángyeù zingyūwákhángcilakaúé ēktàkká takháwáqsà nímpánnaà zingyūmaták.

135. zīngyūká "aū ngā angaúkáká maūng" ngaúmaták.

136. "àngnáq khūnnayét myaúkpèà palú zōkshīwaleú lāthàkūták seùè" ngaúmaták.

137. "àngnáq palú zōkshīwaleú ínalūpánnàkà ngatèká tánshíkūtákyeù" ngaúmaták.

| àng | = panáq | palú zōkshī | waleú ín= | $\mathrm{a}=$ | lū | pánnàkà | ngā | $=$ tè | $=\mathrm{ká}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | =NOM | ogre breast | liquid NEG= | NEG= | get | if | 1SG | =A.AG | =TOP |
| зว3 | oฺ่าภs | ઝิก్ర: ¢ | ૩๑ู์์ | $\stackrel{\square}{6}$ | ๆ | ๆ¢ | c | mi | misomion |
| tán | shí | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}} \quad=\mathrm{ták}$ | $=y e u ̀ ~ n g a u ́ ~$ | = mā | =ták . |  |  |  |  |
| beat | die | =IRLS = HS | = SAP say | =RLS | = HS |  |  |  |  |
| คัเดิก | 600 | טư ò |  | ous | o' |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { '(The } \\ & \text { is sai } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { e king) } \\ & \text { aid.' } \end{aligned}$ | said that, | "If I can't | get o | gre's | milk, ( | (he) | will | $1 \mathrm{me}$. ", |

138. anyeù ngaúká "aū hamàngkazeú apūtàngsà hamàngkazeú apūtàngsà" ngaúmaták.

| an | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ | ngaú | $=$ ká | aū hà | $=$ màng | $=$ kà | = zeú |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DEM | = manner | say | =TOP | well! WH | =thing | = Q | =even |
| ${ }^{8}$ | O̊\|cọ | Oil600 | mi603: |  | un | vicos: | 6onciou |
| $\mathrm{a}=$ | pū | -ta | -àng | = sà hà | = màng | = kà | =zeú |
| NEG $=$ | worry | L.SUFF | -DIR1 | =NEG.IMP WH | =thing | =Q | =even |
| ${ }^{\bullet}$ | U | - | Ơ¢ | §े $\sim \mathfrak{u}$ | us | viros: | coscily |
| $\mathrm{a}=$ | pū | -ta | -àng | $=$ sà nga | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | =ták. |  |
| NEG= | emerge | L.SUFF | -DIR1 | = NEG.IMP say | =RLS | = HS |  |
| ${ }^{\circ}$ | -ைீ | - | Ôn | ¢े 〇ฺ\|6 | ט ous | o' |  |

139. "maléq heúkākūseúé" ngaúmaták.

140. àngnaíkmàtè ngaúkà taì halángyákánaà àngnáq nakámáqpā àngnáq sinnhyyūmáqpā atá tīppán īyákcímaták seùé.

141. "anáq ayátpè thōkkón nāngná amúná".
```
anáq ayát = pè thōk = kón nāng =ná amú =ná .
this place =LOC arrive =so.as.to go =SAP brother =SAP
```



```
"Husband (lit. older brother), go until you reach that place."
```

142. "anáq ayátpè thōkpánnàkà meútnátóng ngaúwàngningyeù kóng tatawā yē tatawā zúnqceútaháng \{anyeù seùé\} myíttāpóqtaṻhángàng" \{anyeù seú\} ngaúmaták.

143. àngnáq ngaúningyyeù hing ēktàk tīpiningyeù àngnáq atátīssà lāpánnaà hinng ēktàk ngaúningyyeù ōmànghángàmatákseúé hingyyitá.

144. ōmànghángàká àngnaikmákhà palúyittà \{àngnaîkmà\} àngnáq hīng atátè yōkànglūpánták ngaúpánkaú "aū nāngtè ngā cíceū cézútintàngmā maūngyeù" ngaúmaták seùé.


| ngaú | ＝pánkaú | aū nāng | $=\mathrm{tè}$ ngā cíceū | cézútīn | －ta | －àng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| say | ＝as．it．is．the．case | well！2SG | ＝A．AG 1SG extremely | thankful | L．SUFF | －DIR1 | ＝RLS |
| 20¢600 | ๆ¢¢60＞ | бऊว์ ว¢์pp： |  | cmjoa：oc | － | บั¢ | ouv |
| maūng | $=y e u ̀ ~ n g a u ́ ~$ | $=\mathrm{mā} \quad=$ ták | $=$ seùé |  |  |  |  |
| boy | ＝SAP say | $=$ RLS $=$ HS | ＝SAP |  |  |  |  |
| б6๐र्ट |  | ouर ò | 60 |  |  |  |  |
| ＇When <br> ＂Well， | he had done I am so very | that，that y thankful | time，the ogre to you．＂，it is | （having <br> said．＇ | ten hi | fo | sa |

145．＂cézútīntàngmā＂anyeù＂nāngyeún ngā hamàng cézúsáttathàkaláyeù＂ngaúká àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà ＂yaū ngāká àngpanáq sàngpalángyaà ngātèká zōkshīwaleú laīngthàkū＂ngaúmā＂àngnáq ínalūpínnàkà ngatèká tánshíkū ngaúmāyeù＂ngaúmā．


146．＂ée＂＂ngaúpánnaà palúmáqyí nyíttaúpán ì̀ngmaták．

| éé | ngaú | ＝ pan | ＝naà | alú | máq | ＝yí | nyít | －ta | ＝pán |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| yes | say | ＝COS | ＝only | ogre | female | ＝also | squeeze | L．SUFF | ＝COS |
| 3ว：63\％ | か1600 |  | ${ }_{j}^{6}$ | วิก్ู่ | ${ }^{\circ}$ | טబ్ర： | ข® | － | 㑑行： |

```
\overline{1}}\quad-ìng =mā =ták .
give -DIR2 =RLS =HS
60: วे कर्ण के
'The ogre said "yes" and (she) squeezed out some milk and gave it to (him),
it is said.'
```

147. nyíttaūpán īpinták ngaúpánkaú hīngká àngnáq nyíttaúpán īheúq apyīn lakò ēk palúmáqshà lakò ēkshā ingīngsà \{ēkshā lakò\} hawà létsaūng īhángìngmaták hīngyeún.

148. ihhángìngká àngnaíkmákhàtè ngaúkà katàmshishísà ihángìngmaták.

149. ihhángìngká ín tamissāathá ahāná seùé katàmmā seú \{nāngyítá cíceū é anyeù ngaúpánkaú sàngpalángká caîktamā seùé\}.

150. hīng ēktàktè lākákkánaà tánshizíngyōkmā seùé hīngtè amyómyó anyeùé.

151. àngnaikmàkà ngaúkà yàk ngaúninngyeù nahángpánták e ek sómhú ngāpánták àngnaîkmátèká yūzíngyōkhángpínták ínmàkà sàngpalángká.

152. yūzíngyōkhángìngkánaà ínmàkà aū hīng ngeūtū ngeūtá tàkká yūhángpínták.

| yū zíngyōk | -háng | -ìng | =ká |  | = naà ín | mà | $=$ ká |  | hīng |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| look order | -back | -DIR2 | = TOP |  | =only that | time | =TOP | well! |  |
|  | U§ | ลे |  | mom | ${ }_{j}^{0}$ ふ | उจิ\|ई | misomion | бъर्万 | $\bigcirc$ |
| ngeūtū ngeūtá - | -tàk =ká |  | yū | -háng | = pán =ták |  |  |  |  |
|  | =TOP |  | take | -back | $=\operatorname{COS}=$ | = HS |  |  |  |
| cuर్uncuson: | $\bigcirc_{\text {¢0, }}^{\circ}$ | misomion | $u_{n}$ | U§ | ${ }^{\text {® }}$ |  |  |  |  |
| 'When ordere him again, i | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ed to } \mathrm{s} \\ & \text { it is } \mathrm{s} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { y (on } \\ & \text { id.' } \end{aligned}$ | them | , tha | time, his | fol | wers wen | to | see |

153. yūhángìngkánaà "yaū shípánglá àngpanáq halawà yūhángàyū" "hamàngkà shíhàkalá shíkūpanáqhaík apyīnhaík ēk lakò sómhú ngāpín" ngaúmaták.

154. "anáq ēkyí katàm shīshísà" ngaúmaták.

155. "ā anyeùtóng ashíhàpanáqká hinngtèká aséng látlát ashīn látlát ōmpánnaàyeù tóngpaí paitàngkūyeù" ngaúmaták àngnaíkmákhàtèká.

156. anyeù panyāshíqyaúk tātpanáq ínshíhà ashíhàpanáq amyókáyeù múcímátyàtáktè kaūzíngyōkpánnaà tóngpaí paítàngmaták àngmákhàtèká tāngkaūtóngyaúk tóngpaí paitàngmaták tānlyeútyaúkyeù sāmtaùn ōmàngmaták.

157. sāmtaùn paítàngká àngnaikmákhàtè ngaúkà wánshípán \{àngnaikmákhàtèká\} wánshípán nōppán peúpàngták.

| sām | taùn paí | -ta | -àng | = k á | àng | = naík | mákhà | $=$ tè | ngaúkà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| three | portion chop | L.SUFF | -DIR1 | =TOP | that | =only | time | =A.AG | as.for |
| บั: |  | - | บิ์ | mi60sıos | зว่ง | ¢1ùsuay | Зวโโโ | $\Gamma_{i}^{\circ}$ | শ๐¢¢ ¢ |
| wán | shí = pán | \{ àng | = naík | mákhà | $=$ tè | $=k$ á | \} wán | shí | = pán |
| chop | die $=\operatorname{COS}$ | that | =only | time | =A.AG | =TOP | chop | die | = COS |
| २oर्ण | 600 Celleid | зว่ง |  | ૩จิई¢ววา | $\stackrel{\circ}{1}$ | misom | - จo์ | 600 |  |
| nōp | = pán peú | = páng | =tá |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| bury | $=\operatorname{COS}$ keep | = DIR1:COS | S $=\mathrm{HS}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Eilu |  | Ơm¢ | O! |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { 'Sin } \\ & \text { chop } \end{aligned}$ | e he was cu to dead), | ut into buried | three <br> (him), | pieces, t and left | hat ti <br> (him) | ime, (t (there) | ney) kille it is | ed (h said. | im) (Li |

158. àngnáq sāngpalángtàkhaikk wánshípán nōppán peúyàngká àngnaikmákhàtèká êk sómhúhaikyeù keūtacímaták.

159. matàkkaú matàkkā taīāngtacímaták.

| matàkkaú matàkkā | taīpāng | -ta | -cí | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | =ták . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| by.themselves | discuss | L.SUFF | -PL | =RLS | = HS |
|  | ox̂cuc | - | $\bigcirc$ | ouर | o' |

'They discussed (it) among themselves, it is said.'
160. "nāngká phaūtaú" ngaúmaták.

161. "nāngká phaūtaúzípánnaà nāngká seúttahayákyeù tapitté ngāhayákyeù nāngká ōm" ngaúmaták.

162. "ngāká asák swángtahàyákyeù ōmkūyeù" ngaúmaták àngnaikmákhàtè ngaúkà.

| ngā | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | asák | swáng | -ta | -hà | $=\mathrm{yák}$ | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ ¢ $\overline{\mathrm{om}}$ | $=\mathrm{ku}$ | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | =TOP | life | put | L.SUFF | -know.how | =so.as.to | =SAP make | =IRLS | =SAP |
| cl | micosiom | ъวบก์ | دoci | - | ๑oీ | бъ๐¢ | OTOTOTO | טư | ƠTo |
| ngaú | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | =ták àn | $=\mathrm{n}$ | má | khà = | ngaúkà |  |  |  |
| say | =RLS | $=\mathrm{HS}$ th | at $=$ on | tim | e $=A$ | as.for |  |  |  |
| 2ô16 | ouv | Ò 3 | ¢10 | 3 | §ъ21 | ஹ๐¢¢¢ |  |  |  |
| 'The | n, "I wil | 11 mad | e him | eathe | ', it is | aid.' |  |  |  |

163. àngnaíkmákhàtèká tánshípán nōppeúpanáqtè sāmpaí paítaúpán nōppán peúpanáqtè sīnphyūmáqhaíkà anáq acísweūheúq lūpanáq isshíqshàhaikkà ayāng phaūtaúmaták hīngká.


164．phaūtaúpánnaà hing halá mákkūtè hingkaú hīngkā títántsà ōmpán peúmaták．


165．naúktèká àngnáq nakámáqhaikkà lūwákpanáq nakámáq sèkká maháng ōmpánnaà hīngkaú hīngkā seúttapán malā phénghángìnghayák ōmàngmaták．

| naúk | $=$ tè | ＝ká | àng | $=$ panáq | naká | máq | ＝haík lū | －à | ＝panáq |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| later | ＝A．AG | ＝TOP | that | ＝NOM | dragon | female | ＝ABL get | －EUPH | ＝NOM |
| 6pon | $\stackrel{\sim}{\square}$ | micos | ¢ıom зั่ | ¢ฺ่าก | จก\％ | ${ }^{\bullet}$ | mos ๆ | 6จ | －＞宀ेo |
| naká | máq | sèk | ＝ká | maháng | ōm | ＝pán | ＝naà hīng | kaú hīng |  |
| dragon | female | person | ＝TOP | that．thing | g make | $=\cos$ | ＝only hims |  |  |
| \＄n） | ${ }^{\circ}$ | ¢100 | micomom | טpom | Yu | C8\％ | ¢ | 10 |  |
| seút | －ta | ＝pán | malā phéng | －háng | －ìng | －hà | ＝yák |  |  |
| join | L．SUFF | ＝cos | flesh full | －back | －DIR2 | －know．ho | w＝so．as．t |  |  |
| ロo์ | － | 8， |  | Uई | 。 | －os | бъर्ธ |  |  |
| ōm | －àng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | ＝ták． |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| make | －DIR1 | ＝RLS | ＝ HS |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ヘú | กัฺ¢ | ouv | ¢ |  |  |  |  |  |  |

166．àngnáq táttayáq lūpanáq sèk palúmáq sèkká asák zátahángìnghayák ōmàngmaták àngnaikmákhàtèká záhángìngmaták àngnaikmákhàtèká．


```
àng =naík mákhà = tè =ká
that =only time =A.AG =TOP
```



```
'Then the third wife, the ogre, made (him) breathe again, it is said. Then
(he) became alive, it is said.'
```

167. àngnaíkmákhàtèká úngpè nakáhaík lūpanáq nakápanáq tamisātè kaūsōmìng úngpè síttū pītátē kaūsōmìngmāseùé naú.

168. haíkmàkà úngpanáq ací sèktàkyí acítwē acítwē kaūteúpsōmìng.

169. nakátwē nakátwē kaūteúpsōmìng palútwē palútwē kaūteúpsōmìng kaūsōmìngmaták.


170．kaūsūmpánnaà àngnaíkmákhàtè sāngpalángtè \｛taíktaú\} taíktàngmaták àngnaikmákhàtè.


171．taíktàngmákhàkà sāngpalángtàkká shúngtaúpánnaà matákká àngnaíkmákhàtèká àngnáq sèk sāngpaláng ōmpánnaà míqphyátákyaúk sānzátaú nímàngmaták．

| taík | －ta | －àng | mákhà | ＝ká | sāngpaláng | －tàk＝ | ＝ká |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| battle | L．SUFF | －DIR1 | time | ＝TOP | king | －PL | $=T O P$ |  |  |
| －1⁄ก | － | Ơ¢ | ૩จิโईวว入 | miso |  | ${ }_{\circ}^{\circ}$ | misomion |  |  |
| shúng | －ta | ＝pán | ＝naà | àntàk | $=k a ́ \quad$ àng | $=$ naík | mákhà | ＝tè | ＝ká |
| loose | L．SUFF | $=\cos$ | ＝only | 3 PL | ＝TOP that | ＝only | time | ＝A．AG | ＝TOP |
| ฏํ | － | 行综： | ${ }_{1}^{0}$ | Ono | misomıon 3̀3ิ | O1uisuby | उจิโฐวว1 |  | misomion |
| àng | ＝panáq | sèk s | sāngpalán | g ōm | ＝pán＝naà | míqphyá | －tàk＝y | ＝yaúk sānzá | －ta |
| that | $=\mathrm{NOM}$ | person k | king | make | $=\cos \quad=$ only | queen | －PL＝Con | ＝COM reign | L．SUFF |
| ว่วิ | òฺom | O1110 | જર્વ઼૭ર્ઠ | Oú | 凮： | ¢opp： | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ} \mathrm{O}_{0}$ ¢ |  | － |
| ním | －àng＝ | $=\mathrm{ma} \quad=\mathrm{t}$ | ták ． |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| stay | －DIR1＝ | ＝RLS＝ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6s | บ̂¢ | ouv ò |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＇When battled，the king and others were defeated．Then，that time，（they） made the person（their husband）a new king and（the king）with the queens reigns（the country），it is said．＇ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

## Text17：＇My family＇

1．nga cím sèk aú heúthàkū ngaúpánnàkà ngapèká címsèk peútkaú ngālakúqé．


2．amúnashì hàkaú ameūpā awàpā nūklánpā ngaúpánnàkà peútkaútalé

| amúnashī hà | kaú ameū | ＝pā awà | ＝pā nūklán | ＝pā ngaú | pánnàkà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sibling five | CLF．person mother | ＝and father | ＝and nephew | ＝and say | if |
|  | бűn उабь | $6 ฑ \quad 3260$ | 6ฑ onoso | 69 かっoleu | ๆ¢์ |
| peút kaú | $=$ talé |  |  |  |  |
| eight CLF．person | n SAP |  |  |  |  |
| ๑¢์ ธuวs์ | 0र्ण60： |  |  |  |  |
| ＇Five sibling eight people． | plus a moth | a fathe | and a nep | ew，（we a | altoge |

3．amútóng hawà ngāmā ngapèká ēklāzípán

| amú | tóng hú | －à ngā | $=\mathrm{mā} \mathrm{nga}$ | $=\mathrm{pè}$ | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | ēklā | zí | ＝pán ． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| brother | big CLF．person | －one exist | ＝RLS 1SG | ＝LOC | ＝TOP | marry | finish | ＝COS |
| зธ์กั | అิ：6usm | －®์ ดٌ | ouर d | （1） | misomion |  | 会： |  |

4．maléq atétóng kalìnghú ngātalé atétóng hawà atéshà hawà atétóngká halánāngzípán


```
halá nāng zí = pán .
husband go finish \(=\operatorname{COS}\)
```



```
'(I've got) two older sisters - the oldest and the second oldest. The oldest
was married.'
```

5. hīng halá shíyàngkànaà címpè nímhángyūmā seùé.

6. nūklán ishíq hawà pātìngmā seùé

7. anyeù ngaúpánkaú anáq nūklánpā ngaúpánkaú yaà maléq amú ēkpā ngā ashitalé sā kalìnghú ngāpán

8. álóng shípnúpán hawà ngāpán ngānaíkngá ngaúpánnàkàlé

| álóng shípnú | = pán hú | -à ngā | = pán ngānaíkngá | ngaú | pánnàkà | $=1$ lé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| all ten | = COS CLF.person | -one exist | = COS all | say | if | =SAP |
|  |  | ๑® คู้ |  | 2160 |  | 60: |
| 'So, (it's) | altogether elever | n peopl | ' (Lit. ten aft | ter o |  |  |

9. maléq ameūtàk maléq awàtàk āntān thaùngtapán

| maléq ameū | -tàk maléq | awà | -tàk āntān | thaùng | -ta | = pán |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 PL mother | -PL 1PL | father | -PL quite | old | L.SUFF | = cos |
|  | $\bigcirc \bigcirc_{\text {¢\% }}^{\circ}$ | 3266 |  | $3{ }^{\circ}$ | - | 凩浣: |

10. maléqká maeúshaúk lapā ōmcilakàé

| maléq | =ká | maeú | = shaúk | lapā ōm | -cí | $=$ lakà | = é |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 PL | =TOP | long.ago | =DIM:COM | field make | -PL | =MIR | =SAP |
| $\bigcirc$ | misomion |  | 60\%9. |  | $\underset{C}{ }$ | moni. | 63\% |

11. maléqpàpèká maléqsà achīyá maléq azáktákká lapā ōmyōkkà myátamā lé

| maléq | $=\mathrm{p}$ | à $=$ pè | =ká | maléq | -sà a | $\mathrm{a}=\quad \mathrm{c}$ | chī = á | maléq |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 PL | =AL | L = LOC | =TOP | 1 PL | -mere | $\mathrm{NEG}=\mathrm{tr}$ | true =NEG |  |  |
| ○\% |  | Oर (0) | misomiom | \%\% | 03 |  | unos ni | ¢ |  |
| azàk | -tàk | =ká | lapā ōm | yōk | =ká | myá | -ta | = mā | $=1$ le |
| PN | -PL | =TOP | field make | eat | =TOP | plenty | L.SUFF | =RLS | =SAP |
| mos: | ○\% | misomom | oư | ๑ะ | misomion | os ¢p. | - | onv | 60: |

12. lapā ōmyōkcí mánghá ngaúpánnàkà ām kámàkà tén zí ngāzípán ngaúpánnàkà phú tāmhācí \{anyeù kámàkà seùé\}

13. maléqyítá asák tóngákpìng ngaúpánkaú \{maléqpènīng\} maléq khítmákhàtèká ngón ōmhācímā

14. ngón kámàkà thūcí láksamá ōmhà sèk láksamá ōm anyeù hācímā seùé

15. ngayítá ōmákpáptalé

| ngā | = y í | $=$ tá | ōm | -à | -páp | $=$ talé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | =also | = EMPH | make | -EUPH | -been | = SAP |
| c | טనֻ: | ù | Oर́u | 62 | प\%\% |  |

16. cíceū náttamā pīnpántamā héq ngón alúk ngaúpanáq amyóká

17. caúng nímìngkàyítá kōyeún shípnútè aūngtakónyítá kōká anímìngyeūná seùé

| caúng | ním | -ìng | =ká |  | = yí | = tá | kō | = yeún | shípnú | = tè |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| school |  | -DIR2 | =TOP |  | =also | = EMPH | body/self | = BEN | ten | =A.AG |
| smpcı $^{\text {c }}$ |  |  | mi60 | mom | -2์: | ¿ | றั่ | ヱ๐ைீ | sous | $\stackrel{\sim}{2}$ |
| aūng | -ta | $=\mathrm{k}$ |  | = yi | = tá | kō | =ká |  |  |  |
| pass | L.SUFF | $\mathrm{F}=\mathrm{so}$ | as.to | =also | = EMPH | body/s | self =TOP |  |  |  |
| бъ¢¢ | - |  | mर | ט\ֻ: | ¿ | ัu | miso | ¢om |  |  |
| $\mathrm{a}=$ | ním | -ìng | -yeū | = | $=\mathrm{s}$ | èé |  |  |  |  |
| NEG= | stay | -DIR2 | -can | =N | EG =SA |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\stackrel{\square}{*}$ | os | a | \$o ${ }^{\text {co }}$ | ): | $6 \bigcirc$ |  |  |  |  |  |

'Though I went to school, I couldn't study (well enough) in order to pass the ten standard for myself.'
18. nímká nímìngtalé aaūngtìngálē

| ním | =ká | ním | -ìng | $=$ talé | $\mathrm{a}=$ | aūng | -ta | -ing | = ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $=$ lé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| stay | =TOP | stay | -DIR2 | =SAP | NEG= | pass | L.SUFF | -DIR2 | =NEG | =SAP |
| 69 | mıomım | 6\$ | ว | ¢u์60: | $\bigcirc$ | бэ๓र्ธ | - | à | 〇® | 60: |

19. ameū awàtàkká \{àntákká\} mítpánták ngaúpánkaú kōsātè céng paùtzíngkákpánták ngaúpánkaú peúǐyákmā àntákká


20．anyeùzáng pīnpántapanáq ayànnāzáng ngaútittà àntákká kōsātàk céng paútzánghàyák ngaúpánnaà peúíyákmā

＇In spite of poverty and hardship，they sent us to school so their children would be educated．＇

21．maléqká shípnútè aaūngtíngá seùé

| maléq | ＝ k á | shípnú | $=$ tè | $\mathrm{a}=$ | aūng | －ta | －ìng | ＝${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ＝seùé ． |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 PL | ＝TOP | ten | ＝A．AG | NEG＝ | pass | L．SUFF | －DIR2 | ＝NEG | ＝SAP |
| $\bigcirc_{\text {¢ }}$ | mi60nım | ouर | $\sum_{i}$ | ${ }^{*}$ | бъ兀¢ | － | る | n： | 60 |
| ＇We didn＇t pass |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

22．yaà nga zán hawà nga zányítá shípnú thōkákmā


23．hīngká pínùnaík phyeūtáklà aaūngtawà hīngyítá

| hīng | ＝ká pí | nù | ＝naík | phyeū | －ta | －à | ＝lá |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3SG | ＝TOP year | one | ＝only | answer | L．SUFF | －EUPH | ＝NOM |
| O11 | mıosion \＄¢ | $\infty$ ๑® |  |  | － | 62 | os |
| $\mathrm{a}=$ | aūng－ta | ＝á | hīng | ＝yí | ＝tá |  |  |
| NEG $=$ | pass L．SUFF | ＝NEG |  | ＝also | ＝EMPH |  |  |
| ${ }^{\circ}$ | бъวर्ट | $\bigcirc$ 〇． | O | － | ù |  |  |
| ｀She | took the exam | only | once， | （but） | she，als | ，did | $t$ pas |

24. yàkká hīngyítá maūpàpè atá mōknāngákkákmā ngaúpánnakaú atá mōknāngmā yàkká phúyaúk seùé

25. maléq atétóngtàk ameūsāsāyeū atá mōkàmā matákyítá pyúng ngón ōmpáqpè nāngmā

26. kalìngsatá sómsatázeútá ngāpán

27. léq amúyítá ngón thūàmā paúkmaípè

28. maleú achīyànghà hākūká tamikká chīcíhàmā ngaúlakaù

29. ngāká ngón aōmá maū ngāmāsà ngaúlá ngāká thōkzeú athōkzángsà

| ngā | =ká | ngón | $\mathrm{a}=$ | ōm |  | maū | ngā | = mā | -sà | ngaú | = lá |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | =TOP | gold | NEG= | make | = NEG | mining.area | exist | =RLS | -mere |  | = NOM |
| c | micosam | 62 | $\bigcirc$ | ญód |  | 605 | คํ | ouv | as | 2160 | os |
| ngā | =ká | thōk | =zeú | $\mathrm{a}=$ | thö | ōk = záng | g |  |  |  |  |
| 1SG | =TOP | arrive | =even | NEC= | arri | rive =EMPH | H =N | EG.IMP |  |  |  |
| c | micomam | ธ甲p | conc | (10) 0 |  | pro ù ư | \$ |  |  |  |  |

30. anyeù ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú yaà maléq azàktàk acaúngtèà léqlātamā zúqzítamā ngaúpánnaà aúpè ōmnímákmā ngaká


## 31. hīngyitá phúyaúk ōmnímáktalé kwā

| hīng | = y í | = tá | phú | = yaúk ōm | ním | -à | $=$ talé | $=\mathrm{kwa}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3SG | =also | $=E M P H$ | silver | =COM make | stay | -EUPH | =SAP | =manly |
| 0 | ヘబీ: | ù | 6\% | ई. | 69 | 62 | ¢uर60 |  |
| He | so g | us m | ney | (Lit. he | rks | with | ney) |  |

32．phú inlūyeùká aōmyeūná seùé maléq ayànpín sèktàkká


33．címpèká maléq ameūtàk maléq awàtàk nímcí lakòé

| cím | $=$ pè | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | maléq | ameū | －tàk maléq | awà | －tàk ním | －cí＝lakò | ＝é |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| house | $=\mathrm{LOC}$ | ＝TOP | 1 PL | mother | －PL 1PL | father | －PL stay | $-\mathrm{PL}=\mathrm{SAP}$ | ＝SAP |
| ふ๐¢ | ${ }_{1}$ | misonion | $\bigcirc_{\text {¢ }}^{0}$ | 3266 | $\bigcirc \bigcirc_{\text {¢\％}}^{\circ}$ | 3266 | ¢\％ 6 ¢ | （6） ¢冂ை | 638 ： |
| ＇Our | arent | live at | home． |  |  |  |  |  |  |

34．maléq atéshàká mōkpūthàmā hīngká kūmángyák mōkpū

| maléq até | shā | ＝ká | mōkpū | －thà | $=\mathrm{ma}$ hīng | ＝ká | k |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1PL older．sister | small | ＝TOP | tend．cow | －must | ＝RLS 3SG | ＝TOP | every．day |
|  | cusabos： | mi60sıos | sొ：mppc： |  | ¢र्ט | mi6omion |  |
| mōkpū |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| tend．cow |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| so．mmpc： |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＇Our older sis | er tends | the cows | ．＇＇She | tends | the cows | eryday．＇ |  |

35．ngayitá mōkpūkáq athàseù maūng

| ngā | ＝ $\mathrm{yí}$ | ＝tá | mōkpū | $=\mathrm{k}$ | $a=$ | thà | ＝${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ＝seú | maūng |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | ＝also | ＝EMPH | tend．cow | ＝TOP | NEG＝ | be | ＝NEG | ＝SAP | boy |
| c | טญ์： | ù | s．：6mpč： | $m$ | ${ }^{\circ}$ | 600 | n： | 60 | 6ぃsर |
| ＇It | $s$ not | possib | le for | to | end | e co |  |  |  |

36．mōkpūpánnàkà cāntapanáq alúk mōkpūpín sèk aōmhà seùé

| mōk | pū | pánnàkà | cān | －ta | $=$ panáq alúk mōkpū | $=$ panáq sèk |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| cook | emerge | if | remain | L．SUFF | ＝NOM work tend．cow | ＝NOM person |
| จर्m | －on | ๆ¢ | ఇŋई | － |  | oiom Purun |
| $\mathrm{a}=$ | ōm | －hà | ＝á | $=$ seùé |  |  |
| NEG＝ | make | －know．how | $=$ NEG | $=$ SAP |  |  |
|  | oúu | －oर | n： | 60 |  |  |
| ＇If I | tend | the cows， | the co | wherd（ | （my sister）can＇t do | the remaining |

37. anyeù ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú hāthàmā seú

38. ā míqtázúq tāwūn ngaúpanáq cíceū tóngmā azeūzángá héq

héq .
EXCL
sus
'Oh! Family responsibilities are extremely big. (It is) not easy.'
39. àngyaūngpáng tamì ngaúcípanáq céngshìyítá paútnákhàmanaík yàk khékkáq \{anyeùmásà múnggángkūmeúlá\} anyeù ngaúcímā seùé

| àng yaūngpán | ng tamì | ngaú | -cí = panáq céng | shì | $=\mathrm{yí}$ | = tá |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that because.o | f other.p | people say | -PL =NOM letter | four | =also | $=\mathrm{EMPH}$ |  |
|  | دıp: | 211600 | (e) ò̇om m | 60: | งబู: | ù |  |
| paút -à | -hà | $=$ másà | =naík yàk khék | = káq | an | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ | = másà |
| skill -EUPH | -know.how | w =only.if | =only now this.era | =TOP | DEM | =manner | =only.if |
| ペ¢ 6จ | ๑o์ | ${ }_{j}^{\circ}$ |  | $m$ | 3 | O̊o | $\stackrel{0}{1}$ |
| múnggángkū | meú | = lá an | $=y e u ̀ ~ n g a u ́ ~-c i ́ ~$ | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | $=\mathrm{s}$ | èé |  |
| fortunate | good | =NOM DEM | = manner say $\quad-\mathrm{PL}$ | =RLS | =SAP |  |  |
|  | cmsc: | as ${ }^{\circ}$ |  | ous | 60 |  |  |

40. céng paútnáktità maūng maléqpàpèká phúnāngzeù apòwákkà alúk zánù lūkū ngaúpanáq amyóyítá phú cíceù sòtthàmā



41．alùyeūná seùé

| a | lū | －yeūn | ＝${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $=$ seùé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| NEG＝ | get | －can | $=$ NEG | ＝SAP |
| $\checkmark$ | १ | \＄¢ | 〇ロ： | 60 |

42．kōká lakò alúktwē maneúqzáng nàttamā ngaútità tamì phú lūcípanáq phú nátcípanáqtè katùngmā seú


43．ōmàngkákmā seú taúktàngkákmā seú


44．hamàngkà myó náttamā zàkthák meúmā pinnpántamáqzáng ngaúkák ngaú kōká shishā ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú maléq ōmtún hātún yōktún ayweù ngaúpánkaú taúktàngkákmā

| hà | ＝màng | $=\mathrm{kà}$ | myó | nàt | －ta | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | zàk | $=$ thák | meú | ＝mā |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| WH ふư | $=$ thing <br> us | $=\mathrm{Q}$ <br> वलेखि： | CLT．kind उЄㅂ․ | tire <br> 663 | L．SUFF | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { RLS } \\ & \text { ov } \end{aligned}$ | afraid <br>  | ＝in．order．to <br> $\stackrel{\circ}{010} 0$ | good $6 m \mathrm{c}$ ： | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { RLS } \\ & \text { ovus } \end{aligned}$ |
| pīnpán | －ta | ＝ ma | ＝záng | ngaú | －kák | ngaú | kō | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | shīshā |  |
| tire | L．SUFF | ＝RLS | $=E M P H$ | say | －want | say | body／self | ＝TOP | child |  |
| טçu¢ీ． | － | ouv | ùro | ®1600 | থर्ट | か1600 | றous | misomion | m60： |  |


| ngaú | ＝pán | ＝ták ngaú | ＝pánkaú | maléq | ōm | ＝tún | hā | ＝tún |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| say | $=\mathrm{COS}$ | ＝HS say | ＝as．it．is．the．case | 1 PL | make $=$ | ＝still | walk | ＝still |
| か160 | U⿵门口： | ）¢ ¢ ¢ ¢ | ๆ¢์60＞ | $\bigcirc_{\text {¢ }}^{\circ}$ | Oर́u | 600：0us | O | 600：00u |
| yōk | ＝tún | ayweù ngaú | ＝pánkaú | taúk | －ta | －àng | －kák | $=\mathrm{mā}$ |
| eat | ＝still | age say | ＝as．it．is．the．case | do／h | L．SUFF | －DIR1 | －want | ＝RL |
| $\infty$ ๓： | 60：00u |  | ๆ¢์60＞ | ๑ูư์® | － |  | จ1์ | ou์ |
| ＇What kind of work would be tiresome or fearful？In any case，we are young and energetic（lit．still able to do／work，walk，and eat），therefore，$I$ want to do it！＇ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

45．tamì lācí nátcípanáq kámàkà katùngmā seùé

| tamì lā | －cí nát | －cí | $=$ panáq | kámàkà | katùng | ＝ ma | ＝seùé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| other．people take | －PL use | －PL | $=\mathrm{NOM}$ | sort．of．things | see | ＝RLS | ＝SAP |
| Ongp：M | （3）ヘ̣ınux | $\stackrel{\square}{6}$ | －òos | －00\} | $\underbrace{}_{6}{ }^{\text {c }}$ | ous | 60 |
| ＇We see other | eople ma |  | d spen | nding（mone | ey）and | so on |  |

46．tamìyeù yaà hátnàngkákmā seùé

| tamì | $=y$ eù yaà hát | －àng | －kák | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | $=$ seùé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| other．people | ＝SAP now make | －DIR1 | －want | ＝RLS | ＝SAP |
| Ongp： |  | Ọn | จर्ट | ous | 60 |
| ＇We want | do it like | her | ople | do．＇ |  |

47．lapāyítá ameúhà ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú anésóng maléqká ngā címsèkyaúk ngaúpánnàkà shípnúpán hawà ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú páknùpaí saūngpák ngāmásà yōkkómmā seùé

48. anyeù ngaúpánkaú kōká tāmàng àngpè yōktìngpè sōmàng ānkā sàtkā míyōkhángthàmā ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú címsèk tóngpánták ngaúpánkaú màngkazeú athàhà seùé

49. anyeù ngaúpánkaú kōká mánpàpè manīngyeù ōmyōkàngthàkū ngaúpanáqtè lakò nacá hīngkaú hīngkā pūngmān phúlūhàkūpanáqtè swángzáng aswángìngtìtà kōyeún yōkzāngyeún ūzāngyeún ngāpanáqtè kōká tāmthàmā seùé


|  |  | ＝panáq | $=$ tè | kō | ＝ká | tām | －thà | ＝ ma | ＝seùe |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| drink | barely exist | ＝NOM | ＝A．AG | body／self | ＝TOP | search | mu | RLS | SA |
| ous | ¢ ${ }_{\text {¢ }}$ | osion | $\sim_{1}$ | గֻט | mi60sion |  | ๆ | $\infty$ | 60 |
| ＇Having said that，one has to decide，＂How will we work and feed the family in the future？The business／thing that will run by itself．Though we can＇t become rich，（we）have to look for something／business which will provide enough food and drink．＂＇ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

50．anáqnīngyeù pīnpīnpánpán ōmyōkthàkū ngaúpánnàkà ínzeūyá seùé


51．maléqká shīshātún ngaúpánnakaú yàknīngyeù zútzútzázá kámàkà ōmàngkákmā seú


52．lapā ōmpánnaà shíthàkūpanáqtèá aphyítpè athōkkáká seú maléqyítá

| lapā ōm | ＝pán | $=$ naà shí | －thà | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | ＝panáq | $=$ tè | aphyít | $=$ pè |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| field make＝ | ＝COS | ＝only die | －must | ＝IRLS | ＝NOM | ＝A．AG | state | $=\mathrm{LOC}$ |
| ouर pư | 凩徎： | ${ }_{j}{ }^{0} 600$ |  | avo | osiom | ¢ | 30608 | ${ }_{1}$ |
| $\mathrm{a}=$ thōk | －kák | ＝á | ú mal | $=\mathrm{yí}$ | ＝tá | ． |  |  |
| NEG $=$ arrive | －want | ＝NEG $=$ | AP ${ }_{1 P L}$ | ＝also | ＝EMP |  |  |  |
| －فصр¢ | থर्ट | ふ๐ | ○ㅇํ | טอฺ： | ù |  |  |  |

53. anyeù ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú úngpáq hāàng teūyààng tāmààng kōyeún alúk ínpīnpántakūpanáq nacá yōklūkūpanáq nímlūkūpanáq pūngmān phúlūkūpanáq anáq myótè tāmthà ōmthàmā seùé

54. ameūawàtàkyí thaùngtapán aōmyeūnpán címmátzeútá \{címmáthaìngkà màngkazeú\} aōmyeūnpánseùé

55. anáqyítá maléq sángyeúsátàkká ōmthàlakaùé

| anáq | = y í | = tá | maléq | sángyeúsá | -tàk | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | ōm | -thà | = lakaú | é |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| this | =also | = EMPH | 1PL | poor.people | -PL | =TOP | make | -must | $=$ MIR | yes |
| 3 | งอฺ: | u | - $\bigcirc_{\text {¢, }}$ |  | -1. | mı | Qú | १ | ¢isomm: |  |
| This | (look | $g$ aft | er the | house) | th | poo | e | do, ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | well.' |  |

56. thaungtaútità thaungtapínalaík satóngsàzáng ngaútità pūthàmā.

| thaùng | -ta | $=$ tí | = tá | thaùng | -ta | $=$ panáq | alaík |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| old | L.SUFF | =also | =EMPH | old | L.SUFF | = NOM | accord | gly |
| $3{ }_{i}$ | - | ๆçõ̧: | ù | $3{ }^{\circ}$ | - | oiom | ૩ก్ర¢ก |  |
| satóng | -sà | = záng | ngaú | = tí | = tá | pū | -thà | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| grandchild | -DIM | = EMPH | say | =also | =EMPH | look.after | -must | =RLS |
| 6 60: | 60: | ט̀rou | Oil600 | ๆर์ળయֻ: | ù |  | ๆ | ous |

57. címpè mīháksàzáng ngaúti mítthàmā

| cím | $=$ pè mīhàk | -sà | = záng ngaú | = tí | mīt | -thà | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| house | = LOC bamboo.ties | -DIM | =EMPH say | =also | strips | -must | =RLS |
| ॐฺ¢ | (1) O)\%sి | 60: |  | ๆఁ์งన์: | cos | १ | ouर |

58. paúngká paúngtùsàzáng ngaútì wāthàmā.

| paúngká | paúngká paúngtù | -sà | = záng ngaú | $=$ tí | wā | -thà | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| basket | various.baskets | -DIM | =EMPH say | =also | knit | -must | =RLS |
| จर¢:600c¢ | 60xcioucusc. | 60: | ùres ợ | ๆ¢์งలู: |  | १ | ous |
| '(They) | also have to | it/w | ve baskets |  |  |  |  |

59. yàkká satēng pyíttapín achēng seùé sétkeùtān wánnā ōmthàmā thaungtaútità

60. ameū tháqsèkyítá satēng yáppín achēngká satēng yápthàtá.

61. àngnaíkmákhàká satēng pyíttaú ngāhángkūnaîk seùé

| àng | = naík | mákhà |  | =ká | satēng | pyít | -ta |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | = only | time |  | =TOP | thatch | thatching | L.SUFF |
| ૩ว่ง |  | ૩จิ\|\$ววว | 2) m | mi60sıos | دைֹcus |  | - |
| ngā | -háng | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}} \quad=$ | =naík | $\mathrm{l} \quad$ seùé |  |  |  |
| exist | -back | =IRLS $=$ | =only | =SAP |  |  |  |
| ว่ | U§ | טư |  | 600 60 |  |  |  |
| 'And | then, | (after th | that) | ) weave | the th | atch aga | n.' |

62. mángmú mángtà maléqpèká paútàngyaúk yàkyitá ók ōmnímmaták shípnú taká seùé

63. àngnáqtèà kalìngyàk hāthàmā seùé

| àng | $=$ panáq | $=$ tè | kalìng | yàk hā | -thà | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | $=$ seùé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | =NOM | =A.AG | two | now walk | -must | =RLS | =SAP |
| ૩ว่ง | oìm | ¢ৃ | \$ ${ }^{\circ}$ | 3 32 О | १ | ouर | 60 |
| ${ }^{\prime}$ (We | have | go t | here | two d |  |  |  |

64. samón caúngyeún zalaúk kámàkà tamāyūng kámàkà zākū seùé

| samón caúng | = yeún zalaùk | kámàkà | tamāyūng | kámàkà | zā | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | = seùé . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| monk school | =BEN resthouse | sort.of.things | community.hall | sort.of.things | build | =IRLS | $=$ SAP |
|  |  | จox\} | -ธู่ | -00\} | 6000 रु | טư | 60 |
| Ve) will | ld a restho | e, a com | nity hal | and so | for | e M | stery |

65. yàkká pòkhápàpè pyin túktaú ngaúlá pyīn pheú ngaúlá hāthàmā seùé

66. anímlūhà sángyeúsá ngaúpanáq amyóká kō címpèzáng alúk apòtità thīngpè alúk ngāmā

67. thīngpèzáng ínpòtìtà címká alúk ngaúpín amyó ínkùntahà

68. anyeù ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú màhameúzeútá anímlūhà seùé

69. meútnátóng ngā ngaúwàngnīngyeù shīshāyí shīshāalaík pāláyí pāláalaík anyeù ishíq isshíqalaík ngaúningyeù ōmcítháq hācítháq \{haìng seùé\}


| ōm | -cí | -thà hā | -cí | -thà | \{ = haìng | = seù |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| make | -PL | -must walk | -PL | -must | =exclusive | =SAP |
| ヘ̛ou | $\cdots$ | ๆ つை: | $\cdots$ | ๆ | จ\|x:ù | 60 |

70. hīng ōmhà ōm ngā ōmhà ōm ōmcítháqtalé

71. anyeù lakò alúkyaúk tahúyaúk lakò ínalaúktapanáq lakò swángteúpmàngmā ngaúpínmyó ínpòhà seùé

'Even though (I am) always working hard, (Lit. work never escaping from hands), there is no way to say that we become rich.'
72. zayàká lakò yōkzāngyeún ūzāngyeúnsàzeútá ínpòhà \{ayé pātamáq\}

'Some people don't even have enough food (to meet their basic/minimum needs).' \{That's important.\}
73. anyeù ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú maléqká halawà ngaúpánkaú \{móngkáng (maleú maleúsà) kū pánnáqà\} kō címsèktàktè maleú yōklū maleú nímlūhàyák nátzánglū ngāzánglūhàyák anyeù kōkáq tāmnaútthàkū seùé

74. halawà ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú yàkningyeù ameūawàtàktèká ayànpanáq anèyaúkká ashízàngkákyún seú

75. kōyítá maleú malàsà ōmnaútnàngkákmā seùé

| kō | $=\mathrm{yí}$ | = tá | maleú | malà | -sà | ōm | naút | -àng | -kák | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | $=$ seùé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| body/self | =also | $=E M P H$ | good | ATTW | -DIM | make | feed | -DIR1 | -want | =RLS | $=\mathrm{SAP}$ |
| mu์ | טల్ర: | ù | ¢moc: | -¢¢ઠ§ |  | Oर्ט | 6m. | Ôm | शर्ट | ous | 60 |
| want | - lo | after | them | well |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

76. anyeù ngā asìnnaúpè ngāpanáqtalé

| an | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ | ngā asìn | naú | = pè ngā | = panáq | = talé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DEM | = manner | 1SG mind | inside | =LOC exist | = NOM | =SAP |
| 8 | ¢ ¢ ¢ | d зъэう | -ò | ¢ ค่ | ธฺฺంం | ¢u์¢0: |

'That's what $I$ have in mind.'
77. thàyítá thàthàkūyeù kō sìnnaúpèyítá amyeútán kōlángtèkō yōngtamā seùé

| thà = yí | = tá | thà | -thà | $=\mathrm{ku}$ | $=y e u ̀ ~ k o ̄$ | sìn | naú | $=\mathrm{pè}$ | = yí | = tá |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| be =also | =EMPH | be | -must | =IRLS | =SAP body/self | mind | inside | = LOC | =also | =EMPH |
| Cox oxp: | i | Gó | १ | טư |  | ®๐¢ | ¢ò | ¢ | - | - |
| amyeútán kô | kōlángtèkō | yōng | -ta | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | $=$ seùé |  |  |  |  |  |
| always on | one.self | trust | L.SUFF | =RLS | =SAP |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | గిuీpoum | $\sim_{1}$ | - | ous | 60 |  |  |  |  |  |

78. ōmyitá ōmnímmā ngaká anyeù

| ōm | = yi | = tá | ōm | ním | =mā ngā | =ká | an | =yeù |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| make | =also | =EMPH | make | stay | =RLS 1SG | =TOP | DEM | =manner |
| @úu | ~న్ర: | - | ̣ | $6 \$$ | osu d | mı0xiom | ${ }^{9}$ | กัํา |

79. anáqnīngyeù pīnpīnpánpán ōmyōkkūpanáq pawáqpèká ngāká ínataúpzíngkáká ngāká

80. nga lakò zánù zánùsakā pyaúngtahángnaîk nga pawáq seùé

| ngā = lakò zá | nù zá | nù | sakā pyaúng | -ta | -háng | =naík ngā |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG =SAP CLF.kind | one CLF.kind | one | -DIM change | L.SUFF | -back | =only 1SG |
| c) miommo @jluwu |  | ¢® | 60: 60ucis | - | Uई |  |
| pawáq $=$ seùé |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| life =SAP |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| no 60 |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 'I will change $f$ apportunity). Oh | m one kind <br> my (poor) |  | to the other | (look | for | the best |

81. àngnáq achēngtè maîkmà thōkkalá ngaúpanáqyaúk yàk cózátaúnímtā ōmnímtā hānímtā anyeù

82. tamìsā hànīngzáng ngaúkákngaú héq ngayítá nga nōknākchīyaúk nga nōknākchī seùé

| tamisā hà | = nīng | = záng ngaú | -kák | ngaú | héq ngā | = yi í | = tá | ngā |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| human WH | $=$ manner | $=E M P H$ say | -want | say | EXCL 1SG | =also | = EMPH |  |
| O ふư | $\bigcirc$ |  | থर्ट | 2ฺ160్ర | 6us d | ט\}์: |  | cl |
| nōknākchī =yaúk ngā nōknākch |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| brain | =COM 1SG | brain $=S$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| อి:Gşm | \$. cl | रे.6spm 60 |  |  |  |  |  |  |

83. ín anyeù nga nōknākchīyaúk nátpánnáqà hàning ōmpán meúkū hàning ōmpán yōklūkū ngaúpanáq hamàngkà myó alúkká kōyeún meúmā ngaúpanáqtè kōyitá kōyaúk kōkā twétaúpánnaà ōmmā seùé


84. anyeù kōyítá lakò ōmhaútpanáq asìnyítá ngātháqlakà

85. anyeù ngapèká nga asìnnaúpèká ōmhaútpanáqká phéngkón ngānímmā seùé azáktúyaúk ngaúthàkū ngaúpánnàkà

86. ínyeù anyeù ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú ngā címsèktàktè ngā tāwūn kínmeúqtàngning ngākū zàkmā

87. tāwūn apònīng ngāngkū zàkmā ngāká

88. àngyaūngpáng nga címsèktàktèà ngāká nacá anyeù peúyeūnkón ōmkū seùé

89. nacá peúyeūnkón amútàkpā atétàkpā ameūtàk awàtàk nūklántàk ngānaîkngátè màhameúzeútá úngnáq apeúyá

| nacá | peú | -yeūn | = kón amú |  | pā | até |  | pā | ameū | -tàk |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| carefully | keep | -can | =so.as.to brother | -PL | include | older.sister | -PL | include | e mother | -PL |
| soopp | $\infty$ ) | ¢¢ |  | -1. | 01 | Зว6 |  | 0 | 3260 | ${ }_{\circ}^{\circ}$ |
| awà | -tàk n | ūklán | -tàk ngānaíkngá | $=$ tè | mà | =hameú | =zeú |  | = tá |  |
| father | -PL | ohew | -PL all | =A.AG | WH | = person | = even |  | = EMPH |  |
| 3266 | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ} \mathrm{O}_{0}$ |  |  | $\stackrel{\sim}{\circ}$ | mosur | 0 | 603 | ù | ù |  |
| úng | = paná | $\mathrm{a}=$ | peú = á |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| that = | =NOM | NEG= | keep =NEG |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| טค | ¢宀ıom | ${ }^{\circ}$ | $\infty$ ) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 'In or father labori | rder <br> r, and ious/ | =o real nephe difficl | ly help everyo w and others, lt life).' | ne, in (I am) | ncluding not $g$ | g my olde oing to k | brot eep (t | her, hem | mother in that |  |

90. kōyaúk lakò maleú ním maleú yōkmaūk nacázáng nímlūhàyákyeù pyíqpyíq zūngzūng nímlūhayákyeù amyeútán cózátaúnímkū ngaká

```
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline ním & lū & -hà & = yák & =yeù amyeútán & cózá & -ta & ním & \(=\mathrm{ku}\) \\
\hline stay & get & -know.how & =so.as.to & =SAP always & try.hard & L.SUFF & stay & =IRLS \\
\hline 6s & ๆ & -ó & б3ヵर &  & Com: & - & 69 & vư \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
ngā =ká
1SG =TOP
cl misomion
'I am working hard so that they - together with me - will have a good life, a
life lacking nothing.'
```

91. ngā címsèk acaúngtè ngaúthàkū ngaúpán anáqnaíktá maūngyē

92. ngayítá amyeútán yàk ngaúningyeù maíkmàzeú ashóqtawá

93. nga címsèktàk meúyōkkónká amyeútán ōmnímkūyeù ngaúpánnaà anáqpè taúpcàngmák seùé.


## Text18：＇Hunting a tiger＇

1．maeútóng ashéq katā títthúkyé khayí pūwàngmákhàtè pínkhánneū cwēúqtaūngcówaitaú atwéqacūng àngpè katùngpápmìngpanáq．


2．manīngyeùkà ngaúkaú pòkhá nāngcímā．

| mà | $=$ nīngyeù | $=\mathrm{kà}$ | ngaú | $=$ kaú pòkhá | nāng | －cí | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| WH | ＝manner | ＝Q | say | ＝TOP forest | go | －PL | ＝RLS |
| mosus | ソิ｜pư్1 | vicus： | が1600 | 605 60m | On： | $\stackrel{\square}{6}$ | ous |

3．pòkhá nāngcíká tamìsā kalìnghúsà phóténgaūngyaúk ngayaúk．


4．maneúq pòkhátóngtèlakà nanùtēká nùwà zípán nùwà kápshíyàngkūyeù

| mà | ＝neúq p | pòkhá | tóng | $=$ tè | $=$ lakà | à nanù | －tē | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | nù | －à |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| WH <br> mıoर्ט | ＝as．much．as 2ฐీ600 గీ | forest 605 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { big } \\ & \text { م⿵⺆一 } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} =A . A G \\ \mathrm{~m}_{1}^{\circ} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & =\mathrm{MIR} \\ & \text { omoi } \end{aligned}$ | animal <br> $00: 6 m c$ |  | $\begin{aligned} & =\mathrm{TOP} \\ & \text { misomıos } \end{aligned}$ | CLF．animal $6 m \mathrm{c}$ | －one ๑ீ์ |
| zí | ＝pán nù | －à | káp | shí | －àng | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}} \quad=$ | $=y \mathrm{yu}$ |  |  |  |
| finish | ＝if CLF．anima | al－one | shoot | die | －DIR1 | ＝IRLS＝ | $=$ SAP |  |  |  |
| 约： | ๆ¢์ $6 m$ ć | ๑¢ | ט® | 600 | บิ์ | טर्ט | O̊\％ |  |  |  |
| ＇It＇s | such a big f | forest， | ，we wo | ould s | shoot | animals | one af | $r$ anothe | ．＇ |  |

5．hawàtè thōmpòk pòkàzī lāpánnaà takhāteú hācàngmā \｛akhātóngtè\} shwēúqtaūngcówaínaútóngpè.


6．hācàngká yáktánwán hāàngkáq hamàngkazeú ínkatùngá．


7．lénāyī thúkmákhàtèká phóténgaūngtè atá yōkhaútpìng maūng ngaká atá mōkyōkcímák ngaúká àngpè weúpaìkpè atá mōkpán yōkcímā．

| lé | nāyī thōk | mákhà | $=$ tè | ＝ká | phóténgaūng | $=$ tè | atá |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| four | o＇clock arrive | time | ＝A．AG | $G \quad=T O P \quad P$ | PN | ＝A．AG | rice |  |  |
| 60： | จดิ ธฺ¢์ | ૩จิईวววใ | ¢ | misomiom it |  | ¢ |  |  |  |
| yōk | －haút＝píng | maūng | ngā＝ | ＝ká atá | mōk yōk | －cí | $=\mathrm{m}$ |  |  |
| eat | －want＝DIR2：C | S boy | 1SG $=$ | ＝TOP rice | cook eat | －PL | ＝ HO |  |  |
| $\infty$ ¢ | 习र्ट $\cos$ 缘 | $6 \omega \mathrm{c}$ | cl | misomion ©⿴囗⿱一兀口 | č จn์ ๗： | $\stackrel{\square}{6}$ | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ |  |  |
| ngaú | ＝ká | $\mathrm{g}=\mathrm{pè}$ | weú | paìk $=$ pè | atá mōk | ＝pán | yōk | －cí | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| say | ＝TOP th | at $=$ LOC | water | beside＝LOC | C rice cook | ＝COS | eat | －PL | ＝RLS |
| ＠icou | misomıon з | （ ${ }_{1}$ | 6ๆ | \＄60：${ }_{\text {¢ }}$ |  | 凯徎： |  |  | ous |

8. atá mōkpán yōkcíká yōkzípánnaà hàpè īpmàkaláyeù yàkká \{hàpè īpmàkalá\} īpkūpanáq nayā kámàkàtè tāmcímák ngaúcílakà maléqkáé.

9. anyeù ngaúpánkaú ngaúpánták ngaúpánkaú phóténgaūngká hā seúé kayāpè ipmàthàmā kayāpè heūpánnaà īphángcílakà kayāthékpè.

10. līpánnaà īphángcípìngták ngaúpánkaú àngningzáng ngaká kāpalákpè phónkalùntóng paūpánnaà takhāteú hamàngkà phónkalùntóng lamà aheúhà

| lī | = pán | $=$ naà $\overline{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{p}$ | -háng | -cí | = píng | =ták ngaú | $=$ pánkaú |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| come | = COS | =only sleep | -back | -PL | =DIR2:COS | =HS say = | =as.it.is.th | case |
| 0 | 约㐌: | ¢ ${ }_{\text {¢ }}$ | U§ | $\bigcirc$ | cose | Ò শolicun | ๆ¢์60 |  |
| à | = nīng | = záng ngā | =ká |  | kā palák | $=\mathrm{pè}$ phón | kalùn | tóng |
| that | $=$ manner | =EMPH exist | =TOP |  | soil flat | = LOC wood | tree | b |
| วิ3 | $\bigcirc$ | ùŗ | misom | mom | $\triangle$ ¢ UCO | (-) | ¢ ט | అิ: |


| paū | ＝pán | ＝naà tak | akhāteú hà | $=$ màng | $=$ kà | phón | kalùn | tóng | $=$ lamà |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| be．fall | ＝COS | ＝only at． | at．once WH | ＝thing |  | wood | tree | big | $=$ MIR |
| 认̀ | 浣浣: | $\bigcirc$ ¢ ¢® | ๑ธ์อloņ：ญu์ | us | virs： | $\infty$ ¢¢์ロ0¢ | טç | ก®： | m。 |
| $\mathrm{a}=$ | heú | －hà | ＝á |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| NEG $=$ | tell | －know．how | $w=$ NEG |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ${ }^{\circ}$ | sunU | ๑oर | nit |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＇As it is the case that（we）came up to sleep on the mountain，like that， （there was）a big tree fallen on the ground．I don＇t know what kind of tree it was．＇ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

11．phónkalùntóng ēlātóng chaúktè tányátzàkyeù paūpánnímmā．

| phón | kalùn | tóng èlā | tóng chaúk | $=$ tè | tányát | ＝zàk | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wood | tree | big giant | big cliff | ＝A．AG | be．cross．over | ＝while | $=$ manner |
| $\infty$ ¢¢์ı0¢ | טç | กิ：өฺ๐ |  | $\sum_{i}^{\circ}$ | ఎ§：ง§： |  |  |
| paū | ＝pán | ním＝mā |  |  |  |  |  |
| be．fall | $=\operatorname{COS}$ | stay $=$ RLS |  |  |  |  |  |
| Ọ |  | 6s ouv |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＇The b | $g$ tree | was falle | over acr | ss th | e big clif |  |  |

12．aū zaūkpàpèká maning thànímlá ngaú zaūkpàpèká takhāteú kātwē ōppán nímmā seúé．


13．zaūkpàpèká kātwē ōppán nímpánkaú é phóténgaūngká ā aīpsàlé àngpèlé

| zaūk＝pà | $=\mathrm{pè}$ | $=$ ká | kā | －tē ōp | ＝pán ním | ＝pánk |  | é |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| on．top＝ALL | $=$ LOC | ＝TOP | soil | －PL close＝ | $=C O S$ stay | ＝as．it．is | e．case |  |
|  | $\left.{ }_{1}\right)^{\circ}$ | misomion | $6 \bigcirc$ | 60\％บัo | 凩领：6s | ๆ¢์60＞ |  | 63\％ |
| phóténgaūng | ＝ká | ā $\mathrm{a}=$ | ip | ＝sà | $=1$ lé àng | $=\mathrm{pè}$ | $=1$ é |  |
| PN | ＝TOP | oh $\mathrm{NEG}=$ | sleep | －＝NEG．IMP | P＝SAP that | ＝LOC | ＝SAP |  |
| ¢ำ0¢¢ 630c | misomion | ふつ 0 | ॐर्ט | \＄． | 60：3ว่ง | （1） | 60： |  |
| ＇As it is the | e caseTh | erefore， | hote | eingaung s | said，＂Don＇ | ＇t slee | ther | ．＂＇ |

14. á aúpènaîk meúlá anáqpèká lómyí lómmā.

15. àngnīngzáng hīngká nāngká hàpè ipkalá

| àng = nīng | = záng hīng | =ká | nāng | =ká | hà | = pè īp | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | $=1 \mathrm{a}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that =manner | =EMPH 3SG | =TOP | 2SG | =TOP | WH | =LOC sleep | IRLS | = Q |
|  | Oİ̧ On | mi60sion | จर्टทp: | misossom | ぃu์ |  | טư | cion: |
| ike that, | e) said, | ere will | you | eep?"' |  |  |  |  |

16. ngaká aúpèzáng phónshā kámpánnaà phónshā wánpánnaà kámpánnaà ngaká aúpèzáng īpkūnaîk

17. ngaká phónshā wánpán kámpán īplakáé.

| ngā | =ká | phón | shā | wán | = pán kám | = pán īp | = lakà | =é |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1SG | =TOP | wood | small | chop | = COS lay | = COS sleep | =MIR | =SAP |
| cl | misossom | $\infty$ cos:00¢ | cưaccu: |  |  |  | osno: | 635\% |

18．anyeù ngaúpánkaú àngpè neūkā ayátká pòkweúsúttè ínwánlūwá．


19．pòkweúsútkalùnyítá lakò mingzákthák meúmā àngpanáq pòkhápè．

| pòkweúsút | kalùn | $=\mathrm{yi}$ | ＝tá | $=$ lakò | mīngzák | $=$ thák | meú | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tree | tree | ＝also | ＝EMPH | ＝SAP | loose．sense | ＝in．order．to | good | ＝RLS |
| صn¢์ | טc | vనీ： | u | ¢ீ๐ைைฺ |  |  | $6 m \mathrm{c}$ ： | ouर |

àng＝panáq pòkhá＝pè ．
that $=$ NOM forest $=$ LOC

＇Pukweusut trees are fearful in that forest．（Cutting it，one can lose their senses．）＇

20．kayāhúkà lúnglúng pòkweúsútkalùnhaìng thànímmā．

| kayā | húk | －à | lúnglúng | pòkweúsút | kalùn | ＝haìng thà | ním | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mountain | CLF．round |  | throughout | tree | tree | ＝exclusive be | stay | ＝RLS |
| cosc | บ̣： |  |  | అৈற์ | טc |  | 6s | ous |

21．anyeù ngaúpánkaú àngpanáqtè manīng tháqlá ngaúkaú īpcíká ngaká nūshēklakà hīngká tóngpánkaú kanàchíq nyónpeúmā seú hīngká é．

| an | ＝yeù ngaú | ＝pánkaú | àng | $=$ panáq | $=\mathrm{tè}$ | mà | ＝nī | ng thà | ＝lá |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DEM | ＝manner say | ＝as．it．is．the．case | that | $=$ NOM | ＝A．AG | WH | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | nner be | ＝Q |
| ${ }^{9}$ |  | ๆ¢60m： | зว่ง | oìos | ¢ | mouv | $\bigcirc$ | 600 | vicos： |
| ngaú | $=\mathrm{kaú}$ īp | －cí＝ká | ngā | ＝ká | nūshēk | ＝lakà | hīng | ＝ká |  |
| say | ＝TOP sleep | －PL＝TOP | 1SG | ＝TOP | small | ＝MIR | 3SG | ＝TOP |  |
| Oీ\|cర్ర | 605 ふर์ | （3）misomion | cl | misomion | cusu | osni： | 0 | m16 |  |
| tóng | ＝pánkaú | kanàchíq nyón | peú | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | ＝seú hīng | $\mathrm{g}=$ ká |  | é |  |
| big | ＝as．it．is．the．case | opium swallow | keep | p＝RLS | ＝SAP 3SG | ＝TOP |  | s |  |
| กิ： | ๆ¢์0m： | ふईई: 若 |  | ouर | 60 | misom | mıos |  |  |

＇As it is the case，what happened while we slept．I was young（at the time）．
As he was big／mature，he swallowed／ate opium．＇

22．kanàchíqyìtà nyónpán nímpánkaú hīngká méngtaúpán nímmā seú kanàchíq nyúnpán nímpánták ngaúpánkaú．


23．anyeù ngaú ngaká kanàchíqyítá anyónákhà

| an | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ | ngaú ngā | ＝ká | kanàchíq | $=\mathrm{yí}$ | ＝tá |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DEM | ＝manner | say 1SG | ＝TOP | opium | ＝also | ＝EMPH |
| ${ }_{3}$ | O̊\％ | がに们 Cl | misossion | つ〇ई： | טృฺ： | ù |
| $\mathrm{a}=$ | nyón | －à | －hà | ＝á |  |  |
| NEG＝ | swallow | －EUPH | －know．how | ＝NEG |  |  |
| $\theta$ | 长 | ®จ | mós | 刃\％ |  |  |

24．yáktánwán hānàttapánták ngaúpánkaú ngaká shīshā ngaúpánkaú īppán seúé．

25. īpmàngká àngnīngzáng nākceū kónāyī ínthōkcitiè pánnù mīnhángìnglakà \{kónāyī athōkcītè\}.

| īp | -àng | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | àng | = nīng | = záng manākceū kó nāyī |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sleep | -DIR1 | =TOP | that | =manner | =EMPH last.night nine o'clock <br>  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ふ๐์ | บิก | misonsom | $3)^{3}$ | $\bigcirc$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ín= | thōk | $=\mathrm{ci}$ | $=$ tè | pán | nù mīn | -háng | -ìng | $=$ lakà $\{$ | kó | nāyī |
| NEG= | arrive | =before | =A.AG | CLF.times | one awake | -back | -DIR2 | $2=$ MIR | nine | o'clock |
| $\stackrel{\square}{6}$ | Фฺ¢์ | ac | $\mathrm{m}_{1}$ | Cób | ¢¢์ ¢ ¢ | U¢ई | ə | mon: | ¢๐. | \$ๆิ |
| $\mathrm{a}=$ | thōk | $=\mathrm{ci}$ | $=$ tè |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| NEG= | arrive | = before | =A.AG |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ${ }^{\circ}$ | فャp | ə ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | ¢ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 'Aft | sleep | ping awhi | le, t | at mann | r, I woke | up one | time | be before | $\bigcirc^{\prime}$ | ck.' |

26. kónāyī ínthúkcītè pánnù mīnhángìngká ā aneúq pòkhátóngká ngayí zàkmā

| kó nāyī ín = thōk | = cī | $=$ tè | pán | nù mīn | -háng | -ìng | $=$ ká |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nine o'clock NEG= arrive | =before | $=A . A G$ | CLF.times | one awake | -back | -DIR2 | =TOP |
|  | ə ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | ¢ | ¢ֻ́d | ๑¢ ¢ ¢ | U§ | ล | misomion |
| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ an $=$ neúq pòkhá | tóng | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | ngā | = yí $\quad$ zàk | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |  |  |
| oh DEM =as.much.as forest | big | =TOP | 1SG | =also afraid | =RLS |  |  |
|  |  | misomic | cl |  | ous |  |  |
| 'When I woke up before | -'clock | ck, I w | a afraid | id, as it | s such | a | or |

27. ngā thōmpòktè ómpán ngāpán yū $\bar{a}$ hamàngkazeú ínpòwá seú ínpòwánaúyeù.

28. àngnīngyeùzáng naúkpaitè̀ká kónāyī khweútèká ngaká īppátpōthángpán.

| àng | $=$ nīngyeù | = záng naúkpaí | $=$ tè | =ká | kó | nāyī |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | =manner | =EMPH later.part | =A.AG | =TOP | nine | o'clock |  |  |
| зว3ิ | ¢100 |  | ¢ | miso3 | os mi | \$จิ |  |  |
| khweú | $=$ tè | =ká ngā | =ká | īp | pát | pōt | -háng | = pán |
| split | =A.AG | =TOP 1SG | =TOP | sleep | asleep | exceed | -back | $=\cos$ |
| จ | ¢ | misomion Cl | mi60nion | ๙र्ט | Gup | O§V¢ | U§ | CiU3: |
| `Like | that, l | ter at 9:30 I | was asle | ep ag | ain.' |  |  |  |

29. īppátpōthángpánták ngaúpánkaú kasàká sàtpíng kayāpàhaík shalát shalát shalátyeù ngāká ìppátpōtnímtún.

30. anyeù ngaúpánkaú phóténgaūng ngaúkà hīngká àngmàkà wāntōpmàngmā.

31. wāntōpmàngká wān ngaúkà tōpmàngningyeù ínnúkànghà

| wān fire | tōp <br> stab/beam | $\begin{aligned} & \text {-àng }= \\ & \text {-DIR1 }= \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{ll} =\text { ká } & \text { wān } \\ =T O P & \text { fire } \end{array}$ | ngaúkà <br> as.for | tōp <br> stab/beam | -àng | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { nīngyeù } \\ & =\text { manner } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ${ }_{\text {¢ }}$ \% | ¢ ¢ $^{\text {\% }}$ | Ơ¢ | misomion ${ }^{\text {bi: }}$ | ஹீ¢¢¢ | ¢ ¢ | กิ์ | ¢100 |
| ín= | núk | -àng | -hà | = á |  |  |  |
| NEG= | flame | -DIR1 | 1 -know.how | = NEG |  |  |  |
| ${ }^{*}$ | -\%:0్jv\|b:60mn | บิ¢ | कर्ण | হ\% |  |  |  |
| 'When to.' | (he) turne | d on t | the torch, th | he torc | h did no | work | as it was |

32. wān ngaúkà tātmí ngaúkà ínnúkànghàpánták ngaúpánkaú anyeù thók thókyeù ōmànglakà hingká tātmitè

33. àngmàkà shalátyeù wānyí núkìng kasàyí wúng kasàyítá takhāteú wúng waíngmā.

| àng mà | =ká shalát | =yeù wān = yí | núk | -ìng kasà | $=\mathrm{yí}$ | wúng |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that time | =TOP ONMT | =SAP fire =also | flame | -DIR2 tiger | =also | ONMT |
| ૩ว่ง ૩จํ | misomıon و๐o์ |  | ต:0్1\||6ibome | a mp: | งలై | O§: |
| kasà = yí | = tá takhāteú | wúng waíng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |  |  |  |
| tiger =also | =EMPH at.once | ONMT jump.DIR2 | =RLS |  |  |  |
| mp: vर̧: | ì ه®์วloņ: | O§: O¢ $^{\text {¢ }}$ | ous |  |  |  |
| Then "Sha lso, jump | lat". When the t ed out. | orch suddenly | ashed out, | $l 1$ at | the | er |

34. kasà wápínták ngaú àngpè kasà \{ngāpanáq nēyāpè\} hàpè nímìnglá ngaúkà ngā īpnímpanáq phónzaūkpè hīngká ahà tāngpánnaà phóténgaūngtè anyeù yūnímmā.

35. anyeù ngaú phóténgaūngyítá maning ngānglá ngaú àngnáqtè ahákànghàták seúé hē hē hē hē anyeù ngānímàngmaták.

36. zàkpánnaà ngānímàngmā hinggká kasà kasà kasà ahákànghà hīngyí.

37. anyeù ngaú ngāyítá īppátpōtnímtún hē hē hē ngāpanáqtè ngāyítá amíngsàhà amíngsàhà īppátpōtnímtún.

38. thōmpòk chátnù kápmàngká eú àngmákhàtè ngaúkaú kasà ngaúkaú néné hāhalákpàngták ngaúpánkaú panáq kasángyópè hāhalákpángták ngaúpánkaú \{halíngtàm phaúkàngká\} halíngtàm phaúkpánnaà takhāteú hīngtè anyeù yūnímhánglakà.

39. yūnímpán pánnù káphángmásà ngāká mīnlakà saūngpánmásà mīnnā saūngpánmásà.

40. saūngpánmásà mīnpánták ngaúpánkaú àngmákhàtèká àngpanáq phónkalùntóng hamúktóngheúq kaúpūpánnaà hamàngkà héq

41. anyeùká ngaúpanáqkà tákshītè héq anyeù ōmpán kālakà.

42. anyeù panáq ngaúpanáqká hīngká ceú mōk tameū anyeùpanáqká kasà kasà kasà hákteúpmìnglakà hingká.


43．àngmákhàtèká ngayítá pāpūzaūng phūnpeúpanáqtè takhāteú pāpūzaūngpā àngpanáq wānpōttóng zūpeúmā wásà waínglá．


44．àng wānpōt halúng halúngtóng zūnímpanáqtè lakò àngpanáq sàtnìngmā kasà．


45．anyeù ngaúpánkaú àngpanáqtè pāpūzaūngtóng phūnpánnaà ngayítá takhāteú wáteúppán hīngpàpè tátmíká hīng ómpeúpánták ngaúpánkaú．

| an | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ | ngaú |  | ánkaú | àng | ＝panáq | ＝tè pā | pāpūzaūng | tóng |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DEM | ＝manner | say |  | ．it．is．the．c | ase that | ＝NOM | ＝A．AG bla | blanket | big |  |
| ${ }^{\circ}$ | Ơơo | が1600 |  |  | зวั | oòlom |  | －1＞60x | Cos： |  |
| phūn | ＝pán | ＝naà | ngā | $=\mathrm{yí}$ | ＝tá | takhāteú | wá | teúp | ＝pán |  |
| wrap | ＝COS | ＝only | 1SG | ＝also | $=E M P H$ | at．once | jump．down | n throw | $=\cos$ |  |
| Q | 豹㐌： |  | c | טֵ̧： | ù | ๑ธ์วloņ์ | ） 〇§จ $^{\text {a }}$ | ט® | 豹综： |  |
| hīng | $=$ pà | $=$ pè | tātmí | ＝ká |  | óm | peú＝pán | án＝ták | ngaú | ＝pánkaú ． |
| 3SG | ＝ALL | ＝LOC | torch | ＝TOP | 3SG | hold | keep＝COS | S $=$ HS | ， | ＝as．it．is．the．case |
| $\sim_{n}$ | Pion | ${ }_{1}$ | －10¢ ${ }^{\text {cos．}}$ | mı0 | ハom | றீ¢ |  | ò | 1600 | ๆ¢60m： |
| ＇Sinc | e he had | d a to | orch， | I，wi | h a bla | anket on | n，jumped | d at onc | to | s side．＇ |

46. tátmíká hīng ómpeúpánták ngaúkaú manīng ngaúlá ngaúkaú ā nāngtèká kasà azèkàngzeú kānmeú yákmákká maūng.

47. manīngngatéq kasà azèkàngzeú kānmeúkà maūng ā maning nāng làngzaūkpè kasà pínímningyyeù nāngká phónhamúkpè kasàká zaūkpè ngānímpán.

48. anyeù ngaúpánnàkà hàpà nāngpeúlá àngpà nāngpeúpán.


49．àngpà nāngpeúpán ngaúmákhàtèká hákìnglakáé．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { hák -ìng = lakà =é . } \\
& \text { shout -DIR2 }=\text { MIR }=\text { SAP }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { '"(It) has gone to that side, that time., then?"' }
\end{aligned}
$$

50．maléq nāngpánnaà phón tāmpán hing kápmàngpanáqpè yūwà àngmákhàtèká naúkhátē ngaúkà phátphúng phátyà ngāsōmpán lakò．

| maléq | nāng | ＝pán | ＝naà | phón | tām | ＝pán | n hīng | káp | －àng | ＝panáq | $=\mathrm{pè}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1PL | go | ＝COS | ＝only | wood | search | $=\cos$ | 3SG | shoot | －DIR1 | ＝NOM | ＝LOC |
| ${ }_{\circ}^{\circ}$ | 20： | 凩家： | $\stackrel{\square}{1}$ | $\infty$ C¢：00¢ | 9 968 | 豹佺： | 0 | ט® | บิ¢ | oòlom | ${ }_{1}$ |
| yū | －à | àng | mákhà | $=$ tè | ＝ká |  | naúkhá | －tē | ngaúk | phátph | phát |
| look | －EUPH | that | time | ＝A．AG | ＝TOP |  | blood |  | as．for | disorderly | catterin |
| nou | ¢จ | з̀3 | ૩จำईววา | \％ | mi60 | 10n 6 |  | 603 | শฺ¢¢¢ | U§\％o̊） |  |
| ngā | sōm |  | n＝lakò |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| exist | used．up | ＝CO | S $=$ SAP |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ¢ | n§ |  | ¢：miom |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ‘After gathering firewood， tiger was shot，（there）w |  |  |  | od，when was blo | en we ood sp | went <br> latte | $\text { and } 1$ ered | looked <br> all | （at ver t | he spot） e place | where |

51．naúkhátē phátphúng phátyà ngaúká àngningzáng ín phóténgaūng maūng kasà ngaúkà ínazeùyá．


52．kasàkanà lūthàpán kasà maleú ínchīpán kaí anyeù ngāmā kátcíkalá．


```
ngā =mā kát -cí =kū =lá .
exist \(=\) RLS run \(-P L\) IRLS \(=Q\)
```



```
"The tiger is wounded, it is not normal any more, so let's getaway/run."
```

53. phónkalùn heūpánnaà phónkalùnzaūkpè kasé tūngkwán hítpánnaà lakò kasé tíntān tíntānyeù phónkalùnzaūkpè īpkalá.

54. á ngāká maūng phónkalùn aheūhà.

55. anyeù ngaúpánnàkà káttìngnaîk lakaúé kátcíthāmā

| an | $=\mathrm{yeu}$ | ngaú | pánnàkà | kát | = tìng | = naík | = lakaú | = é kát | -cí | = thāmā |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DEM | = manner | say | if | run | $=\mathrm{NOM}$ | =only | $=$ MIR | =SAP run | -PL | = HORT |
| ${ }^{\circ}$ | O1\% | শ1160్ర | ๆc | 60: | ¢0¢ |  | ¢ั:ommi: | 63\%: 6U0: | $\cdots$ | ๑¢3ว¢์ |

56. anyeù ngaúnímcímā zátcá anyeù ngaúnímcímā apaítè manīngtháqlá ngaúkaú àngmákhàtèká kasà ngaúkà shalát halíngpàhaík wáhángpìng.

| an | $=\mathrm{yeù}$ | ngaú |  | ním | -cí | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | zátcá |  | an | $=y e u ̀$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DEM | = manner | say |  | stay | -PL | =RLS | between.e | dge | DEM | =man |  |  |  |
| ${ }^{9}$ | Oำ\% | ¢160 | 69 | 69 | $\stackrel{\square}{6}$ | ouर | ๑u์ |  | 3 | O1 |  |  |  |
| ngaú | ním | -cí | mā | a apa |  | = tè | mà |  | īng | thà | $=1$ á | ngaú | = kaú |
| say | stay | -PL | =RLS | S po |  | =A.AG | WH |  | anner | be | = Q | say | =TOP |
| 〇11600 | 6s | $\stackrel{\square}{6}$ |  |  |  | $\stackrel{\sim}{1}$ | mıu์ | $\bigcirc$ |  | 60 | viros: | か116000 | 605. |



57．wáheúqká＂ā nāng tátmísà $1 y o ́ k l e ́ ~ m a u ̄ n g y e u ̀ ~ n a ̄ n g ~ t a ́ t m i ́ y a u ́ k s a ̀ ~ t o ̄ p p a ́ n ~ y u ̄ w a ̀ n g k a ́ k m a ̄ ~ l e ́ ~ m a u ̄ n g " ~$ ngaúmā．

| wá | －heúq | ＝ká | ā | nāng | tātmí | －sà | İ | ＝yók |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| jump．down | －back：DIR2 | ＝TOP | oh | 2SG | torch | －DIM | give | ＝intru | ve | AP |  |
| จ§จ | U§る | misos | ふ ふ | จर्çp： | －10¢\％\％． | 60： | 6U： | 3i¢ |  | ט： |  |
| maūng＝ | ＝yeù nān | tātmí | $=\mathrm{yaúk}$ | －sà |  |  | ＝pán |  | －àng | －kák | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| boy＝ | ＝manner 2SG | torch | $=\mathrm{COM}$ |  | stab／b | eam | ＝COS | look | －DIR1 | －want | ＝RLS |
| 6ぃर c | OTỢ | －10¢\％\％ |  | 60： |  |  |  | nus |  | จर्ट | ouर |
| ＝lé maūn | īng ngaú | mā ． |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＝SAP boy | say | LS |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 60：66x |  | טर |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

＇When he jumped down，（I）said，＂Well，give me your torch．（I）want to have a look with your torch．＂＇

58．＂á nāng kasàzeú achīyá aheúhàlé＂


59．＂ànghalíngpàlé nāngpánlétá kasàkálé＂anyeù ngaúmā．

| àng halíng＝pà | ＝lé nāng | ＝pán | $=1$ le | ＝tá | kasà | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | ＝lé |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that behind＝ALL | $=$ SAP go | ＝ $\cos$ | ＝SAP | ＝EMPH | tiger | ＝TOP | ＝SAP |
|  | 60： 0 So | 凩第： | 60\％ | u | np： | mi60sion | 60： |
| an＝yeù ngaú | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| DEM＝manner say | ＝RLS |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | ouv |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ＇（He）said，＂The t | tiger（went | $)$ beh | nd．＂ |  |  |  |  |

60. àngningzáng "achīyá tátmizáng īphángìngyók" ngaúpánnaà hīngpè tátmí sanàmpánnaà halíngpà anyeù tōpmànglakáé.

61. halíngpà tōppánták ngaúpánkaú àngmátè kasà ngaúkà páktékhaléttóng nímpánnaà lakò láng lakò páktékhaléttóng nímpánnaà mūngkū weú halángmūnpánnaà laíngtháqtaúningyeù heūhān heūhān phyārārátrát phyārārátrát phyārārátrát kasà mūngkū kasà mūngkū páktékhaléttóng.


62．ngāyítá hákteúppán àngmàkà＂hē hē hē aúpè kasàtónglē aúpèlē kasàtónglē＂anyeù ngānímpàng seùé．

| ngā | $=\mathrm{yí}$ | ＝tá hák | hák teúp | ＝pán | àng | mà | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | hē | hē | hē |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| exist | ＝also | ＝EMPH sh | hout throw | ＝COS | that | time | ＝TOP | ONMT | ONMT | ONMT |
| ค่ | ט\}์: | ù 63 | उर्ธ ט® | C⿵冂人） | $3 \grave{3}_{3}$ | उจิโ | misomion |  | 605 | 603 |
| aú | ＝pè | kasà tóng | $=$ lé aú | $=\mathrm{pè}$ | $=1$ lé | kasà | tóng＝lé |  | $=y e$ ù |  |
| here | ＝LOC | tiger big | ＝SAP here | $=\mathrm{LOC}$ | ＝SAP | tiger | big＝SAP | DEM | ＝ ma | ner |
| ${ }_{3}$ | （0） | mp：「®or | 60 \％${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ${ }_{1}$ |  | mp： | กn：60： | 3 | $\bigcirc$ |  |
| ngā | ním | ＝páng | $=$ seùé ． |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| exist | stay | $=$ DIR1：COS | ＝SAP |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| คิ | 69 | Ơm¢ | 60 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

63．＂hàpèkà hàpèkà＂hīngyítá lakò kápchaūtaúwaìngpán


64．àngmàkà＂phyét＂phaúkhángpán＂shalát＂anyeù eútnàngmā pánnù tōphángpán katùnghángpán．

| àng mà | ＝ká | phyét phaúk | －háng | ＝pán | shalát an | ＝yeù | eút | －àng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that time | ＝TOP | ONMT jump．up | －back | ＝COS | ONMT DEM | ＝manner | drop | －DIR1 | ＝RLS |
| ૩วิ่ ૩จิ｜\＄ | misomion | Gu a§ | Ú§ | 行佺： | 乌voc ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | Ợ | ग | Ơ¢ | ouv |
| pán | nù tōp | －háng＝pán | katùng | －háng | ＝pán |  |  |  |  |
| CLF．times | one beam | －back＝COS | see | －back | ＝COS |  |  |  |  |
| mid |  |  | $\underbrace{}_{6}$ | U§ | 领约： |  |  |  |  |

＇Then，＂Phyet，phauk＂，（sounds of a tiger jumping．）like that，the tiger came down．（We）lit（the torch）again and saw（the tiger）again．＇

65．àngnīngzáng kápchaūtahángpáng ahāhánghàpán kasàtè kápkà maléqká

| àng | ＝nīng | ＝záng | $g$ káp c | chaū | －ta | －háng | ＝pá |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | $=$ manner | ＝EMP | H shoot m | miss | L．SUFF | －back | $=$ DIR1 | cos |  |  |
| зวิิ | $\bigcirc$ | ùres | ט®์ | فจp | － | U§ | บิ่ก |  |  |  |
| $\mathrm{a}=$ | hā | －háng | －hà |  | án kasà | $=$ tè | káp | ＝ká | maléq | $=$ ká |
| NEG＝ | be．hit | －back | －know．how |  | OS tiger | ＝A．AG | shoot | ＝TOP | 1PL | ＝TOP |
| ${ }^{\bullet}$ | － O，$_{\text {¢ }}$ | U§ | ๑oई |  | －mp： | $\stackrel{\bigcirc}{\circ}$ | ט® | misomion | $\bigcirc_{\text {¢ }}^{\circ}$ | misomiom |
| ＇Simi the t | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ilarly, } \\ & \text { Eiger.' } \end{aligned}$ | （we）m | issed the | he sh | agai | （We） | sho | and were | not | e to hit |

66. tamìà kalìnghú kasàtè kápkà ahāhánghàpàng.

67. tataitaí kápmàngpanáq ngaúkà hīng káp ngā káp ā anyeùká ínchīpánlē maūng kátcímák lé.

| tataítaí káp | -àng | = panáq ngaúkà | hīng | káp | ngā káp | à | an | = yeù | =ká |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ONMT shoot | -DIR1 | =NOM as.for | 3SG | shoot 1 | 1SG shoo | t oh | DEM | =manner | =TOP |
|  | ஸั¢ |  |  |  | C) ט® |  |  | ¢ำ\% | micosiom |
| ín $=$ chī | = pán | $=$ lé maūng kát | -cí | $=\mathrm{m}$ | mák $=$ lé |  |  |  |  |
| NEG= true | = $\cos$ | =SAP boy run | -PL | = HO | ORT $=$ SAP |  |  |  |  |
| upos | 8) |  | ® | ¢ | 60: |  |  |  |  |

68. anyeùká inchīpán \{úngpanáqyìtà\} talùshīyitá sōmkapánlē yeù.

69. nāng káp nga káp sōmkapán ínpòpán kátcímákyeù \{kátcímák\} anyeùká innchīpán maūng.

| nāng káp | ngā káp sōm | $=\mathrm{ka}$ | pán ín= | pò | = pán kát | -cí | $=$ mák | =yeù $\{$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2SG shoot | 1SG shoot used.up | =IRLS | = COS NEG= | exist | =cos run | -PL | =HORT | =SAP |
| ขर्¢p: ט® | c) ט® ఇई | هu |  | คํ |  | E | \% | ¢1\% |
| -cí | $=$ mák $\}$ an | $=y$ eù | =ká | in $=$ | chī = pán | maūng |  |  |
| -PL | =HORT DEM | =manner | =TOP | NEG= | true =if | boy |  |  |
| \&U: 厄 | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ | ¢ ¢ ¢ | micosoum | $\checkmark$ | uฺo์ ๆ¢ | cose |  |  |

"The way we are shooting, (we are) going to run out of (bullets). Let's run. It is bad, my friend"
70. àngpè nāng kátphángkalá ngā kátphángkalá anyeùlakáé.

| àng | = pè nāng | kát | -pháng | $=\mathrm{ku}$ | = ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ngā kát | -pháng | $=\mathrm{ku}$ | = ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | = LOC 2 SG | run | -prior | IRLS | = Q | 1SG run | -prior | IRLS | = Q |
| зว่ง | ¢ ¢ $^{\text {coiqp }}$ |  | s¢ | هu | cion | c) 6 U: | \$¢ | *u์ | cıัญ: |
| an | =yeù | $=$ lakà | = é |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| DEM | =manner | =MIR | =SAP |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ${ }^{\circ}$ |  | mmi | ¢3\% |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| $\cdots$ | you want | to run | n firs | or s | ould |  |  |  |  |

71. ā nāng kátphángkū ngaúpánnàkà ngā wāntōpīkū.

72. àngpín tátmí ngayeún î̀ng.

| àng | $=$ panáq | tātmí ngā | = y eún $^{\text {l }}$ |  | -ìng |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | = NOM | torch 1SG | =BEN | give | -DIR2 |
| зว่ง | ¢ฺે<< |  | зอ¢ई | 60: | ̀ |

73. àngpanáq tátmítè sanàmcílakà maūng hingyí lākák ngāyí lākák kasà ngaúpánkaú seùé.

| àng | $=$ panáq tātmí | $=$ tè $\quad$ sanàn | -cí | = lakà | maūng | hīng | = yí | lā |  | ngā | = yí |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | =NOM torch | =A.AG snatch | -PL | =MIR | boy | 356 | =also | take | -want |  | =also |
| зฺง | òฺom ๑loç: | $\bigcirc$ | C | <mmi. | 6 cos | O |  | ${ }_{u}$ | शर्ट | c | -2x: |
| lā | -kák kasà ngaú | = pánkaú |  | $=$ seùé |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| take | -want tiger say | =as.it.is.the. |  | =SAP |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | ๆ¢์¢0> |  | 60 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | it was with th wanted the to | e case with rch.' |  | iger, | We we | ce | bing |  |  | rch |  |

74. kasà ngaúpánkaú hingyí lākák ngāyí lākák tátmítè sanàmcỉkà nāngyitá.


75．anyeù ngaúpánkaú kaí nāng akátzákpán ngā kátnàngkū aúpè phónkalùntè wāntōppeú lakò．

| an | $=y e u ̀ ~ n g a u ́ ~$ | ＝pánkaú | kaí nāng $\mathrm{a}=$ | kát | zàk | ＝pá | ngā |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DEM | ＝manner say | ＝as．it．is．the．case | well！2SG NEG＝ | run | afraid | ＝COS | 1SG |  |
| ${ }_{3}$ |  | ๆ¢600 |  | 6 ¢ ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | ¢అை¢ | 创豹： | cl |  |
| kát | －àng $=k \mathrm{u}$ aú | $=\mathrm{pè}$ phón | kalùn＝tè | wān | tōp | peú | $=$ lakò |  |
| run | －DIR1＝IRLS here | ＝LOC wood | tree＝A．AG |  | stab／beam | keep | ＝SAP |  |
| 6 60： | บิ์¢ טu ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | （1）¢ ¢ | ט¢ $\mathrm{C}_{1}$ | $\stackrel{\circ}{6}$－$^{\text {a }}$ |  | $\infty$ ） | றீommi |  |
| `As the | it is the case， torch onto this | ＂Well，if y tree．＂ | you don＇t dare | to | let | ru | first. | Shine |

76．wāntōpphángàngthàmā keú àngpàpè thōmpòk lakò chátnù saūngchát kalàng kápphángàngthàmā àngpàpè phaúng phaúng anyeù．


77．kápzímásà àngmásà kátthàlakáé．

| káp | zí | $=$ másà àng | ＝másà kát | －thà | ＝lakà | ＝é |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| shoot | finish | $=$ only．if that | ＝only．if run | －must | ＝MIR | ＝SAP |
| ט¢ | 纪： |  | $\bigcirc$ Q 6U0： | १ | ¢mº： | 632\％ |

78．kátpánnaà úngpè phónkalùnpè aúpàpè ngaká hīng wāntōppáng līpáqpè takhāteú hīngpàpè mánpà peúheúqthàlakà ngā thōmpòktèká．

| kát | ＝pán | ＝naà úng | $=\mathrm{pè} \mathrm{p}$ | phón | kalùn | ＝pè aú | ＝pà | ＝pè ngā | ＝ká |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| run | ＝COS | ＝only that | ＝LOC | wood | tree | ＝LOC here | ＝ALL | ＝LOC 1SG | ＝TOP |
| 6 6： | Ciluis | ¢ 0 pi | （1） |  | טर्ट | （1） 3 | Opoms | （b）d | misomion |
| hīng | wān | tōp | ＝páng | lī | $=$ pà | ＝pè takhāteú | hīng | ＝pà | $=\mathrm{pè}$ |
| 3SG | fire | stab／beam | $=$ DIR1：COS | come | ＝ALL | ＝LOC at．once | 3SG | ＝ALL | $=$ LOC |
| ${ }_{0}^{0}$ | ¢， | ¢ $\bigcirc_{\text {¢ }}$ | Ơn¢์ | ט | Oicons | ¢ |  | Pٌom | （b） |


| mán | $=$ pà peú | -heúq | -thà | $=$ lakà ngā thōmpòk | $=$ tè | = k a |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| in.front.of | =ALL keep | -back:DIR2 | -must | $=$ MIR 1SG gun | =A.AG | =TOP |
| 69. |  | UŞ | ๆ | ommi: cl 60upor | ¢ | misomion |

'Having run to that tree, (I) had to turn back to where he was shining the torch. I had to point my gun off to his side.'
79. àngnīngzáng hīng thōkpíng ngaúpánnàkà ngā kátphángàng úngpàpè phónkalùntè tōpīháng phónkalùnpè úngpè kātaūpánnaà ín àngmákhàtèká hing zaúntahángpìng.

80. é anyeù khayí maneúq kalàng kátnìngthàlá ngaúkaú khayí tóngmaỉkalàng kátnìngthàmā tóngmaỉkalàng.

81. anyeù ngaúpánkaú kátká àngninngzáng maléq nímpanáq teúpè thōkhángcípìng.

82. maléq nímpanáq teúpè thōkhángcíàngká àngnīngzáng īp seúqnanāyī nāyīpyān tachát achīngtè thōkheúqlaká maléq nímpanáq teúpè.

'When we reached the hut where we were staying, like that, (We) reached the hut around 12 o'clock.'
83. thōkheúqká àngnīngzáng wān ngaúkaú wāncíngyí meúlakà wāncíng kahīng kahīng kahīngyeù shīmhá shīmhátè ngaúpánnakaú àngningzáng úngpè wāncíngká kasà míktūshīningyeù tūtaūlakáé.

84. anyeù ngaúpánkaú kasà míktūshīningyeù nímpánták ngaúpánkaú wāncīng há há há há ngāpanáqtè ngāká wānpōtpà mánpán īplaká.

85. wānpōtpà mánpán īppánkaú ín àngnīngzáng àngpanáqtèa īpmàngthīpánnaà mīnyí mīnìng īpmàngthīpán phaúkyeúpánnaà takhāteú wāntū ngákpánnaà wānpōttè tánteúpmàngká ngayaúk īpmákcípanáq tamìsāták ngaúkà phaúkyeúpán lakò hamàngkàlá maūng é kasàtónglē kasàtónglē anyeù lakò ngāngthàmā.


| an | ＝yeù＝lakò ngāng | －thà | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| DEM | ＝manner $=$ SAP $\quad$ exist：dir1 | －must | ＝RLS |
| 3 |  | ๆ | ous |
| ＇Whi <br> sleep <br> burn <br> up a <br> just | e I slept facing the ）about（it）and woke ng stick and beat the d（asked），＂What＇s th like that．＇ | firep <br> p．Wh <br> fire， <br> matt | ace， （I） the r？＂ |

86．ín ànghaíkà taì halángyámàkà ā maléqká manākceūká héq kasà káppeúmā līyákcíkalá ngaúlakà．


| m | $=$ ká | héq kasà káp | peú | $=\mathrm{mā} \mathrm{li}$ | －à | －cí | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | $=1 \mathrm{a}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| last．night | ＝TOP | EXCL tiger shoot | keep | ＝RLS come | －EUPH | －PL | IRLS | ＝Q |
| 20¢ई์ | 603ı10 | ט mp：u® | $\infty \times$ | ¢us on | 6จ | $\cdots$ | טर्ט | vic |

ngaú＝lakà
say $=$ MIR
শ160 onsi：
＇In the morning，（we）said，＂Well，last night we shot a tiger．Do you want to come（along）？＂＇

87．ā nāngákkákmā līyákcí．

| ā nāng | －à | －kák | $=\mathrm{mā} \mathrm{l}$ | －à | －cí |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| oh go | －EUPH | －want | ＝RLS come | －EUPH | －PL |
| 300 00： | ¢จ | থर्ट | ๑ư | $6 จ$ | $\bigcirc$ |

88．maléq pheúyàngpanáq phaíkhū phaíktā kámàkà útpeúpán seú maūng àngpè．

| maléq pheú <br> 1PL carry | $\begin{aligned} & \text {-àng } \\ & \text {-DIR1 } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { panáq } \\ & =\text { NOM } \end{aligned}$ | phaíkhū <br> carriers | phaíktā <br> ATTW | kámàkà <br> sort．of．things | út abandon | peú <br> keep | $\begin{aligned} & =\text { pán }=\text { seú } \\ & =\operatorname{COS}=\text { SAP } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ソิก | ọฺom | Зว0¢์： | － | －0\} | ®§๐¢ | $\infty$ ） | 隹豹：60 |
| maūng àng | $=\mathrm{pè}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| boy that | ＝LOC |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | （b） |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

89．zaūng kámàkà hamàngkà shíthaúng kámàkà hamàngkazeú alāhángìngá

| zaūng | kámàkà | hà | ＝màng | $=\mathrm{k}$ | shíthaúng kámàkà |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| blanket 60č | sort．of．thing －00లీ | SH ๗ư | $=$ thing un |  | bag <br> ：Nu |  | sort．of จovx |  |
| hà | $=$ màng | ＝kà | ＝zeú | $\mathrm{a}=$ | lā | －háng | －ìng | ＝á |
| WH | $=$ thing | ＝Q | ＝even | NEG＝ | take | －back | －DIR2 | ＝NEC |
| ぃuर | un | viros： | 600 cil | － | ${ }_{\sim}^{11}$ |  | る |  |

90．sàt kámàkà àngpanáq tékshī zalūng kámàkà tékshī kámàkà hamàngkazeú alāhángìngá．


91．àngpè útpeúmā


92．hamàngkazáng ngaútità lāhángcíàngmák

|  | ＝màng | $=$ kà | ＝záng ngaú | ＝tí | ＝tá | lā | －háng | －cí | －àng | $=$ mák |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | － | Q | EMPH say | ＝also | ＝EMPH | take | －back | －PL | －DIR1 | HOR |
| ऽu์ | un | o |  |  | u | ${ }_{11}$ |  | $\stackrel{\square}{6}$ |  | $\stackrel{\circ}{8}$ |
| ＇＂Whatever happen（Lit．whatever people may say），let＇s go and take them back．＂＇ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

93．tamisā kaūphòtnàngthàmā．

| tamìsā kaū | －phòt | －àng | ＝thāmā |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| human call | －add．more | －DIR1 | ＝HORT |
| $\bigcirc$ a | couiu | Ơ¢ | ๆฺヱว์ |
| ＇Let＇s call some more people．＇ |  |  |  |

94. hamàngkazáng ngaútità lāhángcàngmák

| hà | màng | $=$ kà | = zá | gaú | = tí | = tá | lā | -háng | -càng | mák |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| WH | ing | = Q | = EMP | say | =also | =EMPH | take | -back | -PL:DIR1 | = HOR |
| ऽư | us | ò | ùr | か1600 | ๑¢์งวิ: | u | $0_{11}$ | $0 ¢$ | mơm | $\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ |

'Whatever happen (Lit. whatever people may say) says, let's go and take them back.'
95. tamissā kaūphòtnàngthàmā.

96. àngnīngzáng tamìsā kaūphòtnàngká ā cī kaūwàngmanaík lakaú ngaúcílakàé

97. kaū seú cī meúpánnàkáyeù

| kaū =seú cī meú | pánnàkà | $=\mathrm{ye}$ ù |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| call $=$ SAP dog good | if | $=\mathrm{SAP}$ |
|  | ๆ¢์ | OTOTO |

98. cī lé ngá shítkaūng cīwātóngtè lakò lé ngá shítkaūng kaūpánnaà zaúnhángcàngmā.

99. úngpè thōkká kasà anánqtè túmpáppánlakà cīká aing aīng aīng aīngyeù ngāpán.

100. úngpè cī nùwà aīng úngpè cī nùwà "aīng aīng aīng" aīngyeù ngāpán.

| úng | $=\mathrm{pè} \mathrm{cī}$ nù | -à aīng úng | $=$ pè cī nù | -à aīng | aīng | aīng |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | = LOC dog CLF.animal | -one ONMT that | = LOC dog CLF.animal | -one ONMT | ONMT | ONMT |
| ¢ | (¢) 62: 6mx |  | (b) 68: 6mर | -®์ $ฺ$ ¢ | ¢ัई | ¢ัई |
| aing | =yeù ngā = pán |  |  |  |  |  |
| lake | =SAP exist $=$ COS |  |  |  |  |  |
| $3 \bigcirc^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 'The | dogs, one here | one there, | ied, "Aing! Aing | Aing!"' |  |  |

101. "yaū ā cītàkká maūng nímzàk ngāzàkká maūng manīng ngāsōmànglá"

102. tamìsā paìkhaík lakò ínkhwātapán seú cītàkká hànīng ngāsōmàngláyeù.

103. àngningzáng ā taūpánlē maūngtā maléq eútpeúpín maléq shíthaúng kámàkà lāpánnaà lakò kátcímáklē.

104. ínnátóngká ngāheúqkūlēyeù

| ínnátóng | $=$ ká | ngā | -heúq | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | $=1$ lé | = yeù |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| later | =TOP | exist | -back:DIR2 | = IRLS | =SAP | =manner |
| as69 | misomion | ค่ | U§る | טuर | 60: | O̊\| |
| "Later, | (the) tig | $r$ ma | come ba | k (Li | wil | exist |

105. "azaúnzónshîk \{azaúnzónshîkyeù\} anáq paikpè ngāmā."

106. "lámzā anāngpheùyá anáqpaìkpè ngāmā."

107. anyeù ngaúpánkaú kátcímák kát līhángcíthàmā kátpán līhángcíthàmā.


## Text21: 'How to make wild yams food'

1. nwēyék kayāpàpè yàkká cwēúq tāmàngkū.

| nwēyék | kayā | = pà | = pè yàk | = ká | cwēúq | tām | -àng | $=\mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| PN | mountain | =ALL | = LOC now | =TOP | wild.yam | search | -DIR1 | =IRLS |
| 6sด̊)ీ | conct | P1\% | (b) उวจ | misomion | CTBP | গ68 | บ̂¢ | טư |
| 'Now, | I will | and 1 | k for wi | yams in | the Nw | weyek | unt | ar |

2. cwēúq katákàngmā nwēyék kayāpáqpè hāyákpheúyàngkū.

| cwēúq katák | -àng | $=\mathrm{mā}$ | nw | yā | pà | = pè |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| m rare | -DIR1 | RLS | PN | mounta | =ALL | LOC |
| 6セox গ゚ | Ơ¢ | ouv | ธธ̊ดัo | cosc | O100 |  |

hā yákpheú -àng $=k u \bar{u}$.
walk indiscriminately -DIR1 =IRLS

It is very rare/difficult to find wild yams. I will simply go to to Nweyek mountain.'
3. aūngtánnweūtàk mahángpàpè tāmàngkū yàkká àng aléuqpàpè.

| aūngtánnweū | -tàk maháng | = pà | = pè tām | -àng | $=\mathrm{ku}$ yàk | $=\mathrm{ká}$ | àn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| PN | -PL that.thing | =ALL | = LOC search | -DIR1 | =IRLS now | =TOP | that |
| 630c) |  | ºlver | (6) 9160 | Ơ¢ | ชu์ ૩ว | mi60siom | зว่ |
| aléuq | = pà = pè |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| portion | $=A L L \quad=$ LOC |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Picom |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 'I will go | - Aungtannwe | s -tha | (field) | de of | that are |  |  |

4. zaúhá ngāmāó cwēūqyítá katákàngmā.

| zaúhá ngā | $=\mathrm{ma}$ | ó | cwēúq | $=\mathrm{yí}$ | = tá | katák | -àng | $=\mathrm{ma}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| thorn exist | $=$ RLS | EXCL | wild.yam | =also | = EMPH | rare | -DIR1 | $=$ RLS |
| ஹ๐ คํ | ous | $3{ }_{i}$ | ¢T®D | טలֻ: | ù | গ: | กิ¢ | ous |
| 'Oh there | tho | ns ( | (in that | area) | Wild | yam, | wel | is |

5．àngnáqtè thūpánnaà lūpìng kalìngtaút sómtaút kāpmàngthàkū．


6．kāppánnaà \｛maháng\} weú phaú.
kāp＝pán＝naà \｛ maháng \} weú phaú .
peel $=\operatorname{COS}=$ only that．thing water wash

＇After peeling the skin，wash it with water．＇

7．weú phaúzípánnaà yīp．

| weú phaú | zí | ＝pán | ＝naà yīp |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| water wash | finish | $=\mathrm{cos}$ | ＝only slice |
| 69 60：6セ | U8： | 觡综： | ¢ O O̧\％ |

8．yīpphángàngkū yàkká yīpzípán weú pám．


9．weú pámká yàātè pánnù weú kazeúháng pámháng weú kazeúháng pámháng shì háwàn pám．


| kazeú | －háng | ám | －h | hì hà | wàn | m |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wash | －back | soak | －back | four five | CLF．day | soak |
| 20： | US | ¢¢ 8 | 0 US | 60：d\％ | ฤर์ | ®®¢ |

＇When soaking，wash them once a day and soak in the water again．Do this for four or five days．＇

10．shì háwàn pámzípánnaà lápmà thóng zángpánnaà \｛maháng\} pámhángàngkū.

| shì hà | wàn | pám | zí | ＝pán | ＝naà lap |  | －à thóng | záng | ＝pán | ＝naà $\{$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| four five | CLF．day | soak | finish | $=\mathrm{COS}$ | ＝only | CLF．times | －one lime | put．in | ＝COS | ＝only |
| 60：cl： | ๆீ์ | ®¢์ | © ${ }_{\text {O }}$ | 凩㐌： | ${ }_{0}^{0}$ | Cix |  | ¢ ¢ِ |  | $\stackrel{\otimes}{1}$ |
| maháng | \} pám | －háng | －àng | $=\mathrm{ku}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| that．thing | soak | －back | －DIR1 | ＝IRLS |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| บฺus | ¢¢¢ | U§ | บิ์ | טư |  |  |  |  |  |  |

＇After soaking in the water for four to five days，add lime and soak in the water one more time．＇

11．thóng zángpán pámzí pámhángpán．

| thóng záng | ＝pán pám | zí pám | －háng | ＝pán |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| lime put．in | ＝COS soak | finish soak | －back | $=\mathrm{COS}$ |
| ọ：$\infty$ ¢ | 行㿟：®i์ | 行：¢¢¢ | U§ | 凩恧： |
| ＇After adding lime，soak in the water．（I）hav |  |  |  |  |

12．yōkzántàngkū yàkká ayōkmeú yōkmeúyeù weú nyíttaūpánnaà yàkàtè pánnù yàkàtè pánnùká ōmpeúpán hing．


13．weú caîkpeúpán thóng zángpánnaà weú kazeú weú kazeúháng pámhángká ōmpeúpán．

14. weú pámkà aneúq ngaúpán lūthaíkkà cáqtapán \{hīng\} \{ngázán\} ngázántàngmanaîk.

15. ó aceúkū zàkmā léqō āntān hàmzáng ngáàngkūlé phón taúpmàngkónlé.

16. waték tóngphángàngmanaîk waték tóng.
waték tóng -pháng -àng = manaík waték tóng .

'Let me place the steamer.'
17. waték tóngzípánnaà àngnáqtè waleú kazíp

18. kazít ngāpánnaà yàkká yahùngpè záng wasáp sáp

| kazíp ngā | = pán | $=$ naà yàk | = ká | yahùng | = pè záng wasáp | sáp |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| wring exist | = COS | =only now | =TOP | steamer | = LOC put.in sponge.gourd | spread |
| ว๊¢ คู | 凩㑻: | ¢ 3 a | mi60sıom | 6ulc:appe |  | əč: |

19．wasáp sáppánnaà cwēúqtè kazíppán záng．

| wasáp sáp | ＝pán | $=$ naà cwēúq | $=$ tè $k a z i ́ p$ | ＝pán záng |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sponge．gourd spread | ＝COS | ＝only wild．yam | ＝A．AG wring | $=\operatorname{COS}$ put．in |
|  | 凩恧： | ¢ فセூ® | mi | 灰傯： |

20．àngnáqtè zángpánnaà ngá．

| àng | $=$ panáq | $=$ tè | záng | ＝pán | ＝naà | ngá |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| that | ＝NOM | ＝A．AC | put．in | $=\mathrm{COS}$ | ＝only | steam |
| зัง | osiom | ¢ | $\infty$ ous | 约综： | $\stackrel{\otimes}{1}$ | sulč： |
| ＇Aft | adding | （the | stea |  |  |  |

21．ngáhàneúq ngá \｛ngámanaík\} ngápánnaà maháng ōm.

| ngá | －hà | $=$ neúq | ngá | ngá | $=$ manaík $\}$ | ngá | ＝pán |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | ＝naà maháng

ōm ．
make
oúu
＇Steam as much as（you can）．After that，do that．＇
22．\｛yōkkūpanáqtè\} yàkká óngshī kámàkà wánpaikppeúpánmanaík ngáphángthàkū àngnáqtè ngá.


23．óngshī wánpaîk chít salaú zítsá záng．

24. salaú zítsáq zángpánnaà óngshīshaúk mashaúk zūnshaúk zángpán neūtaūpán yōk.

25. taúppàng seú maūng yàkká


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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to the Burmese chronicles, Tagaung was the first Burmese kingdom in northern Myanmar. However, there is no archaeological evidence to prove the existence of this particular Burmese kingdom. If it existed, it could have been as early as 128 B.C. (Htin Aung 1967:6-7).

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ In this paper the term Bamar refers to native speakers of Burmese; it doesn't include other ethnic minorities who also speak Burmese.
    ${ }^{3}$ Rakhine State was formerly known as Arakan State.

[^2]:    ${ }^{4}$ I assume that the term Kachin here refers to the Jingphaw speakers. However, the term Kachin for referring to the Jingphaw alone should be avoided as it is now widely accepted as a collective term for six ethnic groups: Jingphaw, Lawngwaw, Lahi, Zaiwa, Rawang and Lisu.

[^3]:    ${ }^{5}$ It is known that there are three types of Loi/Lui. They are Andro, Sengmai and Chairel. Loi is a Meithei term which means slave (Than Htun 1994).

[^4]:    ${ }^{6}$ There is no unambiguous Kadu native word that begins with an aspirated velar stop [ $\mathrm{k}^{\mathrm{h}}$ ]. I have included this consonant in the chart because it often appears in Burmese loanwords.

[^5]:    ${ }^{7}$ This term was adapted from Antony Dubach Green (2005).

[^6]:    

[^7]:    ${ }^{9}$ The children of mother's brother and father's sister are cross cousins. The children of father's brother and mother's sister are parallel cousins.

[^8]:    ${ }^{10}$ It refers to the older brother of one's wife or the older sister's husband.
    ${ }^{11}$ It refers to the younger brother of ones wife or the younger sister's husband.
    ${ }^{12}$ It refers to female's older brother's wife.
    ${ }^{13}$ It refers to the younger sister of one's wife.

[^9]:    ${ }^{14}$ meùt could be a Shan loan, as in mû:awà:n 'yesterday'.

[^10]:    ${ }^{15}$ A woman marrying a man. (Lit. 'go for a man').
    ${ }^{16}$ A man marrying a woman. (Lit. 'take woman').

[^11]:    ${ }^{17}$ An attendant word is item that is not a free lexeme but occurs only with a steady partner word. (Ayoka 2010:41).

[^12]:    ${ }^{18}$ Kalùng is a mythical king of birds and also the enemy of the dragon.

[^13]:    ${ }^{19}$ In Thai, both-CLF-numeral or numeral-CLF structures are possible with difference in meaning.

[^14]:    ${ }^{20}$ This is a Burmese numeral.

[^15]:    ${ }^{21}$ Burmese tapíq 'servant' + tā̄ 'honorific' and ashīn 'master' + phayá 'lord or god'.

[^16]:    ${ }^{22}$ Similar to Garo, Burmese class terms include a category of animal names. Bernot's dictionary (1979-92), as cited in (Vittránt 2005), included around 70 fish nouns starting with the class term $/ \mathrm{y} \%$. The generic name for fish is /yá/. Concerning bird names, about 30 entries have the generic noun $/ \mathrm{y} \varepsilon$ ?/ as a first syllable.

[^17]:    ${ }^{23}$ Some Kadu speakers, who seem to be speakers of the Mauteik variety, pronounce this as heúq.

[^18]:    ${ }^{24}$ The example below shows the use of three pre-head verbs, 'return', 'assemble' and 'ask', in Burmese.
    pyan su taun: sa: ca. te (Myit Soe 1999:162)
    again gather ask eat PL RLS 'We again asked together to eat (it).'

[^19]:    ${ }^{25}$ Continuousness in Comrie (1976).

[^20]:    ${ }^{26}$ This is a Burmese verbal plural form.

[^21]:    ${ }^{27}$ This particle resembles Burmese əे <hke.>, which Allott says is used when "the speaker associates a specific action carried through in one location (in space or time) with another location." As it is related to the speaker, she called it "speaker oriented" (Allot 1965:299).

[^22]:    ${ }^{28}$ This particle has the same semantic sense as Burmese $2 \underset{\mathcal{c}}{\text { chkrang>, thwa:hhrang 'want to go', thi.hkrang }}$ 'want to know'; and also Lahu gâ : qay gâ 'want to go', šī gâ 'want to know'. Matisoff supposed that it may have once had an independent verbal meaning like 'think of conatively; desire' (Matisoff 1991:394).

[^23]:    ${ }^{29}$ It may have derived from the Tai (Shan) word hiw 'hungry'.

[^24]:    ${ }^{30}$ Turung is a variety of Jingpho spoken in Northeast India (see Morey 2011).

[^25]:    (a) aīpsàlé àngpèlé (18:13)

    | $\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{i} \mathrm{p}$ | $=$ sà | $=$ lé àng | $=$ pè $=$ lé |
    | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
    | NEG-sleep | $=$ NEG.IMP | $=$ SAP that | $=$ LOC $=$ SAP |

    'Don't' sleep there!'
    (b) ${ }^{\text {inp}} p s a ̀$
    īp =sà
    sleep = NEG.IMP
    ‘Don’t sleep!’

[^26]:    ${ }^{31}$ Matisoff in his Lahu Grammar states that "clauses in Lahu are negatable by means of mâ hê?, provided they are first nominalised, usually via the particle ve" (Matisoff 1973:26).
    ${ }^{32} \mathrm{~A}$ syntactic device to code the distinction between future and non future in a negated proposition is to nominalise the affirmative proposition, which is marked for tense, and to make it the argument of the verb unoo/hou/ 'be true/right/be the case', which is then negated <thu pyo ta ma-hou hpu:>. 'It's not the case that he said (it).' (Myint Soe 1999:146).'

