

## Chapter 6

### Clause types

#### 6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, different clause types in Kayan Lahta are discussed. First, the major types of clauses including declarative sentences, interrogatives sentences, and imperative sentences are presented. The interrogatives are subdivided into content questions and polar questions. Then the ability sentences, negation, comparatives and superlatives, causatives, reciprocals and reflexives are taken up. Then complete sentence types including simple sentences, coordinate, subordinate, relative clause and adverbial clauses are discussed. Finally, different kinds of serial verb constructions are presented.

#### 6.2 Major clause types

This section discusses three major clauses: declaratives, interrogatives and Imperative.

##### 6.2.1 Declarative

Declarative sentences are used to make assertions about events, states and processes. As seen in chapter five, declarative sentences are SVO. They typically express temporal adverbials first (179) and may often have multiple verbs (180) and (181).

(179) *kəŋiʔ veʔ oʃ dəʔ kaŋəʃtʰuʃ*  
now 1s live in Kaung.Htu  
TIME PRO V PREP N.PROP  
'Now, I live in Kaung Thu (village).'

(180) *ŋaʔ lwiʔ tʰaŋʃ veʔ səʃŋoŋʃ*  
1s think ascend 2s on  
PRO V V PRO LOCZR  
'I think about you.'

(181)	<i>ɲaʔ</i>	<i>jaʔ</i>	<i>lwiʔ</i>	<i>tʰaŋʃ</i>	<i>veʔ</i>	<i>sə.ɲoŋʃ</i>
	<i>Is</i>	<i>not</i>	<i>think</i>	<i>ascend</i>	<i>2s</i>	<i>on</i>
	PRO	NEG	V	V	PRO	LOCZR

'I do not think about you.'

## 6.2.2 Interrogative

Interrogatives can be divided into two kinds: content questions and polar questions. Content questions involve interrogative pronouns such as what, why, when, where, how many. Some content questions and all polar questions are formed by the adding the word *ɛʔ* before the predicate.

### 6.2.2.1 Content question

This kind of question is formed by adding the interrogative pronouns at the end of the sentence.

#### 6.2.2.1.1 What

A 'what' kind of content question is formed by adding the question word *sə.ɲɛʃ* 'what.' Using this kind of content question indicates that the speaker expects the unknown referent can be either non-human or human.

(182)	<i>veʔ</i>	<i>sʰaŋʔʔ</i>	<i>ləʔ</i>	<i>sə.ɲɛʃ</i>
	<i>2s</i>	<i>look</i>	<i>see</i>	<i>what</i>
	PRO	V	V	Q

'What do you see?'

(183)	<i>veʔ</i>	<i>sʰaŋʔʔ</i>	<i>ləʔ</i>	<i>da.ʃ</i>	<i>sə.ɲɛʃ</i>
	<i>2s</i>	<i>look</i>	<i>see</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>what</i>
	PRO	V	V	ABL	Q

'What can you see?'

In examples (182) and (183), the question word *sə.ɲɛʃ* is added at the end of the sentence. For the above questions, the answer can be human and non-human as shown in example (184). Or the answer can be just a noun phrase as shown in example (185).

(184) *ɲaʔ sʰaŋʔl ləʔ pəʔmoʔ sʷaʔl plaʔ*  
*1s look see woman six clf*  
 PRO V V N NUM CLF  
 'I saw six women.'

Or

*ɲaʔ sʰaŋʔl ləʔ ʒoʔluʔ tʰaʔl əʃ maʔ*  
*1s look see ring gold one clf*  
 PRO V V N ADJ NUM CLF  
 'I saw a golden ring.'

(185) *pəʔmoʔ sʷaʔl plaʔ*  
*woman six clf*  
 N NUM CLF  
 'six woman'

Or

*ʒoʔluʔ tʰaʔl əʃ.maʔ*  
*ring gold one.clf*  
 N ADJ NUM.CLF  
 'a/the golden ring'

### 6.2.2.1.2 Why (Reason)

There are two words, *ɲwɛʃ* and *baʃsəʃnɛʃ* used for 'why' questions. One kind of 'why' question is constructed by adding *ɲwɛʃ* at the end of the sentence, (186). The second kind of question is constructed by adding the particle *ɛʔ* after the verb followed by the question word *baʃsəʃnɛʃ* at the end of the sentence, (187). Using these kinds of content question indicates that the speaker does not know the reason for the statement or event.

(186) *veʔ jəʔ ɲpliʃ foʔl ɲwɛʃ*  
*2s not buy rice why*  
 PRO NEG V N Q  
 'Why don't you buy rice?'

In example (186) the question word *ɲwɛʃ* occurs at the end of the sentence.

(187) *veʔ ɲəiŋʔ ɛʔ baʃsəʃnɛʃ*  
*2s cry quest why*  
 PRO V PRT Q  
 'Why do you cry?'

In example (187), the particle *ɛt* occurs after the predicate *ŋəiŋt* and it is followed by the question word *ba/səJnɛJ*.

The answer for the question can be as below.

(188)	<i>ŋat</i>	<i>ŋəiŋt</i>	<i>maJra:tmeJ</i>	<i>ŋat</i>	<i>p<sup>h</sup>a:t</i>	<i>vaŋl</i>	<i>ŋat</i>
	<i>Is</i>	<i>cry</i>	<i>because</i>	<i>Is</i>	<i>father</i>	<i>hit</i>	<i>Is</i>
	PRO	V	CONJ	POSS	N	V	PRO

'I cry because my father hit me.'

The answer for this kind of content question is formed by adding the reason clause at the end of the sentence and joining that clause by the subordinate conjunction *maJra:tmeJ* to the main clause.

Notice that, for 'why' question that the interrogative pronoun *ŋwɛJ* does not occupy the position of the 'answering' clause. *ba/səJnɛJ* or *ŋwɛJ* cannot said to be *insitu*, they are clearly sentence final.

### 6.2.2.1.3 Why (reason for a future event)

This kind of question is constructed by adding the question word *səJnɛJ* at the end of the sentences. Different from the content question 'what', using this kind of content question indicates that the speaker does not know the purpose of the statement or event.

(189)	<i>vet</i>	<i>ɛt</i>	<i>fu?ŋk<sup>h</sup>iŋJ</i>	<i>vet</i>	<i>ɛt</i>	<i>mo:t</i>	<i>səJnɛJ</i>
	<i>2s</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>Phekhon</i>	<i>2s</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>do</i>	<i>what</i>
	PRO	V	N.PROP	PRO	V	V	Q

'What will you go to Phekhon to do?'

(190)	<i>vet</i>	<i>ɛt</i>	<i>mo:t</i>	<i>seJjoŋt</i>	<i>səJnɛJ</i>
	<i>2s</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>do</i>	<i>hospital</i>	<i>what</i>
	PRO	V	V	N	Q

'What will you do at the hospital?'

The answer for this kind of content question is formed by adding the clause at the end of the sentence. The clause that gives the purpose is joined to the main clause by the preposition *dəJ*.

(191)	<i>ŋat</i>	<i>ɛt</i>	<i>fu?ŋk<sup>h</sup>iŋJ</i>	<i>dəJ</i>	<i>ŋat</i>	<i>ɛt</i>	<i>s<sup>h</sup>aŋt<sup>s</sup>h<sup>a</sup>t</i>	<i>təJmaŋJ</i>
	<i>Is</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>Phekhon</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>Is</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>sell</i>	<i>basket</i>
	PRO	V	N.PROP	CONJ	PRO	V	V	N

'I went to Phekhon to sell the basket.'

(192)	<i>naʔ</i>	<i>leʔ</i>	<i>seʔjonʔ</i>	<i>dəʔ</i>	<i>naʔ</i>	<i>leʔ</i>	<i>sʰaŋʔʔ</i>	<i>səʔraʔ</i>
	<i>Is</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>hospital</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>Is</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>see</i>	<i>doctor</i>
	PRO	V	N	CONJ	PRO	V	V	N

'I went to the hospital to see the doctor.'

#### 6.2.2.1.4 How many

This kind of question is constructed by adding the particle *εʔ* at the end of the sentences and the question word *aʔʔsʰaʔ* at the beginning of the sentences. Using this kind of content question indicates that the speaker expects the unknown element to be a quantity.

(193)	<i>aʔʔsʰaʔ</i>	<i>baʔ</i>	<i>oʔ</i>	<i>meʔʔneʔŋʔ</i>	<i>sʰaʔʔ</i>	<i>εʔ</i>
	<i>how.many</i>	<i>get</i>	<i>exist</i>	<i>age</i>	<i>only</i>	<i>quest</i>
	QNT	V	V	N	PRT	Q

'How old are you?'

Although the interrogative pronoun is sentence initial, the answer for quantity is sentence final.

(194)	<i>naʔ</i>	<i>meʔʔneʔŋʔ</i>	<i>oʔ</i>	<i>təʔŋʔʔəʔ</i>
	<i>Is</i>	<i>age</i>	<i>exist</i>	<i>thirty</i>
	PRO	N	V	NUM

'I am thirty.'

#### 6.2.2.2 Polar questions

Different from content questions, polar questions, or "yes/ no," questions are constructed by adding the particle *εʔ* before the predicate. Using this kind of question indicates that the speaker expects the answer to be 'yes' or 'no', 'true' or 'false'

(195)	<i>fuʔʔkʰiŋʔ</i>	<i>njonʔ</i>	<i>εʔ</i>	<i>θiʔʔ</i>
	<i>Phekhon</i>	<i>language</i>	<i>quest</i>	<i>know</i>
	N.PROP	N	Q	V

'Do you know Phekhon language?'

(196)	<i>veʔ</i>	<i>εʔ</i>	<i>aŋʔ</i>	<i>mjaŋʔʔtʰəʔ</i>	<i>jeŋʔʔ</i>
	<i>2s</i>	<i>quest</i>	<i>eat</i>	<i>finish</i>	<i>cook-rice</i>
	PRO	Q	V	V	N

'Have you finished eating?'

In examples (195) and (196) the questions are formed by adding the particle  $\varepsilon\prime$  before the predicates  $\theta i\prime?$  and  $a\eta J$ . Notice that in (195), the object is fronted. The answer for the polar question in affirmative would be “yes,” or  $\varepsilon\prime$  followed by the verb or just the verb as in the examples below.

(197)	$me\eta J$	Or	$\varepsilon\prime$	$\theta i\prime?$	Or	$\theta i\prime?$
	<i>correct</i>		<i>quest</i>	<i>know</i>		<i>know</i>
	V		Q	V		V
	‘Yes’		‘Know’			‘Know’

The answer in negative would be:

(198)	$jə\prime$	$me\eta J$	Or	$jə\prime$	$\theta i\prime?$
	<i>not</i>	<i>correct</i>		<i>not</i>	<i>know</i>
	NEG	V		NEG	V
	‘No’			‘Do not know.’	

A polar question is also used to ask permission from someone. See the example below.

(199)	$na\prime$	$jə\prime$	$\varepsilon\prime$	$da J$	$ba\prime$	$jə\eta J$	$ku\prime?$
	<i>I</i>	<i>sleep</i>	<i>quest</i>	<i>can</i>	<i>at</i>	<i>house</i>	<i>in</i>
	PRO	V	Q	ABL	PREP	N	LOCZR
	‘Can I sleep inside your house?’						

In example (199) the question marker ‘ $\varepsilon\prime$ ’ occurs before the ability ‘ $da J$ ’.

### 6.2.3 Imperative

Imperatives are used not only to give a command but also to suggest a course of action to the hearer. There is no special marker like the interrogative, to form the imperative, the structure of the imperative question would be:

V + Complement

See the examples below.

(200)	$ku\prime?$	$va J$
	<i>cut</i>	<i>bamboo</i>
	V	N
	‘Cut the bamboo.’	

In example (200) the imperative question is formed by the verb *kuʔ* followed by the complement *va*.

The two commands can be giving by combining the two clauses as in example (203).

(201) *mbluʔkaiʔ foʔ koʔ sʰaʔ*  
*take.off thorn then sew*  
 V N SUB.CONJ V  
 ‘Take off the thorn then sew.’

In the above example, the two commands: *mbluʔkaiʔ* and *sʰaʔ* are combined by the conjunction *koʔ*.

### 6.3 Aspect marking

This section discusses different aspect markings in Kayan Lahta.

#### 6.3.1 Completive aspect marker ‘həʔ’

The completive aspect marker *həʔ* is used to indicate that the action or event is complete.

(202) *taʔpiʔ baʔ jaʔ maʔ həʔ*  
*fly clf fly disappear complete*  
 N CLF V V ASP  
 ‘The fly flew.’

(203) *aŋʔ luʔ həʔ θaŋʔθaʔ*  
*eat all complete fruit*  
 V QNT ASP N  
 ‘(They) ate all the fruit.’

(204) *mjeʔmaŋʔkoʔ siʔsaʔŋʔ daʔ həʔ*  
*then sell able complete*  
 CONN V ABL ASP  
 ‘Then it is ready to sell it.’

### 6.3.2 Perfective or completive aspect marker ‘mʲəŋlʰəʔ’

The aspect marker *mʲəŋlʰəʔ* is used to indicate a completed action or event.

(205)	<i>veʔ</i>	<i>ɛʔ</i>	<i>aŋʃ</i>	<i>mʲəŋlʰəʔ</i>
	<i>2s</i>	<i>quest</i>	<i>eat</i>	<i>finish</i>
	PRO	Q	V	ASP

‘Have you finished eating?’

### 6.3.3 Ongoing aspect marker ‘oʃ’

In Kayan Lahta has no tense marker to show the time of the action or event. To indicate the ongoing action or event, *oʃ* can be used before the verb. The actual meaning of *oʃ* is ‘live/dwell’ but it can be used as an ongoing, or imperfective, aspect marker in this case.

(206)	<i>ŋaʔ</i>	<i>oʃ</i>	<i>ŋəʃ</i>
	<i>1s</i>	<i>on-going</i>	<i>sleep</i>
	PRO	ASP	V

‘I am sleeping.’

(207)	<i>ŋaʔ</i>	<i>oʃ</i>	<i>naŋʔ</i>	<i>kʰoŋʃ</i>	<i>kʰuʃ</i>
	<i>1s</i>	<i>on-going</i>	<i>sit</i>	<i>chair</i>	<i>on</i>
	PRO	ASP	V	N	LOCZR

‘I am sitting on the chair.’

## 6.4 Ability

In Kayah Lahta, ability is coded by the clause-final ability predicate. There are two words that encode ability *daʃ* ‘can, talented at, intelligent’ and *eʔʃ* ‘able to’. The meaning of *daʃ* also means that someone is allowed to do something.

(208)	<i>fuʔlkʰiŋʔ</i>	<i>njoŋʔ</i>	<i>daʃ</i>
	<i>Phekhon</i>	<i>language</i>	<i>can</i>
	N.PROP	N	ABL

‘(I) can speak Phekhon language.’

(209)	<i>pʰaʔʃ</i>	<i>liʃ</i>	<i>daʃ</i>
	<i>read</i>	<i>book</i>	<i>can</i>
	V	N	ABL

‘He can read a book. / He is intelligent.’



(210) *jiɬwɛɬ daɬ*  
*dance can*  
 V ABL

‘(She) can dance. / She is very good in dancing.’

The above examples show the different meanings of *daɬ*. In example (208) it means that the person can speak Phekhon language even though the verb is not expressed. In the two examples, (209) and (210) *daɬ* has more than one meaning. The meaning can be distinguished by the intonation of the speaker. Speaking with the low intonation of *daɬ* means that the person can do something but it is not sure whether he is good at doing something or not. Speaking with high intonation on the adjective means that person is really good at doing something.

(211) *veɬ nəɬ daɬ baɬ jəŋɬ kuʔɬ*  
*is sleep can at house in*  
 PRO V ABL PREP N LOCZR

‘You can sleep inside the house.’

The meaning of *daɬ* also means that someone is allowed to do something. In example (211) you are allowed to sleep in the house. It does not mean that you have ability to sleep.

(212) *ŋbiɬ loɬkaŋɬ jaɬ eʔɬ kəɬ pjaʰŋɬ laŋɬ doʰŋɬ paʰŋɬ*  
*feed spirit not able then move descend village Pau*  
 V N NEG ASP CONJ V V N N.PROP

‘(They) cannot able to feed the spirit anymore, then (they) move to the village called Pau.’

In example (212) it means that the villagers are not able to feed the spirit anymore because they have no more pigs or chicken to offer. It does not mean that the villagers do not have ability to feed the spirit.

All the examples above show the semantic differences between the different markers of ability. The ability marker, *daɬ* related to the ability of someone and *ʔeʔɬ* is related to the circumstances.

## 6.5 Negation

In Kayan Lahta, the negative *jəʔ* is used to change the polarity of a proposition. Using the negative turns an affirmative statement into a negative statement. The negative *jəʔ* must occur before the verb.

(213)	<i>veʔ</i>	<i>jəʔ</i>	<i>p<sup>h</sup>ɨʔ</i>	<i>aŋʔ</i>	<i>naʔ</i>
	<i>2s</i>	<i>not</i>	<i>give</i>	<i>eat</i>	<i>1s</i>
	PRO	NEG	V	V	PRO

‘You do not give me to eat.’

(214)	<i>jəʔ</i>	<i>ndəʔ</i>	<i>dəʔ</i>	<i>jəʔ</i>	<i>aŋʔ</i>	<i>baʔ</i>	<i>joʔ</i>
	<i>not</i>	<i>cook</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>not</i>	<i>eat</i>	<i>effect</i>	<i>s.f</i>
	NEG	V	CONJ	NEG	V	V	PRT

‘Do not cook and do not eat.’

In example (213) the negative *jəʔ* occurs before the verb *p<sup>h</sup>ɨʔ*. In example (214), two clauses are joined by the conjunction *dəʔ*. In both clauses the verbs *ndəʔ* and *aŋʔ* are being negated by their own negative marker. In example (215) the ability *eʔʔ* is negated.

(215)	<i>ŋbiʔ</i>	<i>loʔkanʔ</i>	<i>jəʔ</i>	<i>eʔʔ</i>	<i>dəʔ</i>	<i>pja<sup>o</sup>ŋʔ</i>	<i>lanʔ</i>	<i>do<sup>o</sup>ŋʔ</i>	<i>pa<sup>o</sup>ŋʔ</i>
	<i>feed</i>	<i>spirit</i>	<i>not</i>	<i>able</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>move</i>	<i>descend</i>	<i>village</i>	<i>Pou</i>
	V	N	NEG	ABL	CONJ	V	V	N	N.PROP

‘Since (they) were not able to feed the spirit, then (they) moved to the village Pou.’

(216)	<i>jəʔ</i>	<i>ŋbiʔ</i>	<i>loʔkanʔ</i>	<i>dəʔ</i>	<i>pja<sup>o</sup>ŋʔ</i>	<i>lanʔ</i>	<i>do<sup>o</sup>ŋʔ</i>	<i>pa<sup>o</sup>ŋʔ</i>
	<i>not</i>	<i>feed</i>	<i>spirit</i>	<i>and</i>	<i>move</i>	<i>descend</i>	<i>village</i>	<i>Pau</i>
	NEG	V	N	CONJ	V	V	N	N.PROP

‘(They) did not feed the spirit then they moved to the village.’

In (215), two clauses are joined by the conjunction *dəʔ*. In that sentence, only the ability *eʔʔ* from the first clause is being negated. The second clause is modified by the first clause, but it is not negated by the negative marker in the second clause. In example (216) the verb is negated.

Different from other Kayan varieties, nouns can be negated in Kayan Lahta, although the example below is the only example in my data. It is also possible that the verb ‘be’ is omitted in the sentence. But there is not enough evidence to prove that either

the noun can be negated or the verb 'be' is omitted. See section 5.3.1.2 for more on equative sentences.

- (217) *bə.luʃ dət ka.ljaŋʔʔ jət vət vet loʃ tʰu.tuət*  
*Pa.O and Kayan not sister brother together that.time*  
 N.PROP CONJ N.PROP NEG N N ADV TIME  
 'From that time, the Pa.O and Kayan were not brother and sister anymore.'

In example (217) the two nouns *vət* and *vet* are being negated. There is no verb in the sentence.

### 6.6 Comparative and superlative

In Kayan Lahta, *kʰloŋʔdaʃ* is used together with *dət* to express the comparative in a sentence. In a comparative sentence, the first noun is compared to the second noun connected by the comparative marker *kʰloŋʔdaʃ*. But *dət* does not need to be used to express the superlative. The position of the comparative in a sentence in Kayan Lahta is:

[NP ADJ *kʰloŋʔdaʃ* NP]<sub>s</sub>

- (218) *ŋplaʃ a.lət kʰloŋʔdaʃ vet*  
*3s tall than 1s*  
 PRO ADJ COMP PRO  
 'He is taller than me.'
- (219) *mə.ʃhoʔʔŋəŋʃ kuʃ kʰloŋʔdaʃ mə.ʃkwaʔŋəŋʃ*  
*yesterday hot than today*  
 N ADJ COMP N  
 'Yesterday is hotter than today.'
- (220) *aiʔʔ duʃ kʰloŋʔdaʃ kʰuʃ*  
*Ai big than Khu*  
 N.PROP ADJ COMP N.PROP  
 'Ai is older than Khu.'

Examples (218), (219) and (220) express comparative sentences. In these examples, the first nouns are compared to the second nouns and they are connected by the comparative marker *kʰloŋʔdaʃ*.

In a superlative sentence, a prepositional phrase can occur. The position of the superlative in a sentence in Kayan Lahta is:

[(adpositional phrase) N ADJ *k<sup>h</sup>loŋ* (adpositional phrase)]<sub>s</sub>

(221) *mplaŋ əj.ləʔ k<sup>h</sup>loŋ*  
 3s tall than  
 PRO ADJ COMP  
 'He is the tallest.'

(222) *ŋaʔ do<sup>u</sup>ŋ kʉʔ mplaŋ əj.ləʔ k<sup>h</sup>loŋ*  
 1s village in 3s tall than  
 POSS N LOCZR PRO ADJ SUP  
 'In my village, he is the tallest.'

Or

*mplaŋ ləʔ k<sup>h</sup>loŋ.ləʔ ŋaʔ dəʔ do<sup>u</sup>ŋ kʉʔ*  
 3s tall than 1s prep village in  
 PRO ADJ COMP PRO PREP N LOCZR  
 'He is the tallest in my village.'

Examples (221) and (222) express the superlative. In example (222) a prepositional phrase can be seen in a sentence and it can either precede or follow the main clause.

(223) *mə.lho<sup>u</sup>?ŋəŋ kʉ k<sup>h</sup>loŋ.ləʔ puʔ.ŋəŋ*  
 yesterday warm than every.day  
 N ADJ COMP N  
 'Yesterday is the warmest.'

Example (223) is marked by the conjunctions *k<sup>h</sup>loŋ.ləʔ*. In this sentence, 'yesterday' is compared by 'everyday'. Syntactically, it is a comparative sentence. But semantically, it can be both comparative and superlative sentence.

## 6.7 Causative

Causatives are formed by using the causative verb *moʔ* in Kayan Lahta. The verb *moʔ* semantically means 'to do' or 'to make' something. In the following examples it is used as a causative verb to form a causative. In a causative sentence, the causative verb normally precedes the main verb.

See the following examples.

(224) *plaʔbəʔtaʔ moʔ pʰaʔʔ pleʔŋʔ maʔ*  
*child do break bottle clf*  
 N V V N CLF  
 'The child broke the bottle.'

(225) *moʔ fəʔ faʔʔ*  
*make die chicken*  
 V V N  
 'Kill the chicken.'

In examples (224) and (225) the causatives are formed by using the causative verb. It precedes the verb *pʰaʔʔ* 'break' in example (224) and *fəʔ* 'die' in example (225).

(226) *veʔ moʔ kʰuʔ vaŋʔ baʔ aiʔʔ*  
*1s do Khu hit effect Ai*  
 PRO V N.PROP V V N.PROP  
 'I make Khu to hit Ai.'

In (226), *kʰuʔ* is the object of the first clause *veʔ moʔ kʰuʔ* 'I make Khu' and he also functions as the subject of the second clause *kʰuʔ vaŋʔ baʔ aiʔʔ* 'Khu hit Ai.'

## 6.8 Reciprocal

Reciprocals are formed by using *əʔplaʔ dəʔ əʔplaʔ* 'one another' and *loʔ* 'each other' in Kayan Lahta. Semantically, *loʔ* means 'together'. In the following examples it is used as a reciprocal meaning 'each other'. In a sentence, the *loʔ* 'each other' and *əʔplaʔ dəʔ əʔplaʔ* 'one another' appear in the object position.

The following examples express the reciprocal.

(227) *ŋaʔpuʔ sʰaŋʔpʰuʔveʔ əʔplaʔ dəʔ əʔplaʔ*  
*1pl love one.person and one.person*  
 PRO V RECPL CONJ RECPL  
 'We love one another.'

(228) *aiʔʔ dəʔ kʰuʔ sʰaŋʔpʰuʔveʔ əʔplaʔ dəʔ əʔplaʔ*  
*Ai and Khu love one.person and one.person*  
 N.PROP CONJ N.PROP V RECPL CONJ RECPL  
 'Ai and Khu love one another.'

- (229) *maŋʃkɔʔ kaʃjaŋʔʔ ɬəʃtʰaʃ dəʃ bəʃuʃ məʃteʰŋʃ loʃ*  
*then Kayan Lahta and PaO fight each.other*  
 CONJ N.PROP N.PROP CONJ N.PROP V RECPL  
 'Then Kayan Lahta and PaO fight each other.'

## 6.9 Reflexive

Reflexives are formed differently according to the subjects in a sentence. See the following examples.

- (230) *veʔ vaŋʃ baʃ veʔ.naŋʔ*  
*2s hit effect yourself*  
 PRO V V REFLX  
 'You hit yourself.'

- (231) *mʃplaʃ vaŋʃ baʃ mʃplaʃ.naŋʔ*  
*3s hit effect himself*  
 PRO V V REFLX  
 'He hit himself.'

Or

- mʃplaʃ vaŋʃ baʃ əʃ.naŋʔ*  
*3s hit effect himself*  
 PRO V V REFLX  
 'He hit himself.'

- (232) *khuʔ dəʃ aiʔʔ vaŋʃ baʃ naŋʔ*  
*Khu and Ai hit effect themself*  
 N.PROP CONJ N.PROP V V REFLX  
 'Khu and Ai hit themself.'

- (233) *naʔpuʔ vaŋʃ baʃ naʔpuʔ.naŋʔ*  
*1pl hit effect ourselves*  
 PRO V V REFLX  
 'We hit ourselves.'

The different forms of the reflexive are summarized in Table 22.

Table 22 Reflexives in Kayan Lahta

Subject	Reflexive
Proper Noun	<i>naŋʔ</i>
<i>naʔ</i> '1s'	<i>naʔnaŋʔ</i>
<i>veʔ</i> '2s'	<i>veʔnaŋʔ</i>
<i>naʔpuʔ</i> '1pl'	<i>naʔpuʔnaŋʔ</i>

## 6.10 Complex clause types

Sentences are made up of at least one clause in Kayan Lahta. In Kayan Lahta, when a single clause is uttered as a complete thought with sentence intonation, it is a simple sentence. A simple sentence can also be marked by adding final particle at the end of the clause. However, typically no final particle occurs in daily speech in Kayan Lahta. Adding a final particle seems more polite and more formal.

The simple sentence structure is illustrated in (234).

[CLAUSE (qaʔ)]

(234)	<i>məʃhoʔʔŋəŋʔ</i>	<i>naʔ</i>	<i>ləʔ</i>	<i>saʔkʰoŋʔ</i>	<i>qaʔ</i>
	<i>yesterday</i>	<i>1s</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>rice.field</i>	<i>s.f</i>
	N	PRO	V	N	PRT
	'Yesterday I went to the rice field.'				

The final particle in example (234) is optional and the meaning of the sentence is stays the same.

### 6.10.1 Coordinate clauses

One way of forming complex clauses is through coordination. There are two coordinate conjunctions, '*dəʔ*' and '*kəʔ*' in Kayah Lahta. They can link the two clauses in a sentence. The two clauses are independent in that they could stand alone to form a sentence.

[Clause *dəJ/kət* Clause]

(235) *hoʷŋŋ tʰaŋŋ sʰaʔŋ pəJmoʔ dəJ pəJmoʔ plaJ jəŋ vaŋŋ*  
*call descend only woman and woman clf not clean*  
 V V ADV N CONJ N CLF NEG V

‘Call one of the women who is not clean.’ (who is not appropriate to be sacrificed.)

(236) *vaŋŋ taJpiʔ baJ dəJ jəŋ baJ joJ*  
*hit fly clf and not can s.f*  
 V N CLF CONJ NEG V PRT

‘(The bear tried to) hit the fly but (he) could not.’

(237) *veʔ oJ sʰoJ kʰuJ kət pjaʷŋŋ teʰŋŋ nateʰŋ*  
*2s live mountain on and then move come Natei*  
 PRO V N LOCZR CONJ V V N.PROP

‘He lived in a mountain and then (he) moved to the village Natei.’

In (235) and (236), the two clauses are linked by the conjunction *dəJ*. The use of the conjunction ‘*dəJ*’ suggests that the two events happened at the same time. It can be translated as ‘and’ or ‘but’ depending on the context. In example (237) the conjunction ‘*kət*’ is used to link the two clauses in a sentence. The use of the conjunction ‘*kət*’ suggests that the first event *veʔ oJ sʰoJ kʰuJ* ‘I lived in a mountain’ happened first and then it was followed by the second event *pjaʷŋŋ teʰŋŋ nateʰŋ* ‘move to the Natei’ happened. They did not happen at the same time.

In example (238) the agent is omitted. According to the context, the agent is ‘the bear’. The agent of the first and the second clause is the same in this example.

### 6.10.2 Relative clauses

Complex clauses are also created when a relative clause is used to modify a noun phrase inside the main clause. In Kayan Lahta, relative clauses are marked by the relativizer ‘*dət*’ or unmarked and the clause directly follows the noun it modifies. Relative clauses are underlined in the following discussion

Example (238) relativizer is omitted and the relative clause *oJ kaJlaŋŋ kuʔŋ* ‘exist inside the plate’ directly follows the noun.



(238) *pluʔ plaʔ aŋʃ θaŋʃ-θaʃ oʃ kəʃʃaŋʃ kuʔʃ*  
*child clf eat fruit exist plate in*  
 N CLF V N V N LCZR  
 'The child ate the fruit which is on the plate.'

In (239) and (240), the relativizer *dəʔ* is used to mark a relative clause that modifies a noun 'plaʔbaʃtaʃ' 'child' inside the clause.

(239) *hoʔŋʃ plaʔbaʃtaʃ dəʔ uʃ ʃəʔʃ*  
*call child rel drink water*  
 V N REL V N  
 'Call the child who drunk water.'

(240) *ʃəʔʃ baŋʃ plaʔbaʃtaʃ dəʔ moʔ ŋkaʔ*  
*water cup child rel do destroy*  
 POSS N N REL V V  
 'the cup that the child destroyed.'

In example (241) a relative clause modifies the noun which is in the subject position. In this example, the relativizer *dəʔ* follows the noun that the relative clause modifies. The first *plaʃ* is used as a head noun and the second *plaʃ* is used as a classifier. In this clause, the relative clause appears between the noun and the classifier.

(241) *plaʃ dəʔ aŋʃ jəŋʃ plaʃ sʰaŋʃʃ ləʔ taʃpiʔ baʃ jəʔ ləʔ*  
*man rel eat rice-cooked clf look see fly clf fly down*  
 N REL V N CLF V V N CLF V V  
 'The man who was eating rice saw the fly fly down.'

The relativizer can be omitted as in example (242).

(242) *plaʃ aŋʃ jəŋʃ plaʃ sʰaŋʃʃ ləʔ taʃpiʔ baʃ jəʔ ləʔ*  
*man eat rice-cooked clf look see fly clf fly down*  
 N V N CLF V V N CLF V V  
 'The man who was eating rice saw the fly fly down.'

### 6.10.3 Adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses are classified based on their syntactic structure and the semantic relationship between the dependent clause and the main clause. Structurally an adverbial clause modifies another (main) clause and is introduced by a subordinate conjunction or preposition and often ended by another dependent clause final subordinator. (Manson, 2010: 396)

In Kayan Lahta subordinate conjunctions are always sentence final but occasionally may appear sentence initial also.

Subordinators are underlined in the following discussion and square brackets surround the adverbial clause.

#### 6.10.3.1 Temporal adverbial clauses

In Kayan Lahta, temporal adverbial clauses are included in the main clauses and they usually appear at the beginning of main clause. When the temporal adverbial clauses come first in a sentence, *si:k<sup>h</sup>o<sup>u</sup>* 'when' is the subordinate conjunction that is used. Look at examples (243a) and (244a). If the temporal adverbial clause comes at the end of the sentence, the subordinate conjunction is '*bat..... si:k<sup>h</sup>o<sup>u</sup>*'. Look at examples (243b) and (244b).

The two positions of the temporal clauses can be:

[Temporal Clause Main Clause]<sub>s</sub>

[.....*si:k<sup>h</sup>o<sup>u</sup>*+ Main Clause]<sub>s</sub>

Or

[Main Clause Temporal Clause]<sub>s</sub>

[Main Clause *bat.....si:k<sup>h</sup>o<sup>u</sup>*]<sub>s</sub>

(243) a. [aŋJ loJ wiJ si:k<sup>h</sup>o<sup>u</sup> ta:piɬ baJ jəɬ lanJ  
 eat together delicious when fly clf fly descend  
 V ADV ADJ TIME N CLF V V

'When eating deliciously, the fly descended.'

b.	<i>ta:pi:t</i>	<i>ba:J</i>	<i>ja:t</i>	<i>lan:J</i>	<i>[ba:t</i>	<i>an:J</i>	<i>lo:J</i>	<i>wi:J</i>	<i>si:tk<sup>h</sup>o<sup>u</sup>:t]</i>
	<i>fly</i>	<i>clf</i>	<i>fly</i>	<i>descend</i>	<i>prep</i>	<i>eat</i>	<i>together</i>	<i>delicious</i>	<i>when</i>
	N	CLF	V	V	PREP	V	ADV	ADJ	TIME

'The fly descended when eating deliciously.'

(244)	a.	<i>[ka:Jjan?]</i>	<i>lwan:J</i>	<i>ni:t</i>	<i>te:ŋ]</i>	<i>ba:J</i>	<i>k<sup>h</sup>a:t]</i>	<i>ja:l</i>	<i>p<sup>h</sup>i:l</i>	<i>an:J</i>	<i>bə:ju:J</i>
		<i>Kayan</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>get</i>	<i>porcupine</i>	<i>clf</i>	<i>when</i>	<i>not</i>	<i>give</i>	<i>eat</i>	<i>PaO</i>
		N.PROP	V	V	N	CLF	TIME	NEG	V	V	N.PROP

'When Kayan get a porcupine, they do not give PaO to eat.'

b.	<i>ka:Jjan?]</i>	<i>ja:l</i>	<i>p<sup>h</sup>i:l</i>	<i>an:J</i>	<i>bə:ju:J</i>	<i>[ba:t</i>	<i>lwan:J</i>	<i>ni:t</i>	<i>te:ŋ]</i>	<i>ba:J</i>	<i>k<sup>h</sup>a:t]</i>
	<i>Kayan</i>	<i>not</i>	<i>give</i>	<i>eat</i>	<i>PaO</i>	<i>time</i>	<i>go</i>	<i>get</i>	<i>porcupine</i>	<i>clf</i>	<i>when</i>
	N.PROP	NEG	V	V	N.PROP	PREP	V	V	N	CLF	TIME

'Kayan do not give PaO, when get a porcupine.'

In the two examples above, two positions of the temporal adverbial clauses can be seen. Firstly, the temporal adverbial clauses precede the main clauses and the subordinate conjunctions *si:tk<sup>h</sup>o<sup>u</sup>:t* or *k<sup>h</sup>a:t* 'when' occur at the end of the temporal clause in a sentence. Secondly, the temporal adverbial clauses follow the main clause and the subordinate conjunctions and *ba:t* 'when' occurs at the beginning of the temporal clauses and *si:tk<sup>h</sup>o<sup>u</sup>:t* or *k<sup>h</sup>a:t* 'when' at the end of the sentence.

### 6.10.3.2 Reason clauses

In Kayan Lahta, *ko:t* 'so' and *ma:Jra:tmε:J* 'because' are the conjunctions that are used in a reason clause. *ko:t* 'so' has more than one meaning. In the following examples it gives a reason. In use, the reason clause precedes the result clause and the two clauses are connected by *ko:t* 'so' or *ma:Jra:tmε:J* 'because'.

(245)	<i>pla:J</i>	<i>pla:tə:Jta:J</i>	<i>ja:l</i>	<i>p:je:ŋ]</i>	<i>[ko:t</i>	<i>pja<sup>o</sup>:ŋ:t</i>	<i>te:ŋ:t</i>	<i>nə:te:ŋ]</i>
	<i>clf</i>	<i>child</i>	<i>not</i>	<i>feel-well</i>	<i>so</i>	<i>move</i>	<i>come</i>	<i>Natei</i>
	CLF	N	NEG	V	RESN	V	V	N.PROP

'The children are not feeling well, so (they) move to Natei.'

(246)	<i>ai:ʔ]</i>	<i>θə:ju:l</i>	<i>[ko:t</i>	<i>ə:J</i>	<i>an:Jtə:ŋ:t</i>	<i>ta:ŋnə:ŋ:t]</i>
	<i>Ai</i>	<i>hungry</i>	<i>so</i>	<i>3s</i>	<i>hunt</i>	<i>animal</i>
	N.PROP	V	RESN	PRO	V	N

'Ai is hungry so he goes hunting.'

In example (249) the coordinator *ma:ra:me:ʃ* is used to connect the two clauses.

(247) *naʃ    jəʃ    le:ʃ    sa:kʰoŋʃ    [ma:ra:me:ʃ]    kaŋ:ʃwe:ʃ*  
*1s    not    go    rice.field    because    rain*  
 PRO    NEG    V    N    RESN    V

'I do not go to the rice field because it rain.'

### 6.10.3.3 Cause-effect clauses

In Kayan Lahta, the same marker *kəʃ* is used for reason clauses and result clause. So syntactically, they cannot be distinguished. The two clauses can be distinguished only by their meaning.

The result clauses are coded by *kəʃ* 'so'. In the sentence, the result clauses follow the main clause and the two clauses are connected by *kəʃ* 'so'.

(248) *moŋʃ    aŋʃ    maŋʃoʃ    [kəʃ]    plaʃ    təʃmo:ʃ]*  
*spirit    eat    wrong    so    person    die*  
 N    V    ADJ    CAUSE    N    V

'The Spirit eats inappropriately so the people die.

(Lit. The Spirit eat (something) wrong so people die.'

(249) *ve:ʃ    ɲəʃ    daʃ    qaʃ    tjaʃ    jəŋʃ    doʰŋʃ    [kəʃ]    ɲəʃ    o:ʃ]*  
*2s    sleep    can    s.f    owner    house    say    so    sleep    exist*  
 PRO    V    V    PRT    N    N    V    CAUSE    V    V

'You can sleep, says the house owner so (he) sleep.'

(250) *naʃ    jəʃ    aŋʃ    jɛŋʃ    [kəʃ]    ɲaʃ    θəʃvi:ʃ]*  
*1s    not    eat    rice-cooked    so    1s    hungry*  
 PRO    NEG    V    N    CAUSE    PRO    V

'I do not eat rice, so I am hungry.'

In the above three examples, the coordinator *kəʃ* 'so' is used. The cause clauses occur at the beginning of the sentences and they are followed by the main clauses.

### 6.10.3.4 Conditional clauses

Conditional clauses are marked by the subordinate conjunction *me:ʃ* 'if'. Conditional clauses describe some hypothetical situation and the consequences of the situation.

In a sentence in Kayan Latha, the first part of the sentence is the condition clause

and it describes the hypothetical situation. The second part of the sentence is the clause that describes the consequence of the condition clause.

The following are the examples of conditional clauses.

(251) [veʔ taŋjkaʔŋ oʃ mɛʃ] veʔ kəʃ moʔ səjneʃ  
 2s money exist if 2s will do what  
 PRO N V SUB.CONJ PRO V V Q  
 'If you have money, what will you do?'

(252) [naʔ jaʃ sʰaŋʔŋ ləʔ məiŋʔ mɛʃ] naʔ kəʃ jaʃ aŋjjeŋʃ  
 1s not look see mother if 1s will not eat rice  
 PRO NEG V V N SUB.CONJ PRO V NEG V N  
 'If I do not see mother, I will not eat.'

(253) [aiʔ lɛʔ naŋʃtuʃ mɛʃ] əʃ kəʃ lwaŋʃ taʃnaŋʔ  
 Ai go forest if 3s will go hunting  
 N.PROP V N SUB-CONJ PRO V V N  
 'If Ai go to the forest, he will go for hunting.'

(254) [məʃkwaʃŋəŋʃ kaŋʃsweʔ mɛʃ] naʔ kəʃ lɛʔ səʃkʰoŋʃ  
 today rain if 1s will go rice.field  
 N V SUB-CONJ PRO V V N  
 'If it rains today, I will go to the rice field.'

## 6.11 Serial verb constructions

In this section, the different kinds of serial verb constructions which include action with purpose, action (cause)-result, motion with goal, motion with direction, action with result, action with completion and action with negative result are discussed.

In Kayan Lahta, two verbs or more which are not lexically related are combined in a serial verb construction. They are very frequent in this language. However, some verbs series are compound and not serial verbs.

In example (255), the two verbs, sʰaŋʔŋ 'look' and ləʔ 'see' co-occur. However, the meaning of the combined verbs is not compositional. The two verbs are combined to form one meaning 'see'. This is a coordinate compound and not a compositional

serial verb construction. The meaning of serial verbs is more compositional than with compound verbs.

(255) *bə.luɿ sʰaŋʔɿ ləɪ te'ŋɿ baɿ ʃwaŋʔɿ*  
*PaO look see porcupine clf feather*  
 N.PROP V V N CLF N  
 'Pa.O sees the porcupine's feather.'

In this section, some types of serial verb constructions will be examined. In this paper, serial verb constructions are treated as a variety of distinct verb pairs that are defined by the semantic relationship between the verbs.

### 6.11.1 Action with purpose (different agent)

In this serial verb construction, the first verb shows the action of the agent and the second verb express the purpose of the action in each sentence.

(256) *bə.luɿ pʰiɿ aŋɿ kaŋaŋʔɿ sʰaŋɿ jaɿ*  
*PaO give eat Kayan elephant meat*  
 N.PROP V V N.PROP N N  
 'Pa.O give Kayan elephant meat to eat.'

In example (257), there are two participants: the agent and the recipient. In this sentence, the action verb *pʰiɿ* 'give' precedes the verb *aŋɿ* 'eat' which express the purpose of the first action. The purpose of Pa.O for giving the meat to Kayan is to eat.

(257) *dəɿ aŋɿ jɛŋɿ*  
*cook eat rice-cooked*  
 V V N  
 'Cook rice to eat.'

(258) *maɿ aŋɿ kəɿmwaŋɿ*  
*make eat snack*  
 V V N  
 'Make snack to eat.'

In the above two examples, the agents are omitted and there are no recipients or patients. The verbs *aŋɿ* 'eat' is followed by the action verbs, *dəɿ* 'cook' and *maɿ* 'make'. The meaning of both sentences is that the implied agents make something with the purpose of eating.

### 6.11.2 Action (cause) - result

The verb *moJ* 'make' expresses the action which is caused to happen. It is followed by the verb which expresses the result of the action. Causative verbs were discussed in section 6.6.

(259)	<i>kaJ</i>	<i>plaʔbaJtaJ</i>	<i>moʔ</i>	<i>pʰaʔʔ</i>	<i>pleʔŋʔ</i>	<i>maʔ</i>
	call	child	make	break	bottle	clf
	V	N	V	V	N	CLF

'Call the child who broke the bottle.'

(260)	<i>ŋaʔ</i>	<i>moJ</i>	<i>aŋJjaʔ</i>	<i>vaJ</i>
	1s	make	split	bamboo
	PRO	V	V	N

'I split the bamboo.'

In examples (259) and (260), the causative verb *moJ* 'make' is followed by the result verb *pʰaʔʔ* 'break' and *aŋJjaʔ* 'split'.

### 6.11.3 Motion with arbitrary goal

In this type of serial verb construction, the two action verbs co-occur to express motion that has goal. They express simultaneous or immediately consecutive action. All the verbs share the same agent as can be seen in the following examples. In all examples below, the goal given is arbitrarily connected to the motion.

(261)	<i>veʔ</i>	<i>leʔ</i>	<i>moʔ</i>	<i>səJneJ</i>
	2s	go	do	what
	PRO	V	V	Q

'What are you going to do?'

(262)	<i>tʰaŋʔʔ</i>	<i>dəʔʔ</i>	<i>leʔ</i>	<i>eʔŋʔ</i>	<i>plaJ</i>
	bear	clf	go	bite	human
	N	CLF	V	V	N

'The bear go bite the man.'

(263)	<i>pluʔ</i>	<i>plaJ</i>	<i>loʔ</i>	<i>vaŋʔ</i>	<i>taJpiʔ</i>	<i>baJ</i>
	child	clf	follow	hit	fly	clf
	N	CLF	V	V	N	CLF

'The child follow hit the fly.'

### 6.11.4 Motion with direction

In this type of serial verb construction, the two verbs are combined to express motion with direction. The first verb expresses the motion of the agent and the second verb denotes the direction of the action.

(264) *taɭpiɬ baɭ jəɬ laŋɭ*  
*fly clf fly descend*  
 N CLF V V  
 'The fly came down.'

(265) *pja<sup>o</sup>ŋɬ te<sup>l</sup>ŋɬ do<sup>o</sup>ŋɭ Tju*  
*move come village Tju*  
 V V N N.PROP  
 '(They) move to the Tju village.'

(266) *maɭkaŋɭ kaɭho<sup>o</sup>ŋɭ t<sup>h</sup>aŋɭ s<sup>h</sup>aʔɭ paɭmoɬ*  
*spirit call ascend only woman*  
 N V V PRT N  
 'The spirit calls only the women.'

### 6.11.5 Action with result

In this "action with result" serial verb construction, the two verbs are combined to each other to show an action that has the result. The first verb expresses the action of the agent and the second verb denotes the result in this construction. See the examples below:

(267) *kaɭjaŋʔɭ lwaŋɭ ɲiɬ te<sup>l</sup>ŋɭ baɭ*  
*Kayan hunt get porcupine clf*  
 N.PROP V V N CLF  
 'Kayan hunted (and) get a porcupine.'

In example (267) the first verb, *lwaŋɭ* 'hunt' shows the action of the agent, 'Kayan' and has the result that the Kayan get a porcupine.

This serial verb construction can be used in a question form as can be seen in the following example.

(268) *veɬ ɛɬ aŋɭ mjəŋɭt<sup>h</sup>əɬ*  
*2s quest eat finish*  
 PRO Q V V  
 'Have you finished eating?'



### 6.11.6 Action with completion

The verb *baJ* is combined with the action verb to express that an action is complete. In this serial verb construction, the action verb is followed by the verb *baJ* 'touch' which indicates that the action is completed. Events modified by *baJ* must be of short duration. When *baJ* is used with long duration, events denote the experiential past.

(269) *p<sup>h</sup>aʔ*    *vaŋ*    *baJ*    *taʔpiʔ*    *baJ*  
*father*    *hit*    *touch*    *fly*    *clf*  
 N            V            V            N            CLF  
 'The father hits the fly.'

(270) *pluʔ*    *plaJ*            *eŋʔ*    *baJ*    *saʔno<sup>u</sup>ʔ*    *maʔ*  
*child*    *clf*                *bite*    *touch*    *thumb*    *clf*  
 N            CLF                V            V            N            CLF  
 'The child bites his thumb.'

(271) *ŋplaʔ*    *vaŋ*    *baJ*    *ŋplaʔnaŋʔ*  
*3s*        *hit*    *touch*    *himself*  
 PRO        V            V            REFLX  
 'He hits himself.'

(272) is the example that *baJ* is used with long duration event that denotes the experiential past

(272) *maʔho<sup>u</sup>ʔ*    *neŋ*    *naʔ*    *leʔ*    *baJ*    *saʔt<sup>h</sup>oŋJ*  
*yesterday*    *year*    *I*    *go*    *experience*    *Tha-Hton*  
 N            N            PRO    V            V            N.PROP  
 'Last year, I had an experience going to Tha Hton.'

### 6.11.7 Action with negative result

The verb *ka<sup>h</sup>* literally means 'destroy'. In this kind of serial verb construction, the verb *ka<sup>h</sup>* follows the action verbs to show that the action results in a negative outcome. In each sentence, it has intention. The examples below show actions with a negative purpose.

(273) *p<sup>h</sup>aʔ*    *vaŋ*    *ka<sup>h</sup>*            *taʔpiʔ*    *baJ*  
*father*    *hit*    *action*        *fly*    *clf*  
 N            V            V                N            CLF  
 'The father hits the fly.'

(274) *fwiJ daʔʔ e'ŋt ka'ɬ plu:t pla:J kʰaŋJbo'ŋJ*  
*dog clf bite action child clf leg*  
 N CLF V V N CLF N

'The dog bites the child's leg.'

(275) *tʰuJ ba:J səljə:t ma:t ka'ɬ*  
*bird clf fly disappear action*  
 N CLF V V V

'The bird fly disappear.'

## 6.12 Conclusion

In this chapter, single clause types were discussed. In the clause types, declarative, content questions and imperative were included. Interrogative and polar questions were discussed under content questions, aspect, ability, negation, comparative and superlative, causative, reciprocal and reflexive were also presented. Brief discussions of complex sentence types which contain coordinate, relative and adverbial clauses were included in this chapter. Finally, several serial verb constructions were presented.