

CHAPTER 3: MODIFICATIONS

3.0 Introduction

So far intransitive, transitive, ditransitive, stative, equative, quotative and receptor clauses have been described in detail. For the analysis presented in this chapter, the following modifications are considered: negatives, imperatives, interrogatives, dependent clauses and relative clauses.

Chodri employs modifications to some extent in all types of clauses except quotative clauses. Healey (1988:79) states that “focus or emphasis, commands, questions and negatives” may affect most of the clause types in some languages. To describe the modification is simpler than to set up additional clause types. Next, subordinate conjunctive, participial, and non-participial classes of dependent clauses are described. Then, the dependent clauses which can also function as an element in a clause, are described under the section on embedded clauses. This study considers dependent clauses and relative clauses to be modifications of clauses. Next, the function of relative clauses is described under the section on embedded clauses.

The occurrence of some particles which do not function under any particular element in the regular syntactic structure of a clause modifies the meaning of a clause. All types of clauses in Chodri, except quotative clauses, described above can be modified into negatives and interrogatives. Intransitive, transitive and ditransitive clause types can be modified into imperatives.

3.1 Negatives

This section discusses how any type of clauses, except for quotative clauses, can be changed into negative clauses. All clauses in Chodri can be modified into negative clauses by adding negative particles such as *kajni* and *ni* ‘not’ to a clause. Normally

both negative particles precede the verbs in intransitive, transitive, ditransitive, and receptor clauses, or precede the copula in stative and equative clauses. The negative particles occur following the verbs, when the statement is emphasized. Emphasis is not discussed in this paper.

3.1.1 Negative particle *kajni* and *ni*

The negative particle *kajni* and *ni* ‘not’ are used interchangeably. In example 100, *kajni* precedes the verb *pəre* ‘falls’. In example 101, *ni* precedes the verb *apə* ‘give’. There is no restriction for using *kajni* and *ni* ‘not’ as negative particles.

(100) “Kani kumadi” (VIII 62)

tore pər te kajni pəre
you on ANTP not falls

‘(It) does not fall on you.’

(101) “Kani kumadi” (VIII 60)

tune ni apə
you-to not give

‘(I) won’t give (it) to you.’

When there is *-dʒ* ‘emphatic marker’ with the verb or there are echo words in the predicate, *kajni* or *ni* ‘not’ follows the verb. In example 102, *ni* ‘not’ follows the verb because *-dʒ* ‘emphatic marker’ occurs with the verb.

(102) “The king and his son ” (IV 32)

tije te manjə-dʒ ni
he ANTP accepted-emp not

‘He did not accept (it).’

In example 103, since the echo word *bave* occurs following *ave* ‘come’, the negative particle *ni* ‘not’ occurs following the verb.

(103) “The king and his son ” (IV 33)

p^hunə hat^h ave bave ni
flower hand come echo not

‘(She) does not reach the flower.’

In example 104, when *kāj* ‘anything’ occurs preceding the verb, the negative particle *kajni* or *ni* follows the verb.

(104) “The king’s servant” (III 44)

radza tune kāj kare ni
king you-to something do-would not

‘The king won’t do anything to you.’

3.1.2 Negative particle *nat* ‘not’.

Intransitive, transitive and ditransitive clauses can be modified into negative clauses by adding negative particle *nat* ‘not’. To negate something which is expected, the negative particle *nat* ‘not’ is used. The negative particle *nat* ‘not’ may occur preceding or following the verbs. If negative attitudes or wishes are expressed without using any emphatic marker, this negative particle occurs preceding the verbs. When the wishes are expressed emphatically, this negative particle occurs following the verbs. The following example shows *nat* ‘not’ preceding the verb *k^havaŋə* ‘eat should’.

(105) “Elicited Data” (S 47)

ĩ p^hadzə mare nat k^havaŋə
this spinach my not eat-should

‘I should not eat this spinach.’

In example 106, *nat* ‘not’ follows the verb *dʒodʒ* ‘want’ since the verb is emphasized.

(106) “The king and his son” (IV 43)

ĩ p^hunə mare dʒodʒtə-dʒ nat
 this flower to-me wanting-emp not

‘I don’t want this flower.’

3.1.3 Negative particle *t^hoɾo* ‘little’

Although *t^hoɾo* literally means ‘little’, this word may be used as a negative particle in all types of clauses. This particle is used as negative only when the speaker wants to reject someone’s proposal strongly. *t^hoɾo* may either precede or follow verbs, and it agrees with the number and gender of the subject in intransitive clauses and with the object in transitive clauses in perfect tenses. In example 107, *t^hoɾo* ‘little’ precedes the verb *nikle* ‘come out’; it has masculine singular suffix *-o*.

(107) “The Rabbit and a fox” (VII 56)

kāj t^hoɾ-o nikle
 any thing little-ms come out

‘Nothing comes out.’

In example 108, the negative particle *t^hoɾi* ‘not’ follows the verb, and it agrees with the subject which is feminine singular pronoun.

(108) “Elicited Data” (S 48)

te tore hari bonvaŋi t^hoɾ-i
 she you with speak-should not-fs

‘She intends not to speak with you at all.’

3.1.4 Negative particle *kedimedi* ‘seldom’

kedimedi ‘seldom’ may be used as a negative particle in intransitive, transitive, ditransitive and receptor clauses. This negative particle always occurs preceding the

verb. In example 109, *kedimedi* ‘seldom’ occurs preceding the conjunct verb *pavho dzato* ‘guest go’. The conjunct verb consists of noun *pavho* ‘guest’ and verb *dzato* ‘go.’

(109) “Elicited Data” (S 49)

doho kedimedi pavho dzato a
man seldom guest going is

‘The man seldom goes as a guest.’

3.1.5 Negative particle *dzat ni* ‘not at all’

dzat ni ‘not at all’ may be used as negative particle in intransitive, transitive, ditransitive and receptor clauses. This particle always occurs preceding the verb. *dzat* can not occur independently anywhere in a clause without *ni*. It could be a compound negative because it has only one meaning. *dzat ni* always precedes the predicate. When Chodri people make negative comments about others, *dzat ni* ‘not at all’ is used.

In example 110, *dzat ni* ‘not at all’ precedes the verb *ungle* ‘would bath’.

(110) “Elicited Data” (S 50)

dohoni dzat ni ungle
woman at-all not bathes

‘The woman does not bathe at all.’

Table 7 consists of declaratives in intransitive, transitive, ditransitive, stative, equative, and receptor clauses. It shows how declaratives can be modified into negatives in these types of clauses.

	Declarative	Negatives
Intran	te tʃanti a she walking is She is walking	te kajni tʃanti a she not walking is She is not walking.
Trans	tije mare pagane tʰərino he my leg caught He had caught my leg.	tije mare pagane kajni tʰərino he my leg not caught He had not caught my leg.
Ditran	tujě mane daṇa aptʃa you me-to paddy gave You gave paddy rice to me.	tujě mane daṇa kajni aptʃa you me-to paddy not gave You did not give paddy rice.
Stat	ijě dohoni hase here woman is The woman is here.	ijě dohoni kajni hase here woman not is The woman is not here.
Equ	ī pʰunə hase this flower is This is a flower.	ī pʰunə kajni hase this flower not is This is not a flower.
Rec	mane dukʰ nagtə a me-to suffering feeling is I feel pain.	mane dukʰ ni nagtə a me-to suffering not feeling is I don't feel pain.

Table 7 Negatives modification

3.2 Imperative

This section describes how action clauses can be modified into imperatives. Table 8 summarizes the imperative modifications. All clauses which have action verbs in the predicate can be modified into imperatives. The omission of person, number-gender and tense markers from an action verb that functions as the predicate of the clause indicate that the clause is an imperative. The occurrence of subject is optional in an imperative. In general, the vocative particles *ra* or *je* may be optionally used with an imperative clause. *ra* indicates that the command is directed towards a male, and *je* indicates that the command is directed towards a female person. An example with a vocative particle is given under the impolite imperative section. Imperative clauses in Chodri are very often simple utterances.

When there are two clauses in a subordinate sentence, the imperative form always occurs in the final clause. The imperative form *av* ‘come’ occurs in the final clause in example 111.

(111) “The king’s servant” (III 26)

divo neti av
lamp taking come

‘Come taking a lamp.’

There are three kinds of imperatives: Impolite, polite or courteous, and familiar.

The following is the discussion on the features of the imperatives and how and when imperatives are used.

3.2.1 Impolite imperative

The two impolite imperative forms expressed in Chodri are: 1) verb root for singular, and 2) verb root with *-ja ~ -a* ‘impolite suffix’ for plural

3.2.1.1 Verb root for singular

Using just a verb root shows that it is an impolite imperative addressed to a single person. The impolite form is used by older people or those who have earned status. It may also be used by younger people when addressing older people. In example 112, *tfal* ‘come’ is an impolite form used commonly. It is used when the speaker expects the hearer to oblige. Mostly the hearer obeys the command of the speaker.

(112) “A king’s daughter” (V 24)

tũ amare hari tfal
you us with come

‘Come with us.’

3.2.1.2 Verb root with *-ja* ~ *-a* ‘impolite suffix’ for plural

The plural marker *-a* or *-ja* is added to the verb root in the plural impolite imperative. If the verb root ends with a consonant, *-a* ‘plural marker’ is added to the verb root in impolite imperative. The verb root may either be a simple or compound.

In example 113, *-a* ‘plural marker’ is added to the simple verb root *kər* ‘do’, which ends with a consonant.

(113) “Elicited Data” (S 51)

tume kam kər-a
you work do-Imsu

‘You (pl) do work.’

In example 114, *-a* ‘plural marker’ is added to the compound verb root in the imperative form, since the verb root *nak^h* ‘throw’ ends with a consonant.

(114) “Elicited Data” (S 52)

tume buvari nak^h-a
you sweep throw-Imsu

‘You (pl) sweep.’

If the verb root ends with a vowel, the *-ja* marker occurs with the verb root. In example 115, *-ja* ‘plural marker’ is added to the verb root *dʒa* ‘go’ ending with a vowel. *-ja* and *-a* ‘plural marker’ are phonologically conditioned allomorphs. *-a* marker occurs when the verb root ends with a consonant. *-ja* marker occurs when the verb root ends with a vowel in imperatives.

(115) “A king’s daughter” (V 25)

tume dʒa-ja
you go-Imsu

‘You (pl) go.’

The examples shown below explain how impolite imperatives are used with vocative particles in this text corpus. In example 116, the vocative particle *je* at the final position of polite imperative indicates that the addressee is a female.

(116) “The king’s servant” (III 26)

divo nav je
lamp bring VocP

‘Bring a lamp.’

The vocative particle *ra* may be used optionally at the final position of an imperative when the addressee is a male. In example 117, the vocative particle *ra* occurs at the final position of the impolite imperative to indicate that the addressee is a male person.

(117) “Elicited Data” (S 53)

ubo rə ra
stand VocP

‘Stand.’

3.2.2 Polite or Courteous imperative

The polite or courteous imperatives are marked by the suffix *-dze* ‘polite marker’ for singular with the verb root. The use of polite or courteous imperatives requires a hearer to obey the speaker’s command. This polite command will not be rejected by the hearer. In example 118, the verb root *hed* ‘see’ has the suffix *-dze* for singular polite imperative.

(118) “The king and his son ” (IV 14)

kagrāj pəllə nak^hi hed-dze
crow-to first give-cps see-Pols

‘First, (you) please throw (it) to a crow and see.’

The polite or courteous imperatives are marked by the suffix *-dza* with the verb root for the plural. Taylor calls this type of polite command a courteous imperative in Gujarati. (1975: 270)

In example 119, the verb root *neav* 'bring' is suffixed by *-dza* for a plural polite imperative.

(119) "Five sons" (X 64)

tume pajha neav-dza
you money bring-Pols

'You please bring the money.'

3.2.3 Familiar imperative

The familiar imperative *ni* 'negative particle' occurs at the final position of an imperative. It shows that the command is used on a person familiar to the speaker such as friends, brothers, sisters, parents or child. Taylor (1975:270) states that a familiar imperative is used in Gujarati to express an order more familiarly.

In example 120, *ni* 'negative particle' occurs at the final position following a verb root with *-dze* in the familiar imperative. In example 121, the familiar imperative *ni* 'negative particle' indicates that the imperative is an impolite familiar command.

(120) "Elicited Data" (S 54)

roṭno k^ha-dze ni
bread eat FMRP

'(You) eat bread.'

(121) "The king and his son" (IV 23)

baje baje ijē av ni
sister sister here come not

'Sister, Sister, (Won't) you come here?'

In Table 8 examples of intransitive, transitive, and ditransitive clauses and their

	Declaratives	Imperatives
Intran.	tū dukane rəti a you shop-to staying are tume dətət you-pl running-are tume k ^h ər mā behetət you-pl house in sitting-are tū nihajje dərto a you-s school-to running are tume k ^h et avtət you-pl field coming-are tū u ^h ti a you-s getting up are tume kudtət you-pl jumping -are	tū dukane rə-ø you-s shop-to stay-Impolite tume dət-a you-pl run -Impolite-pl tume k ^h ər mā behe-ja you-pl house-to sit-Impolite-pl tū nihajje dət-dze you-s school-to run -Polite tume k ^h et av-dza you-pl field come-Polite tū u ^h -dze ni you-s get up-Polite Familiar tume kud-dza ni you-pl run-Polite Familiar
tran.	tū mavrə randti a you curry cooking are tume kam kərtət you -pl work doing-are tume k ^h avanə k ^h atət you-pl food eating-are tū tʃatnə kuʃto a you chatni pounding-are tume ʃamiʃe k ^h atət you -pl tomatoes eating -are tū p ^h əjha gərto a you money countng-are tume paŋi pitət you -pl water drinking -are	mavrə rand-ø curry cook-Impolite tume kam kər-a you-pl work do-Impolite-pl tume k ^h avanə k ^h a-ja you -pl food eat-Impolite tu tʃatnə kuʃ-dze you chatni pound -Polite tume ʃamiʃe k ^h a-dza you -pl tomatoes eat-Polite-pl tū p ^h əjha gər-dze ni you money count-Polite Familiar tume paŋi pi-dza ni you -pl water drink-Polite Familiar
Ditran.	tū ijeŋe paŋi pavto a you her-to water supplying are tume ijaŋe vėgŋe apti a you-pl him-to egg plants giving are tū bəldzə mane apto a you ox me-to giving are tume bakrə tijəŋe aptət you -pl bench her-to giving-are tū tijaŋe tʃ ^h aŋi dek ^h aŋ-dze ni you him-to forest show-Polite FMRP tume kukrɪ tijəŋe ap-dza ni you-pl hen her-to give-Polit FMRP	tū ijeŋe paŋi pav-ø you her water supply-Impolite tume ijaŋe vėgŋe ap-a you-pl him-to egg plants give-Impolite tū bəldzə mane ap-dze you ox me-to give-Polite tume bakrə tijəŋe ap-dza you -pl bench her-to give-Polite-pl tū tijaŋe tʃ ^h aŋi dek ^h aŋ-dze ni you him-to forest show-Polite FMRP tume kukrɪ tijəŋe ap-dza ni you -pl hen her-to give-Polite FMRP

Table 8 Imperative modification

modified forms of imperatives are given.

This section has discussed impolite imperatives, polite or courteous imperatives and familiar imperatives. First, it has described that impolite imperatives are used by both elder people to younger people and vice versa, and by the people who earned status among the Chodri people. Then, it has discussed that the polite or courteous imperatives are commonly used in order to make the hearer to obey. Next, it has explained that the familiar imperatives are used between friends, brothers, sisters and parent-child. This section mainly has focused on imperative clauses as modification of clauses, and this study has considered them classes, not a type of clauses. The negative imperative *nākhe dzato* 'don't go' is not discussed in this thesis.

3.3 Interrogatives

This section describes the modification of clauses into interrogative clauses. All types of clauses may be modified into interrogatives. The interrogatives in Chodri can be divided into content questions and yes/no questions. Any element in a clause can be replaced by an interrogative word to modify a declarative clause into a content question. The following section lists all interrogative words in Chodri and discusses the modification of any declarative clauses into interrogative clauses.

3.3.1 Content questions

The occurrence of any of the interrogative words as question particles listed below in a declarative clause modifies that clause into a content question. The examples below show how interrogative words replace any element in a clause. Interrogative words occur replacing an element in the same position as the original element and not in the initial position of that clause as in English.

		Interrogative words	
kiq-o/-i/-e	'who'	kəuʁa	'how big'
kijar	'when'	kiqaj p ^h agi	'for whom'
kadzə/ ka	'what'	kət ^h ə-o-i	'where'
kehē	'why'	keu-o/-i-ə	'how'
kehēk	'how'	kevaj t ^h i	'which by'
kase	'where'	kakərne	'why' (to do what)
kaŋ-o/-i/-ə	'which'	kətra	'how many'
kevi rite	'in which manner'	keva mā	'in which'
kiq-aj/-aŋe	'whose'	kaŋe vale	'which direction'
kiqaj hari	'with whom'		

The interrogative word *kiqe* 'who' replaces the subject element of the transitive clause in example 122.

(122) "The son of the king" (VI 65)

kiqe dzənvəraj *majrə*
 who animal-D/A killed

'Who killed (the) snake?'

The interrogative words *kiqəŋe* 'whom' and *kadzə* 'what' replace the object element of the transitive clause in example 123 and 124 respectively.

(123) "Elicited Data" (S 55)

nitfake kiqəŋe ledo
 boy whom beat

'Whom did the boy beat?'

(124) "Elicited Data" (S 56)

bape kadzə pidə
 father what drank

'What did the father drink?'

The interrogative words *kiqaj hari* 'whom with' replace the accompaniment of the intransitive clause in example 125.

(125) “Elicited Data” (S 57)

tū kiqaj hari gəni
you whom with had-gone

‘With whom had you gone?’

The interrogative words *kase tʰə* ‘where from’ replace the location element which occurs preceding the subject of the transitive clause in example 126.

(126) “Kani kumadi” (VIII 38)

ī kase tʰə tume pʰunə navne
this where from you flower bring-had

‘Where had you brought this flower from?’

The interrogative words *kevi rite* ‘how manner’ replace the manner element of the transitive clause in example 127. The subject *apre* ‘our’ with genitive case, occurs at the position of the object *ijeŋe əbiman* ‘her pride’.

(127) “A king’s daughter” (V 48)

ijeŋe əbiman apre kevi rite tʰoŋavaŋə
her pride our how manner deliver-should

‘How should we deliver her from the pride.’

The interrogative word *kevə* ‘how’ replaces the predicate complement of the equative clause in example 128.

(128) “Kani kumadi” (VIII 42)

ī pʰunə kevə hase
this flower how is

‘How is this flower?’

The interrogative words *kevaj tʰi* ‘which by’ replace the instrumental element of the transitive clause in clauses in example 129.

(129) “Elicited Data” (S 58)

kevaj tʰi te kam kərti a
which by she work doing is

‘By which are you doing the work?’

This section listed all interrogative words used in this text corpus in Chodri. Examples were given to know how interrogative words could replace any elements in a clause.

3.3.2 Yes or No questions

An independent clause may be modified into a yes/no interrogative by adding the interrogative particle *ka* ‘what’ to the clause at the final position. The answers to the questions demand *ha* or *həve* ‘yes’ or *kajni* ‘no’.

Table 9 contains examples of intransitive, transitive and ditransitive, stative, equative, quotative, receptor declarative clauses and yes/no question clauses. It shows that all types of clauses can be modified into yes or no interrogative clauses by adding *ka* ‘interrogative particle’ to the clause at the final position.

	Declarative	Yes-No Interrogative
Intran	to k ^h ər dzato a he house going is He is going home.	to k ^h ər dzato a ka he house going is what Is he going home?
Tran	te roṭna k ^h ati a she bread eating is She is eating bread.	te roṭna k ^h ati a ka she bread eating is what Is she eating bread?
Ditran	tū mane ambə ape you me-to mango give You give me mango.	tū mane ambə ape ka you me-to mango give what Do you give a mango to me?
Stat	doho ne dohoni hasat man and woman are There are a man and a woman.	doho ne dohoni hasat ka man and woman are what Are there a man and a woman?
Equ	ī p ^h unə hase this flower is This is a flower.	ī p ^h unə hase ka this flower is what Is this a flower?
Quoehē tije kəjə “.....” thus he said “.....” thus he said.ehē tije kəjə ka “.....” thus he said what “.....” Did he say thus?
Rce	dohaṇe ɖobe hasat man-of cattle has The man has cattle.	dohaṇe ɖobe hasat ka man-of cattle has what Does the man have cattle?

Table 9 Yes/No interrogative modification

This section described how a yes/no interrogative clause can be identified by the occurrence of *ka* ‘interrogative particle’ at the final position of clauses.

3.4 Dependent clauses

Any clause with 1) one of the subordinate conjunctions (*təhū*, *te*, *tija*) at the final position, 2) a verb in the predicate with participial suffixes (*-ton*, *-to*, *-ta*) or 3) a verb with non-participial suffixes (*-i*, *-in*) is identified as a dependent clause.

In this chapter on modifications, so far negatives, imperatives and interrogatives have been discussed as modifications of clauses. This section first describes independent clauses which can be modified into dependent clauses by adding subordinate conjunctions. Then, the following section explains that all action clauses can be

modified into dependent clauses with participial suffixes *-ton* ‘-ing’, *-to* ‘-ing’, *-ta* ‘-ing’, *-i* ‘non-participial suffix’, and *-in* ‘non-participial suffix’. It discusses the participial class and non-participial class of dependent clauses in Chodri.

Dependent clauses which are identified by the suffixes *-ton*, *-to*, *-ta*, *-i*, and *-in* to the verb root are non-finite clauses. They can function as Base1 elements in the subordinate sentences, as an element in a clause or as an element in a phrase. (See section 5.2.2.2 and 3.6.1 for a discussion of subordinate sentences and embedded dependent clauses.) They omit at least any one of these categories: person, number, gender, tense or tense auxiliary. Independent clauses, in contrast, end with the finite verbs in the predicate which are marked for two or more of the above stated categories. Dependent clauses which have been identified by the subordinate conjunctions at the final position, do not omit none of the above stated categories. In general, the tense of the dependent clauses is relative to the tense of the independent clauses when they occur in subordinate sentences.

3.4.1 Subordinate conjunctive class of dependent clause

Any independent clause can be modified into a dependent clause by adding subordinate conjunctions at the final position of a clause. However, in this section only one subordinate conjunction is used to illustrate the modification of independent clauses. One example is given from the text to illustrate subordinate conjunctive class. The following table shows how independent clauses can be modified into dependent clauses by adding subordinate conjunctions.

In example 130, the dependent clause *avi raje tija* ‘when (they) arrived’ is an intransitive clause *avi raje* ‘(they) arrived’ ending with a subordinator conjunction *tija* ‘when’.

(130) “Cowherd boy” (1X 65)

avi raje tija olk^hi a
came stayed when recognized have

‘When (they) arrived (relatives) have recognized (them).’

Table 10 consists of independent and dependent clauses of all types. The matrix displays the use of only one subordinate conjunction in dependent clauses. It shows how all types of clauses are modified into dependent clauses by using subordinate conjunctions. The other two subordinate conjunctions would behave the same way.

	Independent clause	Dependent clause
Intran	to maʃəro mere avo that man near came That man came near.	to maʃəro mere avo təhu that man near came still Although that man came near
Tran	dohoni mavrə randti a woman curry cooking is The woman is cooking curry.	dohoni mavrə randti a təhu old lady curry cooking is still Although the lady is cooking curry
Ditran	doho nitʃakane roʃno apto a man boy bread giving is The man is giving bread to the boy.	doho nitʃakane roʃno apto a təhū man boy bread giving is still Although the man is giving bread to the boy
State	k ^h ər mā ɖobe hasat house in cattle are Cattle is in the house.	k ^h ər mā ɖobe hasat təhū house in cattle are still Although there are cattle in the house
Equ	to haro hase he good is He is good.	to haro hase təhu he good is still Although he is good
Quoehē to kəto a thus he is saying “.....” Thus he is saying.ehē to kəto a təhū Thus he is saying yet “.....” Although he is saying thus
Rec.	ɖohane mavrə bəhū p ^h ave man curry very much love-would The man loves the curry very much.	ɖohane mavrə bəhū p ^h ave təhū old man curry very much love-would till Although the man loves the curry very much

Table 10 Dependent clauses with subordinate
conjunction

3.4.2 Participial class of dependent clause

Any action clause can be modified into a dependent clause by adding one of the participial suffixes (*-to*, *-ton*, and *-ta* ‘-ing’) to the verb root in the predicate. The term *participial class* used in this section follows Trail’s (1968:65) description for *Lamani* language. The participial suffixes (*-to* and *-ton*) are marked for the same number-gender indicated in the main clause. For example, if a singular feminine gender is marked in the main clause, the participial suffix is either *-ti* or *-tin* in the dependent clauses. The participial suffix *-ta* does not agree with any elements nor indicate gender and number. Dependent clauses which are identified by participial suffixes *-to*, *-ton*, and *-ta* ‘-ing’ are called participial class because they have progressive aspect indicated by *-t* ‘-ing’.

The participial class can have any one of the following features:

- *-to* suffix added to the verb root

When the action expressed by the verb in the dependent clause is simultaneous with the action expressed in the independent clause, the suffix *-to* is added to the verb root in the dependent clause. In example 131, both actions *neto* ‘taking’ and *avo* ‘came’ are simultaneous which are indicated by *-to*.

(131) “Five sons” (X 100)

pəlo muhulə ne-to avo
he pestle take-*Psu* came

‘Taking pestle he came.’

- *-ton* suffix added to the verb root

The occurrence of the suffix *-to* and *-ton* is overlapping in the dependent clause. In example 132, both actions *neton* ‘taking’ and *avo* ‘came’ are simultaneous which are indicated by *-ton*.

(132) ‘Five sons’ (X 86) (Elements: Base1: Dep.cl, Base2: Indep.cl)

tū mənno k^horo ne-ton avo
you dead horse take-Psu came

‘Taking dead horse, you came.’

- *-ta* suffix added to the verb root.

When the action expressed by the verb in the independent clause happens immediately after the action expressed by the verb in the dependent clause, the suffix *-ta* is added to the verb root of the dependent clause. In example 133, the action *vətsən aptʃə* ‘gave a promise’ in the independent clause happens immediately after the action indicated by the verb *dʒata* ‘went’ is completed. The completion of the action is indicated by *-ta* added to the verb root in the dependent clause.

(133) ‘Phil’s wife’ (XIII 63) (Elements: Base1: Dep.cl, Base2: Indep.cl)

tijě dʒa-ta-dʒ ho vətsən aptʃə
there go-Psu-EMP EMP promise gave

‘As soon as he went over there, he gave a promise (to God).’

Table 11 consists of independent clauses and the participial class of dependent clauses with examples used in intransitive, transitive and ditransitive clauses. The table shows how action clauses are changed into participial class of dependent clauses. (More examples can be found under the subordinate sentence section 5.2.2.2.)

	Independent clause	Participial class of dependent clause
Intran	to maɾəɔ mere avo that man near came That man came near.	to maɾəɔ mere av-to that man near come-ing to maɾəɔ mere av-ton that man near come-ing to maɾəɔ mere av-ta that man near come-ing that man coming near
Tran	dohoni mavrə randti a woman curry cooking is The woman is cooking curry.	dohoni mavrə rand-ti woman curry cook-ing dohoni mavrə rand-tin woman curry cook-ing dohoni mavrə rand-ta womann curry cook-ing that woman cooking curry
Ditran	doho nitfakəŋe roɽno apto a man boy bread giving is The man is giving bread to the boy.	doho nitfakəŋe roɽno ap-to man boy bread give-ing doho nitfakəŋe roɽno ap-ton man boy bread give-ing doho nitfakəŋe roɽno ap-ta old man boy bread give-ing the man giving bread to the boy

Table 11 Dependent clauses with participial suffixes

3.4.3 Non-participial class of dependent clauses

This section describes how independent clauses can be modified into the non-participial class of dependent clauses. In this study, the dependent clauses which have *-i* and *-in* 'non-participial suffixes' to the verb root are considered non-participial class of dependent clauses. The non-participial suffixes are different from the participial suffixes because they do not have progressive aspect *-t* '-ing'.

The verbs in the predicate of the dependent clauses with the non-participial suffixes (*-i*, and *-in*) do not indicate person, number, gender, and tense marker, and they do not have auxiliary verbs.

These subordinate sentences are similar to coordinate sentences in meaning when they refer to sequential actions. However, the subordinate sentences and the coordinate sentences are different in Chodri. The time space between two sequential actions in the subordinate sentence is less than the time space between two sequential actions in the coordinate sentence. Moreover, structurally dependent clauses do not have finite clauses, and they depend on the independent clause for tense, person, number and gender.

The features of the non-participial class are:

- *-i* suffix added to the verb root

When the action expressed by the dependent clause happens prior to the action expressed by the independent clause, the suffix *-i* is added to the verb root in the dependent clause. Note that the independent clause expresses the second action. The time space between the two sequential actions is short. In example 134, the singular number and masculine gender marked on the second action *avo* ‘come’ apply to the verb *pii* in the dependent clause. Figure 12 shows the short time space between the two sequential actions.

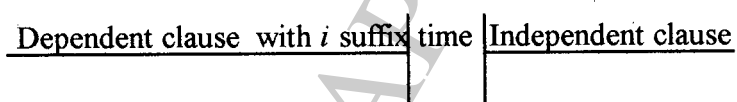


Figure 12 The short time sequence

(134) “Elicited Data” (S 59) (Elements: Base1: Dep.cl, Base2: Indep.cl)

poho paṅi pi-i avo
 son water drink-Nonpsu came

‘Having drunk water, (the) son came.’

- *-in* suffix added to the verb root

When the time space between the two sequential actions is longer, the suffix *-in* is added to the verb root in the dependent clause. In example 135, the dependent clause is marked by *-in* added to the verb root *av* ‘come’. Figure 13 shows the longer time space between the two sequential actions.

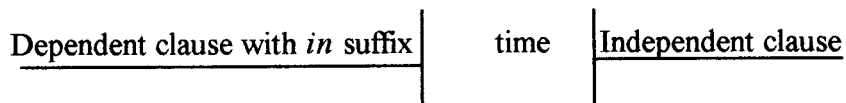


Figure 13 The longer time sequence

(135) “An orphan Boy” (XII 59) (Elements: Base1: Dep.cl, Base2: Indep.cl)

radʒaŋe av-in kati a.....
king-to come-Nonpsu saying is

‘Having come to the king (she) is saying, “...”

Table 12, below consists of an independent clause and a dependent clause. It includes intransitive, transitive and ditransitive declarative clauses. It shows how independent clauses can be modified into dependent clause by adding the non-participial suffixes to the verb root.

	Independent clause	Dependent clause
Intran	dohoni rəʈi a woman crying is Woman is crying.	dohoni rəʈ-i woman cry -Nonpsu dohoni rəʈ-in woman cry -Nonpsu
Tran	te hadʃi bənavi a she mat making is She is making mat.	te hadʃi bənav-i she mat make-Nonpsu te hadəʃi bənav-in she mat make-Nonpsu
Ditran	tije dohaŋe rotŋa aptʃa he man-to bread gave He gave bread to the man.	tije dohaŋe rotŋa ap-i he man-to bread give-Nonpsu tije dohaŋe rotŋa ap-in he man-to bread give-Nonpsu

Table 12 Dependent clauses with non-participial
suffixes

This section has discussed three classes of dependent clause: subordinate conjunctive class, participial class and non-participial class are modifications of action clauses. It described the participial class as having the participial suffixes *-to*, *-ton*, and *-ta* 'ing' and the non-participial class as having the non-participial suffixes *-i* and *-in* 'to' to the verb root in the predicate.

3.5 Relative clauses

This section describes what the relative clause is in Chodri and how the relative clause is modified from independent clauses. Relative clauses function as elements in clauses and in phrases, but they can not function as Base1 element in subordinate sentences.

Chodri has two types of relative clauses classified according to the syntactic structures. The first type of relative clause has both an obligatory pre-posed marker and a post-posed subordinator. The second type of relative clause has only a post-posed subordinator. Both types of relative clauses can function as time, subject, object, manner and location elements of the main clause.

3.5.1 Type1 relative clauses

This section describes a type1 relative clause and its modification from an independent clause. Masica (1991:410) states that "Relative clauses involve the characteristic Indo-Aryan languages (old as well as new) relative-correlative construction..." He states that the correlative construction has a pre-posed marker and post-posed subordinator in most Indo-Aryan languages. Taylor (1975) calls these pre-posed markers and post-posed subordinators "correlative pronouns". The pre-posed markers in Chodri are relative pronouns. The post-posed subordinators, which occur at the final position of the relative clause, are simple pronouns.

Taylor (1975:187) also states that “correlative pronouns in Gujarati agree with each other in gender and number but not necessarily in case, for the case of each is determined by its relation to the verb, etc., in its own clause.” Chodri, a language closely related to Gujarati, follows the same pattern. Different sets of pre-posed markers and post-posed subordinators in relative clauses function as subject, object, time, location and manner.

The literal translation of pre-posed markers and post-posed subordinators are given for time, manner and location. However, there is actually no equivalent meaning in English for pre-posed markers and post-posed subordinators. The pre-posed markers may be reduplicated in relative clauses with post-posed subordinators. (see example 145 for a reduplication.)

This study reveals that the pre-posed markers and the post-posed subordinators with nominative case occur in intransitive, stative and equative clauses in all tenses, and also they occur in transitive clauses in imperfect tenses. The PPM and the PPS with ergative case in subject function, and with absolutive case in object function, occur in transitive and ditransitive clauses in perfect tenses. The PPM and the PPS with dative/accusative case occur in transitive and ditransitive clauses in imperfect tenses. The PPM and the PPS with dative case functioning as the subject element occur in type1 receptor clauses. The PPM and the PPS with genitive case functioning as the subject element occur in type2 receptor clauses.

Even though the pre-posed markers and post-posed subordinators are provided in Tables 13 and 14 as sets, they may not necessarily always occur as a set. These pre-posed markers and the post-posed subordinators agree with each other in number and gender. These pre-posed markers function in relative clauses and post-posed subordinators function in the main clause. These functions are identified by the case they take.

The case on the pre-posed marker is determined by its relation to the verb in the relative clause whereas the case on the post-posed subordinator is determined by its relation to the verb in the main clause. Even though the PPS is marked the same as a pronoun, it stands for the function of the relative clause in the main clause. Four examples are given to understand the cases on PPM and PPS.

In example 136, the relative clause *dzijaj majē dek^hso tije* ‘The one that I saw’ functions as the subject element in the main clause. The inseparable absolutive case is marked on the PPM *dzijaj* ‘whom’ functioning as the object element in the relative clause because the transitive verb of the relative clause is in past tense. The inseparable ergative case is marked on the PPS *tije* ‘he’ since the transitive verb in the main clause is in present perfect tense.

(136) “Elicited Data” (S 60) (Elements: Sub: RL, Obj: MO.NP, Pre: VP)

dzijaj majē dek^hso tije kele-∅ vetstfe
whom (ABS) I (ERG) saw he (ERG) banana-ABS sold

hase
be (pre)

‘The one that I saw has sold banana.’

In example 137, the relative clause *dzije mane dek^hso tije* ‘the one who saw me’ functions as the subject element in the main clause. The PPM *dzije* ‘who’ functions as the subject element in the relative clause. The inseparable ergative case is marked on the PPM since the transitive verb in the relative clause is in past tense. The PPS *tije* ‘he’ stands for the subject element of the main clause. The inseparable ergative case is marked on the PPS *tije* ‘he’ since the transitive verb in the main clause is in present perfect tense.

(137) “Elicited Data” (S 61) (Elements: Sub: RL, Obj: MO.NP, Pre: VP)

dzije mane dek^hso tije kele-Ø vetstfe hase
 who (ERG) I (ABS) saw he (ERG) banana sold be (pre)

‘The one who saw me has sold banana.’

In example 138, the relative clause *dzije mane dek^hso tijaŋe* ‘the one who saw me’ functions as the object element in the main clause. The PPM *dzije* ‘who’ functions as the subject element in the relative clause. The inseparable ergative case is marked on the PPM since the transitive verb in the relative clause is in past tense. The inseparable ergative case is marked on the PPS *tije* ‘he’ since the transitive verb in the main clause is in past tense.

(138) “Elicited Data” (S 62) (Elements: Obj: RL, Sub: PN, Pre: VP)

dzije mane dek^hso tijaŋe tije mari nak^hso
 who (ERG) I (ABS) saw him (ABS) he (ERG) killed threw

‘He killed the one who saw me.’

In example 139, the relative clause *dzijaj məjẽ dek^hso tijaŋe* ‘the one whom I saw’ functions as the object element in the main clause. The PPM *dzijaj* ‘whom’ functions as the object element in the relative clause. The inseparable absolutive case is marked on the PPM since the transitive verb in the relative clause is in past tense. The PPS *tijaŋe* ‘him’ stands for object element in the main clause. The inseparable absolutive case is marked on the PPS since the transitive verb in the main clause is in past tense.

(139) “Elicited Data” (S 63) (Elements: Obj: RL, Sub: PN, Pre: VP)

dzijaj məjẽ dek^hso tijaŋe tije mari nak^hso
 who (ABS) I (ERG) saw him (ABS) he (ERG) killed threw

‘He killed the one whom I saw.’

Tables 13 and 14 are separated for brevity and they contain pre-posed markers and post-posed subordinators with cases. The pre-posed marker and the post-posed subordinator referring to inanimate pronouns functioning as the object element in transitive clauses are not included these tables, because they are always unmarked (remain the same).

G	N	NOM P.P.M	NOM P.P.S	DAT-ACC - GENL P.P.M.	DAT-ACC- GENL.P.P.S
M	S	dzo	to	dzija-j-ŋe	tija-j-ŋe
M	Pl	dze	te	dziŋaha-j-ŋe	tiŋaha-j-ŋe
F	S	dze	te	dzije-j-ŋe	tije-j-ŋe
	Pl	dze	te	dziŋehe-j-ŋe	tiŋehe-j-ŋe
N	S	dzi	ti	dzija-j-ŋe	tija-j-ŋe
N	Pl	dzi	ti	dziŋaha-j-ŋe	tiŋaha-j-ŋe

Table 13 Pre-posed markers and post-posed subordinators with nominative, dative-accusative and genitive case

G	N	ERG P.P.M	ERG P.P.S.	ABS-P.P.M	ABS-P.P.S
M	S	dzije	tije	dzija-j-ŋe	tija-j-ŋe
M	Pl	dziŋehē	tiŋehē	dziŋaha-j-ŋe	tiŋaha-j-ŋe
F	S	dziije	tijje	dzije-j-ŋe	tije-j-ŋe
	Pl	dziŋehē	tiŋehē	dziŋehe-j-ŋe	tiŋehe-j-ŋe
N	S	dzije	tije	dzija-j-ŋe	tija-j-ŋe
N	Pl	dziŋehē	tiŋehē	dziŋaha-j-ŋe	tiŋaha-j-ŋe

Table 14 Pre-posed markers and post-posed subordinators with ergative and absolutive case

Table 15 consists of pre-posed markers and post-posed subordinators in the type1 and type2 relative clauses functioning as the oblique elements of a clause: time, the manner or the location element in all types of clauses. Furthermore, the relative clause with the pre-posed marker *dzetra* 'how much' and the post-posed subordinator *tatra* 'that much' functions as the number element in a noun phrase. The relative clause with the

pre-posed marker *dzevi* ‘how’ and the post-posed subordinator *tevi* ‘like that’ functions as the modifier element in a noun phrase. The pre-posed markers and the post-posed subordinators provided in Table 15 always occur as a set.

Elements	P.P.M and P.P.S		Elements	P.P.M and P.P.S	
Time	dzijar when	tijar then	Location	dzijē where	tijē there
	dzaŋu hudu when till	taŋu hudu then till		dzija mā where in	tija mā there in
Manner	dzevi how	tevi like that	Number	dzətrə how much	tətrə that much
	dzehē which way	tehē this way			

Table 15 Other pre-posed markers and post-posed subordinators.

Table 16 contains independent clauses and type1 relative clauses in all type of clauses and shows how modification happens in independent clauses by the addition of pre-posed markers and post-posed subordinators.

	Independent clause	Type 1 relative clause
Intran	te rəṭi a she crying is She is crying.	dze rəṭi a te who cry -to she The one who is crying
Tran	te nitfakaṇe leti a she boy beating is She is beating the boy.	dzija nitfakaṇe leti a tijaṇe who boy beating is he The boy whom she beats
Ditran	tije tijaṇe rotṇa aptṣa he her bread gave He gave her bread.	dzijaṇe rotṇa aptṣa tijaṇe who bread give-to her The one to whom gave bread
Stat	maṇehē tijē hasat people there are People are there.	dzijē maṇehē hasat tijē where people are there The place where people are
Equ	to mando nitfak hase he sick boy is He is sick boy.	dzo mando nitfak hase to who sick boy is he The boy who is sick
Quo.	to kəto a he says "....." He says,"....."	dzo kəto to who says he The one who says
Rec	tijaṇe bəhū duk ^h nagə him very pain felt He felt much pain today.	dzijaṇe bəhū duk ^h nagə tijaṇe who very pain felt him The one who he felt much pain

Table 16 Modification of type1 relative clauses

3.5.2 Type2 relative clauses

Any independent clause can be changed into a type2 relative clause by adding a post-posed subordinator at the end of that clause. This type of relative clause can be embedded as the subject, the object, the location or the manner element in all types of clauses.

Masica (1991:413) states,

such constructions constitute a typological anomaly, in that they have a pre-posed marker, yet are pre-posed themselves. (Pre-posed subordinators usually imply rightward movement of the clause.) As noted earlier, Gujarathi and Marathi frequently delete the pre-posed J-

element, leaving in effect the correlative (T-) element as a post-posed subordinator and thus “correcting” the anomaly: ...

Masica uses that the J element refers to the pre-posed marker beginning with first sound and T element refers to the post-posed subordinator beginning with first sound in relative clauses.

Table 17 consists of independent clauses and type2 relative clauses of all types of clauses. It shows how independent clauses are modified into type2 relative clauses.

	Independent clause	Type 2 relative clause
Intran	kane nitʃki rəʃtini yesterday girl crying was The girl was crying yesterday.	kane nitʃki rəʃtini te yesterday girl crying -was she The girl (who) was crying yesterday
Trans	ɔhe kolə ropinə man pumpkin planted-had The man had planted pumpkin.	kolə ropinə ti pumpkin planted-had it The pumpkin (whom) had planted
Ditran	məhese tiʃe rotɲa aptʃa Mahesh her bread gave Mehesh gave her bread.	məhese rotɲa aptʃa te Mahesh bread gave them. The bread which Mehesh gave
Stat	k ^h er mā ɔho hase house in old man is The man is in the house.	k ^h er mā hase to house in is he he who is in the house
Equ	nitʃki nəktʃi hase girl naughty is The girl is naughty.	nitʃki nəktʃi hase te girl naughty is she She who is naughty.
Quo	nitʃak nitʃkiʃe vat kəto a boy girl a message saying is The boy says a message to the girl...	vat kəto a to ... message saying is he “...” He who says message
Rel	tiʃe bəhū duk ^h nagə him very pain felt He felt much pain.	tiʃe bəhū duk ^h nagə tiʃar him very pain felt then The time he felt much pain

Table 17 Modification of type2 relative clauses

This section showed that type1 and type2 relative clauses are modification of clauses. The modification matrix is displayed to show how modification occurs in independent clauses. Thus far, this study has concluded that negatives, imperatives, interrogatives,

dependent clauses and relative clauses are modification of clauses. Further analysis on relative clause may be helpful to set rules for functioning as elements in Chodri.

3.6 Embedded clauses

This section discusses how dependent clauses and relative clauses are embedded as elements in clause level. The dependent clauses, which only have the suffixes *-to* and *-ta* 'ing', are embedded as elements at clause level in this corpus text.

According to Joan Healey (1988: 86) we can determine that a clause is embedded by using the following guide lines: "(1) when an embedded clause occurs as one of the tagmemes of another clause (the main clause)... or 2) when an embedded clause occurs as one of the tagmemes of a phrase." Two kinds of embedded clauses are found in Chodri: 1) dependent clauses have suffixes *-to*, and *-ta* 'ing'; and 2) relative clauses.

Embedded dependent clauses and relative clauses may function as subject, object, accompaniment, location or time elements of the main clause, as one of the apposition noun phrases, as the modifier of the noun phrases or as the possessive of the possessive phrase.

3.6.1 Embedded dependent clauses

Dependent clauses may be embedded as the object element of the main clause in this corpus. In example 140, a dependent clause *umre k^hata* 'eating figs', which has the *-ta* suffix, is embedded as the object. Note that the pronoun *tune* 'you' is moved to precede the time element. This example looks similar to a subordinate sentence, but it is not actually the same. If this example is divided into two clauses, the boundary of the dependent clause ends like this: *ek^hu dihi tune umre k^hata* 'you one day eating fig'. In this case, the predicate of the dependent clause is a transitive verb *k^ha* 'eat',

and its objects are *tune* 'you' and *umbre* 'figs'. This would contradict the structure of a transitive clause because a transitive clause can have only one object. The clause in example 140 is normalized for easy explanation.

(140) "Crocodile" (I 20) (Elements: T: TP, Obj: Dep.cl, Pre: VP)

ek^hu dihi tune umre k^ha-ta t^harihĩ
 some day you figs eat-ing catch-will

'(I) will catch you eating figs one day.'

A dependent clause may be embedded and function as the object element in the type1 receptor clause. In example 141, the dependent clause *git gata* 'song singing' functions as the object in the type1 receptor clause. A pronoun with dative case *tune* 'to you' functions as the subject element, a dependent clause *git gata* 'song singing' functions as the object element and a verb phrase *avɽe* 'know' functions as predicate element in the receptor clause and expresses the idea of knowing. This example looks similar to a subordinate sentence, but it is not actually the same. If the example is divided into two clauses, the dependent clause ends like this way: *tune git gata* 'you song singing' and the independent clause is *avɽe* 'know'. In this case, the predicate of the independent clause is a type1 receptor verb *avɽe* 'know' and the independent clause has only one minimum element. This would contradict the structure of the type1 receptor clause because a minimum number of elements in a type1 receptor clause is the subject, object and predicate.

(141) "Elicited Data" (S 64) (Elements: Sub: PN, Obj: Dep.cl, Pre: VP)

tune git ga-ta avɽe
 to-you song sing-ing know

'You know how to sing.'

3.6.2 Embedded relative clauses

The following sections discuss type1 and type2 relative clauses embedded at the clause level. Both relative clauses function as one of the elements in clauses. The structure of the type1 and type2 relative clauses is explained in sections 3.5.1 and 3.5.2.

3.6.2.1 Embedded type1 relative clause

A type1 relative clause may be embedded and function as the subject element in an equative clause. In example 142, a type1 relative clause *dze bahal paŋi kajra kərtini te* ‘who young girl water draw doing was’, which has a pre-posed marker *dze* ‘who’ and a post-posed subordinator *te* ‘she’, functions as the subject element in an equative clause.

(142) “Kani kumadi” (VIII 75) (Elements: Sub: RL.CL, Pre.com: MO.NP, Cop: *hotni*)

dze bahal paŋi kajra kərtini te kani kumaɖi
 who young-girl water draw doing-was she kani kumadi
hotni
 was

‘The young girl who was drawing water was Kani Kumadi.’

A type1 relative clause which has the pre-posed marker *dze* ‘who’ and a post-posed subordinator *tijene* ‘her’ may be embedded and function as the object element in a transitive clause. In example 143, a relative clause ‘*dze hari dek^hatni tijene* ‘who good looking was her’, which has the pre-posed marker *dze* ‘who’ and a post-posed subordinator *tijene* ‘her’, is embedded and functions as the object element in a transitive clause. *tijene* ‘her’ agrees with the number and gender of the main clause because *tijene* ‘her’ functions as the object element in a transitive clause. (For details of the pronominal objects, refer to the section 4.3 on dative-accusative case.)

(143) “Kani kumadi” (VIII 75) (Elements: Obj: RL.CL, Loc: PP.P, Pre: VP)

dze hari dek^hatni tijene kuva mā t^hekni dedi
 who good looking-was her well in pushed

‘(She) pushed the one who was looking beautiful into the well.’

A type1 relative clause, which has the pre-posed marker *dzi* ‘what’ and the post-posed subordinator *ti* ‘it’, may be embedded and function as the object element of the dependent clause. In example 144, a relative clause *dzi hage ti* ‘what excrete it’ functions as the object element in the transitive clause. The post-posed subordinator *ti* ‘it’ does not take an accusative case. (See section 4.3. a detailed discussion of the dative-accusative case.) The subject *tore* ‘your’ has a genitive case. Note that the object is moved from its normal place and placed preceding the predicate. If it had been placed in the normal order, the subject with genitive case would have misled the meaning of the sentence. That is ‘you should sell what you excrete.’

(144) “Elicited Data” (S 65) (Elements: Obj: RL.CL, Sub: PN, Pre: VP)

dzi hage ti tore vet^hvaŋə
 what excrete it you sell-should

‘You should sell what (the cow) excretes.’

In example 145, a type1 relative clause, which has a pre-posed marker *dzijar* ‘when’ and a post-posed subordinator *tijar* ‘then’, functions as the time element in the type1 receptor clause. (See section 2.2.7.1. for a discussion of the subject with dative case.) This example looks similar to a subordinate sentence because of the free translation in English. (There is actually no equivalent short English translation.) If this example is divided into two clauses, the dependent clause ends this way: *dzijar ap^he mare ma bap^he k^har pav^he dzatne tijar* ‘The (particular) time in which we were going to my parent’s home as guests.’ In this case, the clause has a pre-posed marker *dzijar* ‘when’ in the beginning and a post-posed subordinator *tijar* ‘then’ at the end. (See table 14 in section 3.5.1 for other pre-posed markers and subordinators.) It would

contradict the structure of the dependent clause. Moreover, any time element can be substituted in the occurrence of the relative clause in this example.

- (145) “Kani kumadi” (VIII 75) (Elements: Time: RL.CL, Sub: PN, Obj: MO.NP, Pre: VP)

dzijar apre mare ma bapne k^har pavne dzatne
when our my mother father-of house guests going

tijar mane tirəhə nagnə
-were then me-to thirst felt-had

‘When we were going to my parent’s home as guests, I had felt thirsty.’

In example 146, a type1 relative clause which has a pre-posed marker *dzaŋu hudu* ‘when’ and a post-posed subordinator *taŋu hudu* ‘until’ functions as the time element of the main clause. The free translation might lead the reader to think that the relative clause (marked in bold) could be a dependent clause. Actually it is not a dependent clause in Chodri. The reasons are: 1) a dependent clause can not have preposed marker in the beginning and a post-posed subordinator at the end of a clause, and 2) any time element can not be inserted after this dependent clause because the relative clause functions as the time element in the main clause.

- (146) “Rabbit and Fox” (VII 15) (Elements: Time: RL.CL, Sub: PN, Pre: VP)

dzaŋu hudu toŋna mā t^hə māt^hnə purə hovə taŋu hudu
when until basket in from fish finish then until

tije pajradz kədə
he drop did

‘He kept dropping fish from the basket until it was over.’

In example 147, a type1 relative clause, which has a pre-posed marker *dzehē* ‘which way’ and a post-posed subordinator *tehe* ‘this way’, functions as the manner element of the main clause. Note that the relative clause is moved and placed preceding the subject because it is in focus. If the relative clause is placed in the normal order,

(following the subject *hāj* ‘I’) two subjects occur together and confuse the hearer to understand who the subject is. The pre-posed marker in the relative clause is moved preceding the object because it is in focus.

(147) “Seven brothers” (XI 45) (Elements: Manner: RL.CL, Sub: PN, Pre: VP)

tū dzehē mane hik^huve tehē hāj kəhī
 you how me-to teach-would that I say-will

‘I will say how you teach me.’

In example 148, a type1 relative clause, which has a pre-posed marker *dzijē* ‘where’ and a post-posed subordinator *tijē* ‘there’, functions as the location element in the receptor clause. The subject *tore* ‘your’ has inseparable genitive case.

(148) “The Son of the King” (VI 9) (Elements: Sub: PN, Loc: RL.CL, Pre: VP)

tore dzijē dzavaj tijē dzavaŋə
 you where go-able-to there go-should

‘(You) should go where you are able to go’

Relative clauses with reduplicated pre-posed marker *dzijar* and the post-posed subordinator *tijar* may be embedded as the time element of the main clause. In example 149, a relative clause which has *dzijar dzijar* ‘whenever’ as the pre-posed marker, and *tijar* ‘then’ as the post-posed subordinator functions as the time element in a transitive clause.

(149) “Elicited Data” (S 66) (Elements: Time: RL.CL, Obj: MO.NP Pre: VP)

dzijar dzijar apre gam gəne tijar taɾə pidnə
 whenever we village had-gone then todny had-drunk

‘Whenever we had gone to the village, we drank todny.’

3.6.2.2 Embedded type2 relative clauses

The post-posed subordinators of a relative clause in Chodri may be embedded as the subject, object, location and manner element of the main clause, which could be intransitive, transitive or ditransitive. *ti* 'it' and *tijñehẽ* 'they' are post-posed subordinators of the following three examples. In example 150, a type2 relative clause with *ti* 'it' as post-posed subordinator functions as the subject element of the intransitive clause. The relative clause is in bold font in all examples.

(150) "Pumpkin" (XV 8) (Elements: Sub: RL.CL, Pre: VP)

kola ropinã ti nagnã
pumpkin planted-had it appeared-had

'The pumpkin that (we) had planted, had given a fruit.'

In example 151, a type2 relative clause, which has *tijñehẽ* 'they' as a post-posed subordinator, functions as the subject element in a transitive clause. The subject is in its ergative form because the tense is past tense.

(151) "The Son of the King" (VI 9) (Elements: Sub: RL.CL, Pre: VP)

pãlje devajñe hasat tijñehẽ deksi
those goddesses were they saw

'Those who are goddesses saw (her).'

In example 152, a type2 relative clause, which has *tijñehẽ* 'they', functions as the subject element of the ditransitive clause.

(152) "The king's daughter" (V 63) (Elements: Sub: RL.CL, I.Obj: PN, D.Obj: MO.NP, Pre: VP)

devajñe hasat tijñehẽ mane sap apino
goddess were they me-to curse given-had

'Those who are goddesses had given me (a) curse.'

In example 153, a type2 relative clause with a post-posed subordinator *ti* ‘it’, functions as the object element of the main clause.

(153) “Elicited Data” (S 67) (Elements: Loc: PP.P², Obj: RL.CL, Pre: VP)

apre tijē kuva mǎ bəhūdz p^hain p^hunə hase ti
 we there well in very beautiful flower is it
ʃ^huʃuhū
 pluck-will

‘(We) will pluck the very beautiful flower which is in our well.’

In example 154, a type2 relative clause with a post-posed subordinator *tijē* ‘there’ is embedded as the location element of the intransitive clause.

(154) “Elicited Data” (S 68) (Elements: Loc: RL.CL, Obj: MO.NP, Pre: VP)

pəten hotno tijē nitsakaj mukni dedo
 village leader was there boy send did

‘(He) sent the boy to where the village leader was.’

A type2 relative clause with a post-posed subordinator *tehē* ‘thus’, is embedded as the manner element of the main clause in example 155.

(155) “Elicited Data” (S 69) (Elements: Man: RL.CL, Pre: VP)

mane hik^huve tehē natʃihĩ
 me-to teach-would thus dance-will

‘I will dance in the manner which you teach me.’

This section has discussed dependent clauses which have participial suffixes *-to*, *ton*, *ta*, ‘ing’ *-i* and *-in* ‘non-participial suffix’. It has discussed dependent clauses which also function as elements at clause level. It has described type1 and type2 relative clauses which function only as elements in clauses. This study has concluded that type1 and type2 relative clauses do not function as base elements in subordinate sentences whereas dependent clauses do.

3.7 Summary

This chapter has focused on modifications such as negatives, imperatives, interrogatives dependent clauses and relative clauses. Next, it has described how relative clauses are embedded in clauses functioning as one of the elements in all types of clauses. Dependent clauses also are embedded clauses and function as one of the elements in transitive and type1 receptor clauses.

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