

Chapter 4.

THE NOUN AND NOUN PHRASE

3.1. Nouns

Like other words, nouns are largely monosyllabic in KT. At the same time there is a strong tendency towards compounding: Of 498 lexical entries, 328 are simplex nouns, while 170 are complex, involving two or more syllables.

3.1.1. Simplex nouns

Simplex nouns consist of a single full syllable. Each such noun has one underlying tone: /HL/, /H/ or /L/. The following nouns shows all of the attested syllable type + tone combinations:

	/HL/		/H/		/L/	
CVV	vâa	‘bird’	mũu	‘hawk’	khùo	‘foot’
CVD	mêy	‘fire’	lũng	‘heart’	mòl	‘stick’
CVVD	pûon	‘cloth’	běel	‘pot’	thàaw	‘oil’
CVq	tsêq	‘brick’	phěq	‘mat’	mùq	‘lip’
CGVq	hlûoq	‘brain’	zĩeq	‘reason’	---	
CVT	---		---		vùt	‘ashes’
CVVT	môot	‘banana’	---		---	

As seen from the blank cells in and in the following table, there are some significant skewings in the syllable/tone distributions among nouns:

	/HL/	/H/	/L/	totals
CVV	28	22	20	70
CVD	42	41	29	112
CVVD	18	58	24	100
CVq	8	8	10	26
CGVq	2	1	Ø	3
CVT	Ø	Ø	10	10
CVVT	6	Ø	Ø	6
totals	104	130	93	327

As mentioned in §XX, CVVD nouns show a disproportionate number of /H/ tones. CVT nouns are limited to /L/, while CVVT nouns are limited to /HL/. In the above tables, CVq and CGVq nouns have been separated. As seen, there are only three nouns of the latter shape. (Two are given in the table, the third being *lûoq* ‘vomit’. While Cieq and Cuoq are written, such syllables

are actually pronounced Cyeq and Cwoq, i.e. with a glide (G). As seen, their tonal properties are different, given that they derive from pre-KT *CVr, *CVVr, *CVk and *CVVk.

All of the simplex nouns cited above are lexical in the sense that they are listed in the lexicon. However, many simplex nouns are derived from verbs:

verb		noun	
băa/bàt	‘owe’	bàt	‘debt’
hâam/hàam	‘speak’	hâam	‘language’
hǒw/hòw	‘worship’	hòw	‘religion’
kûol/kùol	‘coil’	kùol	‘circle’
lăam/làam	‘dance’	làam	‘dance’
năm/nàm	‘smell’	nàm	‘odor’
phěq/phèq	‘braid, plait’	phěq	‘mat’
thăaw/thàaw	‘fat’	thàaw	‘oil, fat’
thǐi/thìi	‘die’	thǐi	‘death’
tsìng/tsìq	‘wise’	tsìq	‘wisdom’
vôn/vòn	‘wear’	vòn	‘clothing’
zêem/zèp	‘decorate’	zêem	‘decoration’
gǐng/gìn	‘ring’	gǐng	‘noise’
lúoq/lùoq	‘vomit’	lúoq	‘vomit’
tsăm/tsàm	‘flat, plain’	tsăm	‘plain’
kìl/kìl	‘clip, lock’	kìl	‘button’
kìw/kìw	‘knock’	kìw	‘elbow’
lìim/lìim	‘shady’	lìim	‘shade’
lìp/lìp	‘skin’	lìp	‘scab’
thàq/thàq	‘itchy’	thàq	‘itch’

The first, largest set consists of nouns derived from a stem2 verb. In many cases these can also be translated as -ing gerunds: *bàt* ‘owing’, *hàam* ‘speaking’, *hòw* ‘worshipping’ etc. The second set consists of nouns derived from stem1 verbs. These should have an -er interpretation, e.g. *gǐng* ‘ringer’ (something which rings, sounds). The third group are nouns derived from verbs whose stem1 and stem2 are identical. Note that both stem1 and stem2 verb forms can function as nouns: *pèt hí* ‘this biter’ (stem1), *ká pèe* ‘my biting’ (stem2).

Although most derivations are from verb to noun, a smaller number go in the reverse direction. Sentences where a noun is used as a verb are not unusual:

á ná gáal êe	‘he fought’	gǎal	‘battle, enmity’
kà sáap ʼêe	‘I’m becoming a gentleman’	sáap	‘gentleman’

The above nouns, although used as verbs, do not have a stem2 form. The following, however, has been noted, used particularly in poetic language:

à vâa 'êe	'he is becoming/acting like a bird'	vâa	'bird'
à váat nǎng	'after he becomes/acts like a bird'	vâat ?	
à vá tsàat êe	'he is becoming/acting like a bird'	vá tsàa	'bird' (dim.)
à vá tsàat nǎng	'after he becomes/acts like a bird'	vá tsàat ?	

As seen, *vâa* 'bird' appears to take a special form *vâat* in contexts where verbs require stem2. In addition, the diminutive postposition *tsàa* takes the form *tsàat* in both stem1 and stem2 contexts.

As seen, stem1 and stem2 verb forms can function as nouns, and at least some nouns can be used as verbs. Because of the ease by which nouns and verbs change category and the paucity of derivational affixes, it is sometimes difficult to determine whether a specific word is one vs. the other. Although a verb will in general have two stem forms, and a noun one, many verbs use the same form for stem1 and stem2: *kòy/kòy* 'keep', *dèl/dèl* 'chase', *zàaw/zàaw* 'include', *dòn/dòn* 'sprout'. Still, the distinction noun/verb is important in KT, and a word's basic lexical category is clear in most cases.

3.1.2. Complex nouns.

As seen in the preceding section, simplex nouns consist of a monosyllabic stem morpheme. Complex nouns have at least two syllables. In most cases each syllable can be identified as a single morpheme.

3.1.2.1. Noun compounds. KT is rich in noun compounds. Although each part of the compound is frequently identifiable as a word in itself, combinations such as the following must be treated as individual lexical entries:

compound		noun1		noun2	
hùuy kòt	'window'	hùuy	'wind'	kòt	'door'
hòw î̄n	'church'	hòw	'religion'	î̄n	'house'
t̄i ḡu	'spine'	t̄i	'upper back'	ḡu	'bone'
kéeng 'z̄ung	'toe'	kéeng	'lower leg'	z̄ung	'root, tendon'
khúoy b̄om	'beehive'	khũoy	'bee'	b̄om	'net'
túy m̄y	'fog'	túy	'water'	m̄y	'cloud'
lù ḡu	'skull'	lũu	'head'	ḡu	'bone'
m̄it m̄ul	'eyelash'	m̄it	'eye'	m̄ul	'hair'
b̄ong n̄oy	'milk'	b̄ong	'cow'	n̄oy	'breast'
khùo t̄ol	'heel'	khùo	'foot'	t̄ol	'ground'
khúoy z̄u	'honey'	khũoy	'bee'	z̄u	'alcoholic beverage'
kòol b̄u	'corn'	k̄ool	'Burmese'	b̄u	'food'
lùuy kh̄q	'well'	lùuy	'river'	kh̄q	'ditch'

As seen, the regular tone sandhi rules apply within noun compounds. Thus, /kòol/ 'Burmese' + /b̄u/ 'food' is realized *kòol b̄u* by LTS, HTS and CS.

The above compounds involve two nouns. As seen in §3.1.1, verbs can be easily nominalized. These nominalizations can in turn appear in noun compounds:

compound	noun	verb
khùt zêem	‘ring’	khùt ‘hand’ zêem ‘decoration’
mùn thieq	‘broom’	mùn ‘place’ thieq ‘sweeper’
sànà khěeng	‘goldsmith’	sànà ‘gold’ khěeng ‘forger’

The verbs in the above compounds are in stem1: *zêem/zèem* ‘decorate’, *thieq/thieq* ‘sweep’, *khěeng/khèen* ‘forge’. This means that they are subject-oriented with an “-er” meaning (§XX). These compounds thus can be literally interpreted as ‘hand decorator’, ‘place sweeper’, ‘gold forger’.

Since most adjectives are intransitive stem1 verbs, the following noun + adjective compounds are equivalent to noun + verb:

compound	noun1	adjectival verb
mũu thăng	‘vulture’	mũu ‘hawk’ thăng/thàn ‘famous’
méy báng	‘dry fog’	měy ‘cloud’ báng/bàn ‘white’
túy lièn	‘sea’	túy ‘water’ lièn/liet ‘big’
bóng tsél	‘bull’	bông ‘cow’ tsél/tsèl ‘stubborn’
búon hlóq	‘clay’	búon ‘mud’ hlóq/hlòq ‘soft’
tùon sôot	‘eternity’	tùon ‘time’ sôot/sòot ‘long’
súm sèn	‘coin’	súm ‘money’ sèn/sèn ‘red’

As seen, stem1 verb forms are used in the lexicalized compounds. The only compound found to contain a stem2 adjectival verb is *sá ngàan* ‘donkey’ (*sâa* ‘animal’, *ngăan/ngàan* ‘(be) slow’).

While each word adds to the overall semantics of the above compounds, in some cases the first word of the compound can appear alone with the same meaning:

compound	noun1	noun2
én tsăang	‘uncooked rice’	ên ‘uncooked rice’ tsăang ‘uncooked rice’
púo lăng	‘exterior’	púo ‘exterior’ lăng ‘side’
láy mûu	‘navel’	lăay ‘navel, center’ mûu ‘seed’
hàm pàa	‘wheat’	hàm ‘wheat’ pàa ‘spread’ ?
ná kúol	‘earhole’	năa ‘inside of ear’ kúol ‘ear, earhole’
náaw séen	‘infant, baby’	năaw ‘issue, child’ séen ‘newborn’
ní khúo	‘day’	nîi ‘day, sun’ khúo ‘village’

In some cases the purpose of one word may be to disambiguate among different possible meanings of the other. The word *năaw*, for example, can either refer to someone’s ‘issue’ or ‘offspring’ or a ‘child’ who is young in years. With *séen* ‘newborn’, the meaning is clear. Similarly, the word *nîi* can mean either ‘day’ or ‘sun’. In the compound *ní khúo*, however,

the only meaning is ‘day’. (Compare, however, *tháay ~ tháay nǚ* ‘day after tomorrow’, where *nǚ* appears to be redundant.)

In some cases a general word or classifier appears with the base noun, e.g. *sâa* ‘animal’ in the following:

compound		word2	
sá kôl	‘horse’	kôl	‘Indian’
sá khǐi	‘deer’ (small sp.)	khǐi	‘beaded necklace’
sá zùq	‘deer’ (big sp.)	zùq	?
sá ngàan	‘donkey’	ngàan	‘slow’ (stem2)

Also found in second position are words that express the unithood, shape or mass of an object, e.g. *tsâng* ‘unit’ and *bǔq* ‘lump, mass’:

mìt tsâng	‘eyeball’	mìt	‘eye’
tsáang tsâng	‘grain of rice’	tsǎang	‘uncooked rice’
lúng tsâng	‘heart’	lǔng	‘heart’
lú búq	‘head’	lǔu	‘head’
khèt bǔq	‘hammer’	khèt	‘hitting’ (stem2)

Note that the compound *lúng tsâng* can only refer to the physical heart, while *lǔng* can be either physical or refer to someone’s character or mind.

Also frequently found in second position in compounds are the diminutive and augmentative markers *tsàa* and *pǐi*:

compound		word1	
kòt tsàa	‘window’	kòt	‘door’
gú tsàa	‘thief’	gúu	‘steal’ (stem1)
gít tsàa	‘sparrow’	gít	?
màl tsàa	‘chili pepper’	màl	?
páq tsàa	‘flower’	pǎq	‘flower’ (stem1)
khùo pǐi	‘big toe’	khùo	‘foot’
ní pǐi	‘summer’	nǐi	‘sun, day’
khúo pǐi	‘main city’	khǔo	‘village’
mí pǐi	‘crowd’	mǐi	‘person, people’

Although tonally distinct, diminutive *tsàa* is related to *tsâa*, the short form of *tsápâng* ‘child’. It can be used quite productively as an adjective: *hítsyé khóon tsàa hí* ‘this small cup’. Lexical *kòt tsàa* ‘window’ has the literal meaning ‘small door’, while *páq tsàa* ‘flower’ derives from ‘little flowerer’. *tsàa* appears in the above lexical entries, but is often tacked on to nouns as an option

to express endearment: *vá tsàa* ‘birdy’, *úy tsàa* ‘doggy’, *ín tsàa* ‘dear house, home’. On the other hand, as seen in *gú tsàa* ‘thief’ (literally, ‘little stealer’), its use can also be pejorative.

The source of augmentative *pîi* is less certain. It often occurs with /*lów*/, also of uncertain etymology: *mí !lów pîi* ‘great person’. Augmentative *pîi* can often be translated by ‘major’ or ‘great’. This morpheme should not be confused with the verb postposition *pîi* ‘together’, which is found in *sùo pîi* ‘sibling’, literally, ‘being born’ (stem2) + ‘together’.

Noun compounds may also have indications of humanness or gender. The words *mîi* ‘person’, *pàa* ‘male’ and *nùu* ‘female’ occur in first position in lexicalized compounds such as the following:

compound		word2	
mì h̃iem	‘mankind’	hiem	?
pà sâl	‘man’	-sâl	?
Pà thien	‘God’	thien	‘clean’ (stem2)
nù mèy	‘woman’	mèy	‘woman’ ?
nù pîi	‘married woman’	pîi	/núu/ + ‘great’

Although *h̃iem* does not occur in isolation or productively in compounds, compare *sá h̃iem* ‘animal kingdom’.

The morphemes *mîi*, *pàa* and *nùu* appear more productively in second position:

compound		word1	
gáal m̃i	‘enemy’	gǎal	‘enmity, war’
lów !m̃i	‘farmer’	lów	‘field’
úu p̃a	‘older brother’	ũu	‘older sibling’
úu ñu	‘older sister’	ũu	‘older sibling’

In many cases the relation is specified in the lexicalized compound. Thus, *búq !m̃i* ‘hut person’ is frequently used to refer to a person who lives in a hut. On the other hand, if a new compound is created on the spot, e.g. *móot !m̃i* ‘banana person’, this could refer to someone who buys bananas, eats bananas, or conceivable is a banana shaped into a person. To indicate a profession, the stem1 form of a verb is added: *móot z̃úoq* ‘banana seller’, *móot !z̃úoq m̃i* ‘banana seller’ (= his/her profession).

Plants and their products are also subcategorized by means of compounding:

môot	‘banana’	h̃ay	‘mango’
móot gàa	‘banana fruit’	hàay g̃a	‘mango fruit’
móot !th̃y	‘banana fruit’	háay th̃y	‘mango fruit’
móot ph̃ng	‘banana tree’	háay ph̃ng	‘mango tree’
móot ña	‘banana leaf’	hàay ña	‘mango leaf’

Words such as *môot* and *hăay* refer to any aspect of a ‘banana’ or ‘mango’, respectively. *gàa* refers to the actual physical fruit, while *thêy* ‘fruit’ refers to the banana, mango etc. as food. The noun *phững* here refers to the tree or plant, while *nàa* refers to its leaves.

In many cases compounds are indistinguishable from a genitive construction: *úy bàu* can mean either ‘dog food’ or ‘dog’s food’. This is true also when the genitive does not represent a possessor: *tsà khóon lièn khàt* ‘a big cup of tea, a big teacup’. There are similar scope ambiguities when the genitive is a pronoun: *kà búu lòm* ‘my pile of books, pile of my books’. One way to disambiguate is to indicate dual or plural marking on the genitive:

compound		possessive + noun	
kà úy bàu hlôn	‘our (dual) dog food’	kà úy hlôn bàu	‘our (dual) dog’s food’
kà úy bàu ùu	‘our (pl) dog food’	kà úy ù bàu	‘our (pl) dog’s food’

3.1.2.2. Phrasal compounds. Besides the two-constituent noun compounds discussed in §3.1.2.1, KT also allows multi-word compounds. The following are three-word lexical entries:

mìt túng khúuy	‘owl’	mìt	túng	khúuy	(lit. ‘eyes vertically sewed’)
		‘eye’	‘vertical’	‘sew’	
túy sùo gîet	‘ocean’	túy	sùo	gîet	(lit. ‘eight created waters’)
		‘water’	‘create’	‘eight’	
úy li lǒq	‘tadpole’	úy	lǐi	lòq	(lit. ‘dog-tick wagger’)
		‘dog’	‘tick’	‘wag’	
dòoy kúng pǔu	‘magician’	dòoy	kúng	pǔu	(lit. master magician)
		‘magic’	‘master’	‘master’	< ‘grandfather’
púon [!] khóong mǐi	‘weaver’	púon	khóong	mǐi	(lit. cloth weaver person)
		‘cloth’	‘weave’	‘person’	
thìl zúoq [!] ná	‘market’	thìl	zúoq	ná	(lit. where to sell thing)
		‘thing’	‘sell’	(locative)	

Compare also the following four-word lexical entry: *én tsèe lów híng* ‘vegetable’, from *ên* ‘rice, food’, *tsèe* ‘leaves’, *lów* ‘field’, *híng* ‘alive’ (lit. ‘live field-leaves food’). As seen, some of the above lexical items are clause-based and involve internal argument structure.

Multiword compounds may be productively constructed from an object + verb + optional person or gender marker:

tsápáng pèt	‘child-biter’	(thing, animal, person)
tsápáng pèt mǐi	idem.	(person)
tsápáng pèt pâa	idem.	(male person)
tsápáng pèt nûu	idem.	(female person)

In the first example, the simple noun + stem2 verb form does not specify the nature of the biter. *mũi* specifies that it was a person, while *pàa* and *nùu* further specify the gender. These gender markers, which are underlyingly /L/, are realized HL because of the genitive H tone (§).

For more examples of complex noun phrases, see §XX.

3.2. Noun modifiers

In this section, the term “modifier” will be used loosely to refer to the various elements that can co-occur with a head noun for the purpose of further qualifying, quantifying, or identifying the referent in space or time. This will include adjectives, numerals, and demonstratives. Pronouns and nouns in a genitive relation to the head noun are treated in §3.3 and §3.4, respectively.

3.2.1. Adjectives

Strictly speaking, there are no adjectives in KT. Most of the concepts usually affiliated with adjectives in other languages are expressed via stative verbs such as the following:

tsôm/tsòm	‘be short’	à tsóm 'êe	‘he is short’
thâq/thàq	‘be new’	à tháq 'êe	‘it is new’
dông/dòon	‘be young’	à dóng 'êe	‘he is young’
sôot/sòot	‘be long’	à sóot 'êe	‘it is long’
těq/tèq	‘be old’ (animate)	à téq êe	‘he is old’
săa/sàt	‘be hot’ (temp.)	à sâa êe	‘it is hot’
liên/liet	‘be big’	á liên êe	‘he is big’
phàa/phàt	‘be good’	á phàa êe	‘it is good’
lùy/lùy	‘be old’ (thing)	á lùy êe	‘it is old’

Color terms are also expressed by verbs, all of which have /H/ tone:

kăang/kàan	‘be white’	à káang êe	‘it is white’
băng/bàn	‘be white’	à báng êe	‘it is white’
vôm/vòm	‘be black’	à vóm êe	‘it is black’
sěn/sèn	‘be red’	à sén êe	‘it is red’
dũm/dùm	‘be blue’	à dùm êe	‘it is blue’
ěng/èn	‘be green’	à éng êe	‘it is green’

Colors may be further differentiated by means of compounding: *áy sùm* ‘yellow’ (cf. /áy/, a plant which has a yellow variant), *sùm éng* ‘gold color’ (cf. /sùm/ ‘money, wealth’).

When used predicatively, such ADJECTIVAL VERBS can appear in stem1 (as above) or in stem2, as the circumstances require. Cf. *ká gòon á hùi êe* ‘I am short’, *ná phàt á hùi êe* ‘you are good’, *á sàt núng ín* ‘after it is hot’.

When used attributively, adjectival verbs will be referred to simply as ADJECTIVES. Technically, however, these are stem1 verbs which follow the noun they modify:

mí 'tsôm	'short person'	ín kǎang	'white house'
sá tǎq	'old animal'	méeng vǒm	'black cat'
zòong lién	'big monkey'	káar sǎn	'red car'
tsápáng phàa	'good child'	nàa ǎng	'green leaf'

More than one adjective may follow the noun, in different orders:

úy 'vóm góong	úy 'góong vóm	'skinny black dog'
ín kàang lién	ín lién kǎang	'big white house'

Noun + adjective sequences are equivalent to sequences of noun + intransitive stem1 verb in general:

tsápáng kàp	'crying child'	kàp/kàa	'cry'
thìl hlàa	'falling object'	hlàa/hlâq	'fall, drop'
àq sí vǎq	'shining star'	vǎq/vàq	'illuminate'

Although translated with *-ing* in proper English, given the function of stem1 nominalizations (§XX), a more literal translation might be 'child crier', 'thing faller', 'star illuminater' etc. By extension the above noun + adjective have the literal translations 'person being/be-er short', 'house being/be-er white' etc.

Since they are verbs, adjectival verbs may also be relativized. In this case they appear with the third person proclitic /a/ before the noun—or finally, if there is no head noun:

à tsóm 'mîi	'a person who is short'	à tsôm	'short one'
à sáang sâa	'an animal that is tall'	à sǎang	'tall one'
á lién zǒong	'a monkey that is big'	á lién	'big one'
à vóm mêeng	'a cat that is black'	à vǒm	'black one'

Note that the forms in the third column might also be translated 'one who is short', 'one that is tall', etc. As seen, the stem1 forms found in subject relatives are equivalent to the postposed adjective forms.

For simplicity, adjectives will be glossed without 'be': *tsôm/tsòm* 'short', *sǎang/sàan* 'high, tall', *mòo/mòo* 'wrong, guilty' etc. Since adjectives are verbs, they can occur in all tenses in verb constructions and be accompanied by appropriate postpositions: *hítsyé tsápáng 'á ná tsóm tà êe* 'this child was/used to be short'. Adjectives may also be reflexive or concatenated with other verbs:

hàaw sàa téq sîe	'an old chief'	tǎq/tèq	'old', sîe/sîeq	'broken down, spoiled'	
mí kî niém sàq	'a humble person'	kî	'reflex.', niém/niem	'lower', sàq	'causative'
zòol sùn ùm	'a trustworthy friend'	sǔong/sùn	'trust', ùm/ùm	'exist'	
kháaw háat mòo	'a weak rope'	hâat/hàat	'strong', mòo/mòo	'wrong, negative'	

As seen in the last example, a compound adjectival verb may contain a noun (see §XX).

Adjectives may be intensified by adding *tàq* ‘very’, probably derived from another adjectival verb, *tǎq/tàq* ‘hard’: *úy lièn tàq* ‘a very big dog’, *sóot tàq à láam ê* ‘he danced a very long time’. Adjectives may not be reduplicated because of their stativity (§XX).

As seen in §3.1.2.1, some compound constructions are translated with adjectives in English: *kà ín tsàa* ‘my dear little house’ (*tsàa* ‘diminutive’), *mú !lów pú* ‘a great person’ (*pú* ‘augmentative’, often used with *lów* ‘?’).

3.2.2. Numerals and quantifiers

KT has a base-ten numeral system:

khàt	‘one’	sòm lè khàt	‘eleven’		
nìi	‘two’	sòm lè nìi	‘twelve’	sòm nìi	‘twenty’
thǔm	‘three’	sòm lè thǔm	‘thirteen’	sòm thǔm	‘thirty’
lǐi	‘four’	sòm lè lǐi	‘fourteen’	sòm lǐi	‘forty’
ngǎa	‘five’	sòm lè ngǎa	‘fifteen’	sòm ngǎa	‘fifty’
gùup	‘six’	sòm lè gùup	‘sixteen’	sòm gùup	‘sixty’
ságii	‘seven’	sòm lè ságii	‘seventeen’	sòm ságii	‘seventy’
gîet	‘eight’	sòm lè gîet	‘eighteen’	sòm gîet	‘eighty’
kûo	‘nine’	sòm lè kûo	‘nineteen’	sòm kûo	‘ninety’
sòm	‘ten’				

The numbers 1-10 are basic. The numbers 11-19 are expressed by adding 1-9 to *sòm lè* ‘ten and’, e.g. *sòm lè ságii* ‘seventeen’ is ‘ten and seven’. The decades 20-90 are formed by combining *sòm* ‘ten’ directly with 1-9. Thus, *sòm nìi* ‘twenty’ is ‘ten two’, *sòm thǔm* ‘thirty’ is ‘ten three’ etc.

The other two basic terms are *zàa* ‘hundred’ and *sâang* ‘thousand’. These can be followed by a numeral multiplier, by *lè* ‘and’ plus a numeral, or by a combination of both. A few representative numbers are shown below:

<i>zàa</i> (khàt)	‘100’	<i>sâang</i>	‘1000’
<i>zàa lè sòm ságii lè kûo</i>	‘179’	<i>sâang nìi lè lǐi</i>	‘2004’
<i>zà gùup lè sòm gîet</i>	‘680’	<i>sâang sòm lè zàa ngǎa</i>	‘10,500’

Numerals follow the noun in KT: *gàm khât* ‘one land’, *tsápáng thǔm* ‘three children’, *úy !gîet* ‘eight dogs’, *zòw sòm nìi* ‘twenty lies’.

A noun that occurs in isolation is unmarked for number or definiteness. Thus, in the right context, *úy* can mean ‘dog’, ‘a dog’, ‘the dog’, ‘dogs’ or ‘the dogs’. In other cases optional markers can be added to make the situation clear. The numeral *khàt* ‘one’ is often used as an indefinite article: *lów !mú khât* ‘one farmer, a farmer’, *Ímphál !áa kúon nùmèy khât* ‘a woman

from Imphal'. *khàt* is also used to express one unit of quantity, as in *kéeng tsùot tào khàt* 'a pair of shoes', *bâu kég khàt* '(one) half of the rice'.

A noun is often modified by a numeral without any need for a plural marker. Thus *úy nìi* and *tsápáng thùm* are literally 'two dog' and 'three child', respectively. It is possible to further emphasize the number by adding a dual or plural marker:

têe may be used only with the number 'two': *náaw séen nìi* 'two babies', *náaw séen tée nìi* 'the two babies'; *kà vá 'nìi bâu ~ kà vá 'tée 'nìi bâu* 'my two birds' nest' (*bâu* 'nest'). To further emphasize, *nìi* may appear on both sides of *têe*: *tsápáng nìi* 'two children', *tsápáng 'tée nìi*, *tsápáng nìi tée nìi* 'the two children'. As seen in the glosses, when *têe* is used, the noun phrase is interpreted as definite: In *tsápáng 'tée nìi*, we already know which two children are being referred to.

While *têe* may not be used without *nìi*, *hòo* occurs alone or with numerals higher than two. It unambiguously indicates that three or more referents are involved: *úy hòo* 'the dogs', *ín thùm hòo* 'the three houses', *tsápáng gùup hòo* 'the six children'. When occurring as a reinforcement of plurality, *hòo* follows the numeral. Noun phrases with *hòo* are interpreted as definite: *úy hòo à khúong 'êe* 'the dogs are barking'. When following a numeral, however, *hòo* delimits the full set: *kà úy thùm hòo* 'my three dogs, the three dogs of mine' (I have exactly three dogs) vs. *kà úy thùm* 'my three dogs' (I may have more).

hòo may also precede the numeral. In this case the latter indicates a subset of the plural group: *tsápáng hò khàt* 'one of the children', *úy hòo thùm* 'three of the dogs'. The following sentences show the different orderings of *lìi* 'four' and *hòo* in the presence of the plural possessor marker *ùu*:

à vá lìi hóo ùu 'their four birds' (they have only four)
à vá hòo ùu lìi 'four of their birds'

The combination of *khàt* 'one' plus the diminutive marker *tsàa* has the meaning 'none': *tsápáng hòo khàt tsàa ín* 'none of the children'.

Numerals follow the dual and plural markers on pronouns: *kéy hòo thùm* 'the three of us (excl)', *á màa hòo gîet* 'the eight of them'.

A numeral occurs between a prominal proclitic and *ín* 'instrumental case' to indicate the totality of the numerical set. In the case of the numeral *nìi* 'two', the result expresses the notion of 'both':

general	animates	inanimates	
<i>á nìi 'ín</i>	<i>á nìi hlón 'ín</i>	<i>á nìi tàq 'ín</i>	'both of them'
<i>à thùm ín</i>	<i>à thùm úv'ín</i>	<i>à thùm táq</i>	'the three of them'
	(children, dogs)	(houses, books)	

As indicated, the dual and plural markers *hlón* and *ùu* can be used only with animates, while *tàq* is used with inanimates. A numeral can be reduplicated to indicate 'in groups of' (cf. *á zàa á zàa 'ín* 'by the hundreds'). Thus contrast the following two sentences:

tsápáng hòo à thúm ín á 'húng 'êe 'all three children are coming'
 tsápáng hòo thúm thúm ín á 'húng 'êe 'the children are coming in threes'

The same construction is used with *bôn* to express the notion of 'all', e.g. tsápáng thùm hóo à bôn 'ín 'all three of the children'. Compare also the following:

kà bôn ǎn 'all of us (excl)' nà bôn ǎn 'all of you'
 ì bôn ǎn 'all of us (incl)' à bôn ǎn 'all of them'

The literal meanings are 'our all', 'your pl. all', and 'their all'. In the corresponding singular, only the third person is used: à bôn ǎn 'all of it' (synonym: zów sèe 'all of it'). However, a different noun may be used with both singular and plural possessors to mean 'with one's whole self or body': pǔm 'body, self', derived from pǔm 'log' (cf. tí 'pǔm 'body', from tǔi 'flesh, body' + pǔm 'log').

kà púm ǎn 'with my whole self' kà púm ǎn 'with our (excl) whole self'
 ì púm ǎn 'with our (dual, incl) whole self' ì púm ǎn 'with our (incl) whole self'
 nà púm ǎn 'with your whole self' nà púm ǎn 'with your (pl) whole self'
 à púm ǎn 'with his whole self' à púm ǎn 'with their whole self'

Further exemplification of the above and other quantifiers is seen below:

à bôn ǎn	'all of it'	tsápáng à bôn ǎn	'all the children'
zów sèe	'all'	tsápáng 'zów sèe	'all children'
pòwpòw	'every'	tsápáng pòwpòw	'every child'
tám tàq	'many'	théy 'tám tàq	'many fruit'
thèm khât	'some'	thèm khât 'ná dèy êm	'do you want some?'
hloom	'few'	théy hlloom	'some, a few fruit'
tsîeq	'each'	éy màa (hòo) tsîeq	'each of us'
nùmèy hôn	'group of'	nùmèy hôn	'a group of women'

The quantifier *tsîeq* 'each' has a number of uses. It may appear after a pronoun, as in the above example. It may also modify a noun, with or without a classifier: vòq tsîeq 'each pig', vòq tsáng 'tsîeq 'each individual pig'. It may have a distributive sense, acquiring the meaning of 'respective': éy 'máa éy 'máa môot 'our respective banana', môot 'thúm tsîeq 'three bananas each'. In some cases, *tsîeq* takes the place of reduplicating the numeral:

móot 'thúm thúm ín 'every three bananas, each group of three bananas'
 móot 'thúm tsîeq ǎn idem.
 móot khât khât ǎn 'one banana each, each unit of one banana'
 móot khât tsîeq ǎn idem.

The word *vèy* (from *vèy/vèy* ‘strike’) is used to quantify the number of times an event has occurred: *khàt vèy* ‘one time’, *nìi vèy* ‘two times, twice’, *thùm vèy* ‘three times’, etc. It also occurs in the phrases *khàt vèy vèy* ‘once in a while’ and *khàt véy nìi* ‘the other day, the day before yesterday’ (cf. *khàt véy tsún* ‘at another time’, *khàt véy áa úy* ^{!tsúu} ‘the dog of the other day’, lit. the dog from the other time).

Numerals can be used without a head noun in the appropriate context. Thus, in answer to the question *izàa* ‘how many?’, one can answer *nìi* ‘two’, *thùm* ‘three’ etc. Definite forms *tée nìi* ‘the two’, *thùm hōo* ‘the three’ also occur, although these would not be appropriate as an answer to the question ‘how many?’.

3.2.3. Determiners

KT distinguishes three degrees of determination:

<i>hítsyé</i>	<i>hí</i>	‘this’/‘these’ (near speaker)
<i>tsútsyé</i>	<i>tsú</i>	‘that’/‘those’ (near hearer)
<i>khútsyé</i>	<i>khú</i>	‘that’/‘those’ (far from both)

The forms in the first column consists of one of the morphemes *hí*, *tsú*, and *khú* combined with *tsyé*. This form of the demonstrative occurs before the noun. The forms in the second column follow the noun.

In many cases the two are interchangeable, occurring either alone or together:

<i>hítsyé tsápâng</i>	<i>tsápáng</i> ^{!hí}	<i>hítsyé tsápáng</i> ^{!hí}	‘this child’ (n.s.)
<i>tsútsyé tsápâng</i>	<i>tsápáng</i> ^{!tsú}	<i>tsútsyé tsápáng</i> ^{!tsú}	‘that child’ (n.h.)
<i>khútsyé tsápâng</i>	<i>tsápáng</i> ^{!khú}	<i>khútsyé tsápáng</i> ^{!khú}	‘that child’ (far)

In general, the three meanings are as indicated, with the referent located with respect to the speech participants. One is therefore tempted to identify *hítsyé...hí* as ‘first person’, *tsútsyé...tsú* as ‘second person’, and *khútsyé...khú* as ‘third person’. While the *khútsyé...khú* forms seem always to have a deictic function, locating an object in space, two of the forms have a discourse function other than identifying the physical location of a referent:

<i>hítsyé tsápâng</i>	‘this child present, near speaker, relevant to speaker’
<i>tsútsyé tsápâng</i>	‘that child near hearer’
<i>khútsyé tsápâng</i>	‘that child not present or not near’
<i>tsápáng</i> ^{!hí}	‘this child near speaker’
<i>tsápáng</i> ^{!tsú}	‘that child near hearer, in question, relevant to hearer’
<i>tsápáng</i> ^{!khú}	‘that child over there (far from speaker and hearer)’

Among the preposed demonstratives, *hítsyé* has a special use in discourse, which is to identify or introduce a referent of relevance to the speaker: *hítsyé tsápáng* ^{!á ná múu} ^{!êe} ‘I saw this child’

(physically near the speaker or having proximity/relevance to speaker, e.g. the child that I care about).

Among the postposed demonstratives, *tsú* has an additional function of identifying a person or object we were talking about, i.e. the person/object in question: *tsápáng 'tsú* ‘the child in question, the child you already know about’. *tsú* is the closest thing that KT has to a definite article. It appears quite frequently, especially in relative clauses and cleft sentences: *tsápáng pèt úy 'tsú* ‘the dog that bit the child’, *á kàp tsú tsápáng 'á hùi êe* ‘it’s the child that cried’.

By themselves we get the following:

<i>hítsyé hí</i>	<i>hí</i>	<i>hítsyé</i>	‘this one’ (n.s.)
<i>tsútsyé tsú</i>	<i>tsú</i>	<i>tsútsyé</i>	‘that one’ (n.h.)
<i>khútsyé khú</i>	<i>khú</i>	<i>khútsyé</i>	‘that one’ (far)

The form *tsútsyé* has the special meaning ‘the one you already know about’, while *hí*, *tsú*, *khú*, when used by themselves, have the feel of abbreviated forms.

Because of the special meanings of *hítsyé* and *tsú*, some of the combinations of unlike demonstratives are grammatical:

<i>hítsyé tsápáng 'hí</i>	‘this child here (n.s.)’
<i>tsútsyé tsápáng 'tsú</i>	‘that child in question (n.h.)’
<i>khútsyé tsápáng 'khú</i>	‘that child over there (far)’
<i>hítsyé tsápáng 'tsú</i>	‘this child in question (n.s./I’m concerned about)’
<i>hítsyé tsápáng 'khú</i>	‘that child I’m concerned about (far)’
<i>khútsyé tsápáng 'tsú</i>	‘that child in question (far)’

**tsútsyé tsápáng 'hí*, **tsútsyé tsápáng 'khú*, **khútsyé tsápáng 'hí*

The first three phrases have pre- and postposed demonstratives of the same category. The next three combine different categories, but are grammatical. This is because both *hítsyé* and *tsú* have non-deictic meanings: ‘I’m concerned about’ and ‘in question, that you already know about’, respectively. The last three combinations are ungrammatical because *tsútsyé*, *khútsyé*, *hí* and *khú* only have deictic functions—and therefore conflict with each other.

The three demonstratives are also used with /u/ + a locative case marker to express ‘here’ and ‘there’. The locative postclitic /àq/ or /áa/ is chosen according to the nature of the clause in which the form appears (§XX):

<i>hì vâq</i>	<i>hí vâa</i>	‘here’ (n.s.)
<i>tsù vâq</i>	<i>tsú vâa</i>	‘there’ (n.h.)
<i>khù vâq</i>	<i>khú vâa</i>	‘there’ (far)

As mentioned, *tsú* is often provided in translation to the English definite article ‘the’: *tsápáng 'tsú théy 'ká mùu sàq êe* ‘I am showing a fruit to the child’. The numeral *khàt* ‘one’ can similarly be used to indicate indefiniteness: *úy ìn nùmèy khàt á pèt êe* ‘a/the dog bit a woman’.

Such indications of (in)definiteness are usually optional. A universal or generic noun phrase will not have *khàt*: *múi à úm[!]êe* ‘someone is there’, *múi khàt à úm[!]êe* ‘one person is there’, *úy ìn sáa à née[!]êe* ‘a dog eats meat’. In the right context, a noun marked by *khàt* can have a specific or non-specific reading: *úy khàt ìn à née[!]êe* ‘a/some dog ate the meat’.

khàt combines with the word *dâng* to express ‘other’: *úy[!]dáng khàt* ‘another dog’, *ní dánh khàt* ‘another day’ (cf. *úy tsùom khàt* ‘another dog, a different dog’, from *tsùom/tsùom* ‘different’).

3.3. Pronouns

As in other languages, a pronoun can take the place of a noun or function as a full noun phrase.

3.3.1. Independent pronouns

The following are the independent pronouns in KT:

kêy	kéy màa	‘I, me’
êy	éy màa	‘me, we (dual), us (dual)’
nâng	náng màa	‘you (sg.)’
	á màa	‘s/he, him, her’
kéy hòo	kéy màa hòo	‘we (excl pl.), us (excl pl.)’
éy hòo	éy màa hòo	‘we (incl pl.), us (incl pl.)’
náng hòo	náng màa hòo	‘you (pl.)’
	á màa hòo	‘they, them’

Third person pronouns require *màa*, while *màa* is optional in first and second person. There is no first person inclusive/exclusive difference in independent pronouns. The first person inclusive pronoun *êy* (~ *éy màa*) can refer either to singular or dual. While there is no dual/plural difference in the remaining pronouns, one can add a numeral: *kéy nùì* ‘we two’, *náng thǔm* ‘you three’.

Independent pronouns are used in isolation or in different argument positions of the sentence: *kéy lè nâng* ‘you and I’, *náng hòo ká mùu ê* ‘I saw you (pl.)’. As subject of a transitive verb, they are followed by the ergative marker *ìn*: *á màa ìn ná mùu ê* ‘he saw you’, *kéy ìn tsápáng kà váq êe* ‘I fed the child’. As seen in this last sentence, independent pronouns may co-occur with the corresponding proclitic pronoun (*kéy ìn... kà...*).

Either *maa* or the entire pronoun may be reduplicated with the sense of ‘each’: *éy[!]máa máa* ‘each one of ours (dual incl)’, *éy[!]máa éy[!]máa môot* ‘each banana of ours (dual incl), our (dual incl) respective banana’.

Independent pronouns can also be coordinate with *lè* ~ *lèq* ‘and’ to express the idea of ‘by oneself’: *kéy lè kéy[!]ká kì mùu êe* ‘I saw myself’, *á màa lèq á màa á kì thàt êe* ‘he killed himself’. Without this further indication, such reflexive sentences could also mean ‘I was seen (by someone)’ and ‘he was killed (by someone)’ (see §XX).

3.3.2. Possessive pronouns

The independent pronouns presented in §3.3.1 can be also used as possessors:

kéy 'ûy	kéy 'máa ûy	'my dog'
éy 'ûy	éy 'máa ûy	'our (dual incl) dog'
náng 'ûy	náng 'máa ûy	'your (sg.) dog'
	á 'máa ûy	'his/her dog'
kéy 'hóo ûy	kéy 'máa hóo ûy	'our (excl) dog'
éy 'hóo ûy	éy 'máa hóo ûy	'our (incl) dog'
náng 'hóo ûy	náng 'máa hóo ûy	'your (pl.) dog'
	á 'máa hóo ûy	'their dog'

When there is no expressed possessed noun, the genitive case marker /áa/ is used:

kéy áa	kéy 'máa áa	'mine'
éy áa	éy 'máa áa	'ours (dual incl)'
náng áa	náng 'máa áa	'yours (sg.)'
	á 'máa áa	'his/hers'
kéy 'hóo áa	kéy 'máa hóo áa	'ours (excl)'
éy 'hóo áa	éy 'máa hóo áa	'ours(incl)'
náng 'hóo áa	náng 'máa hóo áa	'yours (pl.)'
	á 'máa hóo áa	'theirs'

The above forms can refer to any object or person, e.g. *kéy áa* 'mine' can refer to 'my book', 'my dog', 'my child' etc. When *hlon* and *ùu* are added, the expression refers to families: *náng 'hlón áa* ~ *náng 'máa hlón áa* 'your (dual) families', *kéy 'úváa* ~ *kéy 'máa úváa* 'our (pl. excl) families'.

For the tonal properties of *màa* and *hòo*, see §XX.

In addition, KT has four pronominal proclitics which function as possessive pronouns in a noun phrase:

/ûy/	/gúol/	/hùon/	
kà ûy	kà gǔol	ká hùon	'my dog, friend, garden'
nà ûy	nà gǔol	ná hùon	'your dog, friend, garden'
à ûy	à gǔol	á hùon	'his/her dog, friend, garden'
ì ûy	ì gǔol	í hùon	'our (dual, incl) dog, friend, garden'

These proclitics have /L/ tone before underlying /HL/ or /H/, but /HL/ tone before /L/ (§XX).

By themselves, *kà*, *nà* and *à* indicate a singular possessor, while *ì* indicates a dual inclusive possessor 'your and my'. When the possessor is dual or plural, the postpositions *hlon* and *ùu* are added:

kà úy hlòn	kà gúol hlòn	ká hùon hlòn	‘our (dual excl)...’
nà úy hlòn	nà gúol hlòn	ná hùon hlòn	‘your (dual)...’
à úy hlòn	à gúol hlòn	á hùon hlòn	‘their (dual)...’
ì úy hlòn	ì gúol hlòn	í hùon hlòn	‘our (dual incl)...’
kà úy ùu	kà gùol ùu	ká hùon ùu	‘our (pl. excl)...’
nà úy ùu	nà gùol ùu	ná hùon ùu	‘your (pl.)...’
à úy ùu	à gùol ùu	á hùon ùu	‘their (pl.)...’
ì úy ùu	ì gùol ùu	í hùon ùu	‘our (pl.)...’

As discussed in §XX, the tone of the dual marker *hlon* is /L/ after /HL/, but /HL/ after /H/ and /L/. In each case it indicates that there were exactly two possessors. Since *ì úy* already means ‘our (dual, incl) dog’, *hlon* is redundant in *ì úy hlòn*. The postposition /ùu/ specifies a plural possessor, i.e. a group of three or more.

3.4. Noun phrase structure

The preceding sections have shown that the head noun of a noun phrase may be: (i) preceded by one or more genitive (e.g. possessor) noun phrases, e.g. *kà púu lôw* ‘my grandfather’s field’, *hàaw sàa úy ^lmêy* ‘the chief’s dog’s tail’, *á kèel lièn bâu* ‘his big goat’s food’; (ii) followed by one or more adjective or numeral, e.g. *méeng vòm lièn* ‘big black cat’, *ín thǔm* ‘three houses’, *tsápáng sòm lè nì* ‘twelve children’; (iii) preceded and/or followed by a demonstrative, e.g. *hítsyé tsápáng ^lhí* ‘this child’.

3.4.1. Word order

Virtually any combination of possessor or modifier can occur with the same noun head:

D+P+N	hítsyé ká ^l úy	‘this dog of mine’
D+N+A	hítsyé úy lièn	‘this big dog’
D+N+Nu	hítsyé úy thǔm	‘these three dogs’
D+N+Pl	hítsyé úy hòo	‘these dogs’
D+N+D	hítsyé úy ^l hí	‘this dog’
P+N+A	kà úy lièn	‘my big dog’
P+N+Nu	kà úy thǔm	‘my three dogs’
P+N+Pl	kà úy hòo	‘my dogs’
P+N+D	kà úy ^l hí	‘my dog here’
N+A+Nu	úy lièn thǔm	‘three big dogs’
N+A+Pl	úy lièn hòo	‘big dogs’
N+A+D	úy lièn hí	‘this big dog’
N+Nu+Pl	úy thǔm hòo	‘three dogs’
N+Nu+D	úy ^l thǔm hí	‘these three dogs’
N+Pl+D	úy hòo hí	‘these dogs’

Three, four or five modifiers are also possible: *hítsyé ká 'úy lien* ‘this big dog of mine’, *kà úy lien thùm* ‘my three big dogs’, *kà úy lien hòo hí* ‘these big dogs of mine’, *hítsyé úy lien thùm hóo 'hí* ‘these three big dogs’, etc. The following example with all six modifier positions filled shows the word order within a noun phrase:

D P N A Nu Pl D
 hítsyé ká 'úy lien thùm hóo 'hí ‘these my three big dogs’

The above sequence, which can also be glossed ‘these three big goats of mine’, can be expanded by changing the possessor proclitic to an NP with a noun head. As seen in the following table, modifiers may occur on the possessor noun *tsápáng* ‘child’:

D+N+N	hítsyé tsápáng 'úy	‘this child’s dog’
P+N+N	kà tsápáng 'úy	‘my child’s dog’
N+A+N	tsápáng 'tsóm 'úy	‘a short child’s dog’
N+Nu+N	tsápáng 'thúm úy	‘three children’s dog’
N+Pl+N	tsápáng 'hóo úy	‘the children’s dog’

More than one modifier may also occur on possessor noun:

D+P+N+N	hítsyé ká 'tsápáng 'úy	‘this child of mine’s dog’
D+N+A+N	hítsyé tsápáng 'tsóm 'úy	‘this short child’s dog’
D+N+Nu+N	hítsyé tsápáng 'thúm úy	‘these three children’s dog’
D+N+Pl+N	hítsyé tsápáng 'hóo úy	‘these children’s dog’
P+N+A+N	kà tsápáng 'tsóm úy	‘my short child’s dog’
P+N+Nu+N	kà tsápáng 'thúm úy	‘my three children’s dog’
P+N+Pl+N	kà tsápáng 'hóo úy	‘my children’s dog’
N+A+Nu+N	tsápáng 'tsóm 'thúm úy	‘three short children’s dog’
N+A+Pl+N	tsápáng 'tsóm 'hóo úy	‘the short children’s dog’
N+Nu+Pl+N	tsápáng thùm hóo 'úy	‘the three children’s dog’

Finally, modifiers may be on one vs. the other noun phrase:

D+N+N+A	hítsyé tsápáng 'úy lien	‘this child’s big dog’
D+N+N+Nu	hítsyé tsápáng 'úy thùm	‘this child’s three dogs’
D+N+N+Pl	hítsyé tsápáng 'úy hòo	‘this child’s dogs’
P+N+N+A	kà tsápáng 'úy lien	‘my child’s big dog’
P+N+N+Nu	kà tsápáng 'úy thùm	‘my child’s three dogs’
P+N+N+Pl	kà tsápáng 'úy hòo	‘my child’s dogs’
N+A+N+A	tsápáng 'tsóm 'úy lien	‘a short child’s big dog’
N+A+N+Nu	tsápáng 'tsóm 'úy thùm	‘a short child’s three dogs’
N+A+N+Pl	tsápáng 'tsóm 'úy hòo	‘the dogs of a short child’

N+Nu+N+A	tsápáng 'thúm úy lien	'three children's big dog'
N+Nu+N+Nu	tsápáng 'thúm úy gùup	'three children's six dogs'
N+Nu+N+Pl	tsápáng 'thúm úy hòo	'the dogs of three children'
N+Pl+N+A	tsápáng 'hóo úy lien	'the children's big dog'
N+Pl+N+Nu	tsápáng 'hóo úy gùup	'the children's six dogs'
N+Pl+N+Pl	tsápáng 'hóo úy hòo	'the children's dogs'

As seen in the glosses, *hòo* modifies the head noun of its noun phrase. Thus, *kà tsápáng 'úy hòo* means 'my child's dogs' and not 'my children's dogs'. *hòo* can only pluralize what precedes it. Thus, *tsápáng 'hóo úy lien* means 'the children's big dog', not 'the children's big dogs'.

Similar complications arise concerning preposed and postposed demonstratives. An initial demonstrative will modify the first noun, while a final demonstrative will modify the second: *hítsyé tsápáng 'úy* 'this child's dog', *tsápáng 'úy 'hí* 'this dog of the child'. If both are present, each demonstrative modifies its respective noun: *hítsyé tsápáng 'úy 'hí* 'this dog of this child'. What is not possible is for either type of demonstrative to appear in the middle of a complex noun phrase: **tsápáng 'hí úy*, **tsápáng 'hítsyé úy*. In other words, *hítsyé*, *tsútsyé* and *khútsyé* must be in absolute initial position within a noun phrase, while *hí*, *tsú*, and *khú* must be in absolute final position. (See below, however, for the placement of case markers.)

As discussed in §XX, the postnominal dual and plural possessive markers *hlon* and *ùu* appear after the noun: *à tsápáng hlon* 'their (dual) child', *ì úy ùu* 'our (incl pl) dog'. The following examples show that *hlon* and *ùu* are placed between an adjective and a numeral:

P+N+A+hlon	kà úy lien hlon	'our (dual excl) big dog'
P+N+hlon+Nu	kà úy 'thúm hlon	'our (dual excl) three dogs'
P+N+hlon+Pl	kà úy 'hlón hòo	'our (dual excl) dogs'
P+N+hlon+D	kà úy 'hlón 'hí	'this dog of ours (dual excl)'
P+N+A+ùu	kà úy lien ùu	'our (pl. excl) big dog'
P+N+ùu+Nu	kà úy ùu thǔm	'our (pl. excl) three dogs'
P+N+Pl+ùu	kà úy hòo ùu	'our (pl. excl) dogs'
P+N+ùu+D	kà úy ùu hí	'this dog of ours (pl. excl)'

While the above are the preferred orders, some speakers may allow *hlon* and *ùu* to appear before the numeral, particularly when further determined, e.g. by *hòo*: *kà úy hlon thùm hòo*, *kà úy ùu thùm hòo*. In this context, it should be recalled that both orders are possible of a numeral and *hòo*, with semantic differences such as the following:

N+Nu+Pl	gáal thúm hóo	'the three enemies' (there are only three)
N+Pl+Nu	gàal hóo thǔm	'the three enemies' (there may be more)

Now compare the following (where PNu = possessive number):

P+N+Nu+PNu	à gáal thúm ùu	‘their three enemies’
P+N+PNu+Nu	à gàal úu thǔm	‘three of their enemies’

When both *hòo* and *ùu* are present, variations occur such as:

P+N+Nu+PI+PNu	à gáal thúm hóo ùu	‘their three enemies’
P+N+PNu+Nu+PI	à gàal úu thùm hòo	‘their three enemies’
P+N+PNu+Nu+PI	à gàal úu thùm hòo	‘three of their enemies’
P+N+PI+PNu+Nu	à gàal hóo ùu thǔm	‘three of their enemies’

What is not possible is for *hòo* to directly follow *ùu*: *à gàal úu hòo (correct: à gàal hóo ùu ‘their enemies’).

Compared with numerals, it is odd for *hlon* or *ùu* to precede a bare adjective: à gàal lién ùu ‘their big enemy’ (??à gàal úu lién). However, when the adjective is further qualified by a numeral or the comparative:

P+N+A+PNu	à gàal lién ùu	‘their big enemy’
P+N+A+PNu+Nu	à gàal lién ùu khàt	‘their one big enemy’
P+N+PNu+A+Nu	à gàal úu lién khàt	‘a big one of their enemies’
P+N+A+PNu+Cp	à gàal lién ùu zòq	‘their bigger enemy’

In several of the above examples, the /H/ of the preceding noun spreads onto *ùu*. It may be significant that speakers optionally allow the resulting HL to be pronounced as such, rather than be simplified to H: à gàal úu thǔm, à gàal úu lién khàt. Since a non-final falling tone is otherwise indicative of a pause, this can be taken as evidence that there is a major syntactic break after *ùu*, with either a numeral or a numeral + *hòo* being postposed. In other words, the basic order is for *hlon* and *ùu* to follow adjectives, numeral and *hòo*. The following sentences show *hlon* and *ùu* occurring with a full set of modifiers:

D+P+N+A+Nu+PI+hlon/ùu+D	
hítsyé ká !úy lién thùm hóo hlòn hí	‘these three big dogs of ours (excl dual)’
hítsyé ká !úy lién thùm hóo ùu hí	‘these three big dogs of ours (excl pl.)’

Although *kà tsápáng !úy ùu* ‘our child’s dog’ is grammatical, *hlon* and *ùu* may not appear without a possessive proclitic: **tsápáng !úy ùu* (intended meaning: ‘the childrens’ dog’). Since possessive proclitics cannot appear on a possessed noun (**úy !á bìu*). It is also not possible to get the possessive + *hlon/ùu* combinations on any but the first noun (+ adjective) within a noun phrase: **úy !á bìu hlòn*. However, it is possible for *hlon/ùu* to follow a sequence of nouns. This is seen most clearly in the case of lexicalized noun compounds:

ì túy !méy hlòn	‘our (dual incl) fog’	ì túy !hlón mǎy	‘our water’s cloud’
ná hùuy kòt hlòn	‘your (dual) window’	ná hùuy hlón kòt	‘your wind’s door’
à tsàa khóon hlòn	‘their (dual) teacup’	à tsàa hlón khòn	‘their cup’s tea’

In other cases the placement of *hlòn* or *ùu* can disambiguate between a productively created compound vs. a genitive construction:

úy bùu	‘dog food, a/the dog’s food’
à úy bùu hlòn	‘their (pl.) dog food’
à úy hlòn bùu	‘their (pl.) dog’s food’

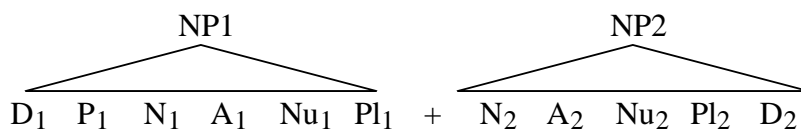
As seen, a noun+noun combination such as *úy bùu* can be either a compound ‘dog food’ or a genitive construction ‘a/the dog’s food’. As indicated, when *hlon* intervenes between the two nouns, the result can only be a genitive. On the other hand, when *hlon* follows, the noun+noun combination must be a compound.

3.4.2. The genitive construction

In contradistinction to noun compounding, which combines individual words, the term GENITIVE is used to refer to constructions that relate one noun phrase to another. Many of these involve a possessor NP which precedes the possessed noun: *tsápáng bùu* ‘child’s food’, *Thien ín* ‘Thien’s house’. XX Since the both the possessor and the possessed are NPs, they can be modified separately. Examples such as *hítsyé tsápáng ’úy lièn* ‘this child’s big dog’, where one modifier precedes the N+N sequence and the other follows, were seen in §3.4.1. However, it is also possible for one or more modifiers to be postposed to the first noun and hence break up the N+N sequence: XX pronounce:

N+A+N	úy lièn bùu	‘big dog’s food’
N+Nu+N	úy nì bùu	‘two dogs’ food’
N+Pl+N	úy hòo bùu	‘dogs’ food’
N+A+Nu+N	úy lièn nì bùu	‘two big dogs’ food’
N+A+Pl+N	úy lièn hòo bùu	‘big dogs’ food’
N+Nu+Pl+N	úy nì hòo bùu	‘the two big dogs’ food’

A postposed demonstrative may not follow the first noun, nor can a preposed demonstrative possessive proclitic intervene between the two nouns: **úy hì bùu*, **úy ’hítsyé bùu*, **úy ’á bùu*. The possibilities for modifiers occurring within a genitive construction can thus be schematized as follows:



To this we can add the dual and plural possessor markers *hlon* and *ùu*: *kà úy hlòn bùu* ‘our (dual excl) dog’s food’, *à úy ùu bùu* ‘their (pl.) dog’s food’.

In all of the examples in the last table, *bùu* ‘food’ is realized with a HL falling tone. This is due to the /H/ genitive tone, which is present in a complex genitive constructions (§XX).

Although the genitive construction is used to express possession, it has many more functions. Some of these are difficult to distinguish from compounding.

3.4.2.1. Function. A genitive construction can be used to express the function of an object: *tsáang hláq tsém* ‘bread knife’ (*tsáang hláq* ‘bread’, *tsém* ‘knife’). Since the first noun can be modified, it is assumed that this is not a compound: *tsáang hláq néem tsém* ‘soft bread knife’ (cf. *tsáang hláq tsém lien* ‘big bread knife’).

3.4.2.2. Contents. The genitive construction is used to express the contents of a container. The result, however, is often ambiguous, alternatively expressing the function of the container:

bée khǎaw	‘bag of beans’	‘bean bag’	(bêe ‘beans’, khǎaw ‘bag’)
bùu kǔong	‘bowl of rice’	‘rice bowl’	(bùu ‘rice’, kǔong ‘bowl’)
tsà khòon	‘cup of tea’	‘teacup’	(tsǎa ‘tea’, khòon ‘cup’)

Even when one adds a modifier after the combination, the result is still ambiguous: *tsà khóon lien khàt* ‘a big cup of tea’ ~ ‘a big teacup’. An intervening modifier on the first noun would disambiguate: *tsá háat khòon khàt* ‘a cup of strong tea’. The meaning may also be clear from the syntactic context:

bùu kùong khát kà née	¹ zów ¹ vêe	‘I ate the whole bowl of rice’
bùu kùong khát	¹ ká sù kék êe	‘I broke a rice bowl’

Without a determiner there is a tendency to interpret the noun+noun combination as a compound expressing function:

bùu kùong khát à née	¹ êe	‘he ate a bowl of rice’
bùu kùong á	¹ nee ¹ êe	‘he ate the rice bowl’

The contents of a picture or photograph is expressed the same way. The word *lîm* can mean ‘picture’, ‘photograph’ or ‘map’:

Índia	¹ gám lîm	‘a map of India’
nà núu	¹ lîm	‘a picture of your mother’

The possessor of a picture can be uniquely identified by using the oblique case marker *áa*: *ì núu ¹ú lîm ¹Thien ¹áa tsú* ‘the picture of our mother belonging to Thien’.

In order to locate the contents within the container, the oblique case mark *áa* is used: *hítsyé khóon ¹áa tsáa hí* ‘the tea in this cup’, *hítsyé lîm ¹áa hláang hóo ¹hí* ‘the mountains in this picture’. XX

3.4.2.3. Measurements. Some of the genitives in §3.4.2.2 are ambiguous in referring to the nature of the container of the contents vs. the latter's quantity. Thus, *bée khàaw khât* can mean 'a bean bag' or 'one bag of beans'. The following specifically refer to measurements of quantity:

measurement compound		measurement
tsáang pháwnd khàt	'a pound of uncooked rice'	phâwnd 'pound'
tsíní khóon nìi	'two cups sugar'	khòon 'cup'
bùu kéq khàt	'half of the cooked rice'	kêq 'half taken out'
lèkhá 'búu lòm	'pile of books'	lòm 'pile'
kéeng kòq tùo khàt	'a pair of shoes'	tùo 'pair, couple'
thí 'mâl	'drop of blood'	mâl 'drop'
sá hèl khàt	'piece of meat'	hèl 'piece'

3.4.2.4. Fabrication. The same construction is used to express the substance of which an object is made:

súong 'ín	'stone house'	sûong 'stone, rock'
thíng 'khêe	'wooden spoon'	thíng 'tree, wood'
thíq thỏo	'iron fence'	thíq 'iron, metal'
búq mîi	'snow man'	bủq 'frost'

For the last, it is also possible to more clearly specify 'snow' with the adjective *bắng* 'white': *búq bắng mîi* 'snow man' (lit. white frost man). Compare also the lexicalized compound *súong 'kúl* 'prison' (lit. stone fortress).

3.4.3. Nominalizations

As discussed in §XX, verbs may be nominalized in either stem1 or stem2 form:

stem1 nominalization		stem2 nominalization		transitive verb
théy 'lôw	'fruit picker'	théy lòo	'fruit picking'	lôw/lòw 'pick'
búu zủoq	'book seller'	búu zùoq	'book selling'	zủoq/zùoq 'sell'
thòw mắn	'fly catcher'	thòw mắt	'fly catching'	mắn/mắt 'catch'
thíng 'tân	'wood chopper'	thíng tắn	'wood chopping'	tắn/tắn 'chop'

The stem1 form of a verb is used to create a subject nominalization (cf. English verb + *er*). In the examples shown above, the subject is an agent: 'one who picks', 'one who sells' etc. This is normally the case when the verb is transitive, as in the above examples. When the verb is intransitive, the result may be an agent, experiencer or inanimate undergoer:

stem1 nominalization		intransitive verb
tsápáng nǔuy	‘laughing child’	nǔuy/nùy ‘laugh’
sáy hláy	‘running elephant’	hláy/hlày ‘run’
gúol kùol	‘coiling snake’	kùol/kùol ‘coil’
àq sí vǎq	‘shining star’	vǎq/vàq ‘illuminate’

It should be noted in this context that adjectives are formally stem1 intransitive verbs and may therefore be nominalizations equivalent to the above:

stem1 adjectival verb		intransitive verb
kháaw hóom	‘empty bag’	hóom/hòp ‘empty’
lám kĕen	‘steep road’	kĕen/kĕen ‘steep’
pàsál !gĭm	‘tired man’	gĭm/gĭm ‘tired’
sá hǎang	‘wild animal’	hǎang/hàan ‘wild’
tùol kôot	‘wet ground’	kôot/kòot ‘wet’

While stem1 produces a subject nominalization, stem2 is used to express an event nominalization:

stem2 nominalization		intransitive verb
tsápáng nùy	‘child laughing’	nǔuy/nùy ‘laugh’
sáy hlây	‘elephant running’	hláy/hlày ‘run’
gùol kùol	‘snake coiling’	kùol/kùol ‘coil’
àq sí vǎq	‘star shining’	vǎq/vàq ‘illuminate’

If the intransitive verb is stative, the corresponding stem2 nominalization will represent a state of being rather than an action. An additional marker is typically needed, e.g. a verbal postposition such as *ná*, otherwise used for instruments and locatives (§XX):

stem2 adjectival verb		intransitive verb
khàaw hóom !ná	‘bag’s hollowness’	hóom/hòom ‘hollow’
lám kĕen ná	‘road steepness’	kĕen/kĕen ‘steep’
pàsál gĭm ná	‘man’s tiredness’	gĭm/gĭm ‘tired’
sá hàan ná	‘animal wildness’	hǎang/hàan ‘wild’
tùol kóot !ná	‘floor’s wetness’	kôot/kòot ‘wet’

The postposition *žieq* ‘reason, because of’ may also be used: *sáy hláng !žieq áa* ‘because of an elephant running’, *tùol kóot !žieq áa* ‘because of the floor’s wetness’. Whenever the verb is in stem2, it is the noun that modifies the action or state of the verb, rather than the reverse.

When the verb is transitive an event nominalization may be ambiguous, e.g. involving the verb *kâap/kàap* ‘shoot’ in the following example:

gám léeng páa kàap ‘the shooting of the hunter’
(the hunter shot something ~ s.o. shot the hunter)

As discussed in §XX, a subject H tonal morpheme can be used to disambiguate, but only if both the stem2 verb and the preceding word are L tone:

hàaw sàa pèe ‘the biting of the chief’ (ambiguous)
hàaw sàa pêe ‘the biting by the chief’ (unambiguous)

Stem2 verbs can only bear L or HL tone. If the stem2 verb form is HL, there is no H tonal morpheme. Thus, *méeng* *’pûoq* ‘cat carrying’ is ambiguous: ‘the carrying of the cat (by someone)’ or ‘the carrying (of something) by the cat’. (XX What if méeng pùoq??)

The use of reflexive *kì* creates analogous ambiguities:

gám léeng páa kì kàap ‘the shooting of the hunter’
(the hunter shot himself ~ someone shot the hunter)

The two meanings correspond to the reflexive vs. passive meanings of *kì*: ‘the self-shooting of the hunter’ and ‘the being shot of the hunter’ (‘the hunter’s being shot’). Since number does not have to be expressed, the phrase can also mean have a reciprocal meaning ‘the mutual shooting of the hunters’, i.e. ‘the shoot of the hunters of each other’. By adding a separate pronominal phrase, the reflexive/reciprocal meaning can be made clearer: *á màa lè á màa gám léeng páa kì kàap*, lit. ‘by himself the self-shooting of the hunter’.

The following are reflexive stem1 nominalizations, derived from transitive verbs, have an intransitive meaning, best translated with an *-ing* in English:

pùm kì làp	‘floating log’	làp/làp ‘lift’
súong kì liq	‘rolling stone’	líq/liq ‘roll’
kì kháy lîm	‘hanging picture’	khây/khây ‘hang’ (tr.)

The following, however, are clearly patients of the corresponding transitive verb:

bùu kì gûu	‘stolen food’	gûu/gùq ‘steal’
tsápáng kì thêe	‘rejected child’	thêe/thêet ‘reject’
lím kì zǐq	‘painted picture’	zǐq/zìq ‘paint’

As before, the stem1 forms indicate a subject nominalization. In these cases, the subject is not the semantic agent of the action, but rather the patient. However, it should be noted that some nominalizations involving *kì* can have a literal reflexive interpretation. While *tsápáng kì thêe* unambiguously refers to a child rejected by others, the corresponding form with stem2, *tsápáng kì thêet* can mean either ‘rejected child’ or ‘self-rejecting child’.

While a stem1 subject nominalization can refer to an agent, experiencer, or patient, it only rarely refers to an instrument. The following example has been found:

mùn thǎeq ‘broom’ mùn ‘place’ thǎeq/thèq ‘sweep’

Since the literal meaning of *mùn thǎeq* ‘broom’ is ‘place sweeper’, it’s clear that it refers to an instrument for sweeping. However, in most cases, the applicative postposition *ná* must be used in forming an instrumental nominalization:

sá àat ná	‘meat cutter’	âat/àat	‘cut’
bùu hùon ná	‘rice cooker’	hûon/hùon	‘cook’
tsìe ná	‘walker’	tsìe/tsìe	‘walk, go’

The above may refer either to an instrument or to a place, e.g. ‘something to cut meat with’ ~ ‘place to cut meat’. As seen, *ná* takes stem2 in all cases.

The following are lexicalized nominalizations involving *ná*:

thìi ná	‘death’	thǐi/thìi	‘die’
pà tsàn ná	‘success’	tsâng/tsàn	‘distinguished’
lùp ná	‘bed’	lùm/lùp	‘lie’
thìl zúoq ‘ná	‘market’	zǔoq/zùoq	‘sell’

The last two are transparently derived from ‘place to lie’ and ‘place to sell things’, respectively.

What is not possible is to form a compound directly with an instrument + verb, e.g. ‘stick-hitter’, ‘stick-hitting’. Instead, the oblique case marker *áa* is required: *mòl àa vó ‘mîi* ‘a stick hitter’ (i.e. a hitter with a stick), *mòl àa vòq* ‘stick hitting, hitting with a stick’, *mòl àa kí vòq* ‘being hit with a stick’ (*vòo/vòq* ‘hit’).

3.4.4. Case marking

KT distinguishes the following five case markers:

	ergative	instrumental	locative	oblique	comitative
Context1	ìn	ín	àq		tòq
Context2	ìn			áa	tòq

As indicated, these case markers have restricted distributions. Context1 (C1) generally refers to main clauses, excluding those which involve the copula *hìi*, while Context2 (C2) refers to all other contexts, including internally to a noun phrase (see §XX). In this section we are concerned only with how these case markers are positioned within the noun phrase structure.

Case markers generally follow postnominal modifiers. Ergative *ìn* is always last in the noun phrase:

P+N+A + ín	à úy lien ìn éy pèt êe	‘his big dog bit me’
N+Nu+Pl + ìn	tsápáng thùm hoo ìn bùu à née ùvêe	‘the three children ate rice’
D+N+D + ìn	hítsyé pá!sál !hín kà lôw à tsóo !êe	‘this man bought my field’

The form *hín* in the third sentence above shows the obligatory coalescence of *hí* + *ìn*.

Instrumental *ín* occurs after adjectives, numerals and the plural marker:

N+A + ín	tsém híem ín	‘with a sharp knife’
N+Nu + ín	tsém thúm ín	‘with three knives’
N + Pl + ín	tsém hoo ĩn	‘with knives’

However, there is the following irregularity when a demonstrative is present:

mòl hĩn	mòl à hĩn	‘with this stick’ (n.s.)
mòl tsũn	mòl à tsũn	‘with that stick’ (n.h.)
mòl khũn	mòl à khũn	‘with that stick’ (far)

The forms in the first column are as expected except that there is obligatory fusion of *ín* with *hí*, *tsú* and *kú*: **hí ín*, **tsú ín*, **khú ín*. The second column presents alternative forms that differ in two ways. First, there is a morpheme *à* that occurs before the demonstrative. Second, the tone of the fused demonstrative+instrumental case forms is falling, suggesting that the suffix is *ìn* rather than *ín*.

As in the case of instrumental case, locative *àq* follows adjectives, numerals, and the plural marker:

N+A + àq	hùon lien àq	‘in a big garden’
N+Nu + àq	hùon nìi àq	‘in two gardens’
N + Pl + àq	hùon hòo àq	‘in gardens’

When a demonstrative is present the results are as follows:

hùon à hĩn	‘in this garden’ (n.s.)
hùon à tsũn	‘in that garden’ (n.h.)
hùon à khũn	‘in that garden’ (far)

As in the second column of the instrumental forms above, *à* precedes the demonstratives, which now appear as *hĩn*, *tsũn* and *khũn*—i.e. with *-n* and a falling tone. It is likely that this *à* is from *àq* with loss of the glottal stop. Unlike instruments, it is not possible to omit this *à*: **hùon hín*, etc.

The last two paragraphs show how instrumental *ín* and locative *àq* are realized with modified nouns. These are the case markers found in main clauses, so-called context1 (§XX). In non-main clauses (context2), *ín* and *àq* merge as the oblique marker *áa*, which follows adjectives, numerals, and plural *hòo*:

N+A + áa	tsém híem áa	‘with a sharp knife’	hùon lien ăa	‘in a big garden’
N+Nu + áa	tsém thúm áa	‘with three knives’	hùon nìi ăa	‘in two gardens’
N + Pl + áa	tsém hóo ăa	‘with knives’	hùon hòo ăa	‘in gardens’

áa precedes demonstratives without complication:

mòl áa hí	‘with this stick’ (n.s.)	hùon áa hí	‘in this garden’ (n.s.)
mòl áa tsú	‘with that stick’ (n.h.)	hùon áa tsú	‘in that garden’ (n.h.)
mòl áa khú	‘with that stick’ (far)	hùon áa khú	‘in that garden’ (far)

All modifiers precede the comitative case marker *tòq*: XX check last example.

N+A + tòq	úy lien tòq	‘with a big dog’
N+Nu + tòq	úy nìi tòq	‘with two dogs’
N + Pl + tòq	úy hòo tòq	‘with dogs’
N + D + tòq	úy hì tòq	‘with this dog’

With the above established the order of elements within the noun phrase can be summarized as follows, where PNu = possessor number, and K = case:

D	P	N	A	Nu	Pl	PNu	K	D	K
hítsyé	ka				hòo	hlon	à	hí	ìn
tsútsyé	na					ùù	áa	tsú	ǎn
khútsyé	a							khú	tòq
	i								lèq

Where the possible fillers of a position is limited, they are exhaustively listed in the above table. As seen, the larger morpheme classes (N, A, Nu) are surrounded by the more limited grammatical morphemes.

3.4.5. Noun phrase coordination

Noun phrases may be conjoined by means of the conjunction *lèq ~ lè*:

nùmèy lèq tsápáng	‘woman and child’
pàsál khàt lèq nùmèy khàt	‘a man and a woman’
bùu lèq bée	‘rice and beans’

The second conjunct or both conjuncts may also be pronouns:

náaw séen léq !kêy	‘the child and I/me’
náaw séen léq key hòo	‘the child and we/us (pl. excl.)’
náng màa hòo lèq á màa hòo	‘you pl. and they/them pl.’

When *lè* is used instead of *lèq*, the following tonal alternants are found:

méeng lè úy	méeng lè zǒong	méeng lè vòq	‘cat and dog (monkey, pig)’
sàay lé 'úy	sàay lé zǒong	sàay lé vòq	‘elephant and dog (monkey, pig)’
kèel lè úy	kèel lè zǒong	kèel lè vòq	‘goat and dog (monkey, pig)’

When more than two noun phrases are conjoined, *lèq* (~ *lè*) must appear after each one. The last noun phrase in such a sequence is marked by *tsù lèq* (~ *tsù lè*): *pàsál khàt lèq, nùmèy khàt, tsù léq tsápáng khàt à núuy í'vêe* ‘a man, a woman, and a child laughed’.

lèq (~ *lè*) is used only for coordination. Concomitant actions are expressed by the nominal postposition *tòq*. Thus compare the following pairs of sentences:

tsápáng lèq kêy kà né khòm êe	‘the child and I eat together’
tsápáng tòq kà né khòm êe	‘I eat together with the child’
sáa lèq bùu kà húon 'êe	‘I cook meat and rice’
sáa bùu tòq kà húon 'êe	‘I cook meat with rice’

See §XX for more on *tòq*.

Case markers follow the whole sequence of conjoined noun phrases:

úy lè méeng ín éy pèt êe	‘the dog and the cat bit me’
tsèm lé khée 'ín kà née 'êe	‘I ate with a knife and spoon’
hùon lèq lów àq ká kàp êe	‘I cried in the garden and the field’
úy lè méeng tòq á tsìe êe	‘he went with a dog and a cat’