Kuy Grammar Sketch

A basic grammar sketch of the Kuy Ntua language in Cambodia

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With gratitude

to the facilitators of the Grammar Workshop in Phnom Penh in February 2009, during which this work was commenced, and to my language assistant Lee Sophen from Promey village in Preah Vihear procince, Cambodia

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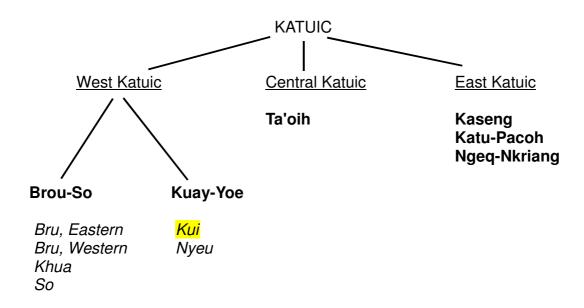
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1 The Kui people of Cambodia and their language

The Kui are found in three countries: Thailand, Laos and Cambodia, with an estimated total population between 300,000 to 400,000. The Ethnologue (Grimes, 2000) classifies Kui as a Katuic language in the West-Katuic branch (see below).



In Cambodia, the 20,000 to 30,000 Kui live in the central northern provinces of Preah Vihear, Kampong Thom, Stung Treng and Kratie. Due to political and economical factors, low self-esteem and schooling exclusively in Khmer, the Kui are being assimilated rapidly into the dominant Khmer society. There is a shift to monolingualism in Khmer. There are only a few pockets of (the more remote) villages left where Kui is still being used as first language.

In a comparative study of Kui varieties in Cambodia (Markowski, 2005), four dialects were analyzed: Kui Ntra, Kui Ntua, Kui Mla and Kui M'ai. The first two have the most speakers and are still used in many villages, while the latter two are on the brink of extinction.

Recently language preservation and language-based development efforts have been

started in a number of Kui communities (Bos *et al*, 2008). Members of both major dialects were involved in developing a Kui script and writing system, which is based on that of Khmer. This work was officially recognized by the Institute of National Language of the Royal Academy of Cambodia in July 2008. The current research aims to provide a brief grammatical description of the Kui Ntua dialect¹.

¹ In the remaining body of text, whenever the word Kui refers to language, the Kui Ntua dialect is implied (unless otherwise specified).

2 Kui phonology and morphology

2.1 Phonology

A description of Kui phonology (and of orthography) is attached as separate document. A brief summary of the phonology is presented below.

As is typical for Mon-Khmer languages, Kui has both monosyllabic and sesqui-syllabic syllable patterns. In the latter, the main syllable is prefixed with an unstressed minor syllable with a general structure of $C_1(C_2)_3(N)$ or consists of a syllabic nasal (N). The main syllable is derived from the general structure $C_1(C_2)V(C_3)$. Kui has 22 consonant phonemes and a broad inventory of 35 vowel phonemes (representing both heavy and light register vowels). Register contrast is most distinct in the open-mid and open vowels. Some heavy register vowels have changed into diphthongs by a progressive process of diphthongization (Huffman, 1976).

2.2 Morphology

Kui is predominantly isolating language with no inflectional morphology. Grammatical relations are structurally realized without morphological marking. The following observations were made in relation to morphological processes.

2.2.1 Reduplication

Interestingly, animal names, in particular of smaller creatures, are often composed of a duplicated base word. The individual components have no inherent meaning. The following examples were encountered:

[1]	сзсгЕһ	(from <i>crɛ̞h crɛ̞h</i>)	flying termites
[2]	le:p la:p	(sometimes lap lap)	butterfly
[3]	tak tak		woodpecker
[4]	тзтрŋ	(from <i>mற்ŋ mற்ŋ</i>)	k.o. little fly
[5]	kup kup		k.o. millipede
[6]	cvk cvk		small lizzard

For reduplication see also Section 7.10.

2.2.2 Compounding

A few types of verbal compounds have been analyzed so far.

Coordinated compounds as a conjunction of opposites:

[7]	ciə cpw	"to and fro"	made up from "to go" and "to come"
[8]	sph serŋ	"up and down"	made up from "to ascend" and "to decend"

As a composition to create a new meaning:

[9] $6\varepsilon c$ $c\alpha c$ "being idle, unprofitable" made up from "to rest/sleep" and "to eat"

As a head with a rhyming 'servant word', the latter having no real semantic function (Ourn & Haiman, 2000):

[10] pst psŋ "gone/lost" made up from "to be lost" and the 'servant word'

For nominal compounds see section 6.7.

2.2.3 Elaborate expressions

So far no examples have been found of elaborate expressions in Kui.

2.2.4 Productive affixes

Causation increases the valence of the verb by one (see Section 8.2.1 and Section 7.12). Morphological causation is marked on intransitive verbs by productive prefixation or infixation. Prefixation is of the form *pvN*- and occurs on monosyllabic roots. Infixation is of the form *-N*- and placed in between the minor and major syllable. Here, nasal assimilation to the onset of the main syllable is incomplete since [+front] is preserved before [k] in [t3-m-kew] but not before a velar nasal in [p3-ŋ-?3:1].

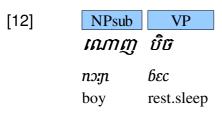
[11]

	Prefix <i>pvN</i> -	Infix -N-
bo:l (drunk)	рзmbo:l (intoxicate)	
ິດວະໄ (run)	psmbo:l (cause to run)	
δεc (sleep)	сзmbεc (cause to sleep)	
tɜjɜŋ (stand)		tamjan (cause to stand)
k3ce:t (dead)		ksmcert (kill)
ņtruh (fall)	рзntruh (drop)	
p3?3:l (scared)		psŋʔs:l (scare)
takew (sit)		tamkew (cause to sit)
tɜliej (broken)		tзmliej (break)
lep (stupid)	psnlep (cheat)	

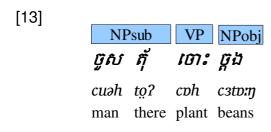
3 Basic Kui clause structure

3.1 Basic order of clause constituents

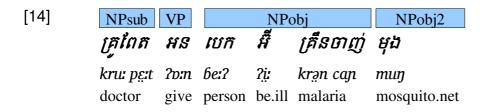
The basic order of clause constituents in pragmatically neutral clauses is Subject-Verb-Object (SVO). See examples [12-16] below.



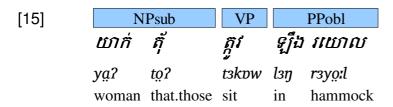
The boy is sleeping



That man is planting beans



The doctor gives the malaria patient a mosquito net.



The woman is sitting in a hammock.

[16]	XPadj	NPsub		VP	NPobj		PPobl		
	តិះត្បៃ	អូវ កេក	ก็	ជា៉ូញ់	ច្ចសថាវ	รี	បៀត	ដុដ	ណាវ
	tзh təбay	?pwke:?	kər	рап	cuəh t^h a:w	ni:	бiәt	dэŋ	naw
	yesterday	uncle	I	shoot	tiger	this.these	near	house	3p

Yesterday my uncle shot this tiger near his house.

The subject in the subject phrase, when it concerns a third person, is often followed by the generic third person pronoun *naw* (see Section 6.6 on Appositives).

Equally frequently, in normal speech, subjects or objects are omitted (zero-anaphora).

Since there is no agreement marking on the verb, the referents are interpreted based on the immediate context. Some examples are given below:

[17]

ម៉ឺ្ pə:r nduv look.for what

What [are you] looking for?

[18]

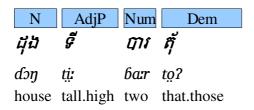
ម៉ៃ	វច្យៀ	ផ្សារ	ដែល	<i>l</i> g	ម៉ឺ	<i>ប៊ឺន</i>	វេជ្យ	หื
•		<i>p</i> ^h sarr market	dɛ:l also.too	t e: No!		<i>6ə:m</i> can		?ə: emphasis
Are y	ou goi	ing to the	e market too?	No.	[I] ca	ınnot g	go [to	the market]

The Kui noun phrase has an overall structure of:

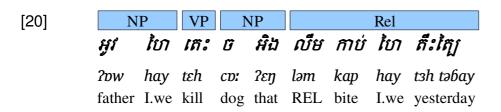
 $NP: \quad [\ N \ (Adj) \ (Num(CLSF)) \ (NPposs) \ (Dem) \ (Rel) \]$

Some complex examples are:

[19]



[the] two tall houses over there.



My father killed the dog that bit me yesterday.

Each component of the Kui noun phrase is described in more detail in Chapter 6.

3.2 Additional word order statement

The table below gives an overview of the order of various constituents of the Kui clause.

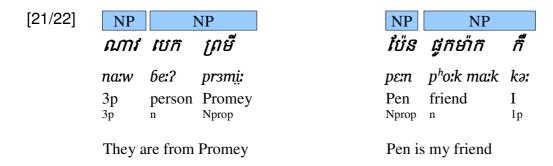
constituents	basic order	example
adjective and noun	N-Adj	ដុង ពីត dəŋ p i t
		house large.big big house ភិយ លឹម ចៀ ផ្សារ
relative clause and noun	N-Rel	kuay lam cia phsair person.people REL go market people that went to the market
demonstrative and noun	N-Dem	ហ្គាក់ អ៊ីឯ ya? ?εŋ woman that.those that woman
numeral and noun	N-Num	ប គ្នាត់ cv: t3p3t dog six six dogs
degree word and adjective	Adj-Deg	កា ក្លឹង មេនទេន ka: k3l3ŋ meːn teːn fish many.much very very many fish
negative and verb	Neg-V	កឺ ម៉ឺ ក្វាំង អឺ kə: m3? k3caŋ ?ə: I not laugh confirmative I'm not laughing
adposition and noun phrase	Prep-NP	ក្កប ព្រាវ k3dvp p3piar down.under mat under the mat

4 Non-verbal clauses

In this chapter predications that lack a semantically rich lexical verb are described.

4.1 Equative clauses

Predicate nominals are formed by NP-NP juxtaposition:



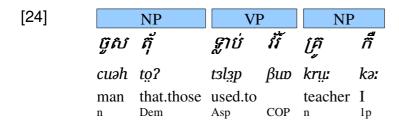
A copular verb is used in the presence of tense, aspect and modality (TAM) markers.

Compare:



	NP	NP		
ច្ចូស	កុ័	<i>ل</i> جَّآ	ก็	
cuəh	tọ?	krự:	kə:	
man n	that.those Dem	teacher n	I 1p	

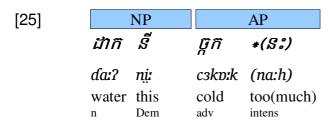
The man over there is my teacher.



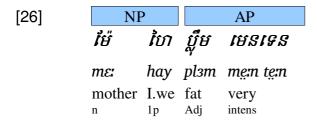
The man over there used to be my teacher.

4.2 Attributive clauses

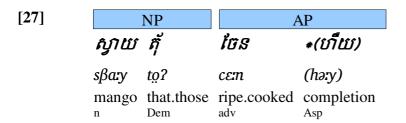
Like equative clauses, predicate adjectives are also juxtaposed. The adjectival phrase, however, always occurs with modifiers, such as intensifiers [25,26] or aspect markers [27]



This water is too cold.



My mother is fat indeed.



That mango there is already ripe.

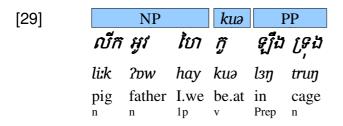
Another word sometimes used to intensify or emphasize an attribute is the word *ha:w,* though the word order is different.



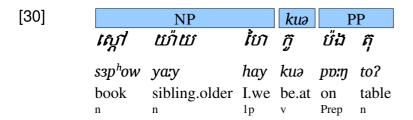
My mother is fat indeed.

4.3 Locative clauses

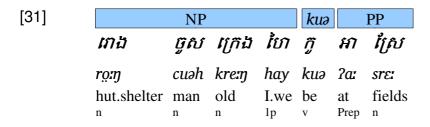
Predicate locatives are formed using the locative word *kuə* "be.at" followed by a prepositional phrase (see also section 6.1.8). In the prepositional phrase the location word precedes the nominal.



My father's pigs are in the pen.



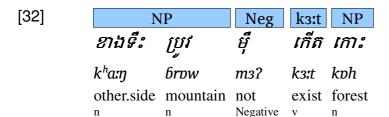
My older brother's book is on the table.



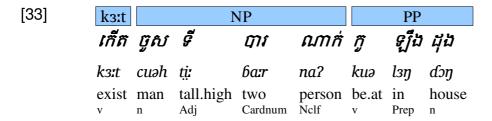
My grandfather's hut is in the fields.

4.4 Existential clauses

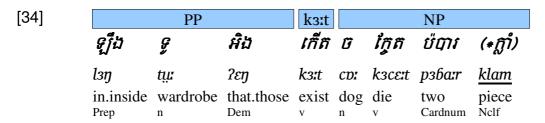
Existential constructions are formed using the verb *k3:t* "to.exist". The following phrase orders are possible: (PP-*k3:t*-NP) and (*k3:t*-NP-PP).



There is no forest on the other side of the mountain.



There are two big tall men in the house.

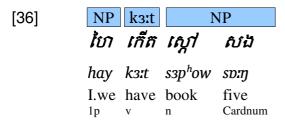


In that wardrobe are two dead dogs.

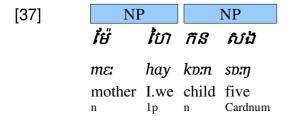


There is already rice in the house.

4.5 Possessive clauses



I have five books.



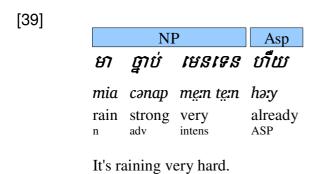
My mother has five children.



How much money do you have?

4.6 Weather verbs

This last clause type consists of noun phrase plus modifiers, such as intensifier and aspect.



5 Word classes

The two open classes of 'noun' and 'verb' are omitted in this grammar sketch.

5.1 Adjectives

Kui has a class of verb-like adjectives (Dixon, 2004) that can fill the intransitive predicate slot. They can be distinguished from verbs, though, by the following criteria.

a) Only adjectives can be intensified by adverbs like *ngh* "too (much etc.)" and *mg:n tg:n* "very". The latter doesn't work so well since it also has a sense of "truly", which can go with a verb, like "He truly fell".

b) In comparative constructions adjectives, but not verbs, can be compared using the word *lath*.

Black is worse than white.

They sit [more] than us.

This dog bites [more] than that dog.

Several tests have been explored to distinguish between certain subclasses of adjectives (such as core and peripheral adjectives) but a good test has not been established yet. The tests explored are:

- c) Can all adjectives modify the head of a NP? As observed so far, yes.
- d) Can all adjectives predicate negative imperative construction? As observed so far, yes.
- e) Can all adjectives occur with imperfective making particles ("continue" and "keep on doing")? As observed so far, yes.

However, some adjectives belong to a subclass that has been called 'descriptive verbs' or 'descriptives' (see e.g. Enfield, 2004 and Pascale, 2002). See the example phrases below, in which the adjective has verb-like behaviour.

[45] The adjective "delicious": អ៊ឹម ត្នោស

delicious mouth adj n

Delicious to the mouth

[46] The adjective "easy": ធ្លូប ម៉ូត្

easy motorcycle adj n

Easy for the motorcycle

[47] The adjective "beautiful/good": $f\vec{n}$

beautiful.good look adj v

Good to look at/beautiful to see

[48] The adjective "fragrant":

ផ្ទម នាំ

fragrant cake adj n

pleasant-smelling cake

[49] Age adjectives

tamarj "new" vs. tiə "old" inanimate

kranen "young" vs. kren "old" for animate

[50] <u>Dimension adjectives</u>

pɨt "large" vs. ki:? "small"

ti: "tall, high" vs. tiap "small, low"

ndrin "long" vs. *nkeh* "short"

ndru: "deep" vs. ndv:r "shallow"

t3bal "full" vs. mat "empty"

[51] Colour adjectives

6la:j "white"

t3βετη "black"

 $k^h i \partial w$ "blue, green"

*hlล่า*ๆ "yellow"

krзhv:т "red"

[52] Value adjectives

c3?v:p "easy, well" vs. p36a:k "hard, difficult"

ruwk "good, beautiful" vs. bro: "bad, ugly"

kraj "correct, right" vs. lo:h "false, wrong"

[53] Physical property adjectives

ηha:l "light weight" vs. ndvη "heavy"

kstaw "hot" vs. сзŋɛɪt "cold"

cen "ripe, cooked" vs. hww "uncooked"

kpŋ "hard" vs. lɜme̞m "soft"

trsβek "dark" vs. bsram "light, clear"

[54] Human propensity

cзciəh stubborn

 $c^h lat$ clever

mom stupid/crazy

?3:k happy/grateful

tuəŋ scared

krv: poor

[55] Speed adjectives

lạ:n "fast" vs. jɨ:t "slow"

rзhah "quickly"

5.2 Adverbs

Adverbs are an open class and they occur in the sentence periphery, most commonly clause initially. Temporal adverbs have some structural freedom as to where they can occur in the sentence, see below. Other adverbial functions are explored in Section 7.10.

The time adverb "yesterday" can occur in the following places:

[56] (1) tüs (2) amt Hs ក៏ នាំ ភា (?3)

Pen 3p give I cake eat Nprop 3p Vd 1p n v

- (1) Yesterday Pen gave me a cake to eat.
- (2) Pen, yesterday, he gave me a cake to eat.
- (?3) Pen gave me a cake to eat yesterday.

(For the adverb in position 2, see also Section 6.6).

[57] Time adverbs

rs: ds:m in ancient times

k3muŋ (a) long (while) ago (non-specific)

ksmp: tih last year

t3h ndrom five days ago

t3h ndrat four days ago

tsh ndray three days ago

tah ndria day before yesterday

msmbay last night

t3h t3bay yesterday

tshdsh a minute ago

*r*3*n*εη at this moment

rsŋay presently, today

prsnp: tomorrow

ndria day after tomorrow

ndray two days after tomorrow

ndrat three days after tomorrow

ndrom four days after tomorrow

ksmp: niar next year

5.3 Demonstratives and determiners

Demonstratives encode for three degrees of distance from the speaker:

[58] nix this/these, (close) $t \not\supseteq ?$ that/those, (distant) tih that/those, (out of sight)

Within a discourse (where there is shared knowledge between the discourse participants) a set of three demonstratives is used:

[59] $n\varepsilon\eta$ this/these that/those $2\varepsilon\eta$ that/those (but with emphasis)

When the time referred to is unspecified (for past, but in particular for future, the demonstrative $k \ni j$ ("that") is used. It occurs with adverbs of time ("that day" etc.) but not with nouns.

When you finish your studies, what are you going to do?

See also words related to *kaj* in Section 9.2.2 under Wh-questions.

Finally, there is a set of determiners with a pronominal function.

?a: pronominal for masculine subjects (used generically too).

mε: pronominal for feminine subjects.

These pronominals replace the nouns (participants) in a discourse.

These determiners is also used with names of people in the direct known context of hearer and speaker, in a non-polite way. People talking together informally can even address each other by calling *?a:*.

For female persons is prefixed to their name, but the determiner is further modified, and assimilates to the place of articulation of the initial consonant of a proper name.

$$p^hiap \rightarrow [m\epsilon: p^hiap] \rightarrow k3mp^hiap$$

 $t^hun \rightarrow [m\epsilon: t^hun] \rightarrow k3nt^hun$

The word ?a: can also be a location word, see Section 5.8.1.

5.4 Numerals

Kui has a decimal numbering system. Cardinal numbers 1-10 are uniquely Kui. 'Zero' and numbers 11 and up follow the Khmer counting system.

Kui cardinal numbers:

[66]

<i>តិ</i> ៣	ប្បាវ	វៃប៉	<i>ប៉ីន</i>	លដ	ត្តាត់	ត្ដោល	ត្ត័ល	ត្តេស	<i>ចិត</i>
тизу	бar	pay	pvm	sviŋ	tзрзt	tзро:l	tзkupl	tək <u>e</u> :h	cet
one	two	three	four	five	six	seven	eight	nine	ten
Cardnum	Cardnum	Cardnum	Cardnum	Cardnum	Cardnum	Cardnum	Cardnum	Cardnum	Cardnum

When counting real objects (i.e. non-abstract counting), numbers two, three, four, and ten are often prefixed, as shown below. However, these cannot occur with a classifier, see example [34].

Here follow some examples of counting. Lower numbers precede the bases they modify, and the sequence descends from the largest to the smallest base. (Underscore where Khmer numbering is followed):

- 5 sein (five)
- pramt3ndep or <u>dep-pram</u> (five-ten or <u>ten-five</u>)
- 205 ba:r-ruej se:n (two-hundred five)
- 3,112 paj-pan mu:j-ruej dep-pi: (three-thousand one-hundred ten-two)

Kui has one numeral interrogative *m³nia* (how many/much). Some of its uses are exemplified below [68-70]. The overall syntactic form is: [NP *m³nia* {clsf/countword}]

How many cans of rice do you get for one day's labour?

[69]	អាយុ	ម្នា	Ĭſŗ	អែល	ក្សាក
	?ауи?	тзпіа	kray	?દ ા	кзуа:к
	age	how.many	must.should	take	husband
	n	Oword	v	Vd	n

What's the right age to take a husband?

[70]	ម៉ៃ	រេក	កណ្ដាប់	ម្ខាង	<i>ម្នា</i>
	may	re:k	кзпдар	тзк ^ћ а:ŋ	тзпіа
	you	carry	bunch	one.side	how.many
	2.sg	V	clsf	n	Qword

You are carrying bunches of seedlings - how many [bunches] on each side?

5.5 Non-numeral quantifiers

Members of this subclass specify the general quantity of an entity without indicating the exact number or measure. The quantifier phrase has the formula QP: [N Quant (CLSF)]. Depending on which classifier, mass nouns and/or count nouns are modified. In casual speech the boundaries for count/mass are not very strict.

[71]

кзІзη many/much (count/mass) t3ŋ mat all (count) each (count) such as in: "na? muij na? muij" (each person). тиј тиј every (count) for things related to time, such as year, times etc. rзl some (count/mass) nɨc some (count), "nia' can be glossed "which", so in this case the nia nic statement is true for some but not for others (of a selection. ŋkɪt a little (mass) half t3di: кзтрећ abundant (count/mass) when actually seeing sзтborr abundant, plentiful (count/mass) when talking about it

5.6 Classifiers

This class has the general schema of [NP Num (CLSF)]. The classifier for "person" is *na?* (a generic classifier for people of any status). For people the classifier is obligatory and is encountered even when the NP is omitted. See examples [72-74].

Those two men.

*Those two men.

Those two [persons].

Otherwise the classifiers were found to be optional. The subclasses below all fill the classifier spot in the general schema.

[75] Natural groups

This subclass counts the number of natural groups that are formed by particular entities.

 p^h ory e.g. a flock of cattle, swarm of parrots, school of fish and even ants

ksaj e.g. an extended 'stream' of marching ants; or for roads

tarj bunch of coconuts

c3ŋkɔm bunch, generic, for other fruits

trom e.g. a large growing bunch of bamboo

[76] Proportion measures

These are based on body-part dimensions. Examples are:

stia from tip of the thumb to the tip of the index finger

k3t from finger tips to elbow

luk from finger tips to armpit

cpη both arms stretched out wide

[77] Capacity measures

ksppg tin, as in a tin of rice, used as a standard measure

tanom a classifier for trees (primarily)

srsla: used to count for pages, sheets and the like

klam a generic classifier for objects and animals, also young children

[78] រន្ទ្រាយសាល់ បារ ក្លាំ

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \textit{ndroei} \ \textit{sal} & \textit{bar} & \underline{\textit{klam}} \\ \text{leftover chicken} & \text{two} & \text{piece} \\ \text{n} & \text{Cardnum} & \text{Nelf} \\ \end{array}$

two leftover chickens.

[79] Portion measures

camriak part (a part of anything that's been e.g. cut up)

[80] Empirical measures

These are borrowed from Khmer or have their origin even in the international ones.

[81] Temporal measures

This subgroup is somewhat different, since these temporal measure do not modify a NP

but rather an event.

mɔɪŋ hour

tзŋay day (of 24 hours)

tr3bi: night (e.g. staying so many nights)

cr3lah morning (as a part of the day)

?artat week

ksay month

kзтр: year

[82] Abstract classifiers

bp:n for location

 $t^h \dot{t}$ model, kind

lak event, issue

doing event (focus on counting)

can event (focus on journey)

5.7 Auxiliaries/verbal particles

Below is an overview. The aspectual particles are discussed in detail in Section 7.6.

Preverbal		Base				
Aspect	Main Verb	Verbs	Directionals (Section 7.4)	Obj	Aspect	
ndạp k3? (just)	see modal		ciə (go)		<i>่ อล</i> ฑ (accomplishment)	
tзlɜ̞p (ever)	verbs in Section		cpw (come)		hə:j (perfective)	
m3? dɛːl (never)			svh (ascend)		roc (active achievement)	
kзтриŋ kз? (continue)	7.7		sen (descend)			
cεh k3? (keep on doing) c ^h >p (stop, quit)			mut (enter)			
			lph (exit)			
kv:p p3d3:m (start)			kat (through)			
m3? tʒn (ndʒn) (not yet)						
nvŋ (kɜʔ) (still, not yet)						
6ih (almost)						

5.8 Adpositions

5.8.1 Prepositions

Prepositions are a closed set of nouns that take another noun as an argument. A prepositional phrase follows the schema: [(Dem) P NP]. Examples:

[83]	kra:w	outside		
	tзndi:	middle		
	кздр:р	under		
	ทท :ท	on		

tam right

βe̞r left

рзпек in front of

krary behind

*l*3 η in, inside

5.9 Expressives

Kui is rich in expressives. They are adverbial in nature and add extra information (such as visual, auditory and sensory impressions) to the clause. They often come in pairs, in which the two words are phonetically similar. A few expressives are described below:

1) The verb 'to walk' plus: k3k3da? k3k3duŋ or p3pruŋ p3praw

Both expressions mean "walk stomping loudly". The first word in each pair cannot be used on its own. Independently the words *k3duŋ* and *praw* mean 'hard sound'.

2) The verb 'to be tired' plus: l3h3t l3hay

The expression means that a person is very tired and without strength. The pair of words cannot be used on its own, and the individual words in the pair have no meaning.

3) The physical nature of a surface: r3kpp r3kpl or r3ka? r3kpp

The expression describes an uneven surface, with high and low spots. Individuals words in these pairs are never used on their own.

4) The verb 'to shiver' plus: p3pra? p3pra?k

The expression means to shiver or shake intensely/uncontrolably.

5) The verb 'to shout/cry' plus: kupn rampupn

When shouting is heard from afar. The word *rampung* means 'from a distance'.

5.10 Interrogative pronouns and particles

The table below summarizes Kui question words and particles.

Q Word/particle	IPA	Gloss	Position in the clause
វ៉ាក	βа:?		clause final
ហើយ	hз:y	already	clause final
រី ម៉	r3: m3?	or not	part of clause-final constituent
បើ	бз:	tag question	clause final
វ៉េ	r3:	either/or	conjunction (between conjoined constituents e.g. [XP r3: XP] _{xp})
ម្នា	тзпіа	how much	in situ
ន្ធ័រ៍	ùqns	what	part of clause-final constituent
ចន្ទ័រ៍	сзпtue	what (broad sense)	part of clause-final constituent
កើតន្ទ័រ៍	ks:t ņdue	why	clause initial
នា	nia	which	in situ
យ៉ាំងនា	jaŋ nia	how	in situ
ពោះនា	pgh nia	when (future)	in situ
តឹះណា	t3h na:	when (past)	in situ
ណា	na:	where	clause initial or final
ង្ហួយ	ŋkuəy	who	in situ

6 Kui noun phrase

6.1 Structure and order of constituents

6.1.1 Summary statement

The basic order of possible NP constituents is captured in the formula below:

6.1.2 Heads

The head noun is the noun that is modified by all the other constituents in the NP. It is the first constituent of the NP. The head of the NP can be any of the following types of nouns.

Common noun as head:

			NP		
[84]	ណាវ	ភ្ជូង	<u>ចូសថាវ</u>	ពឹត	អិង
	naw	tuəŋ	cuəh t ^h a:w	pɨːt	<i>?ɛŋ</i>
	3p	be.afraid	tiger	large	that.those
	3p	v	n	Adj	Dem

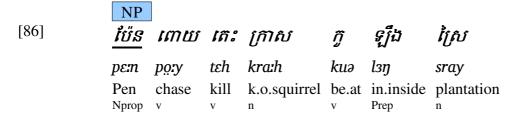
They are afraid of that big tiger

Pronoun as head (see Pronoun table in section 6.2):

[85]
$$\frac{NP}{lm}$$
 $\frac{lm}{lm}$ $\frac{lm}{lm}$

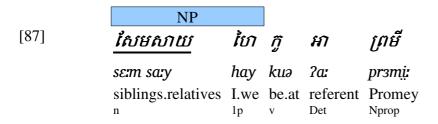
I obtained meat to eat

Proper noun as head:



Pen is chasing the squirrel in the plantation

Compound noun as head:



My relatives live in Promey.

With the pronominal determiner as head:



The white one is in the tree

6.1.3 Adjectives

In the NP the head noun is directly followed by the adjective. A sequence of more than one adjective is rather forced (cf. Lerthirunwong, 1980, p.48). Adjectives (whether core or peripheral) within the NP cannot be followed by an intensifier. See the possesive NP example [89] below.



	NP				
[90]	ត្រៀក	ប្ដឹម	I	ពុ័	
	triə?	рІзт	(repeat)	tọ?	
	buffalo	fat	(repeat)	that.those	
	n	Adj	Prt	Dem	

That fat buffalo / those fat buffalo's

The word for "fat" can be reduplicated, in which case it intuitively refers to more than one buffalo.

A subset of adjectives can be reduplicated and pre-nasalized. In that way the characteristic becomes a generic one (see examples [91-94]):

The doctor will give that small child an injection.

The doctor will give that small child/those small children an injection.

The doctor will give injections to small children

Similarly, relating to specific/non-specific:

I've come to buy big ones.

6.1.4 Noun phrase possessor

Possessors in the NP are themselves expressed as NPs and allow for recursion (see section 6.3). When the NPposs slot is filled, this is then the final element of the NP, except for a subsequent relative clause.

Simple juxtaposition of a possessed noun and possessor is used both with noun and pronominal possessors.

^{*} The doctor will give injections to that small child.

6.1.5 Numerals and classifiers

Classifiers are not a necessary element of the NP (cf. Waranya, 2007). By far the most frequently encountered classifier is the one for person. In contrast, the generic classifier *klam* is most appropriately used when only a few of certain objects are left (it has connotations of affection: the sadness over only a few that are left). When it concerns more than ten objects the use of *klam* is particularly awkward; counting then follows the Khmer system.

6.1.6 Prepositional modifiers

The head noun in the NP can be modified by prepositional phrases that are adverbial in nature.

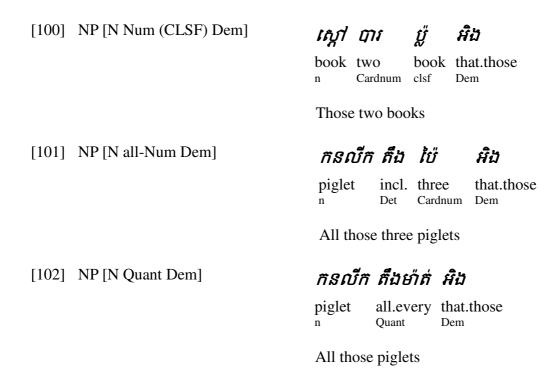
The children in that house over there are very afraid of spirits [of the dead]

6.1.7 Demonstratives

In the NP demonstratives are phrase-final.

[99] NP [N *Poss Dem] *
$$\vec{\mu}$$
 \vec{n} \vec{n}

That house



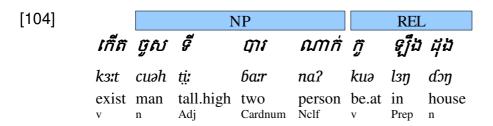
6.1.8 Relative clauses

Kui has unmarked relative constructions, such as already encountered in example [33].

The example sentences is repeated below in both forms.



There are two tall men in the house



There are two tall men, who are in the house

The marker *lam* introduces relative clauses that relativize only past events. Relative clauses are externally headed (N-Rel). By employing the gap strategy both subjects and direct objects can be relativized, as exemplified below.

Rel clause: Subject relativized

	NP		Rel					
[105]	ម៉ៃ	អា	លឹម	Ø	កម្វៃត	យាក់	<i>ប៊ឺន</i>	
	may	?a:	ləm		кзтс є :t	jak	бәт	
	you	referent	Rel		kill	giant	can	
	2.sg	Det	Rel		v	n	V	

You who Ø managed to kill the giant

Rel clause: Direct object relativized

		NP			Rel		
[106]	អាវ	รี	លឹម	ណាវ	ហែក	Ø	ប៊ីន
	?a:w	nir	lạm	naw	he:k		бәт
	shirt	this	Rel	3p	tear		can
	n	Dem	Rel	3p	v		v

This shirt that he managed to tore up \emptyset

Rel clause: Pronominally headed relative

	Rel						
[107]	អា	លឹម	ក្វុយ	បន់ស្រន់	ម្នា	I	
	?a:	lạm	киәу	въп srъп	тзпіа	(repeat)	
	referent Det	Rel Rel	person.people n	beg.ask v	how.many Qword	(repeat) Prt	

That which the people had begged [during the past year]

This as far as Kui relative clauses are in line with the theory. However, the marker *lgm* has

a wider use, as shown in the following example sentences. The marker always refers to some activity in the past.

The tiger kept on asking [the same thing that he asked before]

You drink [the water/beaker] of mine. You don't mind?

I smoke tobacco that people [had discarded].

6.2 Pronouns

For an inventory of free pronouns, see table below.

	singular	plural	comment
1st person	kə:		informal, used when speaking with younger audience or people having a similar age
	hay	hay	polite form, inclusive
	sə:l		a rather out-dated form; still used with in-laws and with respected persons
2nd person	тау	тиъŋ	
3rd person	naw	na:w	a generic third person form;

As regards 1st and 2nd person there is no distinction for animate/inanimate. The generic 3rd person pronoun is often inserted after the subject (as noted before), thus becoming subject and extraposing the normal NP material (for discussion see Section 6.6).

6.3 Possession

In a possessive NP the possessor follows the possessed item.

[111/112/113]	ជុង ក៏	ងាវ ម៉ៃ	ម្បោះ ណាវ
	dэŋ kə:	ŋiaw may	ṃвъh na:w
	house I	cat you	$well \qquad \underset{n}{3p}$
	n 1p	n 2.sg	n 3p
	my house	your cat	their well

NP possessors can be recursive (see section 6.1.4):

My younger sister's teacher's friend's cow.

Inalienable objects, such as body parts or family members, have an identical phrase structure as the alienable objects in the examples above

| NPposs | NPposs | Infatts of In

The doctor examines the boy's finger

My mother's nephew goes to the market.

In specific situation when it involves sharing of objects between people, the possessive particle *hvn* is optionable. However, this particle is ungrammatical when it concerns inalienable objects. Compare the examples below.

There is another particle relating to possession, ?ay that refers to a possessor retrievable from the context. It can be translated by "its". The generic third person pronoun naw can replace ?ay, but then it weakens the relationship between the two objects. The use of ?ay for human being is impolite.

That cow - it's calf is beautiful, isn't it?

6.4 Quantification

The quantifier phrase generally follows the formula: QP: [N Quant (CLSF)]. See examples [122-125] are found below:

There are many kinds of books.

Half a can of rice.

Two bunches of coconuts.

All the pigs over there.

6.5 Noun phrase coordination

Sequential nouns in a NP are simply juxtaposed [126,127]

	Nouns				
ត្រៀក	ន្ត្រីក់	ប៉ីស	(ណាវ)	ជឺល	<i>ឃ្នា</i>
triə?	ņdr <u>p</u> k	pv:h	naw	cạl	kʰnia
buffalo	cow	k.o.deer	3p	fight	together
n	n	n	3p	v	Reciprocal

One day, when I came back from town, at the Spirit Mountain, I saw a buffalo, a cow and a deer fighting together.

Yesterday I saw a pig, a dog and a cat walking in a row.

Likewise for sequential NPs in a sentence:



	NP			
តាយ	សាច់ អាំង	អន	បេក	ព្រមី
tary	sac ?aŋ	?v:n	6e:?	ргзті:
bunch.of.coconuts Nclf	bbq-ed meat	for benefactive		Promey Nprop

My father went to sell green mango's, a bunch of coconuts and bbq-ed meat to the people in Promey.

NPs in conjunction can occur in Sub [129] Obj [130] and Obl [131] position:

Pen and Map went to set a trap in their fields.

I saw my friend's dog and that monkey biting each other.

Let's give that soldier and the monk a study book.

Other types of conjunctions are found split into two separate clauses, not coordinated. See also Chapter 10 on clause combinations.

6.6 Appositive noun phrases

So far the only possible evidence of apposition is in the use of the generic pronoun *naw*, such as already encountered in examples [115, 116]. Example [115] is repeated below. An adverbial phrase like 'yesterday' can be inserted between the NP and *naw*. Therefore, *naw* is then the subject and the NP is extraposed.

The doctor inspects the boy's fingers.

Yesterday, the doctor already inspected the boy's fingers.

A similar situation can occur in the second person, e.g. when husband addresses his wife, as in the example below.

Have you already cooked a meal?

6.7 Nominal compounds

This section aims to classify Kui nominal compounds based on the work by Bisetto & Scalise (2005). Firstly compounds are sorted on the grammatical relations between the two constituents of the compound. This relation can be one of subordination, coordination or attribution. Compounds in these three classes can both be endocentric and exocentric.

They are often in the form of generic/specific.

Subordinate compounds

exocentric

endocentric (all generic/specific type)

prṇŋ (hole) tɜkvɪŋ (neck) = "throat"

klvɪŋ (round object) mɜt (eyes) = "eye balls"

hla: leaf-like object) luvŋ (wood) = "leaf"

pɜləy "fruit" luvŋ (wood) = "fruit"

ka: (fish) səmo;n (name) = "k.o. fish"

ta:k (metal) kɛh (to snap) = "lighter"

klv: (snail) pieh (name) = "k.o. snail"

tənv:m pole-like object) priət (banana) = "banana tree"

p3lay (fruit) kroic (name) = "citrus fruit"

6lvŋ (alc.beverage) tɜnɔit (sugarpalm) = "palm wine"

kʰɔi (wear 'bottom half') lii?oi (name) = "underwear"

sailai (assembly building) rein (to study) = "school"

tɜkviy (horns) ndrik (cow) = "cow horns"

krain (gen.??) nein (addictive) = "addictive drugs"

Attributive compounds

exocentric

exocentric

bloŋ (alc.beverage) kɜpɔŋ (can) = "canned beer"
ka: (fish) kɜpɔŋ (can) = "tinned fish"
dɔŋ (dwelling house) tɜmaːw (stone) = "brick house"
cɛːk (medicine) daː? (liquid) = "liquid medicine"

Coordinate compounds

exocentric

exocentric

sem (younger sibl.) say (older sibl.) = "siblings, relatives"

kvm (child??) cem (to keep) = "animal"

tanvm (pole.like object) luvn (wood) = "tree"

muh (nose) mat (eyes) = "face"

katek (ground) lo: (plot) = "plot of land"

blay (white) ruvk (good) = "blameless"

?vw (father) kren (old) = "older uncle"

me: (mother) ke:? (small) = "younger aunt"

kv:n (child) na: (little) = "newborn"

kv:n (child) ndrpk (cow) = "calf"

kv:n (child) kuəy (man) = "doll"

7 Verbal and clausal operators

7.1 Negation

Negation in Kui employs the pre-verbial particle *m*3?, both for clausal and constituent negation. There is no derivational negation. Normally, negative statements (in response to a question, or contrary belief) are emphasized by the clause-final particle ?a:. In telling others about one's own actions/ideas the particle ?a: is not used e.g. [179]. In a command sentence the weakening particle is *da*: [139] (see also section 9.3).

Tomorrow they go and log firewood.

Tomorrow I won't go and log firewood [telling others about myself].

Tomorrow they won't go and log firewood.

They are not doing well logging firewood.

Don't log firewood.

To assert to the contrary one can respond with the single word te: "no!" (probably similar to the 'discourse contradictor' of Pascal (xxxx) chpt 4.8). Though this can be a single response, often it is followed by a full negative clause explaining why the initial clause was refuted. See dialogue below.

this.these I.we not

1p

emphasis

Prt

can

Negative

go

A: Are you going to the market? B: No! Today I cannot go.

Dem

day

Below an example of NP negation:

No!

Negative

People have eaten up my rice to the last grain.

7.2 Agreement

In Kui there is no agreement on the verb for person, number and/or gender.

7.3 Permission and ability

This section reviews several modal funtions in Kui. As far as 'permission' is concerned the verb for "to give" is used:

The soldiers allowed the villagers to cut wood in the forest.

Concerning ability there are various levels:

When I eat, I cannot serve rice with my left hand.

rem learn

I cannot ride a bike, since I've never learned to.

I can pay that money back, but I won't do it yet.

[146]
$$\vec{o}$$
 \vec{b} \vec{c} \vec

Wait, I'll try it first.

7.4 Directionals

The spatial grounding of an event is not marked on the verb but realized by directional coverbs (such as to go/come, to ascend/descend) depending whether the event takes place away from the speaker or at the place of the speech act etc. Together with the main verb, these co-verbs are often part of a serial-verb-construction (Section 7.11). The directional co-verb occurs after the main verb if the main verb is a motion verb. But example [148] indicates that the directional co-verb precedes the main verb if the latter is a non-motion

verb.

See examples given below:

In the morning the monk came down from the mountain.

The man went to sell rice at the market.

The cat run up in [the tree].

The teacher walked away, angry with the students.

That spider jumped into a hole.

7.5 Tense

For Kui there is no tense system. Temporal relationships are made clear by aspect marking and explicit temporal adverbs. Kui makes a distinction between non-future vs. future. The latter is marked by the auxiliary *t3ŋ* immediately preceding the main verb [152], while both present and past are left unmarked. For *t3ŋ* see also Section 10.1.

Yesterday he was going to go to the plantation, but since he got malaria he wasn't able (didn't manage) to go.

7.6 Aspect

Aspect deals with the internal temporal shape of events or states. Each of the aspectual particles of the table in Section 5.7 is discussed below.

ndəp kз?	"just"	completive; a recent change of state
tзl <u>з</u> р	"ever"	perfect, habitual; a current relevant state brought about by the situation (normally an event) expressed by the verb
тз? dɛːl	"never"	(irrealis)
кзтриŋ кз?	"continue"	progressive; an ongoing, dynamic process
сєћ кз?	"keep on"	progressive for durative verbs, iterative for inherently punctual verbs; the action requires force

or energy.

c^h p	"stop, quit"	perfective; the end of a state or ongoing event
къъ рзазт	"start"	inceptive; the starting point of an event
m3? tạn (ndạn)	"not yet"	(irrealis, in anticipation of happening though)
nɒŋ (kɜ?)	"still"	progressive; in anticipation of ending
6ih (tзŋ)	"almost"	(irrealis) on the verge of doing/going/dying etc.
k3l3ŋ (k3?)	"always"	often or always

The aspect marker precedes the main verb.

Have you set the fish trap already? [I have] just got it ready

Since you frequently go to the forest - [Can you] take one stem of rattan for me?

I have been hunting, but never shot [an animal] like they did.

[157] ណាវ កំពុងក៏ ន្ទាន់ ម៉ាត់ ប្លង់ ណាវ អឺ វ៉ីប៊ паж кэтрип кз? пирс ndan blvn naw mat ?ə: 3p progressive drink not.yet empty wine 3p emphasis 3p Asp Asp advPrt

They are still drinking. Their wine isn't finished yet.

ក្សា ណាវ ចេះក៏ [158] បើ វេទ្ធង លីក ត្ សង់ li:k to? bs: tren кзуа: па:w сғһ кз? т3? spŋ pig if owner.lord call 3p can.only go that.those not hear Negative Dem Prt 3p

That pig over there doesn't hear. When it's owner calls it always walks away.

That old man has already stopped climbing palm trees.

[160] ណិង កូយ ស្រ ហឹយ វិក្សិ ណាវ កបប្ដើម សាប ksay kuəy naw kp:p p3d3:m sa:p πεη srv: hary month this sow.seed rice completion person.people 3p start Dem Asp

This month the people have made a start sowing rice.

[161] \vec{i} \underline{s} \vec{i} \vec{s} \vec

[I] haven't finished the job yet.

[162] <u>៣ង់ក៏</u> កើត លីក ឡឹង កោះ

npŋ k3? k3:t liik l3ŋ kph

still.yet exist pig in forest
adv v n Prep n

Their are still [wild] pigs in the forest.

My chicken is almost dead.

Brief discussion on the particle k3?

This word has several uses and functions similar to the word "tae" in Khmer.

1) It can mean "only", as in the example below.

They got only one child.

2) It functions as connector/story line marker in narrative (Somsonge, 1990), see short story below.

There was a man who took a wife,

but they didn't marry [properly], [they] only offered [to ancestors]

ก็	ប៊ីន	កន	<i>មិ</i> ណ	កន	<i>ក្រៃប៉ែ</i>
	have.get	child	one	child	female
DiscourseM	v	n	Cardnum	n	Adj

They got one child, a girl.

3) It is a meaningless element in compound words (such as adverbs) like the list [153].

Postverbal particles

ban is related to the word *ban* in Khmer and has several functions (see Haiman, 1999). It's overarching meaning has to do with reaching a change of state.

- 1) As the main verb in the clause it carries the meaning "to get, receive". See examples [166,167]. The receiving is a change of state.
- 2) Postverbal it carries the meaning of "ability". See example [168]. When one can do something, one creates a change of state.
- 3) In the preverbal position it creates a sense of active accomplishment: a dynamic process is in focus that can (or cannot) be brought to completion. When followed by the auxiliary *hərj* it signals perfect or completive aspect (see [169,172] in the subsection *hərj* below. (Besides, the preverbal *barn* in Khmer signifies past tense.)

You went hunting [wild] pigs. How many did you get this time?

B:

Only two.

I want to get corrugated iron to make a roof for my house

Only the inner tube is punctured. I can fix it.

haij signifies perfect, perfective and completive aspect. It focusses on the endpoint of any kind of dynamic process or the change of state. Instantaneous changes, such as the one described in example [171] below cannot take the particle barn.

I have done/completed it.

The mine has already exploded

*The mine has already exploded

I have logged fence poles already

rox signifies an active achievement. This word is similar to the word "*ruəc*" in Khmer, but its use is really limited to only this one in Kui.

This months the people completed the rice planting

The fish that I kept in the cage have all escaped.

?v:n is similar to the word "?aoi" in Khmer and has several meanings.

1) Benefactive in SVC

The teacher dispersed the books for the students to read.

2) As the verb "to give"

The teacher gave books to the students.

3) As the verb "to let, allow"

The teacher let/allowed the students to read the book.

4) As complementizer in causative constructions

The teacher forced the students to read the book.

See also Section 7.12 where the word 2011 has a resultative reading.

7.7 Modality

Modality is an indication of what the speaker wants to do with the proposition. It is expressed by modal verbs. A two-fold distinction can be drawn between agent-oriented and speaker-oriented modality.

Agent-oriented modality (includes Deontic - necessity, possibility)

Abilitative see Section 7.3 Desiderative (to want) s3?iə Directive (to command) рзпсіа рзŋk^hpm (to force) (to use) pr3: suər (to tell) (to ask, beg) tiar Obligatory kray (should) kray k3? (have to) kray kar (need to) Permissive see Section 7.3

Examples of each type are given below:

ភ្លឺង

k3l3ŋ many.much Quant

I want to give fruit to my relatives, but [I] don't have many

[180]	ច្ចូស	កែន	<u>ស្ន</u> ្ប៉ា	អន	សែមសាយ	ដោយ	ii .	វន្តល
	cuəh		s3?iə	?v:n	sem sary	cory	βυυ	r3ndv:l
	man	Ken	want		siblings.relatives	help	do.make	bridge
	n	Nprop	V	complementizer>	n	v	V	n

Mr. Ken wants the people to help making a bridge.

The verb for "to want" can also be used in the sense of "tend to, drive". See example below:

It drives me crazy

អង់ដយ

?vŋ dv:y cook v

The army chief commanded/forced/used/told/asked the woman to cook food.

ម៉ឺ ប៊ឺន m3? bə:m not have.get Negative v

I should get [one] but when they distributed [them] I didn't get [one]

Tomorrow I have to go to the town. [I] cannot not go. I have no more goods to sell.

I need six packs of nails.

Speaker-oriented modality (includes Epistemic - knowledge, believe)

Dubitative trọn (to doubt, in one's own mind)
s3man (to guess)

Hearsay $sv\eta pary$ (hear-say)

Non-factive $c\underline{s}$ (to believe) $k\underline{s}t$ (to think)

Pretense $\beta ua \ ta\eta$ (to pretend)

Examples of each modal verb are given below with the modals in various positions in the sentence. Almost each one of these speaker-oriented modal verbs co-occurs with the complementizer *pary* (that) in a subordinative construction.

[said to oneself:] I wonder if there are fish in this pond

[said to oneself:] I wonder if there are fish in this pond

To swim all the way there, [I] think [he] can do it.

[189]
$$nms$$
 nms nms

She thinks that there are already fish, seeing that she's taking a cage [there].

I think that [he] went to tap rubber

[I] heard people say that he already divorced his wife

[192]
$$nmt$$
 \ddot{p} : $nloon$ n

[I] heard people say that he already divorced his wife

I believe that the water has really risen.

People strongly believe that the water has risen.

[195]	ហៃ	<u>គឺភ</u>	ហ៊ុយ	ម៉ាស៊ិន	ម៉ាត់	ប្រើង	លើ	ណាវ	ក្សាត់
	hay	kạt	pary	ma:sın	mat	preŋ	<i>63</i> :	naw	ksat
	I.we	think	Comp	machine	empty	(engine)oil	now.that	3p	extinguish
	1p	V	Subordconn	n	adv	n	Subordconn	3p	V

I think that the engine run out of gas, since it stopped working

[I] pretend to sleep, so that the children will not call [me]

7.8 Mood

In this section mood is interpreted according to Kroeger (2004) in that mood expresses what the speaker is doing, such as commanding or asking. Three major types of mood are dealt with in Chapter 9.

7.9 Politeness

Since Kui culture is not socially hierarchical, it does not lexically encode social status (unlike Khmer). However, Kui has some particles to express politeness when addressing somebody. The clause-final particle *na*: softens the speech act. See also section 9.3

7.10 Adverbs

Adverbs occur in the periphery and have influence over the entire clause. Manner adverbs can be formed by reduplication of the core adjectives. Below follows a short exploration of this issue.

Adverbial use of 'fat':

The buffalo/'s in the rice field over there is/are fat

Reduplication of the word for "fat" is possible and doesn't really alter the meaning.

In a complement (non-verbal) construction the adverb cannot be reduplicated:

The adverbal 'slow' is reduplicated indeed:

My car is driving slowly

Below an initial analysis to explored how some possibly adverbal concepts are encoded in Kui.

He wants to offer (to the spirits) quietly by himself. [event modifying, reduplication]

They prepared the ceremony very decently. [event modifying, with intensifier]

He rides his bike along the road angrily. [agent modifying, using $t3\eta$]

(We) finished the rice and now should/have to dig for roots. [epistemic, modal verb]

He is very good in making fish traps. [event modifying, with intensifier]

7.11 Compound verbs

A verbal compound typically consists of a verb followed by another verb, a noun or adverb to form a single lexical unit that refers to a single event. Examples are:

lupy ɗa:?	swim+water	(v+n)	to swim
ca: dv:y	eat+rice	(v+n)	to eat
вєс lзŋeːt	rest+asleep	(v+adv)	to sleep
вес са:	rest+eat	(v+v)	to be idle
nce: suər	speak+tell	(v+v)	to tell a story
dɒ:? сзрэ̯h	keep+discard	(v+v)	to desert
?i̞: plɒ:	sore+head	(v+n)	to be headachy

7.12 Serial verb constructions

See also Section 7.4 on Directionals. SVC's are very common in Kui. They describe a single event, even though the main verb and the co-verb(s) may be in different parts of the clause. Five major classes of SVC's have been identified: Motion, Instrumental, Causative (see also Sections 2.2.4 and 8.2.1) Resultative, Benefactive. Examples of each are presented below:

Motion

This type uses the co-verb for 'to walk' in a figurative way, which expresses that the action/motion is taking place at a place other than that of the speech act. When the manner of motion is specifically mentioned by the enquirer (e.g. ride, drive), then the co-verb in the response could be that same one too, and not the generic 'to walk'.

<u>Instrumental</u>

This is often linked with intention. NP objects can be interwoven with the serial verbs.

I took the lid to cover the pot.

He lifted the crossbow to shoot the chicken.

Causative

Here the construction βuv ("to do" or "to make") with a resultative 2vm is used as a series of verbs to express causation. See also Sections 2.2.4 and 8.2.1

I got a cold from walking in the rain.

Prt

If there will be no rain, then this will cause the rice plants to die.

Resultative



because [I] couldn't think of it [I] didn't do a good job.



That afternoon they found the dead body in the woods.

Benefactive

He picks coconuts for me.

This year he plants rice fields for his father.

8 Voice and valence

8.1 Passive

No such constructions have yet been analyzed in which the agent of the proposition is demoted.

8.2 Grammatically marked valence alterations

8.2.1 Causatives

Morphological causatives

These increase the valence of the proposition by one. See also Sections 2.2.4 and 7.12.

Periphrastic causatives

Causation of both transitive and intransitive verbs can be realized by involving a separate causative verbal phrase. This type of causation is less direct than the morphological type described above. This periphrastic type is a possible way to express causation, but it may lean towards the Khmer way of causation. An other possibly more genuine way is found after this type.

Verb	Caus affix + verb	Phrasal caus + verb
kзсе:t	кзтсє:t	βue ?e:n kзce:t
(to.die) (intr)	(to.kill)	(cause.to.die)
ŋиес	*ŋuec	вие Реги диес
(to.drink) (trans)		(cause.to.drink)

Example [209] is repeated here as a possible way of periphrastic causation. But the resultative sentence [216] is a better way to express the concept.

I got a cold from walking in the rain.

It's from walking in the rain that I now have a cold.

8.2.2 Reciprocals and reflexives

The reciprocal $k^h nia$ decreases the valence of the clause by one. The expression n_3m $k^h nia$ [219] is still somewhat reciprocal in that people start out to do a certain concerted effort. The reciprocal uses follow the verb (replacing NPobj) but the comitative uses follow the NPsubject.

[217]
$$\mathbf{r}\mathbf{\tilde{n}}\mathbf{\tilde{n}}$$
 $\mathbf{r}\mathbf{\tilde{n}}\mathbf{\tilde{v}}$ $\mathbf{r}\mathbf{\tilde{w}}$ $\mathbf{\underline{w}}$ \mathbf{k}^h nia be.have dog bite together v n v Reciprocal

Dogs are biting each other

Those people see each other

[219]
$$nm i \underline{si} \underline{un} \qquad \overline{n} u \qquad \overline{v}$$

$$naw \qquad n\underline{sm} k^h nia \qquad t\underline{sm} \qquad cv.$$

$$3p \qquad together \qquad hit.whip \qquad dog$$

$$3p \qquad adv \qquad v \qquad n$$

They hit the dog together

Analytical reflexives are realized by the words *cak ?ɛːŋ* (the first word meaning "body"). In these cases the reflexive replaces an NP argument, see [220,221].

That woman is beating herself.

I praise myself.

An emphatic form is formed by the words *hvn ?ɛŋ* see the two examples below. In these cases the action of the verb is emphasized as undertaken solely by the argument.

[222]
$$\vec{n}$$
 \vec{n} $\vec{$

I myself hit that dog over there (i.e. in my own strength).

They went to bathe solely by themselves (i.e. in their own strength).

9 Sentence types

9.1 Statements (declarative)

Statements exhibit standard word order and have neutral intonation.

I saw a tiger sleeping in a cave.

I didn't see a tiger sleeping in a cave.

9.2 Questions (interrogative)

9.2.1 Yes-no questions

A yes-no question can be asked by just a change in pitch clause finally:



Did you see a tiger sleeping in a cave?

A number of clause-final particles can give rise to closed questions:

 βa ? for a simple yes-no question:

Did you see a tiger sleeping in a cave?

hs:j to ask about the completion of an event, which can be answered by saying "not yet" or "already".

Have you already seen the tiger sleeping in the cave?

r3: m3? meaning "or not" for an alternative question:

Did you see the tiger sleeping in a cave or not?

bs: using a tag question. (In the example below [232] one can imagine frightened people running down the mountain and somebody asking whether they had seen e.g. a tiger.)

They saw a tiger on the mountain, didn't they?

9.2.2 Content questions

either/or:

Are you drinking water or coffee?

quantity:

The question word for quantity is *m³nia* (how much/many) which is used for both mass and count. The quantity word follows the object it refers to, and can be followed by the noun classifier. The NP that it modifies occurs *in situ*.

How much money do you have?

How many bicycles do you have?

How many bicycles do you have?

?How many bicycles do you have?

In the last example [237] the object is displaced.

Wh questions

In the case of Wh-questions the question word is usually accompanied by rising intonation.

what? ndup and cantup

What do you want to eat?

The two forms nduv and c3ntw differ slightly in meaning. The latter form is used for things outside the usual context (e.g. in "God created everything" (things known and unknown) this form is used). Apart from being a Wh-question word both forms can also mean "whatever", see below:

An even more unspecific form of saying "whatever" or "whichever" uses the forms $\eta k \partial y$ and $c \partial \eta k \partial y$. These two words are related to the word $k \partial y$ and are used when the time, place or thing talked about is unspecified (see Section 5.3). This words are often interjected in normal speech.

In the following example two persons talk together. They need to buy two things: sugar and salt. A tells B to buy sugar; then B replies that A is to buy salt.

The question word why?

The question word kst ndup ("why") can only be clause-initial.

Why did they not manage to make the pig's pen?

The question word Which (one)?

The question particle *nia* occurs *in situ*.

Which one do you want to sell? The small or the big one; the female or the male one?

Which one is yours?

The question word *How?*

The word *nia* is also used in conjunction with yaŋ (can be glossed: "as" or "like") to create how-questions. It occurs in the same position in the clause as for *nia* above.

How do people make a pig's pen?

How do people make a pig's pen?

The question word When?

Questions related to time are distinguished as to whether the event is in the past ($t3h \ nax$) or in the future ($pph \ nia$). Both forms are found $in \ situ$.

When do [you] go to town?

When did your child fall from the house?

?When will your child fall from the house?

The question word Where?

The question word *na*: can be clause-initial or clause-final. For *na*: see also section 7.9.

Where [do you] go?

Where is the landlord?

The question word Who?

The question word $\eta ku \partial y$ ("who") occurs in situ (in the examples below it occurs in the subject, object and indirect object position).

Who made that pig's pen over there?

With whom do you go?

To whom do I give the book?

9.3 Commands (imperative)

Kui imperatives are formed using the command word *cia* which is also the verb "to go". It is found clause-final but in addition can be clause initial too for greater effect. Of course, non-verbal language plays an important role here.

An example of a strong imperative would be an angry father commanding his child to go into the house:

Go into the house!

A much softer form to mobilize someone to do something is to use a first person inclusive word, cgh ("let's"; hortative mood), like when you want an official guest to enter the house. With the word cgh the speaker is always included in the action.

Let's go into the house (and drink something) first!

Imperatives use a special form of negation m_2 ? ("don't"). This negation is found just before the verb, like the negation word m_3 ? (see section 7.1). The word d_2 can be added clause

finally for softening effect. Without the softening the imperative is stronger indeed.

Don't go into the house!

There is another use of the negative imperative ngp? in the sense of "if it hadn't been for..." which is a conditional adverbial clause type (see Section 10.2.2).

10 Clause combinations

10.1 Coordination

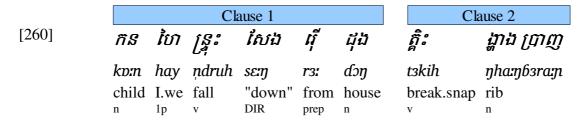
Coordination takes place between elements of equal ranking. Two elements are either juxtaposed or connected using a conjunction. Kui uses the following conjunctions:

"and" or "or" only at NP level (Section 6.5) and VP level mp:
$$m$$
 "but" only on sentence level tan / l "as well as"

rs: functions on NP level (see Section 6.5 for NP coordination) and VP level [266] but doesn't coordinate clauses. mp:n only functions on sentence level [263,264].

Clausal coordination

Juxaposed clauses:



My child fell from the house and broke a rib.

	C	Clause 1		Clause 2				
[261]	បេក វេន	អែល	កិជ់	ជិះ	<i>ចៀ</i>	ជុីឯ	ចៀក្រោយ	
	be:? re:n	?દ : l	kvŋ	cih	ciə	dэŋ	ciə krə:y	
	student n	take Vd	bicycle n	drive.ride	direction DIR	house n	back.return adv	

The students took their bikes and rode back home.

In both previous examples the second clause can be negated, indicating that the juxtaposed clauses are dealing with separate events. Moreover, the two clauses can be split by inserting an aspectual particle (*barn*), as shown below:

		Cl	ause 1				Clause	2	
[262]	បេក វេន	អែល	កិជ៉	<i>ប៊ឺន</i>	(ណាវ)	ជិះ	ប្រៀ	ដុដ	ច្បើ ក្រោយ
	be:? re:n	? દ :l	kvŋ	бәт	naw	cih	ciə	dэŋ	ciə krəry
	student	take	bicycle	accom'mnt	3p	drive.ride	go	house	back.return
	n	Vd	n	Asp	3p	V	V	n	adv

After the students had taken their bikes they rode back home.

With clausal coordinator mv:n

		Cla	iuse [1	Conj Clause 2				
[263]	កើត	មាវ់	ឲា	ភ្លឺង	ម៉ង	ហៃ	ម៉ឺ	ហ្វះ	หื
	kз:t	тзr	car	кзІзŋ	mɒːŋ	hay	тз?	рзуаһ	?ə :
	be.have	thing	eat	many.much	but	I.we	not	hungry	emphasis
	v	n	V	Quant	Coordconn	1p	Negative	adv	Prt

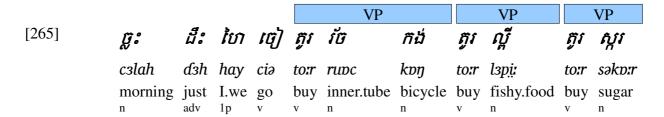
There is much to eat but I am not hungry.



My mother wants me to go, but I cant' be bothered to.

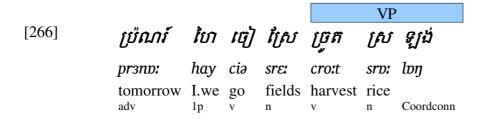
Verb phrase coordination

In a clause that contains sequential verb phrases the VPs are juxtaposed.



This morning I went to buy inner tubes, 'fishy food' and sugar.

For a sequence of events that is to take place, the conjunction $lv\eta$ ("as well as") is used.



	VP					V	P	
s:	ដាក	ស្រែ	ឡ្ជាប់	(เกี้)	តាក់	<i>ชู้</i>	ប្តីដ	ឡ្ជវ៉ា
βạh	da:?	srei	lɒŋ	r3!	ta?	рзlәу	сзtр:ŋ	lɒŋ
make.incision	water	fields		and	pick.pluck	fruit	beans	
V	n	n	Coordconn	Conn	v	n	n	Coordconn

Tomorrow I go to the fields to harvest, to regulate the water and to pick beans.

Contrastive (negative) coordination

The construction 'both... and' is realized by the word $t ext{3} ext{9}$ ("including") or by $l ext{0} ext{9}$ or by a combination of the two:

This doctor can both do injections and stitches.

This doctor can both do injections and stitches.

The negative construction is realized by juxtaposition or with $t3\eta$. The word $lv\eta$ is here ungrammatical.

This doctor can neither do injections nor do stitches.

10.2 Subordination

10.2.1 Complementation

A sentential complement clause functions as an argument of another clause. Sentential complements can fill the object position or be introduced by the complementizers *pary* and *?v:n.* Different verbs use different complementizers. Examples are:

			Complement						
[270]	ហៃ	រើ	រើឯ	ក្បាក	កណ្ដែល	<i>ប្តុះ ឃ្នា</i>			
	hay	c <u>ä</u> :	rລູ ກ ງ	кзуа:к	kзntɛ:l	рзtah k ^h nia			
	I.we	believe	story.problem	husband	wife	divorce			
	1p	v	n	n	n	V			

I believe the story of the man and woman who got divorced.

I think that my honey is pure indeed.

The soldiers forced the old man to dance.

					C	omplem	ent		
[273]	យាក់	ភ៊ី	ពញ្ញា	អន	ថៅ	ណាវ	ห็ถ	ដាក	អន
	j <u>a</u> ?	tọ?	рупсіа	?v:n	caw	naw	?3t	da:?	?v:n
					grandchild n				for benefactive

That woman commanded her grandchild to draw water for her.

10.2.2 Adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses function as adjuncts to a full proposition, adding extra information to it.

They are not an argument of the clause, though. Adverbial clauses can express information such as time, location, manner and reason. Examples of several kinds are shown below. In the English gloss it is indicated whether the main clause and the

subordinate clause can be swapped around (with slight modifications).

(See also Section 9.3)

Time (before, when)

Before going to the Town, I'll first count my money [can be swapped around, see below]

I'll first count my money, before going to the Town.

When [they are] ripe, people will pick and eat those mango's over there [cannot be swapped around]

Location (where, right at)

					Adv (Clause	
[277]	ណាវ	หั	វន្តល	ន្ត្រឹម	ក្វុយ	ថ្លូក់ ដាក	រ៉ើ ញោង
	naw	βυσ	rзndv:l	ņdr <u>ə</u> m	kuəy	cзlpk da:?	rs: nọ:ŋ
	3p 3p	do.make	bridge n	up.to Prep	person.people	drown v	before Adv

They make the bridge where that person had drowned [can possibly be swapped around]

Adv Clause [278] ណាវ ប៉ាញ់ លីក ចំ បេះដូង ĬH lị:k *βεh doŋ* ?ay pan cpm naw 3p shoot pig exactly heart its adv Possessive

They shoot the pig right in its heart [cannot be swapped around]

Manner (like, according)

The students wrote on the wood, as the teacher had instructed [cannot be swapped around]

My child can ride a buffalo, just like me when I was young [can possibly be swapped around]

Reason (because, because of)

It's because he wants to have (a lot of goods) that he's working so hard [can be swapped around]

		Ad	v Clause						
[282]	ច្បោះ	ម៉ៃ	ម៉ឺ	ĨĨ	អិង	<i>ប៊ឺន</i>	ម៉ៃ	ម៉ឺ	<i>ប៊ឺន</i>
	сзбъһ	may	тз?	βυσ	?еŋ	бәт	may	тз?	бәт
	because	you	not	do.make	that.those	accom'mnt	you	not	have.get
	adv	2.sg	Negative	V	Dem	asp	2.sg	Negative	v

It's because you won't do it that you now don't have it [cannot be swapped around]

You got [it] because of me [cannot be swapped around]

'Subtractive' (except)

								Auv	Clause	
[284]	ណាវ	ជាង	ជ្នុង	ក្ខួយ	តឹងម៉ាត់	<i>ឃ្នា</i>	ម៉ឺក៏	ហេក	កាន់	កាក់
	naw	ciaŋ	сзтиŋ	kuəy	tзŋ mat	k ^h nia	m3? k3?	бе : ?	kan	ka?
	3p	can	speak	Kui	all.every	together	except	person	hold.carry	money
	3p	v	V	nProp	Quant	Reciprocal	adv	Det	V	n

They all can speak Kui, except the person who handles the money [cannot be swapped around]

Conditional ("if" or "if it were not for")

		A	Adv C	lause				
[285]	ប្រីណរ៍	<u>របី</u>	មា	ខ្នាប់	លិច	ទ័ន	ហឹយ	ក្រណា
	ргзпр:	<i>63</i> :	mia	сзпар	lıc	tupn	həry	krзna:
	tomorrow adv	if Prt		strong adv	sink.flood v	more adv	completion Asp	road n

If it rains hard tomorrow the road will be flooded again.

				Adv Clause			
[286]	លិច	ហឹយ	ក្រណា	<u>រប៊ី</u>	ប្រីណរ៍	មា	ទ័ន
	lıc	həry	krзna:	<i>63</i> :	ргзпр:	mia	tuvn
	sink.flood	completion	road	if	tomorrow	rain	more
	V	Asp	n	Prt	adv	n	adv

The road will be flooded if it rains again tomorrow.

				Adv Claus	e					
[287]	ស្ទ្រាប់	ก็	ញ្ជាក់	បឹន	ម៉ៃ	អែល	(អន	ច្ចស់	ผา
	sзtr <u>з</u> р	kə:	<i>ງ</i> ນຸ _້ ຼຸກ?	бә:т	may	?દ ા	;	?v:n	сзрэһ	?a:
	shoes n	I 1p	if.not.for	accom'mnt asp	you 2.sg	take Vd		result.in		referent Det
	អិង	ហឹយ	rf							
	?еŋ	həry								
	that.thos	se comp	oletion							

My shoes - if you hadn't brought them - I would have counted them lost!

10.2.3 Relative clauses

See discussion in section 6.1.7.

10.3 Direct quotation

Direct and indirect speech are treated differently. Between the two types, as the reference point shifts, there are changes in pronouns, demonstratives and question words. Four types of direct and indirect speech are compared below.

Direct quotation (statement)

[288]	ប៉ែន	សូរ	ប៉ាយ	ก็	ਖ਼ੵਁ	ហាន	ម្ងុត	បាង	รี	หื
	рет	suər	pary	kər	тз?	ha:n	mựt	бал	nį:	?ə:
	Pen Nprop		"quotation" quotation						this.these Dem	emphasis Prt

Pen said: "I don't dare to enter this stream".

Indirect statement

[289]	ប៉ែន	សូរ	ប៉ាយ	ណាវ	ម៉ឺ	ហាន	ម្ងុត	បាង	អិង	หื
	рет	suər	pary	naw	тз?	ha:n	muut	бал	? <i>ɛŋ</i>	?ə:
	Pen	tell	Comp	3p	not	dare	enter	stream	that.those	emphasis
	Nprop	v	Subordconn	3p	Negative	V	v	n	Dem	Prt

Pen says he doesn't dare to enter that stream.

There's a shift in pronoun and here in demonstrative too, though the latter does not change when the indirect statement is made at the place of the action.

Direct statement (content question)

Map asked: "Who will tend my cows?"

Indirect content question

Map asked who will tend his cows

Here there's only a change in pronoun from first to third person.

Direct quotation (yes-no question)

Mr. Chon asked: "The axle is broken. Can you fix that?"

Indirect yes-no question

[293]	ច្ចូស	រធាន	ណាវ	<i>ច្ចីវ</i>	មោះ	ប៉ែន	តិះត្បៃ	ខូច	ប្តូវ	អៃ
	cuəh	c^h on	naw	cpw	mph	рет	tзh təбay	k^hoic	6lpw	?ay
	man	Chon	3p	come	ask	Pen	yesterday	broken	axle	its
	n	Nprop	3p	V	v	Nprop	adv	adv	n	Possessive

Mr. Chon came to ask Pen yesterday and wondered if Pen was able to fix it or not.

Again a change from first to third person pronoun in the quotation. Moreover, the question word βaz is replaced by the tag question particle δz , here in the sense of "whether or not".

Direct quotation (command)

Pen said: "Don't play in the mud".

Indirect command

Pen tells his child not to play in the mud.

The above is more like a paraphrase of the direct command. Actually, it can be paraphrazed in more than one way, but it would always contain the verb "to allow, let" (here with the negative).

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