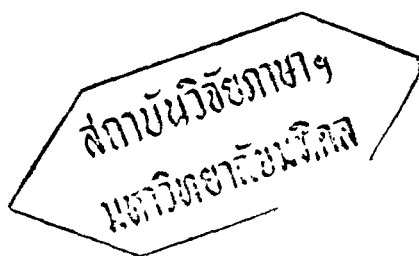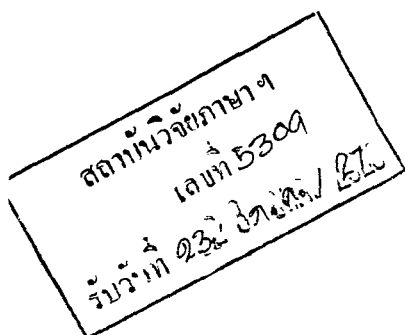GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF HMONG NJUA GRAMMAR

BY

TAWEESAK KUNYOT

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF

THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF ARTS

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THE DEFENSE OF THESIS

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for

TAWEESAK KUNYOT

unanimously approve the thesis entitled

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF HMONG NJUA GRAMMAR

We further agree that he has satisfactorily defended his thesis

at the examination given by the supervisory committee

on

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Abstract

This thesis is a syntactic description which describes the
general grammatical characteristics of Hmong Njua, which is in the
Miao-Yao family, on word, phrase, clause and sentence level. The
description focuses not only the structure but also the semantics.
The data was collected during field work in Ban Khek Noi, Lomsak
District, Phetchabun Province from November 3, 1983 to March 10, 1984.

In chapter 1, some general information about the Hmong Njua
people and their language is given. In chapter 2,3,4 and 5 respectively
the clause, phrase, word, and sentence are discussed in terms of their
types, structures and functions.

Further study on paragraph,discourse and final particles is
suggested. And more study of the Hmong Njua phonology should be done.

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Taweesak Kunyot

July, 1984

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ABBREVIATION

Acc.	Accompaniment
AccMK	Accompaniment marker
Adj.	Adjective
adj.	adjective
Adv.	Adverb
adv.	adverb
Approx.	Approximative
Ben.	Beneficiary
BenMK	Beneficiary marker
bitran.	bitransitive
Cl.	Clause
cl.	clause
Comp.	Comparative
CompMK	Comparative marker
compare	comparative
clas.	classifier
cond.	condition
Conj.	Conjunction
conj.	conjunction
Contd.	Contained
Contr.	Container
cov.	covarying
deduct.	deductive
Dem.	Demonstrative
dem.	demonstrative
dep.	dependent
des.	descriptive

emb.	embedded
equat.	equational
exist.	existence
Final Part.	Final particle
f.p.	final particle
HN	Head noun
I	Item
indep.	independent
Ins.	Instrument
Ins.MK	Instrument marker
Intens.	Intensifier
intens.	intensifier
intrans.	intransitive
IO	Indirect object
LK	Linkage
Loc.Set.	Location Setting
loc.	locative
Man.	Manner
MK	Marker
Mod.	Modifier
mot.	motion
MV	Main verb
N	Noun
n.	noun
Neg.	Negation
non.emb.	nominalized embedding
np.	nominal phrase
Nup	Numeral phrase

nu.	numeral
O	Object
P	Predicate
Poss.	Possessive
Poss.MK	Possessive marker
Post.Mod.	Postmodifier
Pred. ·	Predicate
Prep.	Preposition
prv.	preverb
psv.	postverb
pur.	purpose
quant.	Quantifier
Quot.	Quotative
quot.	quotative
rec.MK	reciprocal marker
Rel.MK	Relative marker
rel.	relative
rel.emb.	relative embedding
S	Subject
Sen	Sentence
sim.	simple
simul.	simultaneous action
Sub.	Subordinate
temp.	temporal
Time Set.	Time Setting
TP	Time phrase
trans.	transitive
vp.	verb phrase

CHAPTER I

1. Introduction

1.1 Objective of the thesis

The objective of this thesis is to present general grammatical characteristics of the Hmong Njua language on the word, phrase, clause and sentence levels. According to the title of the thesis, this grammatical description merely gives general characteristics, but there certainly is sufficient detail on a number of important points.

1.2 The descriptive approach

The approach used in this thesis is a tagmemic model of which each unit of the grammatical level will be described in terms of its function, its distinctive marks, its structure, and its classes, types and transforms. For convenience we start with the clause rank and work down to the morpheme, and then take the sentence rank.

1.3 The data

This study is based on the speech of the Hmong Njua people in Ban Khek Noi, Lomsak District, Phetchabun Province. I had three main language helpers. The first one was Miss Yuwadi Songsawatwong; the Hmong Njua language announcer at the broadcasting station in Lomkao District, Phetchabun Province. Her family is in Ban Khek Noi. The second and the third; Tong Sae Li and Mo Sakcaroenchaikun, are secondary school students in Lomsak. All of them speak the Hmong Njua language at home, but they can speak Thai, too.

The data was collected from November 3rd, 1983 to March 10th, 1984 The data were checked with Mr.Surasak(Neng) Sakcaroenchaikun; a Hmong Njua teacher at Ban Khek Noi school, and with some of the people in the village.

Ban Khek Noi is a very big village which is located on a hill 45 kilometres from Lomsak District. The population of the village is 5,167.

The people in this village may be divided into two main groups; the White Hmong(Hmong Daw) and the Green Hmong(Hmong Njua). Most of the people are the White Hmong. Children converse in Hmong both among themselves and to adults on every occasion, no matter whether there is any stranger present or not. Before entering school children cannot converse in Thai, but after one or more years in school they can speak Thai a little. The teacher of the first year class are Hmong who can speak both Thai and Hmong. Some of the old people in this village can speak Central Thai, if they have had contact with those people for a long time.

The data consists of about 3,500 words for the analysis which was collected by myself and from the English-Meo Dictionary of Thomas Amis Lyman. In addition, phrases and sentences were elicited and a few stories were recorded on tape. Those stories were mostly told by the members in the language helpers' families.

It is noted here that: first, all of my language helpers are rather young and they can speak both Hmong and Thai. They do not know some old words;for example, for 'teacher' sẃ fẃ, they use ghǔ(from Thai khru 'teacher'). Second, the Hmong Njua language spoken in this village may have assimilated to the White Hmong language(Hmong Daw, Hmong Klaw), because more than half of the people in this village speak the White Hmong language. When the Hmong Njua people communicate with the White Hmong they usually use the White Hmong language. However, the White Hmong people in this village rarely use the Hmong Njua language. Last, the data here is the spoken language not the written one, and the data was collected only in Ban Khek Noi, Lomsak District, Phetchabun Province.

1.4 Identification

Hmong Njua is a language of mainland Southeast Asia, also known

variously as Meo, Miao, Green Miao, or Blue Meo(Lyman 1970:1). Among the mong people they call themselves and their language'Mong Njua' or 'Mong Leng'. The Thai people usually call this language 'Meo'.

1.5 Location

Today the Hmong live in China, Vietnam, Laos, and Thailand. In China, the Hmong people are found in the provinces of Kweichow, Hunan, Yunnan, Kwangsi, Szechwan, Kwangtung, and Hupeh. Their number is estimated at more than 2,600,000.(Purnell 1972:1). In the northern part of Vietnam there are about 500,000 and in Laos the population is about 60,000(Lyman 1970:1).

In Thailand, the Hmong live on the hills in many provinces in the northern area. The population statistics below are both Hmong Njua and Hmong Daw. This is from the report of the Department of Public Welfare, Ministry of Interior, 1983.

Province	Population
Phetchabun	8,438
Nan	9,596
Chiengmai	9,007
Chiengrai	8,614
Phayao	3,285
Maehongson	1,836
Lampang	664
Phrae	1,035
Tak	8,007
Phitsanulok	2,676
Sukhothai	909
Kamphaengphet	2,579

Province	Population
Loei	905
Total	57,261

1.6 History

The earliest recorded homeland of the Hmong was in China. The Chinese Classic of History(Nusit Chindasri 1976:1) records that the Hmong were banished from the central Yangtze plain by Yü the Great(2205-2198 BC) to northwestern Kansu. However, about three thousand years after that there is not any information about them because the Chinese records usually use the single term'man' meaning 'barbarians', 'Nan-Man' meaning 'southern barbarians', for all the non-Han Chinese groups in the region. They had often fought against the Chinese for a long time and finally they were defeated. Then they moved southward.

Today there are the greatest number of Hmong in Kweichow(Purnell 1972:1) but they also live in the provinces of Hunan, Yunan, Kwangsi, Szechwan, Kwangtung, and Hupeh.

Some groups of Hmong began to migrate from China through Vietnam in the ·18 century. Then some of them migrated into the mountainous area of Laos in about 1850(LeBar and Suddard 1967). And then they moved from Laos to Thailand.

The Hmong migrated from Laos to the northern areas of Thailand during the World War II. They moved through Nan, Chiengrai and Loei provinces.Then they moved separately to the mountainous areas of many provinces in the north.

Writers have called these people by different names such as Meau, Miao, Meo, Mong or Hmong. Some writers have distinguished the various groups by the colour of their clothing. Lo Jao-Tien(Geddes 1976) have

stated that there were five major groups: the Pai(White), the Hua
(Flowery), the Ch'ing(Blue), the Hei(Black), and the Hung(Red). However,
other characteristics were also used to distinguish the Hmong such as
geographical location, topography, items in use for decoration and
exchange, habits or physical attributes. These can make up a weirdly
exotic list(Geddes 1976): the Western Miao, the Eastern Miao, the Steep
Slope Miao, the Trumpet Miao, the Robe-Wearing Miao, the Pot-Ring Miao,
the Iron-Making Miao, the Dog-Ear Miao, the Magpie Miao,etc. Lyman(1970)
has also referred to them by many characteristics like Geddes above such
as: the Banded-Sleeve Meo, the Striped Meo, the Pumpkin-Hole Meo, the
Man-Eating Meo and so on.

In Thailand there are two main branches of the Hmong(Heimbach 1966):
the White Meo, and the Blue Meo or Green Meo. However, Lyman(1970) have
stated that the Banded-Sleeve Meo is also found in Thailand.

The Hmong who first came to Thailand usually lived on the hills
about more than 3,000 feet above the sea level. They usually cultivated
opium and many of them smoked opium. However, the Thai government now
helps them to grow other kinds of plants. Some of them grow rice and
corn, but their crops have to grow in new upland. This makes the Hmong
search for new uplands every year. They cut down the trees and burn them
to prepare the land for another crop. This means that Thailand has to
lose green forest every year.

1.7 Culture and religion

Religion Hmong religion basically is ancestor worship combined with
supernatural beliefs. They have no pagodas or bonzes. The spirits of
ancestors, the sky, the wind and forest are all given due respect in the
Hmong household. The dead are buried, and animal sacrifices are made to
influence the spirits at birth, marriages, and deaths. The Hmong do

their worship seriously.

Nowadays a few of the Hmong people believe in Buddhism because
they usually contact with the Thai. Some of the Hmong are Christians
and they have their own churches in the villages on the hills.

Culture The Hmong are hill-tribe people. They usually work all
year long without contact with other tribes. Every year they have their
happy ceremony of New Year's Day (lú shá pé tyǎu). They celabrate their
new year for nine days(around December). During this time nobody works,
but they can rest, eat, drink, and gamble. They dress in beautiful clothing
for which they spent a whole year to prepare. During these nine days
the boys and the girls have opportunities to meet each other at the place
that they play a game they like. This game is played by throwing a small
cloth-ball to each other. While they are playing they can talk and flirt
with each other. Then they may choose one that they like to marry. Young
members of the Hmong have complete sexual freedom.

The status of the women in this tribe is not equal to the men. Women
and children till the fields and search for food in the jungle while the
men can usually be found in their home and some of them smoke opium. The
men can have the right to have two or more wives but the women cannot
have two husbands.

Since some of them have been educated and contacted with the Thai
people, they tend to change their culture especially costumes and sexual
freedom.

1.8 Linguistic affiliation

Many scholars classified the Hmong language differently. Some of
them formerly classified this language in the Mon-Khmer family(Encyclo-
pedia Britannica,1965). More have classified it in the Miao-Yao family of
the Sino-Tibetan phylum(Purnell 1972 and Voegelin& Voegelin, and LeBar)

On the other hand, the Hmong language is dissimilar to the language

in the Sino-Tibetan family. Meillet and Cohen(1952) stated that the Hmong

language is not like Chinese and the vocabulary is similar to the Tibeto-

Burman. It closer to Burmese than it is to Tibetan.

Many writers said that the Hmong is not in the Mon-Khmer family.

Benatzik(1970) stated that......

"The classification made by Major Davies and, probably following him,

Lewis, according to which the Meau language is classified with the

Mon-Khmer languages is undoubtedly in errer...."

"....Savina emphasizes its dissimilarity in relation to the languages

of the Lolo, Chinese ...."

Benedict(1972) does not classify the Hmong language in the Sino-

Tibetan phylum. But linguists generally agree now that it belong to a

Miao-Yao family(Purnell,1970)

The Hmong language in Thailand has two main dialects; the Hmong Njua

(Green Hmong or Blue Hmong) and the Hmong Daw or Hmong Klaw(White Hmong).

The two dialects are quite similar in both phonology and grammar.

1.9 Transcription

The Hmong Njua does not have a traditional writing system, but there

have been writing systems developed recently. There has been no published

phonetic description of Hmong Njua, so for my transcription I have

followed the system used in Lyman 1970, as presented below.

(1) Consonant and consonant clusters:

Symbols	Hmong Njua Example	
/zero/	ú	'far, long'
c	cĕ	'house'
ch	chûa	'medicine'

Symbols	Hmong Njua Example	
cr	crông	'table'
chr	chré	'sweep'
ts	tsĭ	'fruit'
tsh	tshú	'sneeze'
f	fŵ	'tea pot'
h	hà	'tell'
hl	hli	'moon'
hs	hsáo	'don't'
hy	hyóng	'bamboo'
k	kố	'market'
kh	khĭ	'ginger'
kl	klŭ	'spoon'
khl	khla	'run'
l	lá	'red'
m	mǎo	'cooked rice'
mb	mbua	'pig'
mbl	mblông	'leaf'
mph	mpháo	'rather old'
mphl	mphlái	'finger ring'
n	nŭa	'this'
ntsh	ntshi	'elephant'
nd	ndû	'sky'
nth	nthǔa	'unwrap'
nz	nzâi	'fan'
ny	nyâ	'money, silver'
nch	nchai	'afraid'
ndy	ndyé	'mushroom'

Symbols	Hmong Njua Example	
nj	njúa	'green, blue, azure'
ntyh	ntyhú	'to smoke of fire'
nchr	nchreng	'lazy(of woman)'
njr	njrâo	'grass'
ŋ	ŋù	'goose'
ng	ngâo	'boat'
ngl	nglǔa	'worn out'
nG	nGâ	'meat'
nkh	nkhau	'crooked'
nkhl	-no example-	
nqh	nqhé	'thirst'
p	páu	'know'
ph	phẻ	'bad'
pl	pláu	'four'
phl	phlu	'cheek'
q	qú	'old'
qh	qhǎo	'hole'
s	sǔ	'thread'
sh	shá	'tall, heart'
t	tå	'real'
th	thǎo	'beⴀ'
ty	tyǔa	'gibbon'
tyh	tyhâo	'bridge'
v	vỉ	'because'
y	yáo	'yes, be'
zh	zhong	'good'

(2) Vowels and vowel clusters

Symbols	Hmong Njua Example	
a	nâ	'every'
ai	klài	'sheet'
ang	ăng	'soil'
ao	nâo	'eat'
au	ndàu	'hit'
aw	kláw	'white'
e	zhe	'near'
eng	tĕng	'drop'
i	í	'one'
i*	sí	'only'
ong	póng	'fall'
u	kú	'hot'
ua	mûa	'have'
w	pw	'sleep'

(3) Tones

Diacritics	Pitch	Descriptive Name	Hmong Njua Example	
/´/	55 52	high or high falling	táu	'pumpkin'
/ˇ/	35	high rising	tău	'to dam up water
/ /	33:	middle level	tau	'to get, to be able'
/`/	22	low level	tàu	'axe'
/^/	41	full falling	tâu	'a type of high wide-bladed grass'

_____

* The symbol i when occuring after the consonant c, j, r, s, and z
is pronounced [ɨ] .

Diacritics	Pitch	Descriptive Name	Hmong Njua Example	
/ ° /	11+h 31+h	low breathy	tåu	'to follow'
/ ˇ /	214:+? 21+?	falling-rising glottalized	tåu	'bean'

CHAPTER II

2. Clause

Clauses are constructions of phrases. Clauses normally function as
elements in a sentence(Sec.5.1.1, 5.5), but may also be embedded in a
noun phrase(Sec.3.1 .

Clauses are described in terms of nuclear and peripheral slots. The
structure of a clause may be diagrammed very generally as:

Cl. ±Time Set:time phrase (±S:np +P:vp ±O:np ±IO:np) ±Loc.Set:loc.
phrase ±Man.:adv.phrase +Final Part.:f.p.

That is, the nucleus generally follow an S-P-O-IO order, and the
peripheral elements precede or follow the nucleus. The nucleus comprises
an optional Subject slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1), an obligatory
Predicate slot filled by a verb phrase(Sec.3.2), an optional Object slot
filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1), and an optional Indirect Object
slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1). The peripheral elements are
an optional Time Setting slot filled by a time phrase(Sec.3.7), an
optional Location Setting slot filled by a locative phrase(Sec.3.8), an
optionalManner slot filled by an adverb phrase(Sec.3.6), and an optional
Final Particle slot filled by a final particle(Sec. 4.15). The peripheral
elements add more details to the clause nucleus. The Time Setting slot
indicates either the time at which the action takes place or the duration
of the action. The Location Setting slot includes such notion as source,
destination, direction,etc. There will seldom be more than one of these
notions in a single slot. The Manner slot describes the manner of the
performed action. The Final Particle slot indicates politeness or
command of the speaker.

2.1 Nucleus(Basic clause types)

The basic clause functions primarily in the nucleus and periphery
of declarative sentences, though it may also function in the periphery
of imperative or interrogative sentences, or in the of social sentences
or may be embedded at other levels.

Clause types are usually defined by their nucleus, and so a formula
for a cluase type is usually a formula for the nucleus. Basic cluase
types may be divided into the following: descriptive, intransitive,
transitive, bitransitive, locative, motion, quotative, equational,
existence, and comparative. These differ from each other in the verb
classes which they take, in some of their nuclear slots, in some of
their peripheral optionals, and in their transformation potential.

2.1.1 Descriptive Clause

A simple descriptive clause has the following nuclear form:

$$Cl._{des.} = \pm S:np \quad +P:vp_{des.}$$

That is, an optional Subject slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1
and an obligatory Predicate slot filled by a descriptive verb phrase
(Sec.3.2, 4.10.1). Observed peripheral elements are Time Setting and
sometimes Location Setting.

The semantic roles of the Subject is actor, of the Predicate is
complement of the actor.

.1. klĕ   tú   kåw

   water deep   very

   'The water is very deep.'

2. nẘ   nzåu   nzåu

   he   thin   thin

   'He is quite thin.'

3. cráng   crả   ndǎw   nje

   clas.   knife   that   sharp

   'That knife is sharp.'

4. lú   cě   nǔa   qú   lǎv

   clas,   house   this   old   already

   'This house is old.'

5. lú   ndû nao   pâng   zhong ngâu   pě   cróng

   clas. winter   flower   beautiful   on   mountain

   'The flowers are beautiful on the mountain in winter.'

   2.1.2 Intransitive Clause

A simple intransitive clause has the following nuclear form:

$$Cl._{intran.} = \pm S:np \quad +P:vp_{intran.}$$

That is, an optional Subject slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1, and an obligatory Predicate slot filled by an intransitive verb phrase (Sec.3.2, 4.10.2). Manner,Location and Time Setting are periphery

The intransitive clause formula looks the same as descriptive clause, but they are different because descriptive clause cannot be imperative.

The semantic role of the Subject is actor, of the Predicate is actio

1. kǔ   pw   í   lêng

   I   sleep   one   person

   'I sleep alone.'

2. nẘ   kûa

   he   cry

   'He cries.'

3. kǔ   mồng kě   mǔa njǐ   qéng

   I   go for a stroll   quite   slow

   'I go for a stroll quite slowly.)

4. n̊enɟ   khla   shai   chân̂ɡ plaẘ

   horse   run   fast   the most

   'Horses run the fastest.'

5. nång mao   kleˇ   qûa   njrǎo   kåw   le

   yesterday   dog   bark   loud   very   f.p.

   The dog barked very loudly yesterday.

6. pua   khla   pe   crong

   they   run   on   mountain

   'They run on the mountain.'

2.1.3 Transitive Clause

A simple·transitive clause has the following nuclear form:

$$Cl_{tran.} = \pm S{:}np + P{:}vp_{tran.} \pm O{:}np$$

That is, an optional Subject slot filled by a nominal phrase
3ec.3.1), an obligatory Predicate slot filled by a transitive verb
ɪrase(Sec.3.2, 4.10.3), an optional Object slot filled by a nominal
ɪrase(Sec.3.1). Time Setting, Location Setting and Manner are fairly
ɔmmon periphery.

The semantic role of the Subject is actor, of the Predicate
ɟ action, of the object is undergoer.

   1. púa   tua   mbua

      they   kill   pig

      'They kill a pig.'

   2. nẘ   ndong   kau måo   lá

      he   wear   hat   red

      'He wears a red hat.'

3. púa   pǔ   í   tǔ   ntshi

   they   see   one   clas.   elephant

   'They see an elephant.'

4. pǔa táng   kǔ   nyǎ   nîo   ᵑǎo

   a minute ago   I   just   eat   rice

   'I have just eaten rice a minute ago.'

2.1.4 Bitransitive Clause

A simple bitransitive clause has the following nuclear form:

$$Cl._{bitran} = +S{:}np \ +P{:}vp_{bitran.} \ +O{:}np \ +(-Psv{:} \ crua \ +IO{:}np/cl.)$$

That is, an optional Subject slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec. 3.1), an obligatory Predicate slot filled by a bitransitive verb phrase (Sec.3.2, 4.10.4), an optional Object slot filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.3.1), an obligatory Postverb slot filled by crua'give,for,to', tsǔ 'reach,to', and an optional Indirect Object slot filled by a nominal phrase or a clause. Peripheral elements consist of Time and Location Setting.

It noted that the Indirect Object slot may be deleted if it has been stated in the preceded clause or it is known from the context.

The semantic role of the Subject is actor, of the Predicate is action of the Object is undergoer, of the Indirect Object is recipient.

1. kǔ   múa   nyâ   crua   mǐ nyǔa   yau

   I   get   money   give   children   young

   'I give money to the little children.'

2. nǎng mao   kǔ   tsǐ   múa   nyâ   crua   kǔ

   yesterday   I   father   get   money   give   I

   'My father gave money to me yesterday.'

3. lú hli táo ndé púa sang ndǎw crua kǔ

   clas. ronth before they send letter to I

   'They sent a letter to me last month.'

4. pǐ kǐ nǎ yǔa yǔa tsǐ ndong crua kǔ

   tomorrow nother will buy fruit to I

   'My mother will buy fruit for me tomorrow.'

5. tông thǎo kùa nW̊ nǎ yǔa chao crua

   Tong beg give she mother buy shirt to

   'Tong begged her mother to buy a shirt for her.'

6. nW̊ hà lú njùa crua nǐ nyǔa yau nông

   he tell tale to child young listen

   'He tells a tale to the children.'

2.1.5 Locative Clause

A simple locative clause has the following nuclear form:

$$Cl_{loc.} = \underline{+}S:np +P:vp +Loc:loc.phrase/den.$$

That is, an optional Subject slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1), an obligatory Predicate slot filled by a locative verb phrase(Sec.3.2, 4.10.5), an obligatory Locative slot filled by a locative phrase(Sec.3.8) or a demonstrative.

The semantic role of the Subject is actor, of the Predicate is action, of the Location is the location of the action.

1. kǔ nyáo khê mi

   I live Khek Noi

   'I live in Khek Noi.'

2. púa nyáo hǔ cě

   they be in house

   'They are in the house.'

3. kù   nyáo   ˇnủa

   I   be   here

   'I am here.'

4. púa   nyáo   zhe   qhǎo crónŋ

   they   be   near   door

   'They are(sit) near the door.'

2.1.6 Motion Clause

A simple motion clause has the following nuclear form:

$Cl._{mot.} = \pm S:n\gamma + P:vp_{mot.} \pm$ Direction Verb: {mồng} $\pm$Dest:loc.phrase/ dem.

That is, an optional Subject slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1),

an obligatory Predicate slot filled by a motion verb phrase(Sec.2.2, 4.10.6)

an optional Direction Verb slot filled by mồnŋ'go', lǔ'come', tûa'come',

an optional Destination slot filled by a locative phrase(Sec.3.8) or a

demonstrative(Sec.4.3). Perpheral elements consist of Time Setting and

Manner.

It is noted that the same direction verb cannot occur in both

Predicate slot and in the Direction Verb slot in the same clause.

The semantic role of the Subject is actor, of the Predicate is action,

of the Direction Verb is direction of the action, of the Destination is

destination of the action.

1. nử   mồnŋ   tǎo   ká

   he   go   at   market

   'He goes to the market.'

2. púa   tûa   ndǎw   kǔ   cě

   they   come   at   I   house

   'They come to my house.'

3. nẘ   cråo qáng   mŏng   cĕ

   he   return   go   house

   'He goes back home.'

4. púa   khla   lů   ndåw   nŭa

   they   run   come   at   this

   'They run down here.'

The normal order of the motion clause is shown above. In addition, motion may take the following form:

±S:np +P:vp$_{mot}$. +Dest:loc.phrase ±Direction verb: {tûa}

That is, an optional Subject slot filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory Predicate slot filled by a motion verb phrase, an obligatory Destination slot filled by a locative phrase, and an optional Direction verb slot filled by <u>tûa</u> 'come', <u>mŏng</u> 'go', <u>lů</u> 'come'.

5. nẘ   tûa   håo tẘ   tûa

   he   come   where   come

   'Where does he come from?'

6. kŭ   mŏng   tåo   té   lů

    I   go   at   field   come

   'I come back from the field.'

Motion clause may have a clause inserted in it. The inserted clause must have the same subject as the motion clause, and the subject in the inserted clause is deleted, for example:

7. kŭ   nå   mŏng   <u>múa   chao</u>   tûa

    I   mother   go   get   shirt   come

   'My mother is returning from getting the shirt.'

8. nẘ   yŭa   nòn   <u>tsǎ   ndon</u>   pé   cróng

   he   will   go   cut   tree   to/on mountain

'He will go to cut trees on the mountain.'

2.1.7 Quotative Clause

A simple quotative clause has the following nuclear form:

$$Cl_{quot.} = \pm S{:}np +P{:}vp_{quot.} \pm O{:}np +MK{:} \pm hà +tà +Quot{:}cl$$

That is, an optional Subject slot filled by a nominal phrase
(Sec.3.1), an obligatory Predicate slot filled by a quotative verb phrase
(Sec. 3.2, 4.10.7), an optional object slot filled by a nominal phrase,
an obligatory Quotative marker slot filled by <u>hà tà</u> or <u>tà</u>, an obligatory
Quotative slot filled by a clause.

The semantic role of the Subject is speaker, of the Predicate
is action, of the Object is hearer, of the Quotative is the content of
the information.

1. kŭ   tŭ   ntshài   nòng   tà   kǎo   chái   lào

   I   clas.   daughter ask   Mk   you   hungry   or

   ci   tau

   not   completed

   'My daughter asked whether you are hungry.'

2. kŭ   páu   hà tà   lêng tẘ   yŭa   cráng   crǎ   nŭa

   I   know   Mk   who   buy   clas.   knife this

   'I know who bought this knife.'

3. kǔ   nǎ   sǎng   tà   kǔ   yǔa   mǒng   hǎ

   I   mother   think   that   I   will   go   too

   'My mother thought that I would go too.'

4. nẘ   hà   kǔ   tà   yǔa   tûa   pi ki

   he   tell   I   that   will   come   tomorrow

   'He tells me that he will come tomorrow.'

2.1.8 Equational Clause

A simple equational clause has the following nuclear form:

$$Cl._{equat.} = +I_1:np_1 \quad +P:vp_{equat.} +I_2:np_2 \ / \ cl.$$

That is, an obligatory Item$_1$ slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1), an obligatory Predicate slot filled by an equational verb phrase(Sec.3.2, 4.10.8), an obligatory Item$_2$ slot filled by a nominal phrase or a clause.

The semantic role of Item$_1$ is actor, of the Predicate is state, of the Item$_2$ is complement.

1. nẘ   ua   túa nèng   zhong

   he   be   person   good

   'He is a good person.'

2. néng   sǎng   ua   qhů

   Neng   want   be   teacher

   'Neng wants to be a teacher.'

3. kǔ   tsi   yǎo   thái klâng

   I   father   be   policeman

   'My father is a policeman.'

4. púa   ua   túa nèng   ci   mûa   mbǎw

   they   be   person   not   have   friend

   'They are persons who have no friends.'

2.1.9 Existence Clause

A simple existence clause has the following nuclear form:

Cl.exist. = +P:vp exist. +S:np ±Loc:loc.phrase

That is, an obligatory Predicate slot filled by an existence verb
(nûa) phrase(Sec.3.2, 4.10.9), an obligatory Subject slot filled by a
nominal phrase(Sec.3.1), and an optional Location slot filled by a locative
phrase(Sec.3.8). The only peripheral slot is a Time Setting.

The semantic role of the Predicate is state, of the Subject is actor,
of the Location is the location of the actor.

1. thău   ú   mûa   áo   tù   kŵ tî

   time long   have   two clas. brothers

   'A long time ago there were two brothers.'

2. mûa   hlua njráu   ndau   léng

   have   nen   many   person

   'There are many men.'

3. nú mao   mûa   túa néng   ndau   kǎw   le   tǎo   cě

   yesterday have   person   many   very f.p. ˉat house

   'There were many people at home yesterday.'

2.1 10 Comparative Clause

There are three kinds of comparative clauses.

1. Comparison of equality

2. Comparative degree

3. Superlative degree

2.1.10.1 Comparison of equality

Simple comparison of equality has the following forms:

$Cl_{compare1} = +S_1:np \quad +P:vp_{des}. \quad +\text{MK}:\{le\} \quad +S_2:np$

$Cl_{compare2} = +S_1:np \quad +P:\{zhong\ le\} \quad +S_2:np$

$Cl_{compare3} = +S_1:np \quad +P:vp \quad \pm O:np \quad +\text{Man}:adv \quad +\text{MK}:\{mbau\ le\} \quad +S_2:np$

1. That is, an obligatory Subject$_1$ slot filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.3.1), an obligatory Predicate slot filled by a descriptive verb phrase(Sec.3.2, 4.10.1), an obligatory Equal marker slot filled by le, lûa nqåu le,mbåu le, and an obligatory Subject$_2$ slot filled by a nominal phrase.

2. An obligatory Subject$_1$ slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1), an obligatory Predicate slot filled by zhong le'same', thông le'equal in size', lûa i yáng le'same in size', and an obligatory Subject$_2$ slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec. 3.1).

3. An obligatory Subject$_1$ slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1), an obligatory Predicate slot filled by many kinds of verb phrase(Sec.3.2), an optional Object slot filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory Manner slot filled by an adverb(Sec.4.11), an obligatory Equal marker slot filled by mbåu le'same', and an obligatory Subject$_2$ slot filled by a nominal phrase.

1. kǔ   mǐ   le   kâo
   I   small MK   you
   'I am as small as you.'

2. kǔ   lû   lûa nqåu le   kâo
   I   big   MK   you
   'I am as big as you.'

3. pé cě   zhong le   mê cǒ

   we house same   you house

   'Our house is like your house.'

4. lá   lûa i yǎng le   tyùa

   monkey same(size)   gibbon

   'A monkey is as big as a gibbon.'

5. tú   mǐ nyùa mbua   ndǎw   thông le   tú   mǐ nyùa   mbua

   clas. child   pig   that   equal(size) clas. child   pig

   tǎo

   that

   'This little pig is as big as that one.'

6. kǔ   mûa   nyâ   ndau   mbǎu le   kǎo

   I   have money much   same   you

   'I have as much money as you do.'

2.1.10.2 Comparative degree

A simple comparative degree has the following nuclear forms:

$$Cl_{compare4} = +S_1{:}np \quad +P{:}vp_{des.} \quad +MK{:}\{klua\} \quad +S_2{:}np$$

$$Cl_{compare5} = +S_2{:}np \quad +P{:}vp \quad {}_{\mp}O{:}np \quad +Man{:}adv. \quad +MK{:}\{klua\} \quad +S_2{:}np$$

1. That is, an obligatory Subject$_1$ slot filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.3.1), an obligatory Predicate slot filled by a descriptive verb phrase(Sec.3.2, 4.10.1), an obligatory Comparative marker slot filled by klua or khlau, and an obligatory Subject$_2$ slot filled by a nominal phrase.

2. An obligatory Subject$_1$ slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1), an obligatory Predicate slot filled by many kinds of verb phrase(Sec. 3.2), an optional Object slot filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory Manner slot filled by an adverb(Sec.4.11), an obligatory Comparative

marker slot filled by <u>klua</u> or <u>khlau</u>, and an obligatory Subject$_2$ slot
filled by a nominal phrase. The nominal phrase in the Subject$_1$ slot
must be different from the nominal phrase in the Subject$_2$ slot.

1. kǔ   nchai   khlau   kâo

   I   afraid MK   you

   'I am more afraid than you.'

2. cǔ   lû   klua   mǐ

   tiger big   MK   cat

   'A tiger is bigger than a cat.'

3. púa   khla   njàw   khlau   kǔ

   they run   fast   MK   I

   'They run faster than I.'

4. nǒ   nyéng   ndaw   zhong   klua   kǔ

   he   read   book   well   MK   I

   'He read better than I.'

2.1.10.3 Superlative degree

A simple superlative degree has the following forms:

Cl.$_{compare6}$ = +S$_1$:np +P:vp$_{des.}$ +MK:{klua} +S$_2$:{cǎo...}

Cl.$_{compare7}$ = +S$_1$:np +P:vp ±O:np +Man:adv. +MK:{klua} +S$_2$:{cǎo...}

1. That is, an obligatory Subject$_1$ slot filled by a nominal phrase
(Sec.3.1), an obligatory Predicate slot filled by a descriptive verb
phrase(Sec.3.2, 4.10.1), an obligatory Comparative marker slot filled
by <u>klua</u> or <u>khlau</u>, and an obligatory Subject$_2$ slot filled by a nominal
phrase which has a classifier that indicates a group or all of one kind
of nouns, such as <u>tshua</u>+noun'every noun'.

2. An obligatory Subject₁ slot filled by a nominal phrase, an
obligatory Predicate slot filled by many kinds of verb phrase(Sec.3.2),
an optional Object slot filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory Manner
slot filled by an adverb(Sec.4.11), an obligatory Comparative marker
slot filled by klua or khlau, and an obligatory Subject₂ slot filled by
a nominal phrase which has a classifier that indicates a group or all of
one kind of nouns.

1. cǔ   nyǎu   khlau   cǎo   tsâ   hǔ shi
   tiger fierce   MK   group animal all
   'Tigers are the fiercest animal.'

2. nẘ   nGǔa   khlau   lùa tê   tǎng ntshao
   he diligent   MK   others   all
   'He is the most diligent.'

3. kǔ   nâo   mǎo   ndau   klua   cǎo
   I   eat   rice   much   MK   group
   'I eat the most of all.'

A simple superlative degree is shown above. In addition, superlative
degree may take the following forms:

+S:np   +P:vp   +MK: chẫng plǎw / kǎw
or
+S:np   +P:vp   ±O:np   +Man:adv.   +MK: chẫng plǎw / kǎw

1. nẘ·   nGǔa   chẫng plǎw
   he   diligent   the most
   'He is the most diligent man.'

2. nẘ   khla   shai   chẫng plǎw
   he   run   fast   the most
   'He runs the fastest.'

2.2 Transitivity modifications

2.2.1 Reflexive

Clause containing more than one participant slot may sometimes have the same person filling both the Actor slot and the Undergoer or Beneficiary or some other slot.

There is no marker that shows reflexivity. The same noun phrase is used in the other slot. Only a pronoun of the noun phrase in the first slot is sometimes permitted in the other slot, but this tend to be an ambiguous clause. It is known from the context which person is referred to.

1. kŭ   yùa   kŭ   nyẻng   ndăw

   I   order   I   read   book

   'I order myself to read.'   — Causer, Actor

2. kŭ   nà   chi   crua   nẘ

   I   mother angry   for   she

   'My mother is angry with herself.'   — Actor, Recipient

3. kŭ   .yŭa   qhau   crua   kŭ

   I   buy   shoe   for   I

   'I bought shoes for myself.'   — Actor, Beneficiary

2.2.2 Reciprocal

Two participants in an action may be doing the action to each other. Reciprocal is marked by putting shi in front of the verb or preposition.

1. áo   tú   ndăw   shi   nyà

   two   clas.   that   MK   love

   'The couple love each other.'   — Actor, Undergoer

2. nà   há   tsĭ   yŭa   ọhao   shi   .crua

   mother and father buy   shirt   MK   for

   'Mother and father buy shirts for each other.' — Actor, Recipient

3. áo   tǔ   kw̌ tî   chi   yǔa   mǒng   shái   nǎng

   two   clas. brothers   LK   invite   go   look   movie

   'Two brothers invite each other to go to see the movie.'

                                              - Causer, Actor

2.2.3 Neutralized transitivity

Neutralized transitivity has a form that looks like intransitive but it can be transitive,too. It is different from deletion because in neutralized transitivity there is nothing to be gleanded from the context, the missing elements are irrelevant.

1. tǎo   plǎ   kǔ   shǎng shǐ   nâo

   wait a minute I   be... ing   eat

   'Wait a minute, I am eating.'

2. kǔ   nâo   lǎw   kǔ   yǔa   mǒng

   I   eat   already I   will   go

   'After eating, I will go.'

2.3 Transformations

Clause generally may be transformed in the following ways:

2.3.1 Relativization

A clause that has been changed from an independent clause(Sec.2.1.1-2.1.10) and serves as a noun phrase or a modifier of a noun is a relative clause.

A simple relative clause has the following nuclear form:

Cl.$_{rel.}$ = (H:np) +RelMK: kẁ +Embedded Cl:cl.

That is, an obligatory Relative marker slot filled by <u>kẁ</u>, and an obligatory Embedded clause slot filled by a clause(any clauses in Sec. 2.1.1-2.1.10).

1. kŭ   săng   yŭa   căo   túa néng   <u>kẁ   mûa   nyâ</u>

   I   want   marry group person   that   have   money

   'I want to marry a person who has money.'

2. cráng   crả   nŭa   yảo   cráng   <u>kẁ   kŭ   yŭa   lŭ</u>

   clas.   knife this   be   clas.   that   I   buy   come

   'This is the knife that I bought.'

A relative clause marker may be optional when the relative clause subject acts as the actor of the action in the relative clause.

3. nẁ   ci   nyả   túa néng   <u>nyé   nyé</u>

   she   not   like   person   thin   thin

   'She does not like a person who is quite thin.'

4. nả   pŭ   lá   <u>nâo   páo kẁ</u>

   mother see   monkey eat   corn

   'My mother saw a monkey eating corn.'

   2.3.2 Nominalization

Nominalization is the way of making a clause into a noun to fill a Subject slot or sometimes an Object slot of a clause or a sentence.

Nominalized clauses can be formed by adding <u>kě kẁ</u> in front of the clause.

1. kě kẁ   nẁ   ngěng   ua   crua   nẁ   plŭa

   MK   she   lazy   do   for   she   poor

   'Her being lazy makes her poor.'

2. kĕ kẁ   kŭ   crau   nä   chĕ   ua   cruꞧ   kŭ   kûa

   ꞦK   I   pass.ꞦK   mother scold ꞧake   for   cry

   'Being scolded by my mother makes ꞧe cry.'

3. kĕ kẁ   kŭ   nä   tûa   ndäw   nŭa   yåo   tûꞧ   shái   kẁ tî

   ꞦK   I   ꞧother come   at   here   be   come   loo꞉ relative

   'My mother's coming here is to visit relatives.'

2.3.3 Imperative

The imperative clause functions primarily in the nucleus of
imperative sentence(Sec.5.4.1.2). It may also function in the nucleus
of social sentence(Sec.5.4.1.4). It is used in direct speech to command
the hearer to do or not to do something. Therefore, it can be said that
the imperative clause is divided into positive imperative and negative
imperative.

Structurally an imperative clause has an optional Subject. If the
Subject is present, only a second personal pronoun or a name or a kin
term can function as the Head of the nominal phrase(and there must be a
slight pause after it.).

The structure of positive imperative clauses may be diagrammed
very generally as:

±S:np +P:vp ±O:np +Man:adv. ±Final Part.:f.p.

All classes of verbs can be used in the verb phrase except descriptive,
equational and existence verb.

1. hà   í   zhä   há

   speak one times   again

   'Speak again.'

2. móng   qả   qả   mâ

   walk   quick quick   f.p,

   'Walk quickly, please.'

An imperative can be emphasized by repeating the actor again at the end of the clause before the final particle.

3. kâo   mŏng   kâo   lào mâ

   you   go   you   f.p.

   'You, please go.'

The structure of negative imperative clause may be diagrammed very generally as:

±S:np +Neg: hsáo +P:vp ±O:np ±Man:adv. +Final Part:f.p.

1. hsáo   hà   tê   nŭa

   don't   say   some   this

   'Don't say like this.'

2. hsáo   nâo

   don't   eat

   'Don't eat.'

3. kâo   hsáo   mŏng   mâ

   you   don't   go   f.p.

   'You, please don't go.'

4. hsáo   mŏng   njàw   mâ

   don't   walk   fast   f.p.

   'Don't walk fast, please.'

2.4 Negation and prominence

2.4.1 Negation

A clause as a whole may be negated by adding ci 'not' in front of the main verb in the predicate slot.

+S +ci +P

1. kŭ   ci   páu

   I   not   know

   'I don't know.'

2. nǎng mao   nǔ   ci   zhɔng   nyáo

    yesterday   she   not   good   be

    'She was sick yesterday.'

3. kâo   ci   móng   lào

    you   not   go   f.p.

    'Don't you go?'

Negation of ability may be different from the first form because ci has to be placed just before the predicate tau or tsâw 'able'.

1. kǔ   móng   ci   tau

    I   go   not   can

    'I cannot go.'

2. kǔ   ci   tsâw   ua   mǎo

    I   not   able   do   rice

    'I cannot cook rice.'

2.4.2 Topicalization(focus)

A participant in a clause may be made the focus of the clause by subjectivization or passivization.

1. cǔ   tû   nǔ

    tiger   bite   he

    'A tiger bit him.'   - Actor focus.

A clause which the undergoer is put in focus instead of the actor is passive. That is, the undergoer is put in the subject position of the clause.

A passive transitive clause is formed by:

+Undergoer   +Passive MK:crâu   ±Actor   +P

2. kǔ   crâu   klě   tû

    I   pass.MK   dog   bite

    'I was bitten by the dog.'   - Undergoer focus.

An element of a clause may be made the topic of the clause by topicalization that shows which of the participants will be treated as the center of interest in the clause. It is not necessarily the subject, nor even a nuclear participant, that is topicalized. The elements of a clause can be made the topic by fronting it at the beginning of the claus

1. ndǎw   nǔa   kǔ   ua   nyâ   plû   nǎng mao
   at   this I   do   money lose yesterday
   'This is the place where I lost my money yesterday.'
                                    - Location setting topic.

2. lú   kau mǎo   kw̌   nw̌   ndong   lá
   clas. hat   that she   wear   red
   'The hat that she wears is red.' -Undergoer focus,topic
                                    (relativization)

2.4.3 Other prominence

Elements in a clause may be given increased prominence by lengthenin the vowel and/ or raising the tones of those elements. Elements which are usually given prominence are time and locative phrases. Elements in a phrase can equally be given prominence in these ways,too.

1. thǎu   ú;(thǎu: ú)   mûa   ǎo   tú   kw̌ tî
   when   far   have two clas. brothers
   'A long, long time ago there were two brothers.'

2. tî: ú (tî   u:)   nâw
   at   far   f.p.
   'Far away over there.'
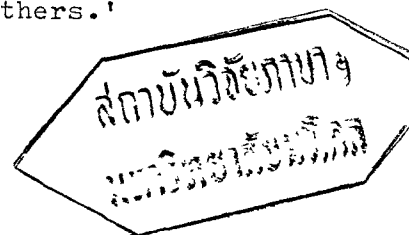
The Predicate slot of a clause can be given prominence by repeating the main verb and lengthen the vowel of the repeated verb and change the tone of that verb to higher pitch.

1. sang   nẘ   mŏng   kâu   kâ:w   ndǎw

    send   he   go   study   study   book

    'Send him to study and study for a long time.'

2. tǔ   tú   mŏng   mó:ng   yǔə   tau   ndáu

    clas. son   go   go   buy   get   cloth

    'The son went and went a long way and bought cloth.'

2.5 Additional elements

In addition to the basic elements presented in Sec.2.1, there may be additional participant, additional predicate elements and peripheral elements.

2.5.1 Additional participants

Additional participant slots may be added to a clause without affecting the basic transitivity relations.

Causer

Direct causers and indirect causers may be added by putting the causers and causer verbs(Sec.4.10.10) in front of the clause slot. There can be two or more causers and causer verbs in one clause. Causers may be formed as follow:

+Indirect causer:np+Causer vp.+Direct causer:np+Causer vp.+(+S+P+O)

1. nẘ   ca   kǔ   hà

    he   let   I   speak

    'He lets me speak.'   - Direct causer.

2. nǎ   kùa   kâo   mŏng   pʋ   nua

    mother order   you   go   sleep   f,p.

    'Mother tells you to go to sleep.'   - Direct causer.

3. kǔ   tsi   hà   kǔ   mŏng   hà   néng   mŏng   ua   nǔ

    I   father tell   I   go   tell   Neng   go   do   work

    'My father tells me to tell Neng to go to work.' -Direct and

                                           indirect causers.

4. qhǔ   hà   kǔ   hà   nǎ   tûɪ   ndǎw   cě kǎw ndǎw

teacher tell I   tell mother come   at   school

'The teacher tells me to tell my mother to come to school.'

- Direct and indirect causers.

Beneficiary

Beneficiary may be added after the clause. Usually we use the word **crua** as the marker of beneficiary. There can be two or more beneficiaries in one clause. Beneficiary can be formed as follow:

+S:np +P:vp +O:np +BenMK: crua +Ben:(np+vp)

1. púa   tǎng tǎo   ua   nǔ   crua   lǎu něng

   they   be.. ing   do   work   for   village leader

   'They are working for the village leader.'

2. nǎ   ua   mǎo   crua   mǐ nyǔa   nâo

   mother do   rice   for   child   eat

   'Mother cooks rice for the children to eat.'

3. kǔ   nǎ   yǔa   í   ngǎw   qhau   crua   kǔ

   I   mother buy   one   pair   shoe   for   I

   'My mother bought me a pair of shoes.'

Instrument

Instrument may be added to the clause before the Predicate slot. The marker of instrument is **shǐ** which means 'use'.

+S:np +InsMK:shǐ +Ins:np +P:vp +O:np

1. púa   shǐ   crǎ   tua   náng

   they   use   knife   kill   snake

   'They kill a snake with a knife.'

2. nẃ   shǐ   ʈau   ndǔ   ndonʒ

   he   use   axe   cut   tree

   'He cut the tree with an axe.'

Accompaniment

Accompaniment may be added to the clause by putting accompaniment
and the marker <u>njrú</u> in front of the clause. Accompaniment can be formed by:

+Acc:np +AccMK:njrú +S:np +P:vp +O:np

1. kǔ   <u>njrú   kǔ   nã</u>   mǒng   tǎo   ká

   I   with   I   mother   go   at   market

   'I go to the market with my mother.'

2. kǔ   tsǐ   kùa   <u>kǔ   njrú   tsǐ</u>   mǒng   tǎo   té

   I   father   let   I   with   father   go   at   field

   'My father lets me go to the field with him.'

There is a restriction of this form, that is, the preverb <u>yǔa</u>'will'
must be changed from the normal position(following the subject of the clause
and be put in front of the marker <u>njrú</u>.

3. <u>kǔ</u>   yǔa   <u>njrú   kǔ   tsǐ</u>   mǒng   plǎo

   I   will   with   I   father   go   hunt

   'I will go hunting with my father.'

2.5.2 Manner elements

Manner elements that are outside the structural Predicate but they
describe the action, may be added by putting an adverb phrase(Sec.3.5)
after the clause nucleus.

+S:np +P:vp +O:np +Man:adv.phrase

1. (nẘ   khla)   njàw

   he   run   quickly

   '(He runs) quickly.'

2. (mao ua té)   qéng   qéng

   Mo   do field   slow   slow

   '(Mo works on the farm) quite slowly.

3. (kŭ mbàw   nyéng   ndăw)   zhong

   I   friend read   book   good

   '(My friend reads) well.'

2.5.3 Peripheral elements

Peripheral elements are those elements which can be optionally applicable to almost any basic clause types. Peripheral elements give the time and location setting within which the clause takes place.

Time setting

Time setting slot is filled by a time phrase(Sec.3.6). It is generally placed before the clause nucleus, but sometimes may be placed after the clause nucleus.

1. nú   nua   kŭ   yŭa   mŏng   tăo   ká

   day   this   I   will   go   at   market

   'I will go to the market today.'

2. nằng mao   púa   ntshua   crĭ chao

   yesterday   they   wash   clothes

   'They washed clothes yesterday.'

3. ndăw   nŭa   kŭ   ua   nyâ   plû   nằng mao

   at   this   I   do   money lose   yesterday

   'This is the place where I lost money yesterday.'

Location setting

Location setting is manifested by a locative phrase (Sec.

3.?) or a place name or a demonstrative(Sec.4.3). It is generally placed
after the clause nucleus, but may also be placed before the clause
nucleus by topicalization(Sec.2.4.2).

1. kǔ ua nǔ tȟo aáng cě

   I   do work at back house

   'I work behind the house.'

2. nẘ tûa ndǎw nǔa

   he come at this

   'He came here.'

3. púa táng tǎo tw̌ pǎo hǔ cě

   they be...ing play cards in house

   'They are playing cards in the house.'

4. ndǎw nǔa kǔ pǔ kâo nbua náng mao

   at this I see you pig yesterday

   'This is the place where I saw your pig yesterday.'

2.6 Aspect modifications

The aspect modifications may be subdivided into:

2.6.1 Modality

Modality presents the actor's viewpoint about the action. The
clause nucleus describes what the actor actually does, but his volition,
necessity, or ability to do the action is modality.

A. Volition includes a range from deliberate to involuntary
action.

1. nẘ tsháo tsi̋ ndàu kǔ

   he intend hit I

   'He intends to hit me.'

2. púa múa shá ua nǔ

   they get heart do work

   'They deliberately work.'

3. khao   ci   múa   shá   hà

   Kho   not   get   heart   speak

   'Kho speaks unintentionally.'

   B. Ability ranges from ability to unability.

1. kâo   nà   ua   mǎo   tau

   you   mother   do   rice   able

   'Your mother can cook rice.'

2. tê zhà   púa   ua   tau

   maybe   they   do   can

   'Maybe they can do it.'

3. kǔ   ua   ci   tau

   I   do   not   able

   'I cannot do it.'

   C. Necessity ranges from free will to compulsion.

1. tsǐ něng   tshua   tú   púa   lêng   mûa   zhǔ

      man   every   clas.   every   person   have   strength

   'Every man have strength.'

2. tông   yǔa cǔ   mǒng   tǎo   cě

   Tong   must   go   at   house

   'Tong has to go home.'

3. kâo   ci hsáo   tûa   ndǎw   nǔa

   you   not have to   come   at   this

   'You don't have to come here.'

   2.6.2 Aspect

Aspect is a verb phrase notion(Sec.3.2), but sometimes manifested at the clause rank. Aspect tells us about the internal timing of the action, whether it is punctiliar, continuative, completive,etc.

Punctiliar is unmarked. Continuative is marked by shǎng shǐ or táng tǎo. Completive is marked by nyǎ or lǐw.

1. nẘ   pón̊   ndong

   he   fall   tree

   'He falls from the tree.'   - Punctiliar.

2. tǔ   mbua   nǔa   shǎng snǐ   nâo

   clas.   pig   this   be...ing   eat

   'This pig is eating.'   - Continuative.

3. pǔa táng   kǔ   nyǎ   nâo   m̌ao

   a minute ago   I   just   eat   rice

   'I have just eaten rice.'   - Immediate completive.

4. kâo   tsǐ   qǎu   tyâw   lǎw

   you   father   drunk   whisky   already

   'Your father has been drunk.'   - Completive.

·2.6.3 Illocution(Speech act types)

Speech act types(Sec.5.2.1) are sentence modalities, but they often affect the clause. There are three major kinds of speech acts; declarative imperative, and interrogative.

A. **Declarative**. A declarative illocution is a statement where assurance may very from certain to uncertain. Certain is unmarked. Very certain is marked by tǎ tǎ 'really'. Uncertain is marked by yěng 'may' or tê zhǎ 'maybe'.

1. nǎng   lǔ   lǎw

   rain   come   already

   'It rained.'   - Certain.

2. nǎng   lǔ   lǎw   tǎ   tǎ   le

   rain   come   already   real   real   f.p.

   'It has really rained.'   - Very certain.

3. púa   yěng   ci   tau   lǔ

they   may   not   can   come

'They might not come.'   - Uncertain.

For more details see Sec.5.2.1.1.

3. <u>Imperative</u> An imperative is a statement of desired action whose force varies from strong to mild. See Sec.2.3.4 and 5.2.1.3 for details.

C. <u>Interrogative</u> An interrogative illocution may presume the answer. It may be generally subdivided into:

(1).<u>Yes-no question</u>, marked by <u>lào</u>, <u>ci tau</u>, and <u>pùa</u>.

1. tûa   <u>lào</u>

come MK

'Have you come?'

2. kâo   nâo   mǎo   <u>ci   tau</u>

you   eat   rice   not   completed

'Have you eaten rice yet?'

3. <u>pùa</u>   tau   ua   zhǎu

MK   completed   do   food

'Have you cooked food?'

4. nw̌   ci   tûa   <u>pùa</u>   yǎo

he   not   come   MK   be

'He does not come, does he?'

(2) <u>Alternative question</u>, marked by <u>lào</u>

1. kâo   yǔa   mǒng   <u>lào</u>   ci   mǒng

you   will   go   or   not   go

'Will you go or not?'

(3) <u>Content question</u>, marked by <u>lêng tw̌</u>'who', <u>thǎu tw̌</u>'when',etc.

1. kâo   nyǎ   <u>lêng tw̌</u>

you   like   who

2. kâo   tûa   thầu tù

   you   come   when

   'When did you come?'

3. ua cảng   kâo   tûa

   why   you   come

   'Why do you come?'

For more details and discussion about interrogative, see Sec.5.4.1.3.

CHAPTER III

3. Phrase

Phrases are descriptive units which may contain one or more words. They normally function as components of clauses, but may be embedded in other phrases or may be used at higher rank.

Phrase structures usually contain a head (a main noun or a main verb) and may not contain any modifiers. So a noun standing by itself in a clause is a minimum noun phrase, or a verb by itself is a minimum verb phrase.

Structurally and functionally phrases may be divided into two types of major phrases; nominal phrases and verb phrases, and five types of minor phrases; adjective phrases, adverb phrases, numeral phrases, time phrases, and locative phrases. There are special phrases for natural phenomena in this language. No general formula can be given for phrases as a whole.

3.1 Nominal phrases

The nominal phrase functions normally as the filler of a clause participant slot, but may also function as a unit within a noun phrase or a locative phrase and sometimes at a higher rank (sentence).

Structurally nominal phrases may be divided into noun phrases and pronoun phrases. These subtypes differ from each other in their heads, in their elements, and in their transformation potential.

Nominal phrases are marked by having nouns or nounlike elements in their Head slot.

3.1.1 Noun phrases

The general noun phrase has the following basic form:

Noun phrase =±Poss:(np± le) ±Quat:nu. ±Mod$_1$: clas. +HN:noun

±Mod$_2$: v.$_{des.}$/ cl.$_{rel.}$ ±Mod$_3$: dem.

That is, an optional Possessor slot filled by a nominal phrase and, an optional possessive marker le, an optional Quantifier slot filled by a numeral phrase(Sec.3.4, 4.5), an optional Modifier$_1$ slot filled by a classifier(Sec.4.6), an obligatory Head noun slot filled by a noun(Sec. 4.1), an optional Modifier$_2$ slot filled by a descriptive verb(Sec.4.10.1) or a relative clause(Sec.2.3.1), and an optional Modifier$_3$ slot filled by a demonstrative(Sec.4.3). The demonstrative word marks the end of a noun phrase.

The normal order of the elements in a noun phrase is in the form above, but in normal speech the full form is rarely found.

```
                HN
1. púa    tua   mbua

   they   kill  pig

   'They kill a pig.'
```

```
   Poss  HN          Poss  HN
2. pé    cě  ci  lûa  mê    cě

   we  house  not  equal  you  house

   'Our house is not as big as yours.'
```

```
         Quant  Mod 1  HN
3. mûa   ndau   cǎo    lá   nyáo   táo   hǎng zhŏng

   have  many  group  monkey  live  at    forest

   'There are many kinds of monkeys in the forest.'
```

```
   Mod1  HN    Mod3
4. lú    cě    nǔa      qú    lǎw
```

clas. house this   old   already

'This house is already old.'

```
      Poss    HN
5. kǔ    le    khǎ    tǎo    té    lŵ
```

I   possMK   ginger   at   field rotten

'My ginger at the field is rotten.'

```
   Mod1  HN    Mod2     Mod3
6. tú    klě   kláw     ndǎw     crǎo
```

clas. dog   white   that   fat

'That white dog is fat.'

It is noted that the Modifier$_2$ slot may be one or multiple(rare), if there are multiple modifiers the color will precede the quality and the quality usually has repeated form.

```
   Poss Quant Mod1  HN    Mod2    Mod2
7. kǔ   áo    lú    chao  kláw    nyě  nyě   klua     lǎw
```

I   two   clas. shirt white thin thin torn   already

'My two thin white shirts have been torn.'

3.1.1.1 Compounding

Elements in a noun phrase may be compounded in the following ways:

Additive compounding This combines two or more related nouns by adding conjunction há between them.

Examples are:

1. cǔ   há   mǐ   cǔ   lû   klua

    tiger and cat tiger big   more

    'Between a tiger and a cat, a tiger is bigger.'

2. kǔ   mûa   nyâ   há   kú

    I   have silver and   gold

    'I have silver and gold.'

Alternative compounding This permits a choice from two or more nouns by adding conjunction __lào__ between them.

1. púa   pǔ   ntshi   lào   nyû

    they   see   elephant   or   cow

    'Did they see an elephant or a cow?'

2. kâo   sǎng   tau   nyâ   lào   kǔ

    you   want   get   silver   or   gold

    'Do you want to get silver or gold?'

Contrastive compounding This pairs a noun with its negated opposite by adding __ci yǎo__ between them.

1. kâo   tsǐ   tua   nǎng   ci yǎo   klě

    you   father   kill   snake   not be   dog

    'Your father killed a snake not a dog.'

2. mǎo   nâo   mǎo   njrua   nje   ci yǎo   nGâ

    Mo   eat   rice   with   fish   not be   meat

    'Mo eats rice with fish not meat.'

3.1.1.2 Deletion

Elements in a noun phrase may be deleted under the following conditions

1. Whenever HN follows Possessor and Possessive marker __le__, __le__ can be deleted without changing the meaning of the phrase.

kŭ (le) lú chao

I possMK clas. shirt

'my shirt'

nẃ (le) tsǐ

he possMK father

'his father'

2. When HN follows the Possessor and Possessive marker and the HN is known from the context, the HN can be deleted.

A: cǎo ndǎw nǔa yǎo lêng tẃ le

     group book this be who possMK

     'Whose are these books?'

B: kŭ le

     I possMK

     'Mine.'

3. Possessor and Possessive marker can be deleted when the Possessor is the first person(either singular or plural) and the HN is a kin term.

(kŭ) nǎ yǔa tûa ndǎw nǔa

     I mother will come at this

     'My mother will come here.'

kŭ cràu (kŭ) nǎ chě

I passMK I mother scold

'I was scolded by my mother.'

4. A classifier(Mod$_1$) may often be deleted when there is a Possessor before it, but it cannot be deleted when there is a demonstrative and/ or a numeral in the phrase.

```
ků    (lǔ)    cě     lû
      \
I     clas.   house    big
```

'My house is big.'

```
áo    tů     mbua    hǎo    cråo

two   clas.   pig     that    fat
```

'That two pigs are fat.'

```
(tů)     mbua    cråo

clas.    pig      fat
```

'Pigs are fat.'

3.1.1.3 Transformations

The order of the elements in a noun phrase may be changed as follow:

```
1. tsǐ    le    ⁻áo    tů    něng    klǎw    nůa

   father possMK two clas. horse      white    this
```

'these two white horses of my father.'

        - simple noun phrase

```
2. tsǐ     le      něng   klǎw    áo    tů    nůa

   father possMK     horse   white    two clas.  this
```

'these <u>two</u> white horses of my father'

       - putting the numeral and classifier at the end of the noun phrase to emphasize on the number.

```
3. áo    tů    něng    klǎw    nůa    tsǐ    le

   two   clas.  horse    white    this    father possMK
```

'these two white horses of <u>my father</u>'

       - putting Possessor and Possessive marker at the end of the noun phrase to emphasize the Possessor.

A noun phrase may be transformed into a clause in the following ways:

4. áo   tǔ   něng   kláw   yǎo   tsǐ   le

two   clas. horse   white   be   father possMK

'The two white horses are my father's.'

- emphasizing ownership(using yǎo'be')

5. tsǐ   mûa   áo   tǔ   něng   kláw

father have   two   clas. horse   white

'My father has two white horses.'

- emphasizing owner (using mûa'have')

The root(semantic root) for this paradigm is:

/ Item: něng , Possessor: tsǐ , PossessiveMK: le , Quantifier: áo

Mod$_1$:tǔ , Mod$_2$: kláw /

1. Possessor, PossessiveMK, Quantifier, Mod$_1$, Item, Mod$_2$

2. Possessor, PossessiveMK, Item, Mod$_2$, Quantifier, Mod$_1$

3. Quantifier, Mod$_1$, Item, Mod$_2$, Possessor, PossessiveMK

4. Quantifier, Mod$_1$, Item, Mod$_2$, yǎo, Possessor, PossessiveMK

5. Possessor, mûa , Quantifier, Mod$_1$, Item, Mod$_2$

Adjuncts

yǎo : yǎo'be'

mûa : mûa'have'(used in place of le which indicates owner)

3.1.1.4 Negation

Elements in a noun phrase may be negated by adding ci in front of the Quality word or color.

í cráng pháo ci zhong núa yǎo qhú le
one clas. gun not good this be teacher possMK

'This bad gun is the teacher's.'

kǔ mûa chao ci chua qú í lú
I have shirt not quite old one clas.

'I have a new shirt.'

púa ci nyǎ ndáu ci kláw núa
they not like cloth not white this

'They do not like this not white cloth.'

3.1.2 Pronoun phrase

A general pronoun phrase has the following basic form:

Pronoun phrase =+H:pronoun $\pm$Quant:nu. $\pm$Mod$_1$:clas. $\pm$Mod$_2$: dem.

That is, an obligatory Head slot filled by a pronoun(Sec.4.2), an optional Quantifier slot filled by a numeral(Sec.4.5), an optional Modifier$_1$slot filled by a classifier(Sec.4.6) and an optional Modifier$_2$ slot filled by a demonstrative(Sec.4.3). It is noted that the Quantifier will change to the final position if it is a general numeral.

H	Quant	Mod1	Mod2
pé	pláu	lêng	núa

we   four   person   this

'four of us'

H	Quant			
pé	shǔa kláw	yǔa	mǒng	cě

we   all   will   go   house

'All of us will go home.'

```
H      Mod1    Mod2
pé     cǎo     nǔa     yǎo    qhǔ
```

we   group   this   be   teacher

'We are all teachers.'

```
H      Mod1    Mod2    Quant
pua    cǎo     ndǎw    hǔ shi   nyǎo   pě    khê mǐ
```

they   group   that   all   be   on/to Khek Noi

'Those all live in Khek Noi.'

3.1.2.1 Compounding

Elements in a pronoun phrase may be compounded in the following ways:

Additive compounding It combines two or more pronouns by adding conjunction **há** between them.

```
mé     há     púa     yǔa    mǒng   klang   klê
```

we   and   they   will   go   bathe   water

'We and they will go to take a bath.'

```
tông   nyǎ    kǎo    ha    kǔ
```

Tong   like   you   and   I

'Tong likes me and you.'

Alternative compounding. It permits a choice from two pronouns by adding conjunction **lào** 'or', ci....... lào ......'if not ......then...'

```
ci     kǎo    lào    kǔ     yǔa    mǒng   tsǎ    ndong
```

not   you   or   I   will   go   cut   tree

'If not you then I will go to cut the trees.'

```
tông   nyǎ    kǎo    lào    kǔ
```

Tong   like   you   or   I

'Does Tong like you or me?'

<u>Contrastive compounding</u> It pairs a pronoun with it negated

opposite by adding <u>ci yao</u> between them.

tŭ   hlau nqâu   ndǎw   nyā̄   kâo   ci   yȧo   ṇúa

clas.   girl   that   like   you   not   be   they

'That girl likes you not them.'

3.2 Verb phrase

The verb phrase functions normally as fillers in the Predicate

slot in clauses(Sec.2), but it is sometimes found functioning in a

noun phrase(Sec.3.2.1.4).

The verb phrase consists of a main verb in the Head slot and the

elements directly modifying it. The modifying elements are seldom

separable from the main verb by other clause level elements.

A general verb phrase has the following form:

$$VP = \underline{+}PreMod:prv. \quad +MV:v. \quad \underline{+}PostMod_1:psv. \quad +PostMod_2:adv.$$
$$\underline{+}PostMod_3:intens.$$

That is, an optional Premodifier slot filled by a preverb(Sec.4.8),

an obligatory Main Verb slot filled by a verb(Sec.4.10), an optional

Postmodifier$_1$ slot filled by a postverb(Sec.4.9), an optional Postmodi-

fier$_2$ slot filled by an adverb phrase(Sec.3.5), and an optional

Postmodifier$_3$ slot filled by an intensifier(Sec.4.12)

Structurally verb phrases may be divided into active verb phrases,

descriptive verb phrases, and copulative verb phrases. These differ

from each other in their main verbs, thier potential expansions, and

the clause types in which they function.

3.2.1 Active verb phrase

An active verb phrase normally functions in the Predicate slot of all clauses except descriptive, equational, and locative clauses.

A general active verb phrase has the following form:

VP $= \pm$ PreMod:prv. +MV:v. $\pm$PostMod$_1$:psv. $\pm$PostMod$_2$:adv.

$\pm$PostMod$_3$:intens.

That is, an optional Premodifier slot filled by one or more preverbs (Sec.4.8), an obligatory Main verb slot filled by a verb(Sec.4.10), an optional Postmodifier$_1$ slot filled by a postverb(Sec.4.9), an optional Postmodifier$_2$ slot filled by an adverb(Sec.4.11), and an optional Postmodifier$_3$ slot filled by an intensifier(Sec.4.12).

	prv.	MV	psv.
kŭ	sàng	nâo	làw
I	want	eat	already

'I want to eat now.'

	prv.	prv.	MV
nàng	nzŭ nyao	yŭa	lù
rain	may	will	come

'Maybe it will rain.'

	prv.	MV	psv.	intens.	
nẘ	yŭa	ua	tau	tâ	tâ
he	will	do	can	real	real

'He can really do it.'

3.2.1.1 Compounding

There may be compounding in the main verb slot, but seldom in the modifier slots. Compounding may be equivalent, additive, contrastive, or alternative. Alternative and additive compounding are quite common in this language

Alternative compounding is marked with lào

kâo   yǔa   mȯng   lào   khla

you   will   walk   or   run

'Will you walk or run?'

nẘ   yǔa   shau   ndǎw   lào   nyèng   ndǎw

he   will   write   book   or   read   book

'Will he write or read?'

Additive compounding, sometimes called verb serialization, puts together two or more verbs that are in a close-knit sequence. This is very common in the Hmong Njua language. There is only a single subject and object for all the verbs in the sequence.

púa   mȯng   shái   náng

they   go   look   movie

'They go to see the movie.'

kǔ   yǔa   mȯng   múa   chao   tûa

I   will   go   get   shirt   come

'I will go to get the shirt back.'

3.2.1.2 Deletion

A main verb may be deleted when it is preceded by a preverb tau in an interrogative sentence(but it is known from the context), and in the answer the main verb can be deleted.

A: pùa   tau   nâo   mǎo

   or not completed eat rice

   'Have you eaten rice?'

B: ci   ⟍tau   (nâo)   e

   not completed   eat   f.p.

   'No, not yet.'

3.2.1.3 Class changing

An active verb phrase may be changed to a nominal phrase to fill a subject or sometimes an object slot in a clause by adding (qhǎo) kě in front of the phrase, for example:

kě	ndǔ	ndong	mà	ua	í	yǎng	nǔ	nyǎng	kǎw
-	cut	tree	-	be	one	kind	work	hard	much

'Cutting the trees down is a kind of hard work.'

qhǎo kě	sàw	yǎo	qùa mùa	le	nǔ
-	sew	be	woman	possMK	work

'Sewing is the woman's work.'

3.2.1.4 Negation

An element in an active verb phrase may be negated by adding ci 'not' in front of it, for example:

kǔ	chaw	yǔa	ci	mǒng
I	maybe	will	not	go

'I may not go.'   – Main verb negation.

tǔ	něng	ndǎw	ci	sǎng	hàu	klê
clas.	horse	that	not	want	drink	water

'That horse does not want to drink water.'   – Preverb negation.

nẘ	ua	mǎo	ci	tau
he	do	rice	not	can

'He cannot cook rice.'   – Postverb negation.

3.2.2 Descriptive verb phrase

A descriptive verb phrase normally functions in the Predicate slot of a descriptive clause.

A general descriptive verb phrase has the following form:

$VP_{des.} = \pm PreMod:prv. + MV:v_{des.} \pm PostMod:intens.$

That is, an optional Premodifier slot filled a preverb(Sec.4.8), an obligatory Main verb slot filled by a descriptive verb(Sec.4.10.1), and an optional Postmodifier slot filled by an intensifier(Sec.4.12)

	MV	intens.
klê	tú	kǎw

water   deep   much

'The water is very deep.'

	MV	intens.
nẘ	nGủa	châng plǎw

he   diligent   the most

'He is the most diligent.'

	MV	MV			prv.	MV
nẘ	nGủa	nGủa	ci kǎng	nẘ	céng	plúa

he   diligent diligent   however   he   still   poor

'He is quite diligent,however, he is still poor.'

3.2.2.1 Compounding

There may be compounding in the main verb slot. Alternative and contrastive compounding are quite common.

Alternative compounding is usually marked with lào.

kǔ	ci	páu	tà	nẘ	nje	lào	crủa

I   not   know   that   he   clever   or   foolish

'I do not know whether he is clever or foolish.'

Alternative compounding may be marked with tsâw... tsâw....

tsâw	crủa	tsâw	nje

-   foolish   -   clever

'either foolish or clever.'

Contrastive compounding is marked with kùa 'but'.

tsẃ tsáng   ndãw   kǎo   lû   kùa   ci   nyãng

  box   at   that big but   not   heavy

'That box is big but not heavy.'

zhǎu   nǔa   zhong ngâu   kùa   qáu   qáu   le

vegetable this   beautiful   but   bitter   bitter f.p.

'This vegetable is beautiful but bitter.'

3.2.2.2 Deletion

A main verb may be deleted when it has a Postmodifier, but it is known from the context, for example:

A: kǔ   pùa   nzǎu   ndau

   I   or not   thin   much

   'Am I very thin?'

B: ndau

   much

   'Yes.'

3.2.2.3 Class changing

A descriptive verb phrase may be changed to a nominal phrase to filled a subject or sometimes an object slot in a clause by adding (qhǎo) kě in front of the descriptive verb phrase.

qhǎo kě   qi ngẽng   ua   crua   nẘ   tau   tsài   (qhǎo)kě

  –   –   lazy   do   for   he   get   receive   – –

plùa

poor

'His being lazy makes him poor.'

3.2.2.4 Negation and prominence

An element in a descriptive verb phrase may be negated by adding
ci 'not' in front of it.

klê   ci   tú   ndau

water   not   deep   much

'The water is not very deep.'   - Main verb negation.

ku   tú   kw   ci   sang   crao

I   clas. sister not   want   fat

'My sister does not want to be fat.'   - Preverb negation.

A main verb may increase its prominence by the repetition of the
main verb and raising the intonation of the first verb to higher pitch,
for example:

kâo   crao   crao

you   fat   fat

'You are very fat.'

chao   nua   kláw   kláw   le

shirt   this   white   white   f.p.

'This shirt is very white.'

3.2.3 Copulative verb phrase

A copulative verb phrase normally function in the Predicate slot of
locative and equational clauses.

A general copulative verb phrase has the following form:

$$VP_{cop.} = \pm PreMod:prv. \quad +MV:v_{cop.} \quad \pm PostMod:psv.$$

That is, an optional Premodifier slot filled by a preverb(Sec.4.8),
an obligatory Main verb slot filled by a copulative verb; ua 'to be',

nyáo'to be, to live', yǎo'to be', and an optional Postmodifier slot filled by a postverb(Sec.4.9).

```
        prv.   MV
púa     yua    ua     thái klǎng
they    will   be     policeman
```

'They will be policemen.'

```
        MV
kǔ      yǎo    qhǔ
I       be     teacher
```

'I am a teacher.'

```
                                prv.     MV
tú      tsǐ nèng   ndǎw   nzǔ nyao   ua   túa nèng   zhong
clas.   man        that   maybe      be   person     good
lǎw
already
```

'That man might be a good man already.'

```
        prv.   MV
lêng tw̌  sǎng  nyáo   ndǎw   nǔa
who     want   be     at     this
```

'Who wants to be here?'

3.2.3.1 Deletion

A main verb may be deleted when it follows a postverb, but it is known from the context, for example:

```
A: kǎo    pùa    sǎng   ua    mǐa
   you    or not want   be    nurse
```

'Do you want to be a nurse?'

```
B: ci     sǎng
   not    want
```

'No, I don't want to.'

3.2.3.2 Class changing

A copulative verb phrase may be changed to a nominal phrase to fill a subject slot in a clause by adding ǫhǎo kě in front of the phrase, for example:

ǫhǎo kě	nyáo	cě	ndě	ndě	khlǔa
- -	be	house	long	long	boring

'Being at home for a long time is boring.'

ǫhǎo kě	ua	thái klǎng	mûa	qáng hau
- -	be	policeman	have	usefulness

'Being a policeman is useful.'

ǫhǎo kě	ua	túa néng	nGûa	ua	crua	nw̌	mûa	nyâ
- -	be	person	diligent	do	for	he	have	money

'Being a diligent man makes him have money.'

3.2.3.3 Negation

An element in a copulative verb phrase may be negated by adding ci 'not' in front of it, for example:

		MV		
kǔ	ci	yǎo	thái klǎng	
I	not	be	policeman	

'I am not a policeman.'   - Main verb negation

		MV		psv.
nẘ	tsǐ	ua	qhǔ	ci	tau
he	father	be	teacher	not	can

'His father cannot be a teacher.'   - Postverb negation

					prv	MV		
kǔ	páu	tà	lêng tw̌	ci	sǎng	ua	túa néng	phě
I	know	that	who	not	want	be	person	bad

'I know who does not want to be a bad person.' - Preverb negation

3.3 Special phrases for natural phenomena

There is no particular form to describe natural phenomena. It can be described by phrases or sometimes clauses, for examples:

cả	li	sú	'lightning'
sú	tua		'thunder'
sú	njong		'thunderclap'
lú	nǎng	chǎw	'drizzle'

It is noted here that natural phenomena can take several clauses forms, for example:

nǎng   lú

rain   come

'It rains.'   - Intransitive clause.

nú   nua   mîa   fúa   ndau

day   this   have   fog/cloud   much

'It is cloudy/foggy today.'   - Existence clause.

nú   nua   cǎng   ndû   klú   kǎw   le

day   this   why   sky   black   much   f.p.

'It is very cloudy today.'   - Descriptive clause.

3.4 Adjective phrase

An adjective phrase normally functions in a Modifier slot in a noun phrase(Sec.3.1) or in the Predicate slot of a descriptive clause(Sec.2.1.1).

A general adjective phrase has the following form:

$$AdjP_1 = +H:v_{des.} \quad +Quant: \{khlau\}$$

$$AdjP_2 = +Quant: \{mîa \ njǐ\} \quad +H:v_{des.}$$

1. That is, an obligatory Head slot filled by a descriptive verb (Sec.4.10.1) and an optional Quantifier slot filled by khlau 'more, over', ndau 'much',etc.

2. An optional Quantifier slot filled by mua nji 'quite', ci chang 'rather', and an obligatory Head slot filled by a descriptive verb.

		H	Quant.		
hlau ngau	shá	khlau	ci	zhong ngau	
girl	tall	more	not	beautiful	

'Very tall girls are not beautiful.'

			H	Quant.			
mong	nchǎ	ndong	ndě	pé shi		lu	shé
go	find	wood	long	three	distance from the	come	f.p.

elbow to tip of the

finger

'Go to bring about 50 centimetre long piece of wood.'

				Quant.	H
ku	nyǎ	cǎo	tua néng	mua nji	nzǎu
I	like	group	·person	quite	thin

'I like people who are quite thin.'

3.4.1 Compounding

There may be compounding in the Head slot of an adjective phrase. Compounding may be alternative, additive and contrastive.

Alternative compounding is marked with lào 'or'.

chao	klu	lao	klǎw	tu	nGe	ku	shi	mbǎu
shirt	black	or	white	clas.	cost	so	rec.MK	equal

'White or black shirts cost the same.'

Additive compounding is marked with há 'and'.

nw̥   nyá̟   ndye   cróng   shá   há   ndye   tâo

he   like   climb   mountain high   and   very   steep

'He likes to climb high and very steep mountain.'

Contrastive compounding is marked with kùa 'but'.

nw̥   nyá̟   ndye   cróng   shá   kùa   ci   ndye   tâo

he   like   climb   mountain high but   not   very   steep

'He likes to climb high but not very steep mountain.'

3.4.2 Negation and prominence

An element in an adjective phrase may be negated by adding ci in

front of it, for example:

nyû   ci   cråo

cow   not   fat

'not fat cow'

kǔ   pú̟   túa něng   ci   zhong

I   see   person   not   good

'I saw a not good person.'

The Head of an adjective phrase can be repeated to lessen the

meaning, for example:

chao   kláw   kláw   nǔa   kǔ   le

shirt   white   white   this   I   possMK

'This quite white shirt is mine.'

pé   nâo   mǎo   kú   kú

we   eat   rice   hot   hot

'We eat quite hot rice.'

3.5 Numeral phrase

A numeral phrase normally functions in a Quantifier slot in a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1) or sometimes in an adjective phrase or a descriptive verb phrase(Sec.3.2.2).

A general numeral phrase has the following form:

NuP. =$\pm$Approx$_1$:{yŭa lŭa} +Core:nu. $\pm$Approx$_2$:{tǎw}

That is, an optional Approximative$_1$ slot filled by yŭa lŭa 'nearly', ci khlau'not more than', ndau khlau'more than', cǎw khlau'less than', kw̆ yèng'about', an obligatory Core slot filled by a numeral(Sec.4.5), and an optional Approximative$_2$ slot filled by sw̆'only', tǎw'more', ndau'more', for example:

```
  ⟋Core
i    pua

'one hundred'

Core   Approx2
kǎu    tǎw

ten    more

'more than ten'
```
- -
```
Approx1      ⟋Core
yŭa lŭa    i    pua

nearly   one   hundred

'nearly one hundred'

Core           Approx2
plǎu   (lêng)    sw̆

four    person    only

'only four person'
```

kǔ	săng	tà	nW̊	mûa	nyâ	Approx1 ci̱ khlau	Core cí	mbă
I	think	that	he	have	money	not more than	five	baht

'I think that he has not more than five baht.'

kǔ	mûa	phông yw	Approx1 kW̌ yèng	Core kău	lêng
I	have	friend	about	ten	person

'I have about ten friends.'

3.5.1 Compounding

There may be an alternative compounding in the Core slot. It is marked with lào, for example:

crau	lào	hyang
'six	or	seven'

If the numeral is more than one hundred, the pua 'hundred' can be deleted, for example:

crau lào hyang pua

'six or seven hundred'

The marker lào can be deleted, but the meaning is somewhat different, for example:

pé plău

three four

'about three or four'

3.6 Adverb phrase

An adverb phrase normally functions in a Modifier slot in a verb phrase(Sec.3.2) and in the Manner slot in a clause.

A general adverb phrase has the following form:

AdvP = +H:adv. +Intens:{kåw} +(CompMK:{klua} +Item:np)

That is, an obligatory Head slot filled by an adverb(Sec.4.11),
an optional Intensifier slot filled by kåw'much', chầng plåw'most',
mĭ njĭ'little', and an optional Comparative slot filled by a Comparative
marker klùa or khlau and an Item slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.
3.1).

		H	Intens.
mbua	nâo	shai	chầng plåw
pig	eat	fast	the most

'Pigs eat the fastest.'

			H	Intens.
kŭ	tsĭ	hà	qéng	mĭ njĭ
I	father	speak	slow	little

'My father speaks quite slowly.'

		H
nẘ	mồng kĕ	njå̊ qầu tu
he	go for a stroll	quiet

'He goes for a stroll quietly.'

				H	Comp.	
pé	nắ	ua	nŭ	zhong	klua	cå̊o
we	mother	do	work	good	than	group

'Our mother works better than the others.'

3.6.1 Compounding

There may be compounding in the Head slot. Alternative and
contrastive compounding are fairly common.

Alternative compounding is marked with lào 'or'.

			H		
nẘ	nâo	mǎo	shai	lào	qéng
he	eat	rice	fast	or	slow

'Does he eat rice fast or slowly?'

Contrastive compounding is marked with kùa 'but'.

kŭ	hlai	mblê	zhong	kùa	qéng
I	harvest	rice	good	but	slow

'I harvest rice well but slowly.'

3.6.2 Repetition

The Head slot of an adverb may take repetition to lessen the
element, for example:

nẘ	mỏng	qéng	qéng
he	walk	slow	slow

'He walks quite slowly.'

The elements may be emphasized by raising the intonation of the first
adverb to higher pitch, for example:

ua cảng	kâo	nâo	shai	shai
why	you	eat	quick	quick

'Why do you eat very quickly?'

3.7 Time phrase

The time phrase normally functions as fillers in the Time Setting
slot in clauses(Sec.2.5.3.2) and sentences(Sec.5.1.3).

Time phrase has the following form:

TP_1 =+General time: {law}

TP_2 =+Time: {nŭ} +Dem: nŭa

TP_3 =+LK: lẘ +Time: {hyong}

1. That is an obligatory General time slot filled by tau 'past marker'
yùa 'will,future marker', and lẘ 'already,past marker'.

2. An obligatory Time slot filled by nŭ 'day', lŭ hli 'month', hyong
'year' and other time units, and an obligatory Demonstrative slot filled
by nŭa 'this'.

3. An obligatory Linkage slot filled by lw̄ 'next' and an obligatory
Time slot filled by hyong'year', tǎng kǐ'tomorrow' and other time units.

| kâo | yǔa | mǒng | tẘ | | TP$_1$ |
| you | will | go | where |

'Where will you go?'

| hyong | nǔa | kǔ | tyǎo | páo kẘ | TP$_2$ |
| year | this | I | plant | corn |

'I plant corn this year.'

| lw̄ | lú hlí | púa | yǔa | yǔa | ché | TP$_3$, TP$_1$ |
| next month | | they | will | buy | car |

'They will buy car next month.'

| lw̄ | hyong | pé | yǔa | mǒng | kåw | ndǎw | TP$_3$, TP$_1$ |
| next year | | we | will | go | study | book |

'We will go to study next year.'

3.8 Locative phrase

The locative phrase normally functions as filler in a Locative slot
in clauses(Sec.2.5.3.1) and sentences(Sec.5.1.2).

A general locative phrase has the following form:

LocP ≐ +Prep: prep. +Item:np/ dem

That is, an optional Preposition slot filled by a preposition(Sec.
4.4), and an obligatory Item slot filled by a nominal phrase(Sec.3.1) or
a demonstrative(Sec.4.3).

		Prep.	Item
púa	nyáo	tǎo	cě
they	be	at	house

'They are at home.'

```
                     Item
nẘ    pw    qhǎo    qú
```

he   sleep   place   old

'He sleeps at the place where he used to live.'

```
                                        Prep  Item
pé    yǔa    mo̊ng    lûa    njrâo    tɨ    té
```

we   will   go   cut   grass   at   field

'We will go to cut grass at the field.'

```
                  Prep     Item      dem.
no̊ng    nyáo    shau    ndong    nǔa
```

bird   be   on   tree   this

'The bird is on this tree.'

```
       Prep    dem.
lů     ndǎw    nǔa
```

come   at   this

'Come here.'

CHAPTER IV

4. Word class

The word rank is the rank next below the phrase rank in the
hierarchy. Words in Hmong may be simple or compound. A simple word is
considered to be the minimum meaningful unit which can be spoken in
isolation. A compound word is a combination of two or more words, but
the meaning of the whole word is different from the combined meaning
of the parts.

Words normally function in phrases(Sec.3), so that each slot in
phrases is normally filled by a simple or compound word. Words may also
function on higher ranks, especially particles or linkers.

A set of words that can filled a grammatical slot is called a word
class. Words may be divided into the following classes according to
their function; noun, pronoun, demonstrative, preposition, numeral,
classifier, conjunction, preverb, postverb, verb, intensifier, question,
final particle and exclamation.

4.1 Noun

Nouns normally function in the Head slot of a noun phrase(Sec.3.1.1).
Nouns may be simple or compound. A simple noun may consist of one or two
syllables. A compound noun consists of two morphemes, one or both of
which can stand alone as a Head noun. Some morphemes in compound nouns
are dependent and may never stand alone as a Head noun in a noun phrase.

4.1.1 Simple noun

Simple noun with one syllable, for example:

nGâ   'meat'

ndong	'tree'
crông	'table'
nyû	'cow'
khǎ	'ginger'
klě	'dog'

Simple noun with two syllables, for example:

túa něng	'person'
thái klâng	'police'
cŵ mě	'pencil'
phông yw	'friend'
lâu káu	'cooking pot'
páo kŵ	'corn'
kau mǎo	'hat'
kháu klǔa	'clothes'

4.1.2 Compound noun

Two or more simple nouns which are grammatically inseparable and function together as a noun are regarded as a compound noun, for example:

tsǐ ndong	'fruit'
hú klê	'water jar'
hau hú	'the lid of the jar'
qhǎo klê	'a well'
qhǎo crông	'door'
té mblê	'rice field'
mblê nchǎng	'rice(glutinous and purple)'
lǔ njǔa	'tale'
lǔ pâng	'proverb'

4.1.3 Class changing

A noun may be changed into other classes by combining with other
word classes such as:

N   + adv

shá zhong

heart well

'to be kind'   - descriptive verb

 V   +   N

kåw   ndåw

study book

'to study'   - active verb

4.1.4 Derived noun

A noun can be combined with a word in other classes to get a new
noun such as:

N   + V + N

cě   kåw ndåw

house study book

'school'

N   + V

mǒng   zhong

luck   good

'success'

 N   +   V

tů tú   shau

clas.son   keep

'orphan'

4.2 Pronoun

Pronouns function in the Head slot of a pronoun phrase(Sec.3.1.2).
They can be divided into personal and demonstrative pronouns.

4.2.1 Personal pronouns

kǔ, yǔ	'first person singular'
mé	'first person two person plural'
pé	'first person two or more persons'
kâo	'second person singular'
mê	'second person plural'
nẘ	'third person singular'
púa	'third person singular or plural'

Kinship terms can be used as personal pronouns. The terms which are
usually used are:

nǎ	'mother'
tsǐ	'father'
yǎw	'father's father'
pû	'father's mother'
lǎu	'father's older brother'
pû lǎu	'father's older brother's wife'
pû nyâng	'father's sister'
kláng lǎu	'mother's younger brother'
tî lǎu	'older brother'
kẘ	'younger brother'
nǎ lǎu	'older sister'
nǎ hlua	'younger sister'
tai	'mother's mother'
tai kláng	'sister-in-law(of female)

4.2.2 Demonstrative pronoun

Demonstrative pronouns can occur in a single filler of the Head slot of a nominal phrase. They are nŭa'this', ndăw'that', hăo'that(further than ndăw).

Examples:

nŭa   yåo   kŭ   tŭ   klĕ

this   be   I   clas.   dog

'This is my dog.'

ndăw   yåo   kláng ci

that   be   what

'What is that?'

hăo   yåo   kŭ   nå

that   be   I   mother

'That one over there is my mother.'

4.3 Demonstrative

Demonstratives function in the Modifier slot of a nominal phrase (Sec.3.1) and in the Item slot of the locative phrase(Sec.3.8). They can also function in the Location Setting slot of peripheral clause(Sec.2.5.3) or sentence elements(Sec.5.1.3). These demonstratives are:

nŭa   'this'

hăo,kăo   'that(far)'

ndăw   'that'

Examples:

kŭ   ci   nyå   lú   cĕ   nŭa

I   not   like   clas.   house   this

'I do not like this house.'

```
tsw̌ tsáng    ndáw   kǎo   lû
   box        at     that  big
```

'That box over there is big.'

4.4 Preposition

Prepositions normally function in the Preposition slot of a locative phrase(Sec.3.7).

```
táo        'at, to'

tǐ         'at(far)'

ndáw       'to, at(nearby)'

hǔ         'in'

shau       'on'

pe̊         'on(the mountain)'

zhe        'near'

hǔ plǎw    'between'

njrång     'below,under'

tsů        'to'
```

Examples:

```
púa  shǔa klǎw  túa  njrång  lomsak  túa
they  all       come below   Lomsak  come
```

'They all come from Lomsak below.'

```
pé  yǔa  mǒng  táo  ká
we  will go    to   market
```

'We will go to the market.'

```
púa  mǒng  hǎo  tẘ  lǔ
they go    at   where come
```

'Where did they come from?'

4.5 Numeral

Numerals normally function in the Core slot of a Numeral phrase (Sec. 3.4), but may sometimes function as full sentences when counting. The Numeral class is divided into specific and non-specific numerals. The specific numerals are the cardinal numerals.

4.5.1 Specific numerals

í	'one'
áo	'two'
pé	'three'
pláu	'four'
cí	'five'
crau	'six'
hyang	'seven'
yi̧	'eight'
tyûa	'nine'
kåu	'ten'

The teens are kåu 'ten' plus one to nine. The decades except twenty are three to nine plus tyåu 'ten'. Twenty is něng ngåu.

kåu-í	'eleven'
kåu áo	'twelve'
něng ngåu í	'twenty-one'
něng ngåu pé	'twenty-three'
pé tyåu	'thirty'
pé tyåu í	'thirty-one'
pé tyåu cí	'thirty-five'
pláu tyåu í	'forty-one'

í pua   'one hundred'

í pua í   'one hundred and one'

í pua něng ngău 'one hundred and twenty'

4.5.2 General numerals

General numerals normally occur in a noun phrase. They can be divided into three subclasses according to the position that they occured. Subclass I occurs in front of the noun.

nâ (with time period) 'every'

    nâ   nú

  'every day'

    nâ   hli

  'every month'

tshua 'every'

    tshua   lêng

  'every person'

    tshua   hyong

  'every year'

Subclass II occurs in front of the of the classifier.

ndau 'many'

    ndau   pang   něng

    many   flock   horse

  'many flocks of horses'

tê 'some'

    tê   tú   mǐ nyůa

    some clas. child

  'some children'

tê   zhǎ

some times

'sometimes'

<u>Subclass III</u> occurs after the noun it modifies.

pǔa lêng   'all(of people)'

shǔa klǎw   'all(of people)'

táng nchao   'all'

4.6 Classifier

Classifiers function in the Modifier slot of a noun phrase(Sec.3.1).
They are used to identify the nouns that they predede, and connote counting
of those nouns.

There are two distinct types of classifiers; general and measure.

4.6.1 General classifiers and rules of usage.

The general classifiers which are frequently used are:

<u>tǔ</u> is used to classify animate nouns, trees, and body parts or
things with long shape, for example:

í   tǔ   nyû

one clas. cow

'a cow'

í   tǔ   túa nêng

one clas. person

'a person'

í   tǔ   ndong

one clas. tree

'a tree'

í   tǔ   tyhâo

one clas. bridge

'a bridge'

í   tǔ   ndǐ tè

one clas. finger

'a finger'

lú is used to classify articles, buildings, seasons, months, clothing, vehicles, for example:

lú   páo zhé

clas. stone

'stone'

í   lú   cě

one clas. house

'a house'

í   lú   ché

one clas. car

'a car'

lú   ndû nao

clas. winter

'winter'

cí   lú   hli

five clas. month

'five months'

cráng is used to classify instruments or weapons, for example:

í   cráng   crǎ

one clas.   knife

'a knife'

í   cráng   phǎo

one clas.   gun

' a gun'

i   cráng   klǎ

one   clas.   spoon

'a spoon'

k̲l̲a̲i̲ is used to classify things in shape of sheet or flat expanses
of surface, for example:

i   klài   ndǎw

one   clas.   paper

'a sheet of paper'

i   klài   té

one   clas.   field

' a field'

t̲ǎu̲ is used to classify fruit or flowers in clusters, for example:

i   tǎu   tsǐ ndong

one   clas.   fruit

'a bunch of fruit'

i   tǎu   pâng

one   clas.   flower

'a bunch of flowers'

t̲ě̲n̲g̲ is used to classify drops of liquid, for example:

i   téng   nchǎng

one   clas.   blood

'a drop of blood'

i   téng   klê

one   clas.   water

'a drop of water'

t̲h̲ô̲n̲g̲ is used to classify things in small pieces, for example:

í thông ǎng

one clas. soil

' a piece og soil'

í thông njě

one clas. salt

'a piece of salt'

páng is used to classify animate nouns in groups, for example:

í páng nǒng

one clas. bird

' a group of birds'

pé páng nèng

three clas. horse

'three herds of horses'

sû is used to classify things with long thin shape or living a long time, for example:

í sû sǔ

one clas. thread

'a piece of thread'

pé sû hlua

three clas. rope

'three pieces of rope'

í sû máng

one clas. vine

'a vine'

hsáng is used to classify things that normally occur in pairs, for example:

áo hsáng tẹ̊

two clas. hand

'two hands'

í hsáng qua taw

one clas. leg

'a leg'

í hsáng qhau

one clas. shoe

'a shoe'

zhâng is used to classify stories, songs or things in rows,

for example:.

í zhâng lụ̊ njụ̊a

one clas. tale

'a tale'

í zhâng nqâu

one clas. song

'a song'

í zhâng cẹ̌

one clas. house

'a row of houses'

pẚw is used to classify things in piles, for example:

tyụ̂a pẚw njrâo

nine clas. grass

'nine piles of grass'

í pẚw nǦâ

one clas. meat

'a pile of meat'

4.6.2 Measure classifier

Measure classifiers are used to indicate the size or weight of an object, for example:

thóng	'20 litres'
cĕng	'big sack'
tåi	'a bowl'
ndĭ	'an inch'
klu	'the distance between thumb and extended middle finger'
zhĭ	'the distance between elbow and the top of middle finger'
mbấ	'a baht'

nyâ   i   mbấ   →

money one   baht

'one baht'

cí   tåi   măo

five bowl   rice

'five bowls of rice'

aó ... thóng ... mblê

two 20 litres   rice

'40 litres of rice'

pé   ndĭ   hlua

three inch   rope

'three inch piece of rope'

4.7 Conjunction

Conjunctions function in the Linkage or marker slot of phrase and clause compounding, or they may be the Linkage in sentences. They are:

há   'and'

kùa   'but

lào   'or'

yåo   'if'

vỉ, vỉ yåo, vỉ hà tà, yåo vỉ, yåo vỉ hà tà, yåo vỉ tà   'because'

mà, è   'then'

hả le   'then, so'

njrủ   'with'

njrua   'with(to mix)'

Examples:

kâo	ha	nẘ	yủa	ua	kláng ci
you	and	he	will	do	what

'What will you and he do?'

kǔ	nao	nao	è	kǔ	hả le	múa	chao	lǔ	nǎng
I	cold	cold	then	I	so	get	shirt	come	wear

'It is cold, so I bring a shirt to wear.'

nẘ	ci	zhong	nyáo	kùa	nẘ	mỏng	ua	nủ
she	not	good	be	but	she	go	do	work

'She is sick, but she goes to work.'

thảu tẃ	kǔ	njrủ	púa	hà lủ	mà	púa	yủa	châng múa
when	I	with	they	talk	then	they	will	shy

'Whenever I talk to them, they are shy.'

kǔ	tûa	vỉ hà tà	kâo	tûa
I	come	because	you	come

'I come because you come.'

4.8 Preverb

Preverbs function in the Premodifier slot of a verb phrase(Sec.3.2).
There are normally one or two preverbs per verb phrase as shown in the
following example. These preverbs can never function as a main verb.
They are: shǎng shǐ'progressive marker', táng tǎo'progressive marker',
yǔa lǔa'almost', cěng'still', sǎng'want', yǔa cǔ'must', yǔa'will',
cǐ nyao'should', tsâw'able', tau'past marker', phéng'often',etc.

prv.3	prv.2	prv.1	MV	
			shau ndǎw	'to write'
		tsâw	shau ndǎw	'able to write'
		tau	shau ndǎw	'wrote'
		phéng	shau ndǎw	'often write'
	sǎng	ᵣ	shau ndǎw	'want to write'
yǔa cǔ			shau ndǎw	'must write'
yǔa			shau ndǎw	'will write'
cǐ nyao			shau ndǎw	'should write'
shǎng shǐ			shau ndǎw	'writing'
táng tǎo			shau ndǎw	'writing'
cěng			shau ndǎw	'still writing'
	sǎng	tsâw	shau ndǎw	'want to be able to write'
táng tǎo	sǎng		shau ndǎw	'want to write now'

The restrictions

1. Preverb 3 cannot be negated.

2. Preverb 2 and preverb 1 can be negated by adding _ci_ in front of them.

3. The preverbs optionally occur in the order prv.3-prv.2-prv.1 before the Main verb.

4.9 Postverb

Postverbs function in the Postmodifier slot of a verb phrase (Sec.3.2). They can be divided into two subclasses according to their occurrence.

Subclass I These postverbs can also occur in the Main verb slot of a verb phrase, but the meaning may be the same or slightly different when they are in the Main verb slot and in the Postmodifier slot. They are: mŏng'go', tûa'come', lŭ'come', tau'able', ca'store', for example:

	MV			psv.
púa	táw	hŭ	cĕ	mŏng
they	leave	in	house	go

'They left the house.'

	MV		psv.
nẘ	tûa	tẘ	tûa
he	come	where	come

'Where does he come from?'

	MV		psv.
kŭ	páng	kâo	tau
I	help	you	able

'I can help you.'

	MV		psv.
pé	kȟăw	nyâ	ca
we	keep	money	store

'We save money.'

Subclass II These postverbs can only be used in the Postmodifier slot of a verb phrase. They are: crua'for, give, to', tsŭ'to', tǎng 'all, finished', tsàu'enough', sẃ'only', for example:

	MV	psv.	
kŭ	mûa	tsàu	lȁw
I	have	enough	already

'I already have enough.'

			MV	psv.				
áo	yȁw	hǎo	mȍng	tsŭ	lŭ	zhǎo	pȅ	tâo
two	man	that	go	to	clas.	village	on	hill

'That two men went to the village on the hill.'

	MV		psv.			
kŭ	mŭa	nyâ	crua	mi nyŭa	yau
I	get	money	give	child	young

'I gave money to the little children.'

	prv.	MV	psv.
kŭ	yŭa	mȍng	sẃ
I	will	go	only

'I will go alone.'

		MV	psv.	
púa	shi	thȁng	tǎng	lȁw
they	rec.MK	talk	all	already

'They have finished talking already.'

4.10 Verb

Verbs function in the Main verb slot of an active verb phrase (Sec.3.2.1), a descriptive verb phrase(Sec.3.2.2), and a copulative verb phrase(Sec.3.2.3)
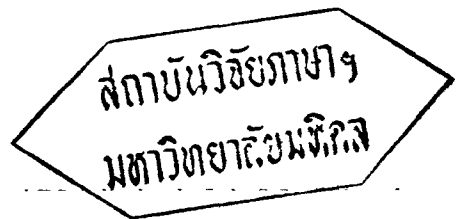
The verb class is defined as elements which can occur in a Main verb slot which may be filled by a simple or a compound verb.

There are many subclasses of verbs according as they fill the Main verb slot of the verb phrases of particular clause types(Sec.2).

4.10.1 Descriptive verb

The descriptive verbs function in the Main verb slot of the descriptive verb phrase(Sec.3.2.2). They also function in the Postmodifier slot of an active verb phrase(Sec.3.2.1), or as an adjective in the Modifier slot in a noun phrase(Sec.3.1.1). Examples are:

zhong ngâu	'beautiful'
cråo	'fat'
nyǎng	'heavy'
shí	'light(easy to carry)'
kú	'hot'
kláw	'white'

4.10.2 Intransitive verb

Intransitive verbs are verbs which function as the nucleus of the Predicate slot in an intransitive clause(Sec.2.1.2). Examples are:

kûa	'to cry'
pw	'to sleep'
khla	'to run'
móng kě	'to go for a stroll'
nyáo	'to sit'
njrong	'to shout'

4.10.3 Transitive verb

Transitive verbs are verbs which function as the nucleus of the Predicate slot in a transitive clause(Sec.2.1.3). Examples are:

tua	'to kill'
tsǎ	'to cut'
shái	'to see'
mùa	'to sell'
yǔa	'to buy'

4.10.4 Bitransitive verb

Bitransitive verbs are verbs which function as the nucleus of the Predicate slot in a bitransitive clause(Sec.2.1.4). Examples are:

mùa	'to get, to take, to give'
sang	'to send'
hà	'to tell'
yǔa	'to buy'

4.10.5 Locative verb

The locative verb functions as the nucleus of the Predicate slot in the locative clause(Sec.2.1.5). This class has one member.

nyáo	'to be, to live'

4.10.6 Motion verb

Motion verbs function as the nucleus of the Predicate slot in the motion clause(Sec.2.1.6). Examples are:

mòng	'to go, to walk'
tûa	'to come'
lǔ	'to come'

ngáng   'to enter'

cråo qáng 'to return'

4.10.7 Quotative verb

Quotative verbs function as the nucleus of the Predicate slot
in the quotative clause(Sec.2.1.7). Examples are:

nòng   'to ask'

páu   'to know'

sǎng   'to think'

hà   'to say, to tell'

nǎo   'to hear'

té   'to answer'

4.10.8 Equational verb

Equational verbs function as the nucleus of the Predicate slot
in the equational clause(Sec.2.1.8). There are three members of the
class.

yǎo   'to be'

ua   'to be'

hu ua   'to be called'

The difference between yǎo and ua is that yǎo is used to
emphasize the meaning 'to be ....really'.

4.10.9 Existence verb

The existence verb functions as the nucleus of the Predicate slot
in the existence clause(Sec.2.1.9). There is one member of the class.

múa   'to have'

4.1⁰.10 Causer verb

Causer verbs function as the predicate of the causer(Sec.2.5.1).
Examples are:

kùa   'to permit, to tell'

ca   'to let'

hà   'to tell'

4.11 Adverb

Adverbs function in the Postmodifier slot of an active verb
phrase(Sec.3.2.1). Some of the descriptive verbs can function like
adverbs,too. Examples are:

qéng   'slowly'

zhong   'well'

njà qàu tu'quietly'

plàng qàu nzâ 'disorderly'

4.12 Intensifier

Intensifiers function in the Postmodifier slot of an active verb
phrase(Sec.3.2.1) or in the Postmodifier slot of a descriptive verb
phrase(Sec.3.2.2) or in the Postmodifier slot of a copulative verb
phrase(Sec.3.2.3). Examples are:

tà tà | 'really, exactly'

ndau   'much'

kàw   'much, very much'

chãng plàw 'the most'

It is noted that only tà tà'really, exactly' can occur in a
copulative verb phrase.

4.13 Question word

Question words function as markers of content or yes-no question at clause and sentence ranks(Sec.5.2.12). They are:

lào	'yes-no question marker'
(lào) ci tau	'yes-no question marker(or not)'
pùa	'yes-no question marker'
tẘ	'which, where'
lêng tẘ	'who'
hǎo tẘ	'where'
thău tẘ	'when'
klắng ci	'what, where, why'
ua cảng	'why'
pì cảw	'how much, how many'
mbău tẘ	'how many'

4.14 Time word

Time words function in the Time slot in the time phrase(Sec.3.6). Examples are:

lú hli	'month'
hyong	'year'
nú	'day'
lú cầi	'season'
tảng ki	'tomorrow'
nzǔ	'morning'
nẳng mao	'yesterday, last night'
nú nú	'day before yesterday'

4.15 Final particle

Final particles function in the final position of clauses and sentences. Their meaning includes interrogative, affirmative, and imperative. There are several affirmative final particles which have not been indicated their meaning in particular. Examples are:

áo	'imperative or yes-no question particle'
mâ	'imperative particle'
shé	'imperative particle(not very polite)'
le	'affirmative particle(the only one which can occur inside the clause)'
le lô	'affirmative particle'
te	'affirmative particle'
nua	'affirmative particle'
nua te	'affirmative particle'

4.16 Exclamation word

The exclamations function in the peripheral slot in the sentence rank. They are used to express the speaker's feeling addressed to nobody in particular. Examples are:

ú nǎw áw	when surprised.
nǎ áw	when sad.
tà céng nao	when angry.
ó qw ú	when thinking out loud.
ú va	when hurt.
vú	when annoyed.

CHAPTER V

5.Sentence

Sentences normally function as elements in a paragraph. A
tructural sentence consists of at least one main clause, with or
without subordinate clauses, with a distinct speech act(Sec.5.4.1).

full independent clause(Sec.2.1) has all of the nuclear slots
overtly manifested. A subordinate clause may be either full or
reduced, but the presence of certain words makes it subordinate to
the following clause.

A semantic sentence contains propositional content (nucleus,
compounding, periphery),modalities(Sec.5.2), and semantic prosodies
Sec.5.5).

5.1 Sentence types(Semantic)

Sentences may be divided semantically into the following subtypes:
simple, cause-result, conditional, deductive, purposeful, temporal
sequence, simultaneous action, and covarying.

These types differ from each other in different relations
between their component parts, as indicated by different connectors
and different transformation potential.

5.1.1 Simple sentence

A simple sentence has only the following nuclear element:

Sen.$_{sim.}$ =Main Clause:cl.$_{indep.}$

The simple sentence, which is a one-clause sentence, may be
any independent clause types(Sec.2.1). Its single slot is
manifested by an independent clause without having either

another clause depending on it or it depending on another clause.

mǐ   nâo   njė̇

cat   eat   fish

'The cat eats fish.'   - Transitive cl.

kâo   mǒng   hǎo   tẘ

you   go   at   where

'Where are you going?'   - Motion cl., content question.

kǔ   nȧ   pw   lȧw

I   mother sleep already

'My mother has slept already.'   - Intransitive cl.

nẘ   mông   cě   lào

he   go   house or

'Does he go home?'   - Motion cl., yes-no question.

lú   chao   nǔa   yǎo   kǔ   le

clas. shirt this   be   I   possMK

'This shirt is mine.'   -Equational cl.

    5.1.2 Cause-result sentence

    A simple cause-result sentence has the following nuclear

elements:

Sen.$_{cause_1}$ = +Result:cl.$_{indep.}$ +MK: $\left\{ vǐ \right\}$ +Cause:cl.$_{dep.}$

The cause-result sentence consists of Result, which is filled

by an independent clause, and Cause which is filled by a dependent

clause introduced by a marker: vǐ, vǐ tà, vǐ hà tà, yǎo vǐ tà,

yǎo vǐ hà tà 'because'.

púa cráu ndàu yǎo vǐ tà púa tûa ci yêng
they passMK beat because they come not on time

'They were beaten because they didn't come on time.'

kǔ ua khǒng plû vǐ kǔ ci céng fâng
I do thing lose because I not careful

'I lost things because I was not careful.'

nw̌ ua nǔ nǔa vǐ hà tà sǎng mûa⁻ nyâ ndau
he do work this because wanr have money much

'He works like this because he want to have much money.'

The normal order of the elements is as shown above, however, the Cause can be sentence initial. When the Cause is fronted, there must be a conjunction hǎ'so' inserted in the Result clause and the marker vǐ, vǐ tà, vǐ hà tà, yǎo vǐ tà, yǎo vǐ hà tà, may be deleted.

(yǎo vǐ tà) kâo ci zhong kǔ hǎ ci nyǎ kâo
because you not good I then not like you

'Because you are not good, I do not like you.'

(vǐ) kǔ mǒng té kǔ hǎ cráu tua
because I go field I so passMK shoot

'Because of going to the field, I was shot.'

There is another form of cause-result sentence which has restricted positions of Cause and Result and markers.

Sen.cause₂ = +Marker₁: tǎo +Result +Marker₂: kùa +Cause

tǎo kǔ ua kùa kǔ yǔa nâo
- I do - I will eat

'I do it because I have to eat it.'

/

tǎo	kǔ	mǒng	kůa	nw̌	hu	kǔ
-	I	go	-	he	call	I

'I went because he called me.'

5.1.3 Conditional sentence

A simple conditional sentence has the following nuclear elements:

Sen.$_{cond.}$ =+Marker: yǎo +Condition: cl. +Conj: mà +Result: cl.

The conditional sentence consists of a Conditional clause which
is introduced by a marker yǎo'if', an optional conjunction mà 'then',
and a Result clause, most often in that order.

yǎo	cǔ	tůa	mà	nw̌	yǔa	khla	cǐ	tsí tsí	le
if	tiger	come	then	he	will	run	flee	exactly	f.p.

'If the tiger cam, he would exactly run away.'

yǎo	půa	mǒng	té	lǎw	mà	pủa	pùa	mǒng
if	they	go	field	already	then	they	or not	go

lǎw	câ
hunt	animal

'If they had gone to the field, woul they have hunted?'

yǎo	kâo	cǐ	yǔa	mà	yǔa	múa	kâo	mblua
if	you	not	marry	then	will	get	you	fine

'If you did not marry, we would take your fine.'

The order of the nuclear elements can be reversed, that is, the
Result clause precedes the Conditional clause and there is no
conjunction mà'then'.

kǔ	yǔa	chě	kâo	yǎo	kâo	lǔ	zhe	kǔ
I	will	scold	you	if	you	come	near	I

'I will scold you if you come near me.'

nẁ	yǔa	mǒng	ua	lǔa	yǎo	nẁ	mûa	nyâ	ndau
he	will	go	do	trade	if	he	have	money	much

tsàu

enough

'He would go to trade if he had enough money.'

5.1.4 Deductive sentence

A simple deductive sentence has the following nuclear elements:

Sen._deduct._ =General ground:cl. +Specific ground:cl.

+Deduction:cl.

A full deductive sentence consists of General ground, Specific ground and Deduction. General ground is usually deleted because it is normally known. The markers of the relationship between the Specific ground and Deduction are: tè zhǎ 'maybe', nchai 'afraid that', mà 'then'.

cǎo	túa	nèng	kẁ	njê	mûa	klâng	klâng	qǔa	yéng /
group	people		that	face		pale	pale	addicted	opium

tǔ	lǎu	ndǎw	njê	mûa		klâng /	nchai /	yǎo
clas.	uncle	that	face			pale	afraid	be

qǔa	yéng
addicted	opium

'The people who are pale are addicted to opium, that old man is pale, he may be addicted to opium.'

tsǐ něng   tshua   tǔ   pǔa léng   mûa   zhǔ / néng

man   every   clas.   all   have strength Neng

ua   tsǐ něng /   mà /   néng   yǔa cǔ   mûa   zhǔ

be   man   then   Neng   must   have strength

'Every man is strong, Neng is a man, so he must be strong.'

5.1.5 Purposeful sentence

A simple purposeful sentence has the following nuclear elements:

Sen._pur. =+Previous state:cl. +Action:cl.   +Purpose:cl.

A purposeful sentence expresss an action and its purpose. It is
characterized by a purposeful sequence of actions. The Purpose clause
is generally the increasing of the situation in the Cause clause.
Frequently, the causative verbs(ca'give', kùa'let, give') are used as
markers of Purpose clause.

A full purposeful sentence consists of a Previous state or Cause
slot filled by a clause, an Action or Result slot filled by a clause
which indicates the purpose or motivation of the Action.

vû   sǎng   tau   ché kǎu vǎng /   nẘ   hǎ   thǎo   kùa

Vu   want   get   bicycle   he   then   ask   give

nẘ   tsǐ   mòng   yǔa   crua

he   father   go   buy   for

'Vu wanted to have a bicycle, so he asked his father to buy it
for him.'

khao   ci   zhong   nyáo /   nẘ   hǎ le   móng   nchǎ

Kho   not   good   be   he   then   go   meet

kẘ chûa /   ca   kẘ chûa   qhu   nẘ   máo

doctor   let   doctor   cure   he   sickness

Elliptical purposeful sentences often take one motion clause
(Sec.2.1.6), for example:

```
       Action           Purpose
kǔ     sǎng    mȯng /   nâo    mǎo

I      want    go       eat    rice
```

'I want to go to eat rice.'

```
       Action            Purpose
nẘ     yǔa     mȯng /   tsǎ    ndong    pě    cróng

he     will    go       cut    tree     on/to mountain
```

'He will go to cut trees on the mountain.'

5.1.6 Temporal sequence sentence

A simple temporal sequence sentence has the following nuclear
elements:

Sen._temp_. = Prior event:cl.   +Subsequent event:cl.

That is, a Prior event plus one or more Subsequent events; each of
these slots is filled by a clause. The conjunction used between these
clauses are:

ua ndê / thău ndê kẁ   'before'

mà   'then'

(e) ...le   'then'

thău ndê .... e   'first....then'

(tǎo qáng kẁ) ....mà / mǎng   'after ... then'

```
púa    yǔa    nȯng   nqâu   ua ndê    púa    yǔa    pw

they   will   sing   song   before    they   will   sleep
```

'They will listen to the song before they go to sleep.'

pé	tûa	tsǔ	ndǎw	nǔa	thǎu ndê kw̌	nǎng	yǔa	lǔ
we	come	to	at	this	before	rain	will	come

'We reach here before it rains.'

púa	lǔa	té	tǎng	e	púa	le	tyǎo	páo kẁ
they	clear field	all	-	they	then	plant	corn

'They finished clearing the field, then they planted corn.'

tǎo qǎng kẁ	lǔa	té	lǎw	té	tǎng	mǎng	tyǎo	páo kẁ
after	clear field	burn	field	all	then	plant	corn

'After clearing and burning the land, we plant corn.'

5.1.7 Simultaneous action sentence

A simple simultaneous action sentence has the following nuclear elements:

Sen._{simul.} = Current action :cl.   +Simultaneous action:cl.

The simultaneous action sentence expresses two or more actions happening at the same time. It uses the conjunction thǎu / thǎu kw 'when', Current action clause, and Simultaneous action clause, often in that order.

thǎu	kǔ	mǒng	nchǎ	kw̌	chûa	kǎo	tûa	ndǎw	nǔa
when	I	go	meet	doctor	you	come	at	this

'When I went to see the doctor, you came here.'

thǎu kw	nẁ	pǔ	cǔ	nẁ	nchai	hěng	há
when	he	see	tiger	he	afraid	much	and

chái pláng	kǎw
hungry	very

'When he went to the forest, he was very afraid and very hungry.'

5.1.8 Covarying sentence

A simple covarying senetnce has the following nuclear elements:

Sen._cov. = Free variable + Conditioned variable

The covarying sentence is used to describe two or more events whose intensities or actions vaty together. It consists of a Free variable and a Conditioned variable which each filled by a clause. Each clause contains the preverb yêng / yŵ / yŵ 'the more'. If both clauses have the same subject, it only occurs in the first clause. And if the subject is obviously understood, it will be deleted in both clauses.

kâo   yŵ   nâo   yŵ   crâo
you   more   eat   more   fat
'The more you eat the fatter you become.'
yêng   tsí   yêng   qéng
more   hurry   more   slow
'The more (I) hurry, the slower (I am).'
néng   nŵ   yŵ   hà   mǐ nyüa kǎw ndǎw   kû   yŵ   khlüa
Neng   he   more   speak   student   then   more   bore
'The more Neng speaks, the more the students get bored.'

5.2 Compounding types

Theoretically any slot in the nuclear formula of a sentence may :ake any of four types of compounding: contrastive, equivalent, .lternative and additive.

5.2.1 Contrastive compounding

Contrastive compounding contrasts two partly similar situations.
The two contrasting clauses may contrast in subject or predicate or
object or all of them. The contrast is usually marked with kùa 'but'
between the two clauses.

yǎo	kǔ	nâo	kùa	kâo	ci	nâo	mà	kǔ	shá
if	I	eat	but	you	not	eat	then	I	heart

ci	zhong
not	good

'If I ate but you didn't, I would not be happy.'

- Contrast in subject in Condition slot in a condition sentence.

pé	tyǎo	mblê	kùa	pua	tyǎo	páo kw
we	plant	rice	but	they	plant	corn

'We plant rice but they plant corn.'

- Contrast in Subject and object in a simple sentence.

kǔ	nyǎo	hǔ	cě	kùa	tôŋg	mǒng	tǎo	té
I	be	in	house	but	Tong	go	at	field

'I am at home but Tong goes to the field.'

- Contrast in both subject and predicate in a simple sentence.

5.2.2 Equivalent compounding

Equivalent compounding or paraphrase compounding states a single
situation two or more times. The restatement clauses may vary form an
exact repetition to loose paraphrase. These are not marked by any
special characteristics except a slightly pause between them.

nẘ   ci   zhong   nyáo /   kú   cǒ   tau   ndau   nú   lǎw

he   not   good   be   hot   body   get   many   day   already

'He is sick; he has run a temperature for many days.'

kǔ   tsǐ   mǒng   tǎo   ká /   nẘ   mǒng   mùa   páo kẁ

I   father   go   at   market   he   go   sell   corn

'My father goes to the market; he goes to sell corn.'

kǔ   nǎo   púa   qûa /   qûa   tǎ   tǎ   le

I   hear   they   cry   cry   real   real   f.p

'I heard them cry; they cried indeed.'

5.2.3 Alternative compounding

Alternative compounding gives a pair of alternatives in a situation. It is marked with lào 'or'.

yǎo   púa   tûa   ndǎw   nùa   kâo   yǔa   nyáo

if   they   come   at   this   you   will   live

cě   lào   kâo   yǔa   mǒng   tẘ

house   or   you   will   go   where

'If they came here, would you stay or have gone anywhere ?'

yǎo   nẘ   mûa   nyâ   ndau   tê zhǎ   yǔa   yǔa

if   he   have   money   much   maybe   will   buy

ché   lào   ua   cě   klua   chá

car   or   do   house   more   new

'If he had much money, he would buy a car or maybe build a new house.'

kâo   yǔa   mǒng   pẘ   lào   yǔa   mǒng   ua shi

you   will   go   sleep   or   will   go   play

'Will you go to sleep or to play?'

Additive compounding adds a second situation to the first,
but both filling the same slot in the sentence nucleus. It is marked
by ha̋ 'and' before the

ua ndê kẘ   nẘ   mo̊ng   chȧng zho̊ng   nẘ   tau
before   he   go   forest   he   completed

nchǎ   pha̋o   ha̋   zhău mǎo   ua ndê   tȧng   lảw
find   gun   and   food   before   all   already

'Before he went to the forest, he had prepared a gun and
found some food already.'

nẘ   cě   khǎu klủa   ndǎw   khí lá   lảw   nẘ
he   body   clothes   that   dirty   already   he

ha̋   mo̊ng   klang   klê   ha̋   nǎng   klua   í ce
then   go   bathe   water   and   wear   more   body

'His clothes are dirty, so he takes a bath and wears new clothes.'

5.3 Peripheral elements

A sentence may take a time or location setting.

5.3.1 Time setting

The time setting of a sentence may be indicated by a single
word, a phrase or a clause. The time settings which are words or phrases
usually occur before the nucleus, but they can occur after the nucleus
to emphasize them.

The time setting may be divided into:

General: kua lǎo 'always'

　　　　tê nú 'some days, sometimes'

Repetitive: nả nú   'every day' (Used before predicate slot only)

　　　　nả hli 'every month'

Punctiliar: nú nua   'today'

        pǐ kǐ   'tomorrow'

        nǎng mao 'yesterday'

The following time setting usually occur after the nucleus and they can be emphasized by fronting them before the nucleus.

Linear: thǎu / thǎu kw 'when, while, during the time that...'

From: chrŵ kw   'since'

      chrŵ thǎu kw 'since the time that...'

To: tsǔ thǎu   'until'

Examples are:

    kǔ   yǔa   crǎo   lǔ   <u>thǎu   kǔ   lǔa   té   tǎng</u>

    I   will   return come   when   I   clear field all

    'I will come back when I finish clearing the field.'

    <u>nú nua</u> pé   yǔa   mǒng   phlǎo   nGâ

    today we   will   go   hunt   meat

    'We will go hunting today.'

    <u>nǎng mao</u> nẘ   tûa   ndǎw nǔa   <u>thǎu kw   kâo   ci</u>

    yesterday he   come. at   this   when   you   not

    <u>nyáo   hǔ   cě</u>

    be   in   house

    'Yesterday he came here while you were not at home.'

    <u>lǔ hli   tǎng lǔ</u> néng   tûa   nchǎ   kǔ   tǎo   cě

    month   all   come   Neng   come   meet   I   at   house

    'Neng came to meet me at home last month.'

    kǔ   yǔa   tǎo   <u>tsǔ thǎu   kâo   tûa</u>

    I   will   wait   until   you   come

    'I will wait until you come.'

A sentence location setting is usually marked by a locative phrase (Sec. 3.8). It usually occurs after the nucleus Location setting may be semantically divided into:

General: hǎo tẘ   'anywhere'

           tshua qhǎo   'everywhere'

Internal: hǔ...   'in, inside'

           ndǎw kè..   'between'

           ndǎw plǎw...   'among'

           hǔ plǎw.....   'among'

External: tsáng tǎo   'outside'

Near: zhe...   'near'

           tǎo...   'at'

Distance: tǐ...   'at'

           pȯ...   'over'

           klé...   'far'

Examples are:

    kǔ   mȯng   ua   té   klé   cě

    I   go   do   field far   house

    'I am going to work on the field far away from home.'

    nẘ   yǔa ··mȯng nchǎ   phông yw   pȯ   khê mǐ

    he   will   go   meet   friend   over   Khek Noi

    'He will go to meet his friend at Khek Noi.' ↳

    tsǐ   hǔ   crǎ   hǔ   cě

    father   sharpen   knife   in   house

    'My father sharpens a knife in the house.'

kŭ pŭ i tŭ mbu� <u>ndãw kê cê</u>

I see one clas. pig between house

'I see a pig between the house.'

thãu kw vû mõng chǒng zhŏng nǔ nyã mõng <u>hŭ plǎw</u>

   when Vu go forest he like go among

<u>cǎo mbãw</u>

group friend

'When Vu went to the forest, he liked to walk in the midst of

is friends.'

5.4 Modal types

Modal types are pragmatic relationships between the speaker,
the hearer, and the assumed real world. They include speech acts,
psychological moods, and reality status.

5.4.1 Speech act types

There are three major kinds of speech acts; declarative,
imperative, interrogative, and several minor kinds of speech acts;
social, self-expression,etc.

5.4.1.1 Declarative

A declarative sentence is a statement whose assurance may
vary from certain to uncertain, regarding the sentential relation
as a whole.

klê yǔ mĭ nyûa lãw

dog bear child already

'The dog has borne a puppy already.'   - Certain

klê yǔ mĭ nyûa lãw tǎ tǎ le

dog bear child already real real f.p.

'The dog has really borne a puppy already.'   - Very certain

tô zñǎ 'klě yů mǐ nyủa lêv kû mûa

maybe dog bear child already then have

'The dog may have borne a puppy already.'   - Uncertain

Sources of knowledge may be general, first hand or second-
and knowledge.

lếng tử kû pǐu 'lâw hà tà klě yủ mǐ nyủa lǎw

who   so   know already say . dog bear   child . already

'Everyone knows that the dog has borne a puppy already.'-General

kǔ pǔ klě yủ mǐ nyủa lǎw

I   see dog bear child   already

'I saw the dog bear a puppy.'   - First-hand

pủa tà klě yủ mǐ nyủa lǎw

they   say   dog bear   child   already

'They said that the dog had borne a puppy.'   - Second-hand

5.4.1.2 Imperative

An imperative sentence is a statement of desired action which
may very from strong to mild.

mống pú mbua

go....feed .pig.

'Go to feed the pig.'

mống pú mbua mâ

go   feed pig   f.p.

'Please go to feed the pig.'

thǐo kûo mống pú mbua

beg   you go   feed   pig

'I beg you to go to feed the pig.'

Sources of desired action may be first, second, or third person.

thǎo kâo lǔ ndâw nǔa

beg you come at this

'I beg you to come here.'   - First person

kâo mà yǔa cǔ lǔ ndâw nǔa

you then must come at this

'It is necessary for you to come here.' - Second person

shǔp klǒw ndâw nǔa sǎng kùa kâo lǔ

everyone at this want allow you come

'Everyone here wants you to come.'   - Third person

The object of desired action may be first, second or third
erson.

pé mǒng ǎo

we go f.p.

'Let's go.'   - First person

mǒng mâ

go f.p.

'Please go.'   - Second person

púa yǔ cǔ mǒng

they must go

'They must go.'   - Third person

5.4.1.3 Interrogative

Interrogatives may be divided broadly into yes-no questions
nd content questions.

a. Yes-no question

Yes-no question ask about the assurance or reality of a
tatement. They can be formed in the following ways:
by adding final particles lào 'or', lào ci tau 'or not'.

kâo   tûa   lào

you   come   or

'Do you come?'

kâo   shǎng shǐ   nâo   mǎo   lào

you   be...ing   eat   rice   or

'Are you eating rice?'

kâo   klang   klê   ci tau

you   bathe   water   or not

'Have you taken a bath?'

- by adding pùa in front of the predicate slot, for example:

kâo   pùa   tsâw   ua   zhǎu

you   -   able   do   food

'Can you cook food?'

yǎo   nẇ   ua   tûa nẻng   zhong   kâo   pùa   nyǎ   nẇ

if   he   be   person   good   you   like   he

'If he is a good man, will you like him.'

- by adding pùa yǎo after the sentence. This subtype of yes-no question asks about the assurance of a statement the speaker has expect to be. This may be called tag-question.

kâo   cě   tyáo   khǎ   pùa yǎo

you   house   grow   ginger   -

'Your family grows ginger, don't you?'

pǐ kǐ   púa   yǔa   mǒng   ua   nǔ   pùa yǎo

tomorrow they   will   go   do   work   -

'They will go to work tomorrow, won't they?'

b. Alternative question

Alternative questions give choices for the listener to choose for the answer. These can be formed by adding lào between two clauses, for example:

kâo yǔa nôn nqâu <u>lào</u> shau ndǎw

you will listen song or write book

'Will you listen to the song or write a book?'

nẘ ua nǔ tǎo té <u>lào</u> mỏng tǎo ká

he do work at field or go at market

'Does he work at the field or go to the market?'

c. <u>Content question</u>

Content questions may ask for tagmemes or information from ɘ sentence, clause, or phrase level. They are manifested by question rds(Sec.4.13). The question words are filled in the position of the ssing information in the sentence, for example:

lêŋ tẘ ua zhǎu mǎo nǔa

who do food this

'Who cooked this food?'   - asking for actor

kâo yǔa mỏng <u>thǎu tẘ</u>

you will go when

'When will you go?'   - asking for temporal

nẘ tûa <u>hǎo tẘ</u> tûa

he come where come

'Where does he come from?'   - asking for location

<u>ua cáng</u> kâo qûa

why you cry

'Why do you cry?'   - asking for reason

nua tûa <u>klớŋ ci</u>

they shoot what

'What are they shooting?'   - asking for undergoer

kâo yǔa qá lǔ <u>pì cǎw</u> tǔ

you buy chicken come how many clas.

'How many chickens are you buying?' - asking for quantity

nw̌   mǒng   cě kâw ndǎw   <u>ua cǎng</u>

he   go   school   how

'How does he go to school?'   - asking for means

5.4.1.4 Social

A social sentence establishes, maintains or terminates a
mmunication relationship between two speakers. It includes greeting.
sponses, farewells,etc.

<u>Greeting</u>   The Hmong people normally greet by asking a question
thout desiring to know the answer. They are a form of greeting, for
ample:

(kâo   yǔa)   mǒng   hǎo tẘ

you   will   go   where

'Where are you going?'   - the listener is going away
                                from home.

(kâo)   mǒng   hǎo tẘ   lǔ

you   go   where   come

'Where have you come from?'   - the listener is going home.

(kâo)   tûa   lào

you   come   or

'Have you come?'   - at home, or first time meeting.

<u>Responses</u>   Responses can occur as the sole lexemic
onstituent of whole clauses and even whole utterances.

(1). àw / yǎo   'affirmative response'
ample:

A: tûa   lào

come   or

'Have you come?'

B: àw / yåo

'Yes.'

(2) lào 'acknowledging having heard a statement, and

encoraging the speaker to continue'

Example:

A: kǔ   mǒng   té   mǒng   njrǔ   kǔ   nǎ   lûa   té   nǎw

I   go   field   go   with   I   mother   clear   field   f.p.

'I went to clear the land with may mother.'

B: lào

Farewells

kǔ   yǔa   mǒng   lǎw

I   will   go   already

'I will go now'

kǔ   yǔa   crǎo qáng   lô

I   will   return   f.p.

'I will return home.'

thǎo   kâo   mǒng   zhong

beg   you   luck   good

'I wish you good luck.'

5.4.1.5 Self-expression

A self-expression is an expression of the speaker's feeling
addressed to nobody in particular.

nǎ áw   when sad.

ú nǎw áw   when surprised.

vú   when annoyed.

tà céng nao   when angry.

ó qw ú   when thinking out loud.

á   when in doubt.

ú va   when hurt.

vái   when excited.

5.4.2 Psychological moods

The psychological moods include such things as pleasure, surprise, concern, etc. These show the attitude of the speaker toward his subject matter in the sentence. These moods usually occur only with declarative sentences.

a. <u>Pleasure</u> Degrees of pleasure, from pleasing to displeasing.

kŭ zhong shá kǎw le kẁ khao mûa kùa pû

I good heart much f.p. that Kho have wife

'I am very pleased that Kho has a wife.'

<u>zhong</u> há kẁ khao mûa kùa pû

good also that Kho have wife

'It is good that Kho has a wife.'

kŭ <u>mbau tǎw</u> kẁ khao mûa kùa pû

I angry that Kho have wife

'I am angry that Khọ has a wife.'

b. <u>Surprise</u> Degrees of surprise, from unexpected to normal.

<u>kâo hà tà le ǎo</u> kẁ khao tua mbua té

you say f.p. or that Kho kill pig field

'Do you mean that Kho killed a wild pig?'

kŭ ci sǎng le <u>hà tà</u> khao yǔ tua mbua té

I not want f.p. say Kho will kill pig field

'I have never thought that Kho would kill a wild pig.'

kŭ tú sǎng lǎw <u>hà tà</u> púa yǔa mǒng nchǎ kâo

I ever think already say they will go meet you

'I thought that they would go to meet you.'

c. Concern Degrees from sympathy to unconcern.

néng   qhǔ lêng   nǔ   tǎi   kǎw   le   kǔ   nâ   ·nú

Neng   pity   he   father   much   f.p.   that every day

mǒng   té

go   field

'Neng feels much pity for his father that he goes to the field every day.'

kǔ   tshâw séng   kw   nâ   ci   zhong   nyáo

I   worry   that   mother   not   good   be

'I am worried that my mother is sick.'

púa   yǔa   ua   klǎng ci   lào   pǔa tshâw

they   will   do   what   or   no concern

'Whatever they do is of no concern to me.'

5.4.3 Reality types(reality status)

The reality status of a sentence gives the relationship between the subject matter and the assumed real world. Thus, a sentence may be factual, contrafactual, gnomic or uncertain.

a. Factual

nǎng   lǔ   mà   ǎng   yǔa   ndú

rain   come   then   ground   will   wet

'If it rains, the ground will be wet.'

qhǎo   tǎ   nǎng   lǔ   mà   ǎng   yǔa   ndú

-    real   rain   come   then   ground   will   wet

'It is the fact that if it rains, the ground will be wet.'

b. Contrafactual

yǎo   nǎng   lǔ   mà   tê zhǎ   ǎng   ndú   lǎw

if   rain   come   then   maybe   ground   wet   already

'If it had rained, the ground would have been wet.'

c. <u>Gnomic</u>

ăng   ndú   thâu kw   nǎng   lǔ

ground wet   when   rain   come

'The ground is wet when it rains.'

d. <u>Uncertain</u>

tê zhǎ   ăng   ndú   yǎo   nǎng   lǔ

maybe   ground wet   if   rain   come

'The ground may be wet if it rains.'

5.5 Semantic prosodies

The semantic prosodies in a sentence include time movement, information flow, reference structure, assertion structure, topicalization. and cohesion.

5.5.1 Time movement

The time movement in this language is usually progressive, that is, what happens first is stated first, often marked by ..lǎw...è.., Sometimes the time movement is reversed, and the reversed action is emphasized, often marked by ua ndê è.., for example:

kǎo tyǎo pǎo kw tǎng lǎw (T_1) è kǎo pùa nŏng cě(T_2)

you plant corn all already then you   –   go house

'After you finish planting corn, will you go home? -progressive.

ua ndê è kǔ yǔa tûa (T_2) kǔ nǎo mǎo lǎw (T_1)

before then I will come   I eat rice already

'Before I came here, I had eaten rice already.' – reversed.

5.5.2 Information flow

A sentence may contain new information and old information. The deletion of old information, and the introduction of new information can be observed in the following ways:

a. A subject that is old information is usually deleted or replaced by a pronoun, for example:

<u>tŭ tsĭ něng</u>   kw̄   tûa   nchă   kâo   năng mao   ∅

clas. man   that   come   meet   you   yesterday   ∅

tûa   lâw   há   lô

come already again   f.p.

'The man who came to meet you yesterday has come again.'

<u>kéng</u>   ci   nyáo   hŭ   cě   tê zhă   <u>nw̄</u>   yěng   ci

Keng   not   be   in   house   maybe   he   may   not

tau   lŭ

completed come

'Keng is not in the house, he might not come.'

    b. A deduction sentence requires that the conclusion be largely composed of old information.

căo   túa něng   kw̄   njê mûa   klâng   klâng   qŭa

group person   that   face   pale   pale   addicted

yěng / tŭ   lăw   ndâw   njê mûa   klâng /   nchai   ∅

opium clas. uncle that   face   pale   afraid   ∅

yăo   <u>qŭa   yéng</u>

be   addicted opium

'The people who have pale faces are addicted to opium, that old man is pale, he may be addicted to opium.'

    5.5.3 Reference structure

The participants in a sentence may be referred to in various ways. Pronouns are usually used to refer back to the nouns. In some sentence types using pronouns would make the sentence ambiguous, so it is necessary to repeat the noun instead of using a pronoun.

tw_{N1}   póng   ndong   nẘ_{N1}   hǎ le   mǒng   nchǎ   kẁ chûa_{N2}

Tue   fall   tree   he   so   go   meet   doctor

ca   kẁ chûa_{N2}   qhu   mǎo

let   doctor   cure   sickness

'Tue fell from a tree so he went to see the doctor so that the

doctor could cure him.'

mǎo_{N1}   mǎo   zhong   lǎw   nẘ_{N1}   yǔa   mǒng   nchǎ

Mo   sickness   good   already   he   will   go   meet

nẘ   tsǐ_{N2}

he   father

'After Mo recovers from the sickness, he will go to meet his

father.'

kẘ_{N1}   há   tî_{N2}   shi   ndàu   tî_{N2}   hǎ le   kûa

younger and   older   rec.MK   fight   older   so   cry
brother   brother   brother

'Two brothers fought each other, the older cried.'

5.5.4 Assertion structure(sentential prominence)

The asserted clauses(foreground) are the main clauses of the

sentence, other clauses may remain in the background. A sentence may

have one or more asserted clauses(marked with * in the examples). The

rule governing which clause may be asserted is that a slight pause is

required when a clause is asserted.

* cǎo   sǎng   tau   kau mǎo   lá   * nẘ   hǎ   thǎo   kùa

Co   want   get   hat   red   she   so   beg   give

nẘ   nǎ   yǔa   crua

she   mother   buy   for

'Co wanted to have a red hat, so she begged her mother to buy one for her.'

vĭ yăo	căo	săng	tau	kau măo	lá	* nẘ	hă
because Co	want	get	hat	red	she	so	

thăo	kùa	nẘ	nă	yŭa	crua
beg	give	she	mother	buy	for

'Because Co wanted to have a red hat, she begged her mother to buy one for her.'

vĭ yăo	thău kw	căo	săng	tau	kau măo	lá	nẘ
because	when	Co	want	get	hat	red	she

thăo	nẘ	nă	yŭa	* nẘ	hă le	tau	kau măo	lá
beg	she	mother	buy	she	so	get	hat	red

'Because when Co wanted to have a red hat she begged her mother to buy one, she then got it.'

5.5.5 Topicalization

One participant is usually made the main topic of the sentence. This can be indicated by the position at the beginning of the sentence.

kŭ	tsĭ	ci	zhong	nyáo	thău kw	kŭ	mŏng	tăo
I	father	not	good	be	when	I	go	at

té
field

'My father was sick when I went to the field.'

The other ways that indicate the topic of the sentence are: N+ pronoun, N+demonstrative, and passive voice. All of these usually occur at the beginning of the sentence.

cráng	cră	nŭa	kŭ	yŭa	tûa	tăo	ká	tûa
clas.	knife	this	I	buy	come	at	market	come

'This knife, I bought it from the market.'

-Noun + demonstrative

tú	mŏng	kláw	nẘ	nchai	nchai
clas.	Hmong	white	he	afraid	afraid

'The White Hmong, he is quite afraid.'   - Noun + pronoun

mbua	cráu	klě	tủ
pig	pass.MK	dog	bite

'The pig was bitten by the dog.'   - Passive voice

5.5.6 Cohesion marking

Cohesion markings are elements that show the internal unity of a sentence or its boundaries. They include sentence boundary markers; time or location setting, self-expression, particles, and internal linkage; conjunction, participant continuity, lexical field continuity.

a. Time setting This functions as a boundary marker of a sentence. It may be either at the beginning or at the end of a sentence (Sec.5.3.1).

nú nua	kâo	yŭa	mŏng	nchă	kâo	le	phông	yw
today	you	will	go	meet	you	possMK	friend	

pùa	yăo
quest.tag	MK

'You will go to meet your friend today, won't you?'

kŭ	yŭa	lûa	té	nú nua
I	will	clear	field	today

'Today I will clear the field.'

í

b. Location setting It usually occurs at the end of a sentence(Sec.5.3.2).

tŭ	nyû	ndăw	nâo	zhău	tǎo	té
clas.	cow	that	eat	food	at	field

'That cow eats grass in the field.'

c. Self-expression It occurs at the beginning of a sentence (Sec.5.4.1.5).

ú năw áw	kâo	zhong ngâu	kǎw	le
-	you	beautiful	very	f.p.

'How beautiful you are.'

ó	yâw	cǎw	chě	chě	chě
-	man	then	scold	scold	scold

'Oh, he then scolded and scolded.'

d. Final particles(Sec.4.15)

á	hsǎo	cí	páu	le	lô
-	no	not	know	f.p.	

'I don't know.'

yǎo	kâo	cí	yǔa	mǎ	cí	taŭ	le	lô
if	you	not	marry	then	not	able	f.p.	

'If you didn't marry, you could not.'

thǎo	í	lú	téng	crua	kǔ	shé
beg	one clas.	lamp	for	I	f.p.	

'Please give me a lamp.'

e. Pause A pause which is a boundary marker of a sentence is longer than that of a clause in a compounded sentence.

mao	nǔa	mǔa	kǔ	le	njá	ua	mao //
night	this	get	I	possMK	rice	do	dinner

'Tonight take my rice to cook for dinner.'

tsǎ   tǎw   tǎng /   kǔ   yǔa   mǒng   cě //

cut firewood   all   I   will   go   house

'After cutting the firewood, I will go home.'

    f. Conjunction   A conjunction is an internal linkage. It

joints participants or clauses in a sentence(Sec.4.7).

kâo   pẘ   kǔ   le mǎng   pẘ

you   sleep   I   then   sleep

'You sleep first and then I will sleep.'

vi̱   kâo   tûa   kǔ   hā̱   tûa

because you   come   I   so   come

'T come because you come.'

    g. Participant continuity

tông   nâo   mǎo   tǎng   lȧw   nẘ   mǎng   tûa   nǔa

Tong   eat   rice   all   already she   then   come   this

'Tong finished eating rice and then she came here.'

    f. Lexical field continuity

púa   lâi   té   tǎng   púa   le   tyǎo   khǎ

they plough field   all   they then   plant   ginger

'After they plough the field, they grow ginger.'

                          - nouns,verbs from the field of farming.

5.6 Presupposition

Presupposition components include sentence encyclopedia, contra-
expectencies, and rhetorical sentences.

    5.6.1 Sentential encyclopedia

The encyclopedia may contain universally known, culturally known,

and contextually known information necessary for the understanding of

the sentence. This sentential information must be known, the speaker expeets the hearer to have this in his encyclopedia.

vû   mồng   té

Vu   go   field

'Vu goes to the field.'

To understand this sentence, the hearer must have in his encyclop-edia that Vu is a farmer and he goes to work in the field.

néng   mồng   nchǎ   kẁ chûa

Neng   go   meet   doctor

'Neng goes to see the doctor.'

To understand this sentence, the hearer must know that sick people generally go to the doctors and generally doctors make sick people recover from the sickness.

5.6.2 Contraexpectencies

Contraexpectencies are violation of the encyclopedia which are generally marked with kùa 'but' or ci kǎng 'nevertheless'.

nẘ   nGûa   nGûa   kùa   nẘ   cēng   plùa

he diligent diligent   but   he   still   poor

'He is quite diligent but he is still poor.'

cǎo   kûa   kûa   ci kǎng   ci   mûa   lêng tẘ

Co   cry   cry   nevertheless   not   have   who

máo shá   nẘ

interest   she

'Co cries and cries,nevertheless, no one is interested in her.'

5.6.3 Rhetorical sentence

Rhetorical sentences are sentences whose speech act form are different from the speech act meaning.

kâo   mǒng   ua   mǎo   pùa   lái

you   go   do   rice or not   can

'You go to cook rice, can you?'

                        - interrogative as imperative.

It means'Please go to cook rice.'

mûa   lêng tw̌   ua   cě   nyâ   cě   kú

have   who   do   house silver house   gold

'Are there anyone who build a silver or golden house?'

                        - interrogative as declarative.

It means'No.one builds a silver or golden house.'

5.7 Surface structures

The surface structures of a sentence may be classified into simple, juxtaposed, embedding, fused(container) and conjunction form.

5.7.1 Simple form

A simple form consists of just one clause an manifests a simple sentence(Sec.5.1.1).

Sen._sim. = Main Cl: cl._indep. - - - ...

kǔ   mûa   nyâ   yǔa lûa   í   pua

I   have   money   nearly   one   hundred

'I have nearly one hundred baht.'

kǔ   tǔ   kw̌   nyèng   ndǎw   ci   tau

I   clas.   brother   read   book   not   can

'My brother cannot read.'

5.7.2 Juxtaposed form

A juxtaposed form consists of two or more independent clauses simply put side by side without a conjunction. The second clause

usually modifies the first clause, and the subject of the second

clause can be deleted if it is the same as the first clause. It may

manifest a covarying sentence(Sec.5.1.6), or a purposeful sentence

(Sec.5.1.5).

$Sen._{jux.}$ = Main Cl: $cl._{indep.}$ + Main Cl : $cl._{indep.}$

nẘ	mòng	tåo	ká	nẘ	mòng	mủa	khả
he	go	at	market	he	go	sell	ginger

'He goes to the market; he goes to sell ginger.'

yẻng	sǎng'	tau	yẻng	ci	tau
more	want	get	more	not	get

'The more you want to get it, the more you can!t.'

tsǐ	nqang	mòng	tåo	cẻ ua mǎo	nchǎ	mǎo	nåo
father	enter	go	at	kitchen	find	rice	eat

'My father goes to the kitchen, he finds rice tó eat.'

5.7.3 Conjuntive form

A conjunctive form is made up of two or more clauses linked by a

single conjunction or co-ordinated conjunctions. According to the

position of the conjunctions, the forms may be subdivided into initial

conjunction forms, medial conjunction form, and initial-medial

conjunction forms.

a. Medial conjunction form

Medial conjunctions include:

kùa	'but'
lao	'or'
măng, le măng, mà, e	'then'
kû	'then; so '

etc.

Sen._{conj.1} = Main Cl: cl. +(Conj: kua +SubCl: cl.)

This form manifests a cause-result sentence(Sec.5.1.2), a temporal sequence sentence(Sec.5.1.6), a conditional sentence(Sec.5.1.3), a purposeful sentence(Sec.5.1.5), or a simultaneous action sentence (Sec.5.1.7).

áu vâo	kw̌	nĜâ	tha̱u	kâo	ci	céng fâng
crow	carry	meat	when	you	not	careful

'The crow carried the meat when you were not careful.'

kǔ	nao	nao	mà	kǔ	ha̱ le	mǔa	chao	lǔ	năng
I	cold	cold	then	I	so	get	shirt	come	wear

'I felt cold, so I brought a shirt to wear.'

kǔ	tsă	ndong	tǎng	mà	kǔ	yǔa	cră̇o qǎng	mǒng
I	cut	tree	all	then	I	will	return	go

cě
house

'I cut all the trees then I will go home.'

nẘ	săng	ua	kùa	nẘ	ua	ci	tau
she	want	do	but	she	do	not	can

'She wants to do but she cannot do.'

kǔ	khw̌	vi̱ hà tà	năng mao	kǔ	ci	tau	pw
I	tired	because	yesterday	I	not	completed	sleep

'I am tired because I did not sleep last night.'

púa	klang	klê	lǎw	púa	ma̱ng	túa	nda̱w	nǔa
they	bathe	water	already	they	then	come	at	this

'They had taken a bath, then they came here.'

b. Initial conjunction form

Initial conjunctions include yǎo 'if', ua ndê 'before', tǎo qáng 'after',etc. The initial conjunction form may manifest a conditional sentence(Sec.5.1.3), or a temporal sequence sentence(Sec.5.1.6).

Sen.$_{conj.2}$ =+(Conj: {yǎo} +SubCl: cl.) + MainCl: cl.

yǎo	kâo	pw	vǔ	chǎo	tê zhǎ	kâo	yǔa	ci	ua
if	you	sleep	cover	blanket	maybe	you	will	not	be

khǎu thùa
  cold

'If you sleep in the blanket, you may not get a cold.'

ua ndê	nẘ	mǒng	hlai	mblê	nẘ	ci	zhong	nyǎo
before	he	go	harvest	rice	he	not	good	be

'Before he went to harvest rice, he had been sick.'

tǎo qáng	nẘ	mǒng	hlai	mblê	nẘ	ci	zhong	nyǎo
after	he	go	harvest	rice	he	not	good	be

'After he went to harvest rice , he was sick.'

c. Initial-medial conjunction form

Initial-medial conjunction form may manifest a temporal sequence sentence, a cause-result sentence, a conditional sentence, or a simultaneous action sentence. The initial-medial conjunction includes vǐ, vǐ yǎo, vǐ yǎo tà, yǎo vǐ tà ....hǎ le 'because ....then', thǎu ndê ......mà / le 'first ..... then', tǎo qáng .... le / mǎng 'after ... then'.

Sen.$_{conj.3}$ = +Conj: {vǐ} +Cl. +Conj: {mang} +Cl.

vị tà   cráng   crả   nửa   nje   kǔ   <u>hả le</u>   sǎng   tau

because   clas.   knife   this   sharp   I   then   want   get

'Because this knife is sharp, I want to get it.'

<u>tảo qáng</u>   púa   shi   thǎng   tảng   lǎw   púa   <u>mǎng</u>

after   they   rec.MK   talk   all   already   they   then

mòng   cě

go   house

'After they have finished talking, they went home.'

<u>thầu ndề</u>   púa   ua   mǎo   tảng   púa   <u>le</u>   ua   zhǎu

first   they   do   rice   all   they   then   do   food

'First they cooked rice, then they cooked food.'

5.7.4 Embedded form

The embedded form is used to give additional information about a
nominal phrase. There are three types of embedded.

a.Relative embedded form

A subordinate clause, relating the subject or object of the main
clause to some previously mentioned action, may be attached to the
main clause by embedding, The embedded clause is marked by kẁ 'that'.
This morpheme must follow the nominal phrase.

Sen.$_{rel.emb.}$ =+MainCl Subj:np +SubCl:rel.cl. +MainCl Pred:vp.

or   =+MainCl: ̄cl. +SubCl:rel.cl.

crả   <u>kẁ   púa   shǐ   tua   nǎng</u>   nje

knife   that   they   use   kill   snake   sharp

'The knife that they used to kill the snake is sharp.'

kǔ   ci   nyǎ   túa nẻng   <u>kẁ   ci   nyáo   hǔ   cě</u>

I   not   like   person   that not   be   in   house

'I do not like the person who is not in the house.'

b. Initial conjunction form

Initial conjunctions include yǎo 'if', ua ndê 'before', tǎo qáng 'after',etc. The initial conjunction form may manifest a conditional sentence(Sec.5.1.3), or a temporal sequence sentence(Sec.5.1.6).

Sen._{conj.2} =+(Conj:{yǎo} +SubCl: cl.) + MainCl: cl.

yǎo	kâo	pw	vǔ	châo	tê zhǎ	kâo	yua	ci	ua
if	you	sleep	cover	blanket	maybe		you	will	not	be

kháu thùa

  cold

'If you sleep in the blanket, you may not get a cold.'

ua ndê	nẘ	mǒng	hlai	mblê	nẘ	ci	zhong	nyáo
before	he	go	harvest	rice	he	not	good	be

'Before he went to harvest rice, he had been sick.'

tǎo qáng	nẘ	mǒng	hlai	mblê	nẘ	ci	zhong	nyáo
after	he	go	harvest	rice	he	not	good	be

'After he went to harvest rice , he was sick.'

c. Initial-medial conjunction form

Initial-medial conjunction form may manifest a temporal sequence sentence, a cause-result sentence, a conditional sentence, or a simultaneous action sentence. The initial-medial conjunction includes vǐ, vǐ yǎo, vǐ yǎo tà, yǎo vǐ tà ....hǎ le 'because ....then', thǎu ndê ......mà / le 'first ..... then', tǎo qáng .... le / mǎng 'after ... then'.

Sen._{conj.3} = +Conj:{vǐ} +Cl. +Conj: {mang} +Cl.

vì tà   cráng   crå   nùa   nje   kú   hǎ le   sǎng   tau

because clas.   knife this   sharp I   then   want   get

'Because this knife is sharp, I want to get it.'

tǎo qáng   púa   shi   thǎng   tǎng   làw   púa   mǎng

after   they   rec.MK talk   all   already they   then

móng   cě

go   house

'After they have finished talking, they went home.'

thǎu ndê   púa   ua   mǎo   tǎng   púa   le   ua   zháu

first   they   do   rice   all   they   then do   food

'First they cooked rice, then they cooked food.'

5.7.4 Embedded form

The embedded form is used to give additional information about a
nominal phrase. There are three types of embedded.

a.Relative embedded form

A subordinate clause, relating the subject or object of the main
clause to some previously mentioned action, may be attached to the
main clause by embedding, The embedded clause is marked by kw 'that'.
This morpheme must follow the nominal phrase.

Sen._{rel.emb.} =+MainCl Subj:np +SubCl:rel.cl. +MainCl Pred:vp.

or   =+MainCl:¯cl. +SubCl:rel.cl.

crå   kw   púa   shǐ   tua   náng   nje

knife that they   use   kill   snake   sharp

'The knife that they used to kill the snake is sharp.'

kú   ci   nyǎ   túa néng   kw   ci   nyáo   hǔ   cě

I   not   like   person   that not   be   in   house

'I do not like the person who is not in the house.'

vǔ	ci	sǎng	ndàu	tǔ	kẁ	ndàu	nẘ	ci	tau
Vu	not	want	hit	clas.	that	hit	he	not	can

'Vu does not want to hit the one who cannot hit him.'

b. Nominalized embedded form

The way of making a clause into a noun to fill a subject slot of a sentence is nominalization. This can be done by adding kě kẁ in front of the clause.

Sen._{nom.emb.} =+MainCl Subj:nom. cl.   +MainCl Pred: vp.

kě kẁ	nẘ	cràu	tua	ua	crua	nẘ	cě néng	khẘ
—	he	passMK	kill	do	for	he	family	trouble

'His being killed makes his family in trouble.'

kě kẁ	nẘ	ngěng	ua	crua	nẘ	plǔa
—	he	lazy	do	for	he	poor

'His being lazy makes him poor.'

kě kẁ	pua	tǔa	nǔa	zhong	shai	há	lǎo zhě
—	they	come	here	good	look	and	noisy

'Their coming here is interesting.'

c. Appositive embedding

An appositive embedding form is a noun phrase used to give additional information about a subject or an object.

khao	kǔ	nyǔa kẘ	phěng	shǎw	li	li
Kho	I	sister	often	wake	late	late

'Kho, my sister, often gets up late.'

púa	mǒng	nchǎ	vǔ	túa něng	ndàu	crǎ
they	go	meet	Vu	person	hit	knife

'They went to meet Vu, the man who made knives.'

5.7.5 Fused form(Container sentence)

A simple container sentence has the following nuclear elements:

Sen.$_{contr.}$ = Contr: cl.   + Contd: cl.

A container sentence is a semiclausal sentence. It is clauselike in that its nucleus is a particular class of verb; it is sentencelike in that it requires two clauses. It could be considered a fused-clause sentence.

A container sentence consists of a Container which is a transitive clause with a main verb such as: pŭ'see', kŭa 'allow', hà'tell'. The object of the Container clause is usually a shared component with the subject of the Contained clause.

```
     Contr.              Contd.
 tsĭ  kùa  kŭ  mŭa  nyâ  crua  kŭ  nå
 father allow I  get money for  I  mother
```
'My father allows me to give money to my mother.'

```
     Contr.              Contd.
 kŭ  pŭ  i  tŭ  tŭa něng  shǎng shĭ  lûa  té
 I   see one clas. person  be ..ing   clear field
```
'I see a person clearing the field.'

```
     Contr.              Contd.
 nŭ nua  pùa  hà  kŭ  mŏng  mŭa  khǎ  lŭ  mŭa
 today   they tell I   go   take ginger come sell
 tåo  ká
 at   market
```
'Today they tell me to go take ginger to sell at the market.'

5.8 Peripheral slots

A sentence periphery may indicate such thing as vocative, exclamations, final particles,etc. Time and location setting(See Sec.5.3 for details.) are often found in a sentence periphery. In a one-clause sentence(Simple sentence) there is no contrast between clause and sentence periphery.

5.8.1 Vocatives

Semantically vocatives function in a paragraph level, but are often manifested on the sentence level. They may occur at the beginning or the end of the sentence.

| tông | kâo | yŭa | mŏng | hǎo tẘ |
| Tong | you | will | go | where |

'Tong, where will you go?'

| kâo | cềng | ua | kláng ci | vû |
| you | still | do | what | Vu |

'What are you doing, Vu?'

5.8.2 Final particles

Final particles(Sec.4.15) function in the periphery of a sentence. They have no meaning by themselves. They manifest sentence illocution such as: affirmative, negative or interrogative. There can be more than one final particles in a sentence.

| pì kì | múa | kâo | njá | ua | chài | lô |
| tomorrow | take | you | rice | do | breakfast | f.p. |

'I will take your rice to cook for breakfast tomorrow.'

| tú | klě | nǔa | ci | tsí tsâ | le |
| clas. dog | this | not | well done | f.p. |

'You! bad boy! don't do good things.'

pé   hàu   tyǎw   ȧo

we   drink   whiskey   f.p.

'Let's drink whiskey

nȧo   lào   mȃ

eat   f.p.   f.p.

'Please eat.'

5.8.3 Exclamations

Exclamations are usually before the sentence. They also may be used by themselves(Sec.5.4.1).

<u>vú</u>   cǐ   cǐ

(angry)escape   escape

'Go away!'

<u>ú va</u>   kǔ   máo   qua taw

(hurt)   I   hurt   leg

'Oh! My leg is hurt.'

a̖   hà tà   múa   móng   njúa   njá   ua   mao   nua te

(think) say   take   Hmong   green   rice   do   dinner   f.p.

'I wonder! he said that he would take the Hmong Njua's rice to

cook for dinner.'

5.9 Prosodic morphemes affecting the sentence

Intonation prominence and stress placement are prosodic morphemes affecting the sentence.

a. <u>Intonation prominence</u>   Emphasis may cause individual elements in a sentence to be raised(shown by contour lines). This factor evaluates the importance of each element in a sentence, for

example:

ó	hà	hà	te	yâw	hǎo	hà	ci	yêng	te
-	say	say	then	man	that	say	not	more	then

'Oh, that man cannot speak any more.'

hǎo	ndǎw	plàw	plàw	plǎng	mǐ nyủa
that	that	just	just	abdomen	child

'That one is just pregnant.'

b. Stress placement Sentence stress(underlined here) can be placed on any words in a sentence to emphasize them, for example:

yǎo	kâo	<u>yủa</u>	mà	<u>yủa</u>
if	you	marry	then	marry

'If you want to marry, then marry.'

yâw	crǎo qáng	múa	púa	mblua	<u>i tẹ</u>	hǎ	lô
man	return	take	they	fine	one hand	again	f.p.

'The man received their fine which was twice the amount he had
lost.'

5.10 Grammatical completeness

A sentence may be grammatically intact(complete), or may contain
deleted sentence tagmeme or deleted clause tagmemes. Any tagmeme tends
to be deleted under the circumstance that it is obviously known from
the context of from general knowledge.

S	Pred.		
Ø	yủa	mǒng	tẇ
Ø	will	go	where .

'Where will you go?'   — Subject deletion(deleted clause tagmemes)

A: lèng tẘ   ndàu   kâo

    who   hit   you

  'Who hit you?'

B: mảo

  'Mo did.'   - Predicate deletion(deleted clause

                               tagmemes)

néng   mỏng   nchǎ   kẘ chûa   ca   kẁ chûa   qhu

Neng   go   . meet   doctor   let   doctor   cure

'Neng went to see the doctor to be cured.'

                - Cause deletion

khao   cẻng   ua pang   nẘ   hǎ le   ua néng nyáo

Kho   still   breathe   he   so   alive

'Kho is breathing so he is alive.'

                - General ground deletion.

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