CHAPTER-V

GRAMMATICAL PROCESSES
5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a collection of grammatical operations which are likely to be expressed in verbs or verb phrases. The section 5.1 studies the voice alternation or passivization process. The section 5.2 describes the process of reflexive and reciprocal constructions. The section 5.3 determines the nature of valance changing causatives. The section 5.4 investigates the different types of nominalizations. It studies the strategies that the language employs to form nominalization constructions. The section 5.5 studies the process of relativization or relative clause constructions. The section 5.6 addresses the nature of verb serialization or serial verb constructions. The section 5.7 examines the converb clauses constructions. The section 5.8 presents adverb and its types and finally section 5.9 highligths the basic word order in Hawa Nokte.

5.1 Voice Alternation

The term ‘voice’ is generally derived from the Latin noun vox meaning ‘sound, word’. Some linguists prefer to use Greek term diathesis ‘state, function’, over voice in order to avoid the possible confusion with the phonetic terms having to do with voicing. However, people who are familiar with English, the concept of ‘voice’ generally refer to in terms of opposition of the active versus passive voice. According to Myhill (1992), voice alternations consist (involve) of two or more different ways of representing the same verb with the same entities as arguments. Consider the following opposition between active and passive construction in English as in (1) and (2) respectively. In example (1), John functions as the syntactic subject of the transitive verb kick, but the object of a preposition in (2), while the dog (patient) is the direct object in (1), but syntactic object in (2).

Active:

(1) John kicked the dog.

Passive:

(2) The dog was kicked by John.
So far as Hawa Nokte active-passive construction is concerned, the verb doesn’t have any element that distinguishes passive from the active or vice versa. In other words, there is no overt mechanism to express passivity by means of direct inflectional changes in the verb root. The passive construction is left morphologically unmarked, except for change of position of NP\textsubscript{1} and NP\textsubscript{2}. It freely allows the movement of the arguments to the sentence-initial (topic) position without making any changes in the verb as shown in (4). Case is inherently marked on the arguments.

Active:

(3)  \textit{ram-ma hu-ko nək-t-a?}  
\textit{ram-ERG dog-OBJ kick-PST-3SG}  
‘Ram kicked the dog’

Passive:

(4)  \textit{hu-ko ram-ma nək-t-a?}  
\textit{dog-OBJ ram-ERG kick-PST-3SG}  
‘The dog was kicked by Ram’

5.2  Reflexive and Reciprocal

5.2.1  Reflexive

By reflexive, we mean referring back to someone or something in a sentence. It is a syntactical process in which two NPs in a clause are co-referentially related. For example, in a sentence such as \textit{Ram kills himself}, the expression \textit{himself} refers back to \textit{Ram}. That is, the meaning of \textit{himself} is totally dependent on \textit{Ram}. In English, expressions such as \textit{myself, ourselves, yourself, himself, herself, itself, themselves} are called reflexives. They are basically different in form (shape) from simple pronouns like \textit{I, we, you, he, she, it and they}. And one of the main differences between pronouns and reflexives is that pronouns are not dependent on the occurrence (presence) of any
other noun in a sentence as shown in (5a). The pronoun He in (5a) can freely occur in a sentence. It is not bounded on anything. However, if we have a sentence such as in (5b), the reflexive himself is totally dependent on the pronoun He for its meaning. Or else, the reflexive himself makes no sense by itself as shown in (5c).

(5)  
   a. *He kicks the ball.
   b. *He kicks himself.
   c. *himself kick

In Hawa Nokte, the reflexive is formed by adding a morpheme /dede/ to the pronouns. To express the reflexive meaning, the regular pronouns are usually suffixed by the reflexive form /dede/. Usually, the reflexive form is attached to the personal pronouns to achieve reflexive meaning. In case of verbs such as ‘to cut’, ‘to hit’, ‘to beat’, ‘to kick’, etc., an additional morpheme /ɾi/ is also suffixed to the verb root which enhance or substantiate the reflexive meaning. In such sentences, both morphemes simultaneously convey the reflexive meaning as shown in (6a) and (6b).

(6)  
   a. e-dede kʰen-ɾi-ʃ-əŋ  
      1PP-REFL cut-self-PRES-1SG  
      ‘I cut myself’
   b. mə-dede vat-ɾi-o  
      2PP-REFL hit-sef-2SG  
      ‘You hit yourself’
   c. ə-dede nək-ɾi-k-a  
      3PP-REFL cut-self-PRES-3SG  
      ‘(s)he cuts himself or herself’

However, the morpheme /ɾi/ cannot be used with verbs such as ‘to do’, ‘to go’, ‘to cook’, ‘to drive’, etc., as shown in (7).
The different reflexive pronouns that are found in Hawa Nokte may be presented in Table 5.1 for the purpose of ready reference.

**Table 5.1: Sample of reflexive pronouns**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person pronouns</th>
<th>Reflexive form</th>
<th>Reflexive pronouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ŋa/e/ ‘I’</td>
<td>/ŋa-dede/e-dede/ ‘myself’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ʧʰɔni/ ‘dual’</td>
<td>/ʧʰɔni-dede/ ‘ourselves’ (we two)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ni/nikʰu/ ‘we’</td>
<td>/ni-dede/nikʰu-dede/ ‘ourselves’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ŋaŋ/mə/ ‘you’</td>
<td>/ŋaŋ-dede/mə-dede/ ‘yourself’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/neʧʰe/ ‘dual’</td>
<td>/neʧʰe-dede/ ‘yourselves’ (you two)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ne/nekʰu/ ‘you(pl)’</td>
<td>/ne-dede/nekʰu-dede/ ‘yourselves’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/əʧʰin/ ‘they’</td>
<td>/əʧʰin-dede/ ‘themselves’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ŋa/e/ ‘I’</td>
<td>/ŋa-dede/e-dede/ ‘myself’</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>/əʧʰin/ ‘they’</td>
<td>/əʧʰin-dede/ ‘themselves’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.2 **Reciprocal**

A reciprocal expression requires a subject which is identical in reference to it. In other words, the reciprocal situation comprises of at least two simple situations, (e.g., *She loves him* and *He loves her*), so one way to encode such a situation is to combine expressions for two simple situations, as seen in (8) from English:

(8) *John and Mary love each other/one another.*

Here *each other, one another* and *John and Mary* refer to the same set of individuals. *Each other, one another* in (8) in the object position are noun phrases.
Each other is a reciprocal in *John and Mary love each other*. i.e. *John loves Mary* and *Mary loves John*.

The reciprocal in Hawa Nokte is expressed by morpheme /min/ which occurs as suffix to the verb roots. To indicate the reciprocal meaning, Hawa Nokte uses the derivational affix as reciprocal marker. Reciprocal verbs are derived from more basic verb roots by the addition of suffix /min/. The set of verbs derivable in this way includes such as ‘to talk’, ‘to fight with’, ‘to love’, ‘to marry’, ‘to meet’, ‘to kiss’, ‘to embrace’, ‘to argue with’, ‘to compete with’, ‘to collide with’, ‘to share with’, etc. In other words, Hawa Nokte has verbal affix, which, if combined with a verb within one clause, signal that the clause describes a reciprocal situation and not just the situation denoted by the verb, without repeating the verb for each simple situation.

Consider the following contrasts of non-reciprocal and reciprocal constructions in (9) and (10) respectively. In (9), *love* is not mutually reciprocated between *Ram* and *Sita*. It is only *Ram* who loves *Sita*, and not the other way. The subject or agent (*Ram*) receives ergative case marking whereas the object or patient (*Sita*) receives accusative case. Also, the verb *hun* ‘to love’ doesn’t have reciprocal marker attached to it. Thus, the sentence doesn’t indicate any reciprocal meaning.

(9)  *ram-*ma sita-naŋ hun-*k*-a

ram-ERG sita-OBJ love-PRES-3SG

‘Ram loves Sita’

However, contrasts to the above example in (9), the reciprocal constructions in (10a) and (10b), both *Ram* and *Sita* reciprocate their love for one another. The reciprocal marker /min/ is attached to the verb roots which denote the reciprocal meaning. The reciprocal marker is obligatory for reciprocal expression or else the sentence would be meaningless without it as shown in (10c). The numeral /ni/ ‘two’ as shown in (10a), is also an additional element that may or may not be dropped. In
this context, both Ram and Sita are agents. Also, both the arguments are morphologically unmarked for case.

(10) a. \textit{ram le sita ni hun-min-k-a}  
\quad \text{ram and sita two love-RECP-PRES-3SG}  
\quad \text{‘Ram and Sita love each other’}  

b. \textit{ram le sita hun-min-k-a}  
\quad \text{ram and sita love-RECP-PRES-3SG}  
\quad \text{‘Ram and Sita love each other’}  

c. \textit{*ram le sita hun-e-k-a}  

In case of verb such as ‘to meet’ as shown in (11a), the subject (I) is morphological unmarked for case whereas an object (Mary) is marked for associative case by morpheme /\ddmn\eta/. In this context, one of the arguments thus construed as subject, which is ‘I’, whereas the other agent, Mary as object. In this case also the reciprocal marker is obligatory; otherwise, the sentence would mean nothing as shown in (11b). In Hawa Nokte, verbs such as ‘to meet’, ‘to talk’, ‘to collide’, ‘to fight with’, etc., inherently carry reciprocal meaning.

(11) a. \textit{\textit{ŋa meri-\ddmn\eta ʧoʔ-min-t-ɔk}}  
\quad \text{I mary-ASSOC meet-RECP-PST-1SG}  
\quad \text{‘I met with Mary’}  

b. \textit{*\textit{ŋa meri-\ddmn\eta ʧoʔ-t-ɔk}}

5.3 Causativization

Causative, according to Payne (1997) is “...a linguistic expression that contains in semantic/logical structures a predicate of cause, one argument of which is a predicate expressing an effect” (p. 176). According to Comrie (1985:330),
syntactically, one of the main differences between non-causative and causative constructions is in the way the valency changes. Usually, the effect of causative marker is to change an intransitive verb into a transitive one, and a transitive verb into a causative one. In such type of constructions, a new argument is introduced into the valency structure of the verb. Singh (2000:184) noted that a causative construction generally involves two events, i.e., a preceding causing event and a subsequent caused event. Schematically, a causative construction may be represented as:

\[ \text{CAUSE} (x, P) = x \text{ causes } P \]

The nature of causativization may be analyzed under two types of valency-increasing causatives such as causativized intransitive and causativized transitive.

5.3.1 Causativized intransitive

In the unmarked intransitive as shown in (12), there is no agent or causer to make \textit{Ram} falls from the tree. Ram’s falling from the tree is not initiated by any external force. However, in (13), an agent \textit{Mohan} is introduced as causer or initiator who causes \textit{Ram} to fall from the tree. This is indicated by causative form /siet/ as suffix to the verb. There is an increase in the number of participants or arguments; one more participant (Mohan) is introduced as subject of the intransitive verb ‘to fall’. Further, if another causative form /təuk/ is introduced along with the intransitive causativizer /siet/, then the number of participants further increases to two as shown in (14), thus making three in total. In this case, \textit{Mohan} is the first causer who causes \textit{Sham} who in turn caused \textit{Ram} to fall from the tree. Thus, \textit{Mohan} and \textit{Sham} are two participants along with \textit{Ram} introduced into the valency structure of verb.

Base verb:

(12) \textit{ram bəŋ-vaʔ dʒa-k-a}  
\textit{ram tree-ABL fall-PRES-3SG}  
‘Ram falls/falling from the tree’
First clausal:

(13) *mohan-ma ram bɔŋ-va? ʣa-siet-k-a*

mohan-ERG ram tree-ABL fall-CAUS-PRES-3SG

‘Mohan makes Ram fall from the tree’

Second clausal:

(14) *mohan-ma ram bɔŋ-va? sam-nɔŋ ʣa-siet-tʰuk-k-a*

mohan-ERG ram tree-ABL sham-ACC fall-CAUS-CAUS-PRES-3SG

‘Mohan makes Sham to fall Ram from the tree’

Consider another example with verb such as /ʤup/ ‘to sleep’ in Hawa Nokte to further illustrate the points. In (15), there is only one single argument the *baby* whereas in (16), with the introduction of another verb /tʰiɛn/ increases the number of arguments to two, which is, the baby and her grand-mother. Further, when the causative marker /tʰuk/ is introduced, then there is one more increase of arguments in the valency of the verb as shown in (17).

Base verb:

(15) *natʰa-pa ʤup-t-a?*

child-DEF sleep-PST-3SG

‘The child slept’

First causal:

(16) *natʰa-pa avi-ma ʤup-ʰiɛn-t-a?*

child-DEF grandmother-ERG sleep-put-PST-3SG

‘The grandmother put the child to sleep’

Second causal:

(17) *natʰa-pa ʔonoŋ-ma avi-nɔŋ ʤup-ʰiɛn-tʰuk-t-a?*

child-DEF mother-ERG grandmother-DAT sleep-put-CAUS-PST-3SG

‘The mother caused the grandmother to put the child to sleep’
5.3.2 Causativized transitive

In the case of transitive verbs, the causativizer /tʰuk/ is used to increase the valency of the verb. Any transitive verb can be causativized with the help of this morpheme. In (18a), Ram is the ‘Agent’ who writes a letter to Sita, whereas in (18b), Ram is the causer who causes Mohan to write a letter to Sita.

(18) a. *ram-*ma sita-nəŋ siti ṭaŋ-t-ə?
   ram-ERG sita-OBJ letter write-PST-3SG
   ‘Ram wrote Sita a letter’

b. *ram-*ma mohan-nəŋ siti rəŋ siti ṭuk-t-ək
   ram-ERG mohan-OBJ sita-for letter write-CAUS-PST-1SG
   ‘Ram made Mohan to write a letter for Sita’

5.4 Nominalization

For Comrie and Thomson (1985), the term nominalization means “turning something into a noun” (p. 349). Take for instance, in English, the verb ‘act’ is nominalized to ‘acting’ and ‘actor’ by suffixing the clitics -ing and -or respectively to form deverbal nouns. In other words, the morphological nominalization is basically used to derive lexical nouns from verb with help of some derivational suffixes. The derived nouns also have same characteristics as non-derived nouns (Comrie & Thompson, 1985).

In Nominalization in Asian Languages, Foong, Grunow-Harsta & Wrona (2011) observed that the most common nominalization strategies found across languages namely; morphological nominalization, zero nominalization and substantivization strategies. The morphological nominalization is basically used to derive lexical nouns from verb or adjective with help of some derivational suffixes. Givón (1984) called it “lexical nominalization” (p. 498). On the other hand, zero nominalization is morphologically unmarked or that there is no overt marking to
distinguish nominalized construction from a non-derived nominal. For example, in the use of English verb work as a lexical noun in the utterance Let us start our work. The third strategy involves the use of some nominal phrase markers such as classifiers, plural markers, case markers, definiteness marker, etc., to indentify the nominalization construction. In other words, it refers to the process via which a prototypical verbal clause – either a complete sentence (including the subject) or a verb phrase (excluding the subject) is converted into a noun phrase.

In Hawa Nokte, two types of nominalizations such as (i) morphological or lexical nominalization and (ii) clausal nominalization may be found. They are:

5.4.1 Morphological nominalization

In morphological nominalization, nouns are derived from verbs through some morphological process of derivation. Therefore, it is also reffered to as derivational nominalization. This type of nominalization takes as its domain the verb root or predicate, works at the morphological level to derive lexical nouns. In Hawa Nokte, the morphological nominalization may be achieved through the suffixation of the morphological elements. These suffixes include /te/, /tʰin/, and /li/. Generally, these morphemes are used to derive lexical nouns and are productive in nature. The derived nouns are also capable of taking case marker, number, gender, etc., similar to that of non-derived nouns. They are predominantly post-predicate, and thus occur as suffixes. Basically, they are class changing derivational suffixes.

5.4.1.1 Agentive nominalization

Agentive nominalization is derived by morpheme /te/. It denotes ‘person’ or ‘one who acts’. The morpheme is suffixed to the verb roots to derived action nouns such as singer, dancer, actor, player, etc. and also stative nouns. In addition, the form can also undergo specialization and thus refers to occupations or people in the habit of doing something such as /kʰəmdʒok-te/ ‘someone in the act of drinking; alchoholic’, /miʔvat-te/ ‘someone in the act of beating people’, etc. Most of the action
verbs (that can be attributed to animate) can take this suffix. It is very productive in nature. Both transitive and intransitive verbs can be suffixed with this marker. Like non-derived nouns, it can also take nominal markers such as case, gender, number, and definite marker. The possible order is: V-NMZ-GENDER-NUM-CASE. Examples are given in (19);

(19) a. բուռ  ‘to dance’

b. բուռ-տե  ‘dancer’
dance-NOMZ
c. բուռ-տե-հեյ  ‘dancers’
dance-NOMZ-PLM
d. բուռ-տե-փու  ‘female dancer’
dance-NOMZ-FEM
e. բուռ-տե-փո-հեյ  ‘female dancers’
dance-NOMZ-FEM-PLM
f. բուռ-տե-փո-հեյ-ման  ‘to the female dancers’
dance-NOMZ-FEM-PLM-DAT
g. բուռ-տե-փո-հեյ-մա  ‘by the dancing ladies’
dance-NOMZ-FEM-PLM-ERG

The morpheme /te/ is, however, not only added to the verbs but it can also be added to the nouns and the adverbs. Thus, by the suffixation of this morpheme, the words in relation to person or people can be derived. For instance, in (20a) and (20b), the words such as /հայդան/ ‘village’ and /հուս/ ‘house’ are suffixed by morpheme /te/, thereby giving the words such as ‘villager’ and ‘family member’ respectively.
Similarly, an adverb /kʰǝma/ in (20c) is suffixed by the same nominalizer which changes the meaning of the word to ‘someone who is in the front’. Examples are given in (20):

(20) a. haʔdanŋ + te > /haʔdannte/ ‘villager’
    village NOMZ

    b. hum + te > /humte/ ‘family member’
    house NOMZ

    c. kʰǝma + te > /kʰǝmate/ ‘one who is in the front’
    front NOMZ

    d. ǝdi + te > /ǝdite/ ‘one who is in the back’
    back NOMZ

5.4.1.2 Locative nominalization

Locative nominalization means as ‘a place where “verb” happens’ (Comrie, 1985:355). In Haw Nokte, the morpheme /tʰin/ denotes the ‘place’ or ‘location’. It is used with the verbs to refer to a location or place where the activity described by the verb tends to occur. It may be used to derived verbal nouns such as /toŋ-tʰin/ ‘a place for sitting (chair)’, /ʤup-tʰin/ ‘a place for sleeping (bed)’, ɾəŋsoam-thin ‘a place for worshiping’, etc. Like any other non-derived nouns, the verbal nouns can also take number, case marker and definite/demonstrative marker. The possible order of occurrence is: V-NMZ-NUM/DEF-CASE. Examples are given in (21);

(21) a. toŋ ‘to sit’

    b. toŋ-tʰin ‘a thing/place to sit like chair, stool, etc.’
    dance-NOMZ
c. \textit{ton-\textsc{f}in-heʔ} \quad \textit{‘seats’}
\hspace{1cm} \text{sit-NOMZ-PLM}

d. \textit{ton-\textsc{f}in-heʔ-nəʔ} \quad \textit{‘to those seats’}
\hspace{1cm} \text{sit-NOMZ-PLM-DAT}

e. \textit{ton-\textsc{f}in-pa} \quad \textit{‘(that or this) seat’}
\hspace{1cm} \text{sit-NOMZ-DEF}

The same morpheme can also be used to derive the nouns from the verbs in which the noun refers to an instrument used to accomplish the act represented by the verb. Comrie & Thompson (1985) called this type of nominalization as ‘instrumental nominalization’ where nouns can be derived from verbs by using a morphological element meaning ‘an instrument for “verbing”’ (p. 353). Examples are given in (22);

\begin{enumerate}
\item[(22) a.] \textit{kʰen + \textsc{f}in} \quad > \quad /kʰentʰin/ \quad \textit{‘cutter’}
\hspace{1cm} \text{cut NOMZ}

\item[(22) b.] \textit{laŋ + \textsc{f}in} \quad > \quad /laŋtʰin/ \quad \textit{‘opener’}
\hspace{1cm} \text{open NOMZ}

\item[(22) c.] \textit{ɾǝp + \textsc{f}in} \quad > \quad /ɾǝptʰin/ \quad \textit{‘screw driver, etc.’}
\hspace{1cm} \text{drive NOMZ}
\end{enumerate}

5.4.1.3 Purposive nominalization

In Nokte, the morpheme /\textsc{li}/ generally denotes \textit{a thing} or \textit{a portion of thing} kept for future purposes. It denotes ‘type’ or ‘kind’ and ‘utility’ of something. It used for purposive nominalization. It occurs as suffix to the verb root. It can take case, number, and definite markers. The order of occurrence is: V-NMZ-NUM-CASE. Examples are shown as in (23);

\begin{enumerate}
\item[(23) a.] \textit{kʰen + \textsc{f}in + \textsc{li}} \quad > \quad /kʰentʰin\textsc{li}/ \quad \textit{‘cutting’}
\hspace{1cm} \text{cut NOMZ-PLM}

\item[(23) b.] \textit{laŋ\textsc{li}} \quad > \quad /laŋ\textsc{li}/ \quad \textit{‘opener’}
\hspace{1cm} \text{open NOMZ}

\item[(23) c.] \textit{ɾǝp\textsc{li}} \quad > \quad /ɾǝp\textsc{li}/ \quad \textit{‘screw driver, etc.’}
\hspace{1cm} \text{drive NOMZ}
\end{enumerate}
(23) a.  \( p^hək \) ‘to eat’

b.  \( p^hək-li \) ‘edible thing’

   eat NOMZ

c.  \( p^hək-li-heʔ \) ‘edible things’

   eat-NOMZ-PLM

d.  \( p^hək-li-heʔ-nəŋ \) ‘to the edible things’

   eat-NOMZ-PLM-DAT

With regards to the action nominalization found in many other world languages such as English (eg. creat → creation, arrive → arrival, etc.), in Haw Nokte, the action or activity nominalization has ‘zero’ operator. There is no overt marking to indicate the process of action or activity nominalization.

5.4.2 Clausal nominalization

In Tibeto-Burman languages, according to Geneti (2011), the nominalization can work at two levels; one at the morphological level to derive lexical nouns and other at clausal level. The first kind of nominalization takes as its domains the lexical root and the second one takes as “its domain the clause or clause combination, works at the syntactic level and allows a grammatical clause to be treated as noun phrase within a broader syntactic context” (Geneti, 2011:164). In Givón’s (1990) word clausal nominalization is a process “by which a prototypical verbal clause […] is converted into a noun phrase” (p. 498). Generally, the clausal nominalization constructions can be signaled by noun phrase markers such as demonstrative, case markers, possessive marker (pronoun), plural marker, definiteness marker, etc., (Foong, Grounow-Hirsta & Wrona, 2011; Comrie & Thompson 1985/2007). These nominal phrase markers are indicative of nominal expressions, thus, they can be used to identify nominalization construction. The use of this particular strategy has been
reported in some of the languages such as Budai Rukai (Sung, 2011:549), Saisiyat (Yeh, 2011:572), Numhpuk Singpho (Morey, 2011:297), Nuosu Yi (Liu & Gu, 2011:319) and many more. Clause nominalizations, however, are not prototypical nominalizations in that they do not involve the derivation of a noun from a verb given that the nominalized constituent represents an entire clause.

In Hawa Nokte, no overt morphological marker is employed to indicate the clausal nominalization. However, the nominalized clause can be identified by one or the other noun phrase markers as reported in some of the Tibeto-Burman languages. The noun phrase markers which help in identifying the nominal construction or clause in Hawa Nokte include plural marker, case marker and definite marker. They are as follows;

5.4.2.1 Plural marker

Generally, the plural marker /heʔ/ immediately follows the noun as shown in (24a). However, in example (24b), the whole clause all the books that are there on the table is nominalized which is signaled by the presence of plural marker /heʔ/ after the affirmative particle attached to the existence verb /toŋ/. In (24c), the plural marker occupies the slot just after the nominalized clause.

(24) a. titap-heʔ

book-PLM
‘books’

b. [tfento titap sen kʰoŋ-ko toŋ-a -heʔ]NP o-oŋ ven-r-o

called book good table-on exit-AFP-PLM this-LOC bring-DIR[towards the Sp]-2SG
‘All the good books that are there on the table, bring it here’

(c) [pʰutbol loam kat-te -heʔ]NP

football play come[down]-NOMZ-PLM
‘The persons coming to play football’
5.4.2.2 Case marker

The use of case marker also signals the nominalization as in (25), where the accusative case marker /ko/ and the ergative marker /ma/ nominalized the clause *the lady who is drinking* and *the man with red shirt* respectively. Generally, the case marker immediately follows the nominal, but in the case of nominalized clause, the case marker occurs at the end of the nominalized clause as in (25).

(25) a. \[kʰəm ʤok-te-ŋu -ko]_{NP}

   wine drink-NOMZ-FEM-DAT

   (i) ‘To the lady who is drinking/drinks’

   (ii) ‘To the lady drinker’

b. \[ʧʰəmtʰuŋ ʧək poʔ-te -pa -ma]_{NP} vat-h-ŋu

   shirt red wear-NOMZ DEF-ERG beat-INVS-1SG

    (i) ‘The man with a red shirt beat me’

    (ii) ‘The man who is wearing red shirt beats me’

5.4.2.3 Definite marker

As stated earlier that the definite marker is one of the nominal phrase markers that can be used to signal the nominalization construction. This type of strategy is also found in the Tibeto-Burman languages like Numhpuk Singpho (Morey, 2011:297). Consider the example from Numhpuk Singpho given in (26).

(26) \[phatʰ phaaʰ waa¹ mutʰ nʰ-ŋaaʰ]

   read NOMZ DEF also NEG-have

   (i) ‘There is (also) no event of reading’

   (ii) ‘The man who reads is not here’

   (iii) ‘The book that is to be read is not here’

   (Morey, 2011:297)
In Nokte:

The definite marker /pa/ in (27a) occurs immediately after the noun ‘dog’, whereas in (27b), the verb /sǝp/ ‘cry’ is immediately followed by definite marker to signal the nominalized construction. In (27b), the entire clause combination Sitting at home and drinking rice beer is nominalized with the suffix /pa/. Likewise, the whole clause the man who is drinking is also nominalized as shown in (27c). In other words, the nominalization has scope over the whole clause.

(27) a. ǝre hu-pa ŋa hu ǝŋ-a
    this dog-DEF I dog be-AFP
    ‘This dog is my dog’

b. [hum-ko ton-liʔma khǝm ʤok -pa]NP sen-ma?
    house-LOC sit-CONV.1 PL.INST wine drink-DEF good-NEG
    ‘Sitting at home and drinking rice beer is not good’

c. [kʰǝm ʤok-te-va -pa]NP ʧen-ka-mǝŋ-r-a
    wine drink-NOMZ-MASC-DEF let-come[down]-REQU-DIR[towards the Sp]-3SG
    ‘Let the man who is drinking comes’

To negate the nominalized clause, the negative marker /le/ precedes the verb root followed by nominalizer and then the clausal markers such as definite marker, plural marker and case marker as shown in (28).

(28) a. [le-ʤǝt-te -pa]NP
    NEG-know-NOMZ-DEF
    ‘One who doesn’t know’

b. [kam le-mo-te -pa]NP
    work NEG-work-NOMZ-DEF
    ‘One who doesn’t work’
c. \([\text{kam le-mo-te -be}]_{NP}\)  
work NEG-work-NOMZ-PLM  
‘Those who doesn’t work’

d. \([\text{nap le-veʔ-te -məŋ}]_{NP}\)  
book NEG-study-NOMZ-DAT  
‘To the one who doesn’t study’

5.5 Relativization

A relative clause generally modifies the head noun phrase like the adjectival clause which modifies the noun. For example, in the boy who met an accident, a relative clause who met an accident modifies the boy; where in who is the relative pronoun which is linked or refers back to the boy. Depending on the structural/linear positions in which a relativized head noun appears, relative clauses can be classified into PRENOMINAL, POSTNOMINAL, and HEAD-INTERNAL types.

Payne (1997) has given the three typological parameters by which relative clauses can be grouped:

(a) The position of the relative clause with respect to the head noun
(b) The mode of expression of the relativized NP (sometimes called the “case recoverability strategy”)
(c) Which grammatical relations can be relativized

Basically, Hawa Nokte doesn’t have the relative pronouns or relativizer that correspond to the relative pronouns such as ‘who’, ‘whom’ ‘which’, ‘where’, ‘that’, as that in English. However, the two logically-possible orderings for the head noun and the relative clause may be observed in Hawa Nokte, which are pre-headed (pre-nominal) relative clause and internally-headed relative clause. For instance, in (29), the relative clause ‘that we caught’ precedes the head noun /ŋaʔ/ ‘fish’.
Another possible ordering of relative clause is the internally-headed relative clause as shown in (30). In this case, the head noun /ŋaʔ/ is placed in a position internal to the relative clause forming an internally-headed relative clause such as [ni-ma ŋaʔ lo-tiʔ] ‘we caught fish’, and the plural marker /heʔ/ occur after the embedded clause.

(30) \[\{mǝʤa-vaŋ ni-ma ʃaʔ lo-tiʔ\}_{REL} ^{heʔ} \]NP ʃuen-sɔŋ-t-ʃi?
yesterday-ABL we-ERG fish catch-PST-1PL finish-sell-PST-1PL

‘The fishes which we caught yesterday were finished selling?’

Of these two types of relative clauses, however, the pre-head relative is frequently used and naturally it comes to the speaker, whereas the internally-headed relative clauses are not frequently used. According to Payne (1997) the second parameter by which relative clauses can vary is how the NP\_rel is expressed within the relative clause. The point is that the role of the NP can be different from the role of the head noun within the main clause. In (31a), the head noun ‘elephant’ is the subject of the main clause verb ‘killed’ as well as the relative-clause verb ‘saw’. The elephant receive an ergative case marking. However, in (31b), the elephant is still the subject of the main clause verb ‘killed’, but now object of the relative-clause verb ‘saw’ i.e., ‘I saw the elephant’. In (31a), the object (I) of the relative-clause verb ‘saw’ receives dative case marking whereas in (31b) it is marked by ergative case as subject.

(31) a. \[\{ŋaʔ-ʃaŋ kʰ e-t-h-ʃaŋ\} poak-pa -ma\}_{REL} ram ʃipʰ e-t-a?\]
   I-DAT see-PST-INVS-1SG elephant-DEF-ERG ram kill-PST-3SG
   ‘The elephant that saw me killed Ram’
b. \[
\{ga-ma k^h e-t-ok\} poak-pa-ma_{REL} ram ritep^h e-t-a?
\]

I-DAT see-PST-INV-1 SG elephant-DEF-ERG ram kill-PST-3 SG

‘The elephant that I saw killed Ram’

5.6 Verb Serialization or Serial Verb Constructions (SVCs)

Aikhenvald (2006) in his initial remarks about the serial verb constructions stated that:

A serial verb construction (SVC) is a sequence of verbs which act together as a single predicate, without any overt marker of coordination, subordination, or syntactic dependency of any other sort. Serial verb constructions describe what is conceptualized as a single event. They are monoclausal; their intonational properties are the same as those of a monoverbal clause, and they have just one tense, aspect, and polarity value. SVCs may also share core and other arguments. Each component of an SVC must be able to occur on its own. Within an SVC, the individual verbs may have same, or different, transitivity values. (p. 1).

In short, the above observations may be deduced into following formal semantic properties of serial verb constructions such as;

(a) SCV act as single predicate
(b) SCVs conceptualized as single event
(c) SCVs are monoclausal
(d) Share same TAM properties
(e) They are share core and other arguments

The serial verb constructions (SCVs) in Hawa Nokte may be examined on the basis of the formal semantic properties proposed by Sebba (1987), Aikhenvald (2010), and et al. They are as follows;

5.6.1 Shared tense, aspect and mood

A serial verb construction should shared same TAM as they refer to the same event (Lord, 1993). This is true in the case of Hawa Nokte where the verbal categories such as tense, aspect and mood are marked only once as in (32a) and (32b).
In that case, only the final verb is marked, which means that Hawa Nokte has single marking system of SCVs. In serial verb constructions, the typical motion verbs also play an important role. They usually express the directional orientation for the action described by the other verb as in (32). In (32b), the perfective aspect /la/ has scope over the entire predicate. The sequence of verbs can be either two or more than two verbs in SVCs.

(32) a. \(\text{ŋa dʒo dʒok-rəŋ kʰo kat-}\text{ʔu}\)
   I am water drink-for draw-go[down]-DUR
   ‘I am going to fetch the water for drinking’

b. \(\text{ŋa hum-nəŋ lə-hu kʰoam kə-tək}\)
   I house-loc PERF-arrive walk go[down]-PST-1SG
   ‘I have already arrive home’

5.6.2 Negative has scope over the combined predication

In SCVs, negation has scope over the combined predication or the entire verbs in the sentence. In other words, it has scope over the entire cluster of verbs. The NEG can either precede or follow the cluster of verbs as shown in (33). However, insertion of negative marker /ma/ in between the serial verbs as shown in (33c) may yield ungrammatical sentence in Hawa Nokte. Thus, insertion of any morphological element in between the cluster of verbs is not allowed.

(33) a. \(\text{ŋa bəŋ-va? ma-dʒa kʰoam kə-rəŋ}\)
   I tree-ABL NEG-fall-walk-come[down]-DIR[towards the Adr]-1SG
   ‘I have not yet climbed down from the tree’

b. \(\text{ŋa bəŋ-va? dʒa kʰoam kə-məʔ-i-h-əŋ}\)
   I tree-ABL fall-walk-come[down]-NEG-PST-DIR[towards the Adr]-1SG
   ‘I didn’t climb down from the tree’
5.6.3 SVCs as ‘one event’

In Hawa Nokte, the whole predicate simultaneously denotes a single event i.e., *climbing down from the tree* as in (34a). The sequence of verbs does not express separate events, but they all constitute as a single event. If one of the verbs is removed from the sequence, then the meaning of the sentence changes as shown in (34b).

(34) a. *ŋa bəŋ-vaŋ ŋa ɪ̱ən ɪ̱əŋ*

I treeABL.fall walk come[down]-DIR[towards the Adr]-1SG

‘I climb down from the tree’

b. *ŋa bəŋ-vaŋ ʊŋ*

I treeABL.fall-PRES-1SG

‘I fall from the tree’

c. *ŋa bəŋ-vaŋ ᵗəŋ*

[awkward]

d. *ŋa bəŋ-vaŋ k⁵oam ɪ̱əŋ*

[awkward]

5.6.4 SCVs contrast with coordination

SVCs contain just one assertion in contrast to coordination and subordination clauses. In Hawa Nokte, for instance in (35a); there is no conjunction coming in between the series of verbs. On the other hand, in the case of coordinate sentence as in (35b), there are two separate clauses separated by coordinator /ŋale/ ‘and’, and also the subject ‘I’ and object ‘Tiger’ are marked separately by different PNAGR markers /ɑk/ and /aʔ/ respectively. In coordinate clauses, each clause can have its own TAM, and PNAGR affixes. They are two separate events.

(35) a. *ətə-ma saʔ-pa rir ʰap-tə?

he-ERG tiger-DEF die-shoot-PST-3SG

‘He shot the tiger dead’
b. *ŋa-ma saw-ko hap-t-oŋ yale ri-t-a?*

I-ERG tiger-OBJ shoot-PST-1SG and die-PST-3SG

‘I shot the Tiger and it died’

5.6.5 SVCs versus compounds

The compound verbs usually denote a single lexical meaning. They constitute as single lexical unit. In (36a), the verb /he̍tə/ ‘to teach’ is a combination of two independent verb roots i.e., /he/ ‘to learn’ and /tə/ ‘tell’ which together constitute a single word. However, in case of SVCs, two different verbs denote closely connected action happening simultaneously at given point of time as shown in (36b).

(36) a. *ŋa-ma sita-nəŋ se he̍tə-kəŋ*

I-ERG sita-to song teach-PRES-1SG

‘I am teaching song to Mary’

b. *nəŋ tfəm poen ka-o*

you food cook go[down]-2SG

‘You go and cook food’

In case, motion verbs occur with other verbs, they provide directional orientation for the action described by the other verbs. In order of occurrence, the main verbs precede the directional or pure motion verbs and together they occur as single unit and nothing can be interposed in between them. For instance, when the pure motion verbs occur with the manner verbs, the verb describing the manner of the movement occurs first and then follows the verb which orientates the movement in space as shown in (37).

(37) a. *meri tfoen vəŋ-k-a*

mary run go[up]-PRES.DIR[away from the Sp]-3SG

‘Mary is going running’
b. *loŋ loŋ⁰ ka-ɾ-a*

stone roll come[down]-PRES.DIR[towards the *Sp*]-3SG

‘Stone is coming rolling down’

c. *ēte hum-naŋ la-hu kʰoam vəŋ-t-h-a*

he house-LOC PERF-arrive walk come[up]-PST.DIR[towards the *Sp*]-3SG

‘He had arrived at home walking’

5.7  **Converb Clauses**

The two types of converbal clause may be found in Hawa Nokte such as; (i) the actions occurring simultaneously or at the same time and (ii) the actions occurring one after the other or one following the other.

5.7.1  **Simultaneous action or event**

In this case, the morphological element /nuŋ/ is attached to an instrumental marker /ma/ to denote the simultaneity of an action or action occurring at the same time. For instance, English coordinate sentence such as *Mary is cooking and singing* means that Mary is cooking and at the same time she is also singing. That is, the two actions such as ‘cooking’ and ‘eating’ are simultaneously happening without any interval in between the two actions. In Hawa Nokte, the first verb is followed by morpheme /nuŋma/ as shown in (38). The verbal inflectional categories such as tense/aspect, PN Agr, NEG, etc., are inflected on the final verb. They are marked only once.

(38) a. *meri tʃəm poen -nuŋma se se-k-a*

mary food prepare -CONV.INST song sing-PRES-3SG

(i) ‘Mary is cooking and singing’

(ii) ‘Mary is singing while cooking’
b. *meri tfəm poen -nuyma se se-maʔ-t-a?*

mary food prepare -CONV.INST song sing-NEG-PST-3SG

‘Mary didn’t sing while cooking’

c. *sita dʃup -nuyma titap veʔ-k-a*

Sita sleep -CONV.INST book read-PRES-3SG

‘Sita is lying and reading the book’

5.7.2 Action or event occurring one after another

In this case, morpheme /l/ is fused with PNAgr forms such as /aʔ/, /ʔʔ/, /oʔ/,
/et/ and /ək/, and then an instrumental marker /ma/ is added forming a single unit such as /laʔma/, /liʔma/, /loʔma/, /letma/ and /ləkma/. The main verb is usually attached with these morphemes and the final verb gets inflected for tense and PNAgr markers. PNAgr is marked twice but tense is marked only once. The subject of the second verb also maintains its identity with the subject of the main verb; that is, the subject of the two actions or events such as ‘eating’ and ‘going’ is the same as shown in (39).

(39) a. *ŋa tfəm tfʰʔ-laʔkma e-ka-r-əŋ*

I food eat-CONV.1SG.INST FUT-come[down]-PRES.DIR[towards the Adr]-1SG

‘After eating food I will come’

b. *ete tfʰutʰ-e boan-laʔma dʒək-t-a?*

she sometime dance -CONV.3SG.INST stop-PST-3SG

‘After having danced for a while, she stopped’

c. *noŋ tfəm tfʰʔ-loʔma ɖəʔ-o*

you food eat-CONV.2SG.INST sleep-2SG

‘You sleep after having the food’
Also another converbal form such as /phumma/ which immediately follows the verb can function to denote interclausal relation in terms of expressing condition or reason such as in example (40).

(40)  ikdʒem ditni ph'ien phumma ate sokun-ŋacy ka-tu-m-aq

exams twice fail CONV.INST he school-LOC go[down]-ever-NEG-3SG

‘Having failed twice in exam, he doesn’t go to school anymore’

5.8  Adverbs and Types of Adverbs

Traditionally, adverbs are the modifiers of the verb or verb phrase. In short, adverbs qualify verbs. In Hawa Nokte, based on the structural composition, adverbs may be divided into two types such as (i) primary derived stems and (ii) secondary derived stems.

5.8.1  Structure of adverbs

(i)  Primary derived stems

These are the poly-morphemic stems consisting of two morphemes i.e. the first morpheme is bound whereas the second one is free morpheme.

(41)  a.  dəp-ni  ‘twice’

   b.  dəp-rəm  ‘thrice’

   c.  kɔ-ŋa  ‘front’

   d.  kɔ-di  ‘back’

(ii)  Secondary derived stems

Structures of adverbs, in some cases, are formed by suffixing duplicated bound morphemes such as rara, rietriet, riri, punpun, binbin, bəmləm, etc. to the word roots such as adjectives and nouns.
There are also other independent adverbs which are generally followed by an adverbializer or a case marker such as in (43). All locative noun phrases function as adverbials in sentences.

(43) a.  ke-ko  ‘by the side/near by’
     near LOC

b.  kʰen-ko  ‘below/under’
    below LOC

c.  tokdi-ko  ‘at the back’
     back LOC

These are the stems which are either partially or totally reduplicated primary derived stems as shown in (44). Very often reduplication serves as intensifier.

(44) a.  ḏəpdeŋ-ʈe  ‘sometimes’
     b.  ḏ슨-ʈəmtəm  ‘nicely’
     c.  ḏɾeɾe-ma  ‘slowly’
     d.  huʔhuʔ-ma  ‘quietly’
5.8.2 Types of adverbs

(i) Adverbs of manner

This adverb shows how or in what manner the event or action takes place. These adverbs are such as ʤọdọ ‘lazily’, əre-əe ‘slowly’, ʧeʧe ‘timidly’, kiʔkiʔ ‘silently’, kiat-kiat ‘closely’, ṣen-ʔəmtəm ‘nicely’, əkʰin-riɾi ‘clearly or brightly’, etc.

(45) a. ɲa ʧeʧe kʰoam-k-əŋ
   I timidly walk-PRES-1SG
   ‘I am walking timidly’

b. ram sen-ñoŋ əkʰin-riɾi veʔ-k-əŋ
   ram good-DEG clear-ADV read-PRES-3SG
   ‘Ram is reading clearly and nicely’

(ii) Adverb of times

This shows when the event or action takes place. In Hawa Nokte these adverbs are expressed by words such as ətʰu-heʔ or ətʰu-ko ‘now’, əma-ŋəŋ or kʰama-ŋəŋ ‘before’, maʔə ‘yesterday’, dzəŋ-dzə ‘previous day’, əma-me ‘already’, etc.

(46) a. ɲa ətʰuheʔ ɲap veʔ-k-əŋ
   I now book read-PRES-1SG
   ‘Now I am studying/reading book’

b. ɲa mədʒə kat-vaʔ?
   I yesterday come-PST
   ‘I came yesterday’
(iii) Adverbs of frequency

This adverb shows how regular or often event or action takes place. These adverbs are: roantan ‘always’, ədep-ədep ‘again and again’, əptə ‘once’, əpni ‘twice’, etc. Adverbs from cardinal numeral are formed by adding an affixes əp or hok, and when it occurs, the first syllable of the numeral is dropped. It can occur before the object as well as the subject in a construction i.e. there is no restriction.

(47) a. ɡa roantan kʰɑm ɪŋ-てくる-ɘŋ
   ‘I always wine habit-drink-1SG’
   ‘I drink wine/beer always’

b. ɡa tfɔm dəpni ɡa-ʧφaʔ-ʈ-ɘk
   ‘I food twice perf-eat-pst-1SG’
   ‘I had food twice’

(iv) Adverbs of place

This adverb show where the event or action takes place. In Haw Nokte, these adverbs are such as; ə-ko ‘here’, ɪ-ko ‘there’ i-ŋəŋ ‘there (distal)’, tʃən-tə-ŋəŋ ‘everywhere’ ədi-ŋəŋ ‘backward’, etc. They usually have demonstrative pronoun and interrogative pronoun followed by locative marker.

(48) a. ɪ-ko vəŋ-o
   DIST-LOC go[up]-2SG
   ‘(you) go there’

b. ə-ko ka-r-o
   PROX-LOC come[down]- PRES.DIR[towards the Sp]-2SG
   ‘(you) come here’
(v) Number adverbs

Number adverbs are formed by adding a morpheme *dəp* or *hok* in the preceding position of cardinal numbers where the morpheme replaces the first syllable of the numerals. Both the forms are bound morphemes having no independent stand. This is usually used in references to time.

(49) a. *dəp-təc* ‘once’
   b. *dəp-ni* ‘twice’
   c. *dəp-rəm* ‘thrice’
   d. *hok-rok* ‘six times’

The adverb usually occurs before the verbal root. However, they can be moved freely without harming the grammaticality of the sentence. It can occur before the nominal subject or in between the subject and the object or at the end of the sentence as shown (50). However, the normal or frequently used order of adverbs in the sentence is the one in (50a).

(50) a. *nəŋ tfəm rema tf*aʔ-o*
   you food ADV eat-2SG
   ‘You eat food slowly’

   b. *nəŋ tfəm tf*aʔ-o rema*
   you food eat-2SG ADV
   ‘You eat food slowly’

   c. *rema nəŋ tfəm tf*aʔ-o*
   ADV you food eat-2SG
   ‘Slowly you eat food’
d. ŋəŋ rema tfo m tf[a]-o
   you ADV food eat-2SG
   ‘You slowly eat the food’

5.9 Basic Word Order

The three universal word order types such as VSO, SVO, and SOV are generally based on the verb position in relation to the other properties like nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. Hawa Nokte is verb final language. It has SOV (subject-object-verb) structure. In order of occurrence, subject and objects always precede the verb as shown in (51).

(51) ńram-ма hu-ko vat-k-a
   ram-ERG dog-OBJ beat-PRES-3SG
   ‘Ram beats the dog’

In tune with other SOV languages, in Hawa Nokte also, the adjectives usually follow the nominals they modify as shown in (52). However, when focus is shifted then adjectives can also precede the nouns.

(52) ǝre tfʊŋpo tum -pa tfʊŋ-o
    this flower scent -DEF put-2SG
    ‘Put on this scented flower’

In noun phrase, when the adjective is introduced, then the definite or plural marker usually follows the adjective as shown in (53).

(53) a. ǝre mɨva sen -pa
    this man good -DEF
    ‘This good man’
b. *ire bʊŋ lo doŋ -he? ḍaʔ ka-o*

tree tall -PLM cut go[down]-2SG

‘(you) go and cut those long big trees’

The adjective also usually follows the standard comparison. For instance, in (55), morpheme /nome/ ‘than’ occurs in between the noun and the adjective. The compared objects come at the beginning of the sentence and adjective follows the comparative marker.

(54) a. *meri sita nome pʰawsen*

mary sita than beautiful

‘Mary is beautiful than Sita’

b. *delhi-pa kʰonsa nome əkʰam*

delhi-DEF khonsa than hot

‘Delhi is hotter than Khonsa’

Hawa Nokte follows postposition rather than preposition which thereby indicate case relationships. Case is morphologically marked on the nominals. In Hawa Nokte, the ergative and the instrumental case received same marker /ma/, accusative, locative and dative are marked by a morpheme /nǝŋ/, and associative is marked by /dǝmnǝŋ/. Genitive is left unmarked as in (55c).

(55) a. *ram-ma mohan-nọ́ŋ mityʰa-ма suʔ-t-a?*

ram-ERG mohan-ACC knife-INST pierce-PST-3SG

‘Ram pierced Mohan with knife’

b. *ram hum-nọ́ŋ sita-dǝmnǝŋ tọŋ-a*

ram house-LOC sita-ASSOC exist-AFP

‘Ram is in the house with Sita’
c. *meri hum*

mary house

‘Mary’s house’

In Hawa Nokte, the indirect object usually precedes the direct object. However, like in many Indo-Aryan and Dravidian languages, the indirect object and the direct object can be freely scrambled without disturbing the grammaticality of the sentence. The normal order is Subject(S) + Indirect Object (IO) + Direct Object (DO) + Verb (V). Among the scrambled sentences, the first two sentences (56) and (57) are more acceptable than the last two (58) and (59). Thus, this suggests that the movement of direct object (DO) from its normal position is not a natural process in Hawa Nokte.

Canonical:

(56) \textit{ram}'-ma mohan'\textsuperscript{-}nəŋ titap'\textsuperscript{-} ko?\textsuperscript{-}t-a? \\
ram-\textsc{erg} mohan-\textsc{dat} book give-\textsc{pst-3sg} \\
‘Ram gave a book to Mohan’

Scrambled-1:

(57) \textit{mohan}\textsuperscript{-}nəŋ \textit{ram}'-ma titap'\textsuperscript{-} ko?\textsuperscript{-}t-a? \\
mohan-\textsc{dat} ram-\textsc{erg} book give-\textsc{pst-3sg} \\
‘Ram gave a book to Mohan’

Scrambled-2:

(58) \textit{ram}'-ma titap'\textsuperscript{-} mohan'\textsuperscript{-}nəŋ ko?\textsuperscript{-}t-a? \\
ram-\textsc{erg} book mohan-\textsc{dat} give-\textsc{pst-3sg} \\
‘Ram gave a book to Mohan’
Scrambled-3:

(59)  *titap*³ *ram*-ma mohan*-nɔŋ koʔ-t-a?

book ram-ERG mohan-DAT give-PST-3SG

‘Ram gave a book to Mohan’

5.10  Summary

In Haw Nokte, there is no overt morphological marker to distinguish passive from active sentence. There is only change of position of NP₁ and NP₂ to show passive like construction. The reflexive form is directly attached to the pronoun. Reciprocal is expressed by morphological form. The two types of nominalization may be observed such as morphological and clausal nominalization. Causativization is achieved by use of the morphological causative form. No relative pronoun is found. The two possible relative clauses may be either pre-headed or internally-headed relative clause. The serial verbs constructions (SVCs) show the general trend as that of many other world languages. It has SOV word order. Case is morphological marked on the arguments which make the scrambling of the arguments possible without harming the sentence.