Notes on Anong, a New Language

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Through preliminary research and comparison, it has been found that the Anong language is quite different from the Nusu and Rouuo languages spoken by the Nu peoples in Bijiang and Lanping. However, it is similar to the Trung language. Therefore, I suggest that Anong and Trung should be classified as belonging to the Chingpo language branch of the Tibeto-Burman language family. In this paper, I will give a brief description of the phonology, morphology, and syntax of the Anong language as it is spoken in the Mugujia Township of Fugong County (Yunnan).

SOUND SYSTEM

I. Consonants

There are 64 consonants in the Anong language, 45 of which are simple consonants and the rest are consonant clusters.

1) Simple consonants:

- p  t  t  k  ?
- pʰ  tʰ  tʰ  kʰ
- b  d  ɖ  ɡ
- tˢ  tˢ  tʃ
- tʃʰ  tʃʰ  tʃʰ
- dz  dz  dz
- f  s  s  ś  x  h
- v  z  ʒ  ɣ
- m  n  ŋ  ŋ
- ŋ  ŋ
- Ʉ  Ʉ  Ʉ  Ʉ

1 The translator wishes to thank Graham Thurgood for his help with certain parts of the text.
Notes on the simple consonants:

1. Unaspirated voiceless stops and voiceless affricates have a relatively low frequency of occurrence. In some words, the voiced stops and affricates are in free variation with their voiceless counterparts.

2. The nasals m, n, ŋ, and ŋ all may be syllabic.

3. The palatals tʂ, tɕʰ, dʐ, and ɕ are articulated a little back in the mouth. The phonetic value is similar to that of c, ch, j, ŋ, and ɕ.

4. The phonetic value of the retroflex stops tʂ, tɕʰ, dʐ, and ŋ is similar to that of the palatals tɬ, tɬʰ, dɮ, and ŋ. In some words in speech, the retroflexes are in free variation with the non-retroflex stops t, tʰ, d, and n.

5. The phonetic value of the retroflex affricates tʃ, tʃʰ, dʒ, and ʒ is similar to that of the palatals tʃ, tʃʰ, dʒ, and ʒ. In some words in speech, the two retroflex sounds ʂ and ʐ are in free variation with s and z, respectively.

6. As an independent consonant, j is variable. Sometimes it is pronounced as z or z, and sometimes it assimilates to a following i.

7. The glottal stop ? occurs as both an independent consonant and in combination with other consonants in consonant clusters. The syllabic nasals m, n, ŋ, and ŋ are preceded by a glottal stop, but these are not treated as consonant clusters in this work [ʔm, ʔn, ʔŋ, and ʔŋ].

---

| p   | pi 31 | 'pen'    | ph | phi 35 du 55 | 'key' |
| b   | bu 31 | 'snake'  | ng | ngi 35 gi 31 | 'start; begin' |
| m   | mi 55 | 'hemp'   | f  | fau 31       | 'lock' |
| v   | vi 55 ka 31 | 'bottle' | ts | tsi 55       | 'crime; sin' |
| tʂ  | tʂi 55 | 'rain'   | dz | da 35 dʑ 31 | 'hot pepper' |
| s   | si 31 di 55 | 'true; real' | z  | zn 53       | 'ask' |
| t   | ti 53 | 'half'   | th | thi 55       | 'one' |
| d   | di 55 ba 35 | 'spider' | ŋ  | go 31 iuŋ 55 | 'stay; remain' |
| n   | nen 55 | 'goods'  | ŋ  | ŋau 53       | 'seek; look for' |
| l   | lim 53 | 'bury'   | t  | tɿ 31 lu 53  | 'compensate' |
| tɭ  | tɭi 31 maŋ 31 | 'old' | dɭ | dɭm 55       | 'kick' |
| ŋ   | gu 31 ŋi 55 | 'kneel' | l  | tɭi 31 li 31 | 'return (money)' |
| tʂ  | pau 31 tʂi 55 | 'newspaper' | tʂʰ | tʂʰi 31     | 'fart' |
| dʐ  | dʐi 31 | 'swell'  | ŋ  | ŋa 55 ŋi 31 | 'urine' |
| ʂ   | ʂi 55 | 'be'     | j  | jɿ 31 ŋɿ 55 | 'mountain' |
2) Consonant clusters: Consonant clusters can be divided into three categories. The first category is formed by prefixing a glottal stop to the voiced nasals, voiced laterals, voiced stops, and voiced affricates; the ten clusters in this category are ?b, ?d, ?d, ?g, ?dz, ?f, ?m, ?n, ?η, and ?η. The second category includes clusters of bilabials, labio-dentals, velar stops, fricatives, and nasals combined with the semi-vowel ?; the nine clusters in this second category are pr, ph, br, ml, fr, nr, chr, gr, and xr. The third category consists of a single three-part consonant cluster: ?br.

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
?b & a 31 ?ban 55 \text{ 'a bamboo species'} \\
?d & ?dem 55 \text{ 'on credit'} \\
?d & ?da? 55 \text{ 'crawl'} \\
?g & ?gam 55 \text{ 'remember by cutting notches on wood'} \\
?dz & ?dzn 55 e 31 \text{ 'defecate'} \\
?dz & ?dzw 55 ?m 31 \text{ 'bite'} \\
?m & tch 55 ?mun 31 \text{ 'daughter'} \\
?n & a 31 ?na 31 \text{ 'dye'} \\
?η & a 31 ?ne 35 \text{ 'apply'} \\
?η & ?nα 31 ?e 31 \text{ 'ruminate'} \\
pr & prum m 55 no 31 \text{ 'untie'} \\
phr & a 31 phri 31 \text{ 'ancestor'} \\
br & br 53 \text{ 'four'} \\
ml & a 31 murh 55 \text{ 'angry'} \\
fr & da 31 frri 55 \text{ 'turtledove'} \\
vr & a 31 vrri 55 \text{ 'rope bridge support'} \\
khri & khrri 53 \text{ 'sweet'} \\
gr & de 31 grri 55 \text{ 'dog'} \\
xr & xrum 53 \text{ 'sift'}
\end{array}
\]
II. Finals (vowels):

There are altogether 77 finals. Ten of them are simple vowels, sixteen of them are diphthongs, four syllabic nasals, and forty-seven finals with consonant endings.

1. The simple vowel finals are: /i, e, e, a, o, u, w, y, and 1/. The following are notes on these vowels:

   1) The position of the tongue for /e/ is a little low, and its phonetic value is close to that of /E/. The phonetic value of /e/ is close to that of /æ/.

   2) The phonetic value of /a/ is actually the same as that of /A/. When it occurs before /n/ and /i/ in word final position, its phonetic value is close to that of /a/.

   3) The phonetic value of /u/ remains unchanged when it occurs after nasals such as /m, n, ŋ/ etc. But, when it occurs after bilabial stops its phonetic value is close to that of /u/. It is labialized after the other consonants, assuming a phonetic value similar to that of /y/.

   4) The phonetic value of /w/ is in fact the same as that of /a/ when it occurs in loan words from Chinese. It can be pronounced as /i/ after retroflex consonants.

   5) In speech, /i/ is often deleted after /fi/, and /u/ is often deleted after /ŋ/.

   6) The alveolar vowel /l/ becomes /l/ after retroflex consonants.

   7) In prefixes, vowels are weak and indistinct.

   1     phi 35 du 55   'key'
e     tsbe 53        'deer'
e     php 55          'deceive'
a     pha 53          'belly'
o     cə 55           'hundred'
0     pho 31 lo 53   'roll'
u     phu 55          'silver'
w     phw 55 ŋam 53   'wild pig'
y     tchhy 55 ŋin 53 'extinguish'
l     dzi 55          'walk'
2. Four syllabic nasals occur:

\[ \begin{array}{ll}
\text{m} & \text{m 31} \\
\text{n} & \text{n 31 n 55} \\
\text{ŋ} & \text{ŋ 31 na 31} \\
\text{ŋ} & \text{ŋ 31 ŋin 55}
\end{array} \]

'no; not'
'brew (wine)'
'domestic animal; livestock'
'claw; paw'

3. Diphthongs are divided into three types. The first type is formed with /i/, /u/, or /y/ as the first element; these occur mainly in native words: /ie, ie, ia, io, iu, iu, ui, ue, uə, uə, ye/. The second type is the two diphthongs beginning with /a/: /ai, au/. The third type is the triphthongs /iau/ and /ua/.

\[ \begin{array}{llll}
ie & u 55 ie 31 & 'member' & ie & a 31 t sbie 55 & 'free; idle' \\
iə & a 31 iə 55 & 'k. of wasp/beetle' & io & tsu 55 io 35 & 'main; major' \\
io & io 31 mun 55 & 'cloud' & io & liu 35 & 'doubt' \\
iu & iu 31 & 'army' & iu & dzui 55 & 'pair; couple' \\
ie & kue 55 t.əy 31 & 'rule; custom' & ue & kue 35 pbe 35 & 'national flag' \\
tua & nua 55 & 'fish' & ye & muu 55 xye 31 & 'tender maize' \\
aia & xo 55 t sbai 31 & 'match' & au & au 31 ma 31 & 'aunt' \\
iuai & p biau 35 & 'ticket' & uai & k buai 35 t ci 35 & 'accountant'
\end{array} \]

4. Final consonants. Five consonants occur in final position: /m, n, ŋ, ņ, ŋ/. The following table illustrates the vowel plus final combinations.

\[
\text{vowels} \quad i \quad e \quad a \quad o \quad u \quad i \quad e \quad a \quad o \quad i \quad o \quad i \quad u \quad i \quad u \quad a\text{ua}
\]
\[
\text{finals} \quad \text{\textbackslash} \\
-m & x & x & x & x & x & x & x & x & \text{x} \\
-n & x & x & x & x & x & x & x & \text{x} \\
-ŋ & x & \text{x} & \text{x} \\
-ŋ & x & x & x & x & x & x & x & \text{x} \\
-ʔ & x & x & x & x & x & x & x & x & x
\]

Notes on final consonant endings:

1) /ŋ/ is often deleted in speech, and the preceding vowel is usually nasalized.
2) /n/ is very often the result of the coalescence of two syllables i.e., it becomes a part of the preceding syllable when the vowel following the /n/ is deleted.

3) /1/ sometimes occurs in word final position in speech but it is infrequent and unstable. Sometimes it is pronounced as a retroflex vowel and sometimes it is deleted. Therefore, it is not included in my description of consonants occurring in word final position.

4) The glottal stop is unstable. It seems to be disappearing. In some words it is manifested as tension on the vowel, while in others it is simply deleted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>im</th>
<th>lim 53</th>
<th>'bury'</th>
<th>em</th>
<th>a 31 nem 55</th>
<th>'should'</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>em</td>
<td>ñem 31</td>
<td>'knife'</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>kham 53</td>
<td>'ladle out'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>om</td>
<td>a 31 som 53</td>
<td>'three'</td>
<td>om</td>
<td>dzom 31</td>
<td>'hold steady'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>um</td>
<td>rum 55</td>
<td>'forge iron'</td>
<td>um</td>
<td>fi 55 rum 31</td>
<td>'heart'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>im</td>
<td>ba 31 sim 53</td>
<td>'flies'</td>
<td>uam</td>
<td>uam 31 ru 55</td>
<td>'flaxen thread'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iam</td>
<td>?am 55</td>
<td>'needle'</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>fin 55</td>
<td>'nail, finger-'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en</td>
<td>ven 35</td>
<td>'buy'</td>
<td>an</td>
<td>jan 55</td>
<td>'weave (cloth)'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>en</td>
<td>cuñ 55 ton 55</td>
<td>'timber; wood'</td>
<td>um</td>
<td>a 31 kbum 55</td>
<td>'cough'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>zin 53</td>
<td>'ask'</td>
<td>ien</td>
<td>ien 55 tci 31 e 31</td>
<td>'escape'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uen</td>
<td>suen 55 tshu 35</td>
<td>'vinegar'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inñ</td>
<td>sññ 31</td>
<td>'wipe; rub'</td>
<td>inñ</td>
<td>sññ 35</td>
<td>'seven'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ññ</td>
<td>kññ 55 nuñ 31</td>
<td>'peel'</td>
<td>enñ</td>
<td>i 31 fen 55</td>
<td>'one part'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ññ</td>
<td>beñ 55</td>
<td>'plate'</td>
<td>anñ</td>
<td>sanñ 55</td>
<td>'daughter-in-law'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ññ</td>
<td>pññ 31</td>
<td>'five'</td>
<td>ññ</td>
<td>ññ 55</td>
<td>'wear (hat)'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ññ</td>
<td>nuñ 55 ñuñ 31</td>
<td>'cattle'</td>
<td>umñ</td>
<td>buññ 31</td>
<td>'name'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ññ</td>
<td>a 31 iññ 31</td>
<td>'sheep'</td>
<td>iññ</td>
<td>iññ 31</td>
<td>'once; used to'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ññ</td>
<td>pññ 31 iññ 53</td>
<td>'ghost; gods'</td>
<td>iññ</td>
<td>a 31 iññ 31</td>
<td>'drool'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ññ</td>
<td>ññ 31 uññ 55</td>
<td>'remain'</td>
<td>uññ</td>
<td>xuanñ 53</td>
<td>'circle; hover'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tciñ</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>'unit of weight (= 50 kilos)'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enñ</td>
<td>dzññ 55</td>
<td>'a drop (clf.)'</td>
<td>a?</td>
<td>kññ 55</td>
<td>'chicken'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ññ</td>
<td>vi 55 koñ 31</td>
<td>'cup'</td>
<td>o?</td>
<td>pññ 35</td>
<td>'change'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uññ</td>
<td>kññ 55 luññ 53</td>
<td>'which one'</td>
<td>uññ</td>
<td>buññ 31 nunñ 55</td>
<td>'snail'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
III. Tones.

There are four tones: high level 55, high falling 53, low falling 31, and high rising 35. There is also an unstable mid-level tone which becomes a high-level tone when influenced by low-falling and high-rising tones, and becomes a low-falling tone when influenced by high-falling and high-level tones. Thus, in my description this mid-level tone has been treated as an environmentally-conditioned variant of other tones. The high-level and low-falling tones have a higher frequency than the other two tones. Tones carry a low functional load in terms of differentiating meaning.

1) the high-level tone:  xe 55 'basket',
                        kʰi 55 'pocket'
2) the high-falling tone: şa 53 'wild animal',
                         kʰi 53 'sweet'
3) the low-falling tone:  xe 31 'silver',
                        da 31 kʰi 31 'paint'
4) the high-rising tone: xe 35 'foot',
                  lii 55 tshí 35 'green'

IV. Syllables.

A syllable is usually composed of an initial, a final, and a tone, although some syllables consist of a final and a tone without an initial. Syllables consist of from one to five phonemes. The syllable canon is illustrated below, using C for consonant, and V for vowel; all the syllables have a tone.

1) C      m 31  'no; not'
       g 31 tham 55  'notebook'
2) V      a 31  'back load (clf.)'
       e 31  'declarative particle'
3) VV     iu 31  'seed'
4) VVV    iau 55 tshù 31  'demand'
       uai 31 kue 31  'foreign country'
5) CV     be 55  'white'
       pšu 55  'silver'
6) CVV    a 31 xua 35  'go mad'
       liu 35  'doubt'
7) CVVV   pšiau 35  'ticket'
       tšiau 55 kʰe 31  'carve'
Among the fourteen types of syllables illustrated above, numbers 2, 3, 5, 6, 11, 12, and 13 have the highest frequencies. Number 10 has a very low frequency, and numbers 4 and 7 only occur in loan words from Chinese.

**Lexicon**

1. General characteristics.

Although Anong is a monosyllabic language, it doesn't have an overwhelmingly large number of monosyllabic words in its lexicon, due to the fact that most of the vocabulary occurs with either a prefix or a suffix.

The natural environments of the area inhabited by the Nu nationality has an influence over the composition of the vocabulary of the Anong language. It has a particularly rich vocabulary for certain things. For example, the Nujiang district has a wide variety of types of bamboo because of its tropical climate. As a result, several dozen names for distinct species of bamboo can be found in Anong:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anong</th>
<th>Mandarin equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tha 31 ua 55</td>
<td>‘lóngzhú’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thi 31 zi 31</td>
<td>‘téngzhú’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a 31 tšhin 55</td>
<td>‘shíxīnzhú’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tšhi 31 nəŋ 31</td>
<td>‘xiàngzhú’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a 31 yuŋ 55</td>
<td>‘dúzhú’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thi 31 ma 31</td>
<td>‘shānzú’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In addition, there are quite a number of others without Mandarin equivalents: si 55 men 31, si 31 ven 55, a 31 lu 31, a 31 ?ben 55, ma 31 ŋəm 55, a 31 de 31, a 31 ŋu 55, a 31 va 55, etc.

Another good example is the rich vocabulary for fishing equipment, fishing methods, and various species of fish. This is because the Anong live on the banks of the Nujiang river, and fishing is a major interest of theirs.

Anong has a large number of nouns and verbs that have the same form:

ven 55 'flower; to flower'
şi 55 'fruit; to bear fruit'
in 55 'sweat; to sweat'
ți 55 'shit; to shit'
maŋ 55 'dream; to dream'
lım 31 'egg; to lay an egg'
țiım 55 'knot; to tie a knot'

II. Composition of the vocabulary.

The vocabulary of Anong can be divided into native vocabulary and loan words. The majority of the words are of Tibeto-Burman origin, as is illustrated by the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anong</th>
<th>Tibetan</th>
<th>Qiang</th>
<th>Yi</th>
<th>Burmese</th>
<th>Trung</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'dog'</td>
<td>de 31-</td>
<td>khji</td>
<td>khue 55</td>
<td>khui 33</td>
<td>khwe 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>_pri 55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'firewood'</td>
<td>si 55</td>
<td>ŋiŋ</td>
<td>sie 55</td>
<td>si 33</td>
<td>thi 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'black'</td>
<td>ńi 31-</td>
<td>nagpo</td>
<td>ŋi 55-</td>
<td>a 44-</td>
<td>ne 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>xa 55 naŋ 55</td>
<td></td>
<td>ŋi 31</td>
<td>no 33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'new'</td>
<td>ʔo 31 sæ 55</td>
<td>gsarpo</td>
<td>tshi 55</td>
<td>a 33-</td>
<td>tñi 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ɕi 55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'three'</td>
<td>a 31-</td>
<td>gsum</td>
<td>tshi 55</td>
<td>so 33</td>
<td>tñi 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>som 53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'fish'</td>
<td>ŋua 55</td>
<td>ŋa</td>
<td>dźi 55</td>
<td>hu 33</td>
<td>ŋa 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'stone'</td>
<td>luŋ 55</td>
<td>rdo</td>
<td>xo 241</td>
<td>(y) 33-</td>
<td>tçau 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ma 55</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'gall'</td>
<td>ŋ 31 da 31-</td>
<td>mkhrispa</td>
<td>xtšə 55</td>
<td>tći 33</td>
<td>tœe 55-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
bladder' khui 53
tshe 31
'heart' ńi 55 sñiŋ xtie 55- he 22- go 53- jwu 31-
rum 31 mæ 55 ma 55 lo 55 mʊ 55
'moon' si 31- zlab a 3y 33- lo 21- la 53 su 31-
læ 55 gya 55 bo 21 la 55
'nine' dwi 31- dgu xguə 33 gu 33 ko 55 du 31-
gw 31
'steal' khui 55 rku xkə 55 khu 21 kho 55 kw 55

The preliminary statistics, although rough, show that a high percentage of the vocabulary in Anong is shared with the languages of the Yi and Jingpo groups: 14.8% with Yi, 16.1% with Lisu, 18.5% with Jingpo, and 33.2% with Trung with only small percentages from other languages. In addition to shared native vocabulary, Anong also has some vocabulary unique to itself used to describe Anong life, habits, and local surroundings.

The loan words have multiple origins but are mainly from Mandarin Chinese and Lisu. These represent some 25% of the words analyzed. In addition, there are a few loans from Bai, from Burmese, and from Tibetan.

The Chinese borrowings can be divided into two categories: those borrowed at an early stage, which have already been phonetically assimilated, and those borrowed after liberation (1949), which still retain the Chinese pronunciation.

Examples of the first category:

lo 55 tsw 55 luózi 'mule' da 31 mo 55 màozi 'hat'
tsho 55 cong 'onion' tshu 31 te 55 jǐándāo 'scissors'
so 55 thu 31 suǒ 'lock' lo 35 tso 31 zào 'kitchen'

Examples of the second category:

tshau 35 fan 53 zhàofăn 'rebel' ɔn 35 fo 31 xiànffà 'constitution'
khuai 35 τɛi 35 kuaïji 'accountant' tsi 35 iu 31 zîyoú 'freedom'
the 35 phų 31 tàipîng 'peace' nu 55 li 31 nǔli 'try hard'

In the last few centuries a lot of intermarriage has occurred between the Nu and the Lisu nationalities, which has resulted in a considerable number of borrowings from Lisu in the Nu languages. In fact, the total number of loan
words from Lisu is about the same as that from Chinese. These loan words are usually of a cultural or religious nature. Examine the following examples:

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{ši} & 55 \text{ gwi} \ 31 \quad \text{‘celebrate’} \\
\text{phe} & 35 \quad \text{‘flag’} \\
\text{ñe} & 55 \text{ tshi} \ 31 \quad \text{‘medicine’} \\
\text{tsho} & 55 \text{ dzi} \ 31 \quad \text{‘photograph’} \\
\text{la} & 31 \text{ tha} \ 55 \quad \text{‘mill’} \\
\text{mu} & 31 \text{ gua} \ 31 \text{ gua} \ 55 \quad \text{‘sing’} \\
\text{kho} & 31 \text{ ši} \ 31 \quad \text{‘observe festival’} \\
\text{tuw} & 55 \text{ ši} \quad \text{‘folksong’} \\
\text{suw} & 55 \text{ ši} \ 31 \quad \text{‘culture’}
\end{array}
\]

III. Word formation.

The word formation may be derivational, compounding, and two- or four-syllable reduplication.

1. Derivation is mainly through the addition of prefixes. This is very productive in Anong. Anong is very rich in prefixes (or, as they also may be termed, reduced syllables). The prefixes only contain simple vowels without finals. The following prefixes are of relatively high frequency.

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{phu} & 31 \quad \text{‘tongue’} \\
\text{phu} & 31 \text{ la} \ 55 \quad \text{‘poison’} \\
\text{phu} & 31 \text{ ie} \ 31 \quad \text{‘extinguish’} \\
\text{bu} & 31 \quad \text{‘liver’} \\
\text{bu} & 31 \text{ luŋ} \ 55 \quad \text{‘insect’} \\
\text{bu} & 31 \text{ saŋ} \ 55 \quad \text{‘itch’} \\
\text{mu} & 31 \quad \text{‘chin’} \\
\text{mu} & 31 \text{ ſi} \ 31 \quad \text{‘cat’} \\
\text{mu} & 31 \text{ kham} \quad \text{‘bacteria’} \\
\text{še} & 31 \quad \text{‘girl’} \\
\text{še} & 31 \text{ laŋ} \ 55 \text{ za} \ 55 \quad \text{‘salt’} \\
\text{še} & 31 \text{ laŋ} \ 55 \quad \text{‘moon’} \\
\text{še} & 31 \quad \text{‘quilt’} \\
\text{še} & 31 \text{ ru} \ 55 \quad \text{‘pine tree’} \\
\text{še} & 31 \text{ tšho} \ 55 \quad \text{‘pear’} \\
\text{du} & 31 \quad \text{‘nine’} \\
\text{du} & 31 \text{ be} \ 55 \quad \text{‘goiter’} \\
\text{du} & 31 \text{ gu} \ 31 \quad \text{‘pulse’} \\
\text{ru} & 31 \quad \text{‘mountain’} \\
\text{ru} & 31 \text{ luŋ} \ 35 \quad \text{‘string of pearls’}
\end{array}
\]
In addition to these nine frequently used ones, there are some infrequently used ones, such as pu 31, tshi 31, zi 31, fi 31, tw 31, thw 31, du 31, kw 31, khw 31, gw 31, etc.

Words formed by adding suffixes can also be found occasionally, but there are far fewer suffixes than prefixes. The commonly used suffixes follow below:

1) su 55 is used to form words designating persons engaged in a certain profession or activity.

   a 31 tshun 31 su 55  'shepherd'  khw 55 su 55  'thief'
   si 31 lam 55 su 55  'teacher'

2) kha 55 is used to form words designating locations:

   ma 55 su 31 kha 55  'front'  lu 55 lu 35 kha 55  'opposite'
   i 55 kha 55  'lower reaches; backwards'

3) e 55 is used to form certain adjectives:

   aŋ 55 go 31 e 55  'strange'  ŋuŋ 31 e 55  'deep'
   ḳaŋ 55 e 31  'black'

4) za 55 is used to form words designating a group of people of a certain age range:

   di 31 tshaŋ 31 za 55  'young fellow'  tsha 31 ma 55 za 55  'girl'
   si 31 laŋ 55 za 55  'young married woman'

2. Compounding is the principal means of enriching the vocabulary. Compounds in Anong can be classified into the following types according to the relationships between roots that form the compounds.
1) Coordinate compounds:
\[ a 31 \text{ phu} 31 \ 'father' + a 31 \text{ mu} 31 \ 'mother' \Rightarrow \]
\[ a 31 \text{ phu} 31 a 31 \text{ mu} 31 \ 'parents' \]
\[ o 55 \text{ pha} 31 \ 'uncle' + o 55 \text{ ma} 31 \ 'aunt' \Rightarrow \]
\[ o 55 \text{ pha} 31 o 55 \text{ ma} 31 \ 'aunt and uncle' \]

2) Modifier-modified or modified-modifier compounds:
   a) modified + modifier:
   \[ la 31 * \text{ tca} 55 \ 'tea' + \text{ phum} 55 \ 'round' \Rightarrow la 31 \text{ tca} 55 \text{ phum} 55 \]
   \[ \ 'bowl-shaped compressed mass of tea leaves' \]
   \[ luŋ 55 \ 'stone' + su 55 \ 'sharpen' \Rightarrow luŋ 55 su 55 \ 'whetstone' \]
   b) modifier + modified:
   \[ ca 31 ra 31 * \text{ buŋ} 55 \ 'string' \Rightarrow ca 31 ra 31 buŋ 55 \ 'noodle' \]
   \[ khen 55 \ 'vegetable' + tʃi 31 \ 'juice' \Rightarrow khen 55 tʃi 31 \ 'vegetable soup' \]

3) Supplemental compounds:
   \[ suŋ 55 \ 'firewood' + thon 55 \ 'section' \Rightarrow suŋ 55 thon 55 \ 'wood' \]
   \[ si 55 \ 'tree' + dzwŋ 55 \ 'plant (clf.)' \Rightarrow si 55 dzwŋ 55 \ 'tree' \]

4) Governing-governed compounds:
   \[ la 31 \ 'hand' + tʃuŋ 55 \ 'hoop' \Rightarrow la 31 tʃuŋ 55 \ 'bracelet' \]
   \[ la 31 phuŋ 55 \ 'head' + xuaŋ 55 \ 'wrap' \Rightarrow la 31 phuŋ 55 xuaŋ 55 \ 'scarf' \]

5) Predicative compounds:
   \[ a 31 xe 35 \ 'foot' + di 31 ga 31 \ 'lame' \Rightarrow a 31 xe 35 di 31 ga 31 \ 'cripple' \]
   \[ a 31 na 31 \ 'ear' + bu 31 dw 55 \ 'deaf' \Rightarrow a 31 na 31 bu 31 dw 55 \ 'deaf person' \]

3. Four character reduplication. This kind of compound falls into the following subtypes according to the pattern of reduplication.
1) AABB: maŋ 55 maŋ 55 fhim 31 fhim 31 \ 'full of bumps and hollows'
   pha 55 pha 55 laŋ 31 laŋ 31 \ 'flat-shaped'
2) ABAB: ba 31 tʃha 55 ba 31 tʃha 55 \ 'whisper'
   kha 55 meŋ 55 kha 55 meŋ 55 \ 'sound of whispering in a soft voice'
3) ABAC: ka 31 tʃaŋ 35 ka 31 phaŋ 35 \ 'from top to bottom'
   tʃi 31 fii 55 tʃi 31 bo 55 \ 'from north to south'
4) ABCB: kha 55 gam 55 ma 31 gam 55 \ 'sound of groaning in pain'
   khu 55 doŋ 55 iɛ 55 doŋ 55 \ 'sway back and forth'

4. Two character reduplication. Although this type is not productive, it is often found in the language.

Nouns: tʃuŋ 55 tʃuŋ 55 \ 'jug'  Adjectives: sin 55 sin 55 \ 'smooth'
Grammar

1. Parts of Speech

The words in Anong are divided into eleven parts of speech according to their meanings, forms, and functions in sentences. The eleven parts of speech are nouns, numerals, classifiers, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions, mood markers, interjections, and auxiliaries.

1) Nouns have the following grammatical properties:

(1) Nouns can be followed by the auxiliaries zi 31 ᵃw 31 or mw 53, which mark plurality. These two auxiliaries have the same grammatical function. Both can be used after animate nouns. The only difference is that mw 53 can also be used after inanimate nouns.

| a 31 tshaŋ 31 | 'person' | ta 55 tsha 55 | 'friend' |
| a 31 tshaŋ 31 zi 31 ᵃw 31 | 'people' | ta 55 tsha 55 zi 31 ᵃw 31 | 'friends' |
| a 31 tshaŋ 31 mw 53 | 'people' | ta 55 tsha 55 mw 53 | 'friends' |
| a 31 be 55 | 'goat' | ᵃw 55 | 'fish' |
| a 31 be 55 zi 31 ᵃw 31 | 'goats' | ᵃw 55 zi 31 ᵃw 31 | 'fish' |
| a 31 be 55 mw 53 | 'goats' | ᵃw 55 mw 53 | 'fish' |
| si 55 dzwŋ 55 | 'tree' | tshim 31 | 'house' |
| si 55 dzwŋ 55 mw 53 | 'trees' | tshim 31 mw 53 | 'houses' |

(2) Nouns can be prefixed to denote possession. a 31 is used for first person, ᵃw 31 is used for the second person, and ᵆ is used for the third person.

| first person | second person | third person |
| a 31 phu 31 'my father' | ᵃw 31 phu 31 'your father' | ᵆ phu 31 'his father' |
| a 31 mu 31 'my mother' | ᵃw 31 mu 31 'your mother' | ᵆ mu 31 'his mother' |
| a 31 khaŋ 31 'my gf' | ᵃw 31 khaŋ 31 'your gf' | ᵆ khaŋ 31 'his gf' |
| a 31 tshi 31 'my gm' | ᵃw 31 tshi 31 'your gm' | ᵆ tshi 31 'his gm' |
This kind of prefix is actually the reduced form of the singular personal possessive pronouns, which are usually added to the appellations for one's relatives. It can be used with only a limited number of exceptions. After adding this prefix to the appellation for one's relatives, one can still use personal pronouns or possessive pronouns before the combination during appellation.

After the combination

no 31 kin 31 to 55 or 31, then 31
1126 31 and 55 or 31

no 31 kin 31 to 55 or 31, then 31
1126 31 and 55 or 31

you and

you

you

you

you

you

...
The rule governing the use of the auxiliary word ɹ31 is as follows: it is not used from ten through twenty; it is optional from twenty through ninety-nine; above a hundred, it has to be used between two 'places'.

(2) Approximate numbers can be expressed in a number of ways.
   a) By combining two adjacent numbers and putting the marker ɹan 31 after the combination:

   phaŋ 31 io? 55 kun 55 io? 55 ɹan 31
      5     clf. 6    clf. ɹan 31
   'five or six people'

   a 31 ḡ 55 tsha 55 a 31 som 53 tsha 55 io? 55 ɹan 31
      2     10 3     10    clf. ɹan 31
   'twenty or thirty people'

   thi 31 tsha 55 a 31 som 53 io? 55 bui 31 io? 55 ɹan 31
      1     10 3     4     clf. ɹan 31
   'thirteen or fourteen people'

   b) By using the marker ɹan 55 or the prefix ḡ 31 to mean 'several, a few, some'.

   ɹan 55 io? 55    'several'
   ɹan 55 tsha 55    'several dozen'    ḡ 31 tsha 55    'several dozen'
   ɹan 55 ca 55    'several hundred'    ḡ 31 ca 55    'several hundred'

   c) By putting ka 31 than 55 after specific numbers to express 'more than; over'.

   thi 31 tsha 55 ka 31 than 55 io? 55    'more than ten'
   thi 31 ca 55 ka 31 than 55 io? 55    'more than one hundred'
   a 31 som 53 tsha 55 ka 31 than 55 io? 55    'more than thirty'

(3) Fractions. Fractions are expressed by numerical phrases connected by an auxiliary word.

   som 53 thu 55 ɹan 31 kho 31 thi 31 thu 55
      3    part aux. 1    part    'one-third'
phọŋ 31 thu 55 don 31 kha 31 a 31 ŋ 55 thu 55
5 part aux. 2 part 'two-fifths'

(4) Multiples are expressed by putting kha 55 after the specific number.

thi 31 kha 55 'once' phọŋ 31 kha 55 'five times'
thi 31 ca 55 kha 55 'a hundred times'

Sometimes multiples are expressed in Lisu.

thi 31 fu 55 'once' phọŋ 31 fu 55 'five times'
thi 31 ca 55 fu 55 'a hundred times'

(5) Ordinals are formed by putting ku 31 phọŋ 55 or ŋ 55 phọŋ 55 before a numeral.

ku 31 phọŋ 55 thi 55 'first'
kuk 31 phọŋ 55 a 31 som 53 'third'
kuk 31 phọŋ 55 thi 31 tsha 55 'tenth'
kuk 31 phọŋ 55 thi 31 ca 55 'hundredth'

Ordinals for dates are formed by putting si 31 la 55 'month' before the numeral.

si 31 la 55 thi 55 ŋi 31 'first day of the month'
si 31 la 55 a 31 som 53 ŋi 31 'third day of the month'
si 31 la 55 ca 55 ŋi 31 'eighth day of the month'
si 31 la 55 thi 31 tsha 55 phọŋ 31 ŋi 31 'fifteenth day of the month'

3) classifiers. The Anong language is rich in classifiers, which fall into two categories.
(1) Nominal classifiers. This category can be further subdivided into quite a number of subcategories according to their characteristics and the environment in which they are used.

a) Classifiers describing the shape of objects: log 55 'clif for round objects', laŋ 31 'sheets, thin slices', tham 55 'sheets, layers', buŋ 55 'long narrow soft strips or pieces', kho 55 'long narrow pieces'
b) Classifiers for units of weight and measurement:

thon 55 'armspread, span'
bwu 31 tha 55 'handspan i.e., thumb and middle finger'
lun 55 'weight (50 grams)'
gam 55 'weight (100 grams)'
dun 55 'measure for grain (1 decaliter)'
phen 55 'measure for grain (1 liter)'
chun 55 'weight (1/2 gram)'

c) Classifiers for time:

ñum 55 'year'
ñe 31 'day'
sañ 31 'morning'
di 31 tshum 55 'generation'
ian 55 'night, evening'

d) Classifiers for abstract concepts:

tshi 31 'things, goods'
ian 31 'matter'
ñu 31 'unit e.g., work unit'
thi 31 za 31 'problem, question'

e) Classifiers for collectives:

zi 31 'crowd'
khaj 35 'clump'
dzui 55 'pair'
za 55 'group'
m 31 ciñ 55 'bunch'
ba 31 muñ 53 'some; few'

Classifiers have the following properties:

1) Can be reduplicated to mean 'in turn' or 'one by one':

thi 55 ioñ 55 ioñ 55 'one by one'
thi 55 dzuiñ 55 dzuiñ 55 'plant by plant'
thi 55 ñe 31 ñe 31 'day by day'
thi 55 bumñ 31 bumñ 31 'pile by pile'

2) Can be preceded by khañ 55 and followed by nui 31 guñ 55 to mean 'each; every':

khañ 31 ioñ 55 nui 31 guñ 55 'each person'
khañ 31 iñ 31 nui 31 guñ 55 'each night'
khañ 31 dzuiñ 55 nui 31 guñ 55 'each plant'
kho 31 lớn 55 nwf 31 gw 55 'each piece'

3) Can use the noun itself as a classifier:

ñî 55 thi 55 ñî 55 'eye one eye'

eye one eye

phan 55 thi 55 phan 55 'leg one leg'

leg one leg

vên 55 thi 55 vên 55 'flower one flower'

flower one flower

çém 55 thi 55 çém 55 'tree leaf one tree leaf'

leaf one leaf

2. There are a limited number of verbal classifiers: đâñ 31 'ci', đâm 55 'xìa', so 31 'hủ, bían', zi 31 'jiào', bôm 31 'đườn'.

IV. PRONOUNS

Pronouns can be divided into five categories: personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, interrogative pronouns, reflexive pronouns, and indefinite pronouns.

1. Personal pronouns. Personal pronouns can be further divided into first, second, and third persons. In terms of number, there are singular, dual, and plural. The first person dual and plural have inclusive and exclusive forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>dual</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>first</td>
<td>ŋa 55</td>
<td>ŋa 55 Tất 55 s1 31</td>
<td>ŋa 55 Tất 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td>or a 31 to 31</td>
<td>a 31 Tất 55 s1 31</td>
<td>(ŋe 31 và 35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>---</td>
<td>a 31 Tất 55 s1 31</td>
<td>a 31 Tất 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>second</td>
<td>ŋa 55</td>
<td>ŋe 31 Tất 55 s1 31</td>
<td>Tất 31 Tất 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>third</td>
<td>ŋ 55</td>
<td>ŋ 55 Tất 55 s1 31</td>
<td>Tất 55 Tất 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. Demonstrative pronouns. There are two types of demonstrative pronouns, one type referring to something close by and the other to something further away. To refer to something close by 當 55 is used; it has two pronunciation variants: 當 55 and 當 31. To refer to something further away, khu 55 is used. To refer to something above, 當 55 is used. To refer to something below, 當 55 is used. khu 55 is used to refer to something on the same level from the speaker's viewpoint.

ia 55 bam 31 nuq 31 a 55 a 31 io 31 kha 31 ia 55,  
this clf. aux. I aux. be

'this one is mine,

khu 55 bam 31 nuq 31 a 55 na 31 kha 31 ie 55.  
that clf. aux. you aux. be.

...that one is yours'

 childcare 55 bam 31 nuq 31 a 55 a 31 khan 31 kha 31 ie 55,  
that-above clf. aux. grandfather aux. be,  
'the one below is grandfather's,

na 55 bam 31 nuq 31 a 55 a 55 ben 31 kha 31 ie 55,  
that-below clf. aux. maternal uncle aux. be,  
...the one above is uncle's

3. Interrogative pronouns. Different referents require different interrogative pronouns. To refer to people kha 55 io? 55 'who' is used; to refer to things kha 55 tshi 31 'what' is used; to refer to locations kha 55 a 31 'where' is used; to refer to quantities kha 55 dan 55 'how much/many' is used; and, to refer to states and appearances kha 55 dj 55 'how' is used. All of these interrogative pronouns can be reduplicated to denote plurality except the one referring to quantity.

kha 55 io? 55  
'who'

kha 55 io? 55 kha 55 io? 55  
'which people?'

kha 55 tshi 31  
'what'

kha 55 tshi 31 kha 55 tshi 31  
'which things?'

kha 55 a 31  
'where'
kha 55 a 31 kha 55 a 31  ‘which places?’

4. Reflexive pronouns. Reflexive pronouns can occur independently and can be combined with another pronoun. When combined with another pronoun, the prefixial and the suffixial elements can be omitted.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>singular</td>
<td>dual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>a 31 io 31 lug 35</td>
<td>a 31 nun 55 si 31 lug 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>a 31 lug 35</td>
<td>a 31 nun 55 si 31 lug 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>a 31 lug 35</td>
<td>a 31 nun 55 si 31 lug 35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Indefinite pronouns. The indefinite pronouns are a 31 tshan 31 'other people' and a 31 tshan 31 tshi 55 'somebody'.

ia 55 nu 31 a 55 a 31 tshan 31 kha 31 ie 55
this auxiliary other people aux be
‘This is somebody else’s’

a 31 tshan 31 tshi 55 m 31 em 55 nu 31
somebody not eat Mood
‘Somebody hasn’t eaten yet!’

V. VERBS

Verbs have the grammatical categories of person, number, aspect, voice, mood, and direction, which are realized by inflections such as affixation, inflexion, and so on.

1. Person and number. Person and number are expressed through prefixes and suffixes. This is illustrated below with the word khi 55 'bite; gnaw'.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>singular</td>
<td>dual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>person</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first</td>
<td>khi 55</td>
<td>khi 55 se 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>second</td>
<td>a 31 khi 55</td>
<td>a 31 khi 55 se 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>third</td>
<td>khi 55</td>
<td>khi 55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the inflections of this verb, we see that the first person singular requires the suffix -q, the dual requires the suffix se 55, plural requires the suffix 131, the second person singular requires the prefix n 31, the dual requires the prefix n 31 and the suffix se 55, and the plural requires the prefix n 31 and the suffix nnu 31, while the third person forms are all unmarked.

In addition to these, there are also rules governing the sound changes marked by variation of initials and finals of the verb roots. The inflections of verb roots have to agree not only with subjects but also with objects according to specific conditions. Since the length of this article is limited, I will not cite any examples to illustrate these rules.

2. Aspect. Aspect is marked by suffixes. Verbs have the following aspects: future progressive, progressive, past progressive, past, and perfect.

1) Future progressive is marked by the suffix bu 55 or ua 55 and expresses an action which will be started. bu 55 can be used with all three persons, whereas ua 55 can only be used with the third person.

\[
a 31 \text{ to } 31 \text{ a 55 } \log 55 \text{ bu } 55 \varepsilon 55
\]

'I will go back'

\[
\text{ŋ 31 nnu 55 khen 55 } \text{ ven 35 } \varepsilon 55 \text{ ua 55}
\]

'they vegetable buy \varepsilon 55 \text{ ua 55}

'They will buy vegetables'

2) Progressive is marked by the suffixes no 31, ε 55, or no 31 ε 31 and expresses an action which is ongoing.

\[
\text{mo 55 do 55 du } 31 \text{ ba } 31 \text{ than } 55 \text{ kha 31 a 31 tan 35 } \text{ si } 31 \text{ a 31 gu } 55 \varepsilon 55
\]

'The car is going slowly on the bridge'

\[
\text{ŋ 31 nnu 55 tchim 31 kha 31 la 31 tchu } 55 \text{ a 31 thi } 55 \text{ zin } 55 \text{ sa } 55 \text{ no } 31 \varepsilon 31
\]

'they home aux door bolt no 31 \varepsilon 31

'The door of their house is bolted.'
3) Past progressive is marked by the suffix dze 31 (or, dzw 31, dzi 31) and expresses an action which was already going on. The suffix dze 31 has two variants: dzw 31 and dzi 31. The former is used with the first and second person singular and dual, while the latter is used with the first person plural.

a 31 io 31 a 55 ca 55 thi 31 gam 55 ven 35 dzw 31 ga 31
'I bought a pound of meat'

4). Past aspect is marked by the suffix ie 31 and expresses an action which occurred in the past.

ŋa 55 pei 31 tœin 55 dzi 55 buŋ 55 ie 31
'I went to Beijing'

5). Perfect aspect is marked by the suffix ḥaŋ 31 and expresses an action which has not only started but has also finished. The suffix is usually used together with the past aspect marker dze 31.

ŋ 31 a 35 a 31 gu 55 tshi 31 em 55 ḥaŋ 31 dze 31 e 55
'He has eaten'

3. Voice. There are three voices: active, causative and reciprocal. They are marked by markers put before or after the verbs, or by inflexions or sound changes.
1) Active voice is marked by putting a marker after the verb; ꙛ מפתח 55 is used with the first person singular; ꙛז 31 or ꙛס 31 is used with the second and third person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>first person</th>
<th>second/third person</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'wash (clothes)'</td>
<td>'בGoals' 55 ꙛames 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'kill'</td>
<td>'בGoals' 55 ꙛames 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'comb (hair)'</td>
<td>'בGoals' 55 ꙛames 55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2) Causative voice is marked either by putting a marker before the verb or by the alternation of the voicing of the initial consonant of the verb root.

a) The preverbal marker ꙛז 31. When the marker ꙛז 31 is put before the verb, the vowel of ꙛז 31 changes to agree with the vowel of the verb root. The rule for this change is as follows: When the main vowel of the verb root is a back vowel such as ꙛ, ꙛ, ꙛ, or ꙛ, the vowel in ꙛז 31 remains unchanged. When the main vowel of the verb root is ꙛ, the marker ꙛז 31 becomes ꙛס 31. When the initial of the verb root is ꙛ, the marker becomes ꙛז 31.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>active</th>
<th>causative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'cry'</td>
<td>ꙛוו 55 ꙛז 31 ꙛוו 55 (.EOF 55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'glue to'</td>
<td>ꙛאר 55 ꙛז 31 ꙛאר 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'eat'</td>
<td>ꙛנס 55 ꙛס 31 ꙛנס 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'bite (dog)'</td>
<td>'בGoals' 55 ꙛז 31 ꙛames 55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b) The preverbal marker ꙛו 31. The marker ꙛו 31 may be put before a verb to indicate the causative voice.

| 'to hatch' | ꙛוי 31 ꙛו 31 ꙛוי 31 |
| 'melt' | ꙛז 55 ꙛו 31 ꙛז 55 |
| 'rot' | ꙛוי 31 ꙛו 31 ꙛוי 31 |
| 'put on' | ꙛאר 55 ꙛו 31 ꙛאר 55 |

c) The initials of verbs that begin with voiced nasals or laterals become voiceless in the causative voice.

| 'bury' | ꙛים 55 ꙛים 55 |
‘drunk’  ɲaŋ 55  ɲaŋ 55
‘go to bed’  ňim 53  ňim 53
‘cry’  ŋw 55  ŋw 55 (sw 31 ŋw 55)

3). Reciprocal voice. The reciprocal voice is expressed by using the marker a 31 before the verb root.

‘to shoot’  vam 55  ‘to shoot each other’  a 31 vam 55
‘to miss’  tshom 55  ‘to miss each other’  a 31 tshom 55
‘to ask’  zin 53  ‘to ask each other’  a 31 zin 53

4. Mood. There are three types of mood---the indicative, the imperative, and the precative---realized either by affixation or by the devoicing of root initial consonants.

1). The indicative mood is formed by adding the suffix e 31. In cases where the suffix e 31 is the only marker added to the verb, the verb is also progressive in meaning.

pha 55 dza 55 ma 31 a 31 ɲu 55 tshi 31 em 55 e 31
brother  meal  eat 31
‘Brother is eating (dinner)’

2). The imperative mood has three different forms: singular, dual, and plural. In addition to being marked by affixation, in some verbs the devoicing of initials also occurs. The verbs used in the imperative mood fall into the following four categories.

a). Verbs that have initial voiceless consonants, or initial voiced stops or affricates, or have initial clusters take the suffixes o 31, so 31, and ŋo 31 to express singular, dual, and plural imperative mood, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>root</th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>dual</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘to paste’</td>
<td>dzam 55</td>
<td>dzam 55 o 31</td>
<td>dzam 55 so 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to cut (meat)’</td>
<td>bi 31</td>
<td>bi 31 o 31</td>
<td>bi 31 so 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘to drain (in sieve)’</td>
<td>xrum 53</td>
<td>xrum 53 o 31</td>
<td>xrum 53 so 31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b). Verb roots that begin with voiced fricatives, voiced nasals, or voiced laterals also take the suffixes o 31, so 31, and ŋo 31 to express the imperative, however, in addition, in roots with these the initials the initial also becomes voiceless.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>root</th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>dual</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'to light (a lamp)'</td>
<td>ve 31</td>
<td>fe 31 o 31</td>
<td>fe 31 so 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'to ask'</td>
<td>zin 53</td>
<td>sin 53 o 31</td>
<td>sin 53 so 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'to sell'</td>
<td>nem 35</td>
<td>gem 35 o 31</td>
<td>gem 35 so 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'to dig (land)'</td>
<td>men 35</td>
<td>men 35 o 31</td>
<td>men 35 so 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'to lick'</td>
<td>lan 55</td>
<td>tan 55 o 31</td>
<td>tan 55 so 31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c). Verbs that begin with an open vowel syllable take the same suffixes as the types a and b immediately above. Their verb root remains unchanged, but they also take the prefix phu 31, which is so closely linked to the verb root (or to the auxiliary prefix) that it sometimes sounds like one syllable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular</th>
<th>dual</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'to drink'</td>
<td>phu 31 aŋ 55 o 31</td>
<td>phu 31 aŋ 55 so 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(pha 55 n o 31)</td>
<td>(phaŋ 55 so 31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'to chop'</td>
<td>phu 31 a 31-</td>
<td>phu 31 a 31-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>dza 55 o 31</td>
<td>dza 55 so 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(pha 31 dza 55 o 31)</td>
<td>(pha 31 dza 55 so 31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'to eat'</td>
<td>phu 31 em 55 o 31</td>
<td>phu 31 em 55 so 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(phe 55 mo 31)</td>
<td>(phem 55 so 31)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

d). Verbs that begin with the vowel /i/ take the same suffixes as types a, b, and c above, but the vowel /i/ changes to the consonant [q].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>root</th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>dual</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>'to escape'</td>
<td>ien 55</td>
<td>ien 55 o 31</td>
<td>ien 55 so 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'to shout'</td>
<td>lan 55</td>
<td>lan 55 o 31</td>
<td>lan 55 so 31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3). The preceptive mood has two different forms. One is used to ask for permission to do something yourself, in which case the suffix lie 31 is added to the imperative form of the verb. The other is used when one asks for permission for a third person to do something. In this case the prefix la 31 and the suffix lie 31 are both added to the imperative form of the verb.
5. Directionality of verbs. Verbs can be marked for two types of
direction suffix—centrifugal and centripetal. The choice of suffix depends
on the locality of the speaker. The suffixes marking direction are mostly
the weakened forms of notional words.

1). The centripetal form is realized by adding the suffixes a 31 le 55,
a 31 na 55, a 31 da 55, and [o 31. In the following examples the verb zi 35
‘carry on the back’ is used to illustrate the grammatical meaning of these
forms.

zi 35 a 31 le 55  [the action starts from a position on the same level
‘carry it here’ as that of the speaker and moves toward him]

zi 35 a 31 na 55  [the action starts from a lower position and moves
‘carry it up here’ toward the speaker]

zi 35 a 31 da 55  [the action starts from a higher position away
‘carry it down here’ from the speaker and moves toward him]

zi 35 [o 31  [the action starts from a position away from the
‘carry it back here’ speaker and moves toward him to return an
object to its original place]

2). The centrifugal form is realized by adding the suffixes a 31 ba 55, a
31 la 31, daa 55, and [u 55

zi 35 a 31 ba 55  [outward movement of an action, without
‘carry it there/away’ further specifying direction]

zi 35 a 31 la 31  [the action starts from a higher position and
‘carry it down there’ moves downward away from speaker]
zi 35 ḏaŋ 55  ‘carry it up there’  [the action starts from a lower position and moves upward away from the speaker]

zi 35 ḏu 55  ‘carry it back there’  [the action starts from the speaker’s position and moves away from him to return the object to its original place]

These directional suffixes sometimes also undergo vowel change due to the influence of the environment in which they occur.

6. Nominalizations of verbs. The nominalization of verbs is realized by the addition of the suffix dem 55.

ɛm 55  ‘eat’  ɛm 55 dem 55  ‘something to eat’
ag 55  ‘drink’  ag 55 dem 55  ‘something to drink’
dżan 55  ‘look’  dżan 55 dem 55  ‘something to look at’
dzom 55  ‘use’  dzom 55 dem 55  ‘something to use’

VI. ADJECTIVES

Adjectives have the following properties.

1. The prefixes ud 55 and tchi 55 are used that two adjectives are opposite in meaning. Adjectives that describe appearance and form take such prefixes. The prefix ud 55 is usually added to adjectives such as ‘big’, ‘tall’, ‘long’, ‘wide’, and the prefix tchi 55 is added to adjectives such as ‘small’, ‘short’, ‘short [= ‘not long’]’, and ‘narrow’.

ud 55 duŋ 31  ‘big’  tchi 55 la 55  ‘small’
ud 55 maŋ 31  ‘tall’  tchi 55 ŋim  ‘short; low’
ud 55 faŋ 31  ‘long’  tchi 55 tθum 55  ‘short’
ud 55 gaŋ 31  ‘wide’  tchi 55 phi 55  ‘narrow’

2. Adjectives can be reduplicated to highten their degree. The following examples will illustrate this property.

phu 55  ‘yellow’  phu 55 phu 55  ‘very yellow’
tchuŋ 35  ‘straight’  tchuŋ 35 tchuŋ 31  ‘very straight’
ba 35  ‘thin’  ba 35 ba 31  ‘very thin’
3. Adjectives can be nominalized. This can be done either by adding the suffix ą 55 or by adding the prefix ą 31.

- bumb 31 'many'
- sin 55 'smooth'
- ą 55 'old'
- fiin 55 'cooked (ripe)'

- bumb 31 ą 55 'something large'
- sin 55 ą 55 'something smooth'
- ą 31 ą 55 'something old'
- ą 31 fiin 55 'something cooked'

4. The suffix ą 31 ni 55 can be added to show that the appearance, form, quality, nature, or character of something that is in the process of change.

a 31 muw 31 a 31 da 31 muw 31 gam 55 a 31 ni 55
mama illness good a 31 ni 55
'mother is getting better'

VII. ADVERBS

Adverbs can be put into the following six categories.
Adverbs of degree: ą 31 'very', a 31 du 35 thii 31 'fairly', ba 31 thi 31 'very; even more; especially', a 31 khu 55 'supreme; most'.
Adverbs of scope: gwi 55 'also', dą 31 daŋ 55 'all'.
Adverbs of time: ie 55 saŋ 55 nuw 31 'now; just now', dą 55 'first', phaŋ 31 si 31 'then'.
Adverbs of probability: the 55 lu 55 'approximately; roughly', ie 55 m 31 zi 55 'perhaps'.
Adverbs of manner: a 31 ią 35 si 31 'slowly', kha 55 ma 55 uą 31 li 31 'quietly', si 31 la 55 nem 55 uą 31 li 31 'properly'.
Adverbs of negation: m 31 'not', tha 31 'don't'.

Adverbs have the following characteristics when used in a sentence.
1. Adverbs can be reduplicated for emphasis.

de 55 ą 55 kha 55 a 31 da 31 daŋ 55 da 31 daŋ 55 a 31 do 55 kho 55
this evening all all get together

mi 31 li 31 a 31 güm 55 i 31
after have meeting suffix
we will all get together to have a meeting tonight"

2. When functioning as adverbal, adverbs in most cases precede predicates. However, there are some that occur after predicates.

α 31 io 31 t'chen 31 α 35 thi 31 io? 55 ε 31 si 55 ηα 55 ε 31

  I     child    aux one    clf. only    have suffix
'I have only one child'

ηα 31 α 55 dza 31 dza 31 pha 31 ge 55 dzi 55 ε 31 qo 55
you    aux hurry    hurry    go    aux. first
'Hurry up, you go first'

VIII. AUXILIARIES

There are three types of auxiliaries: structural auxiliaries, nominal auxiliaries, and adverbal auxiliaries.

1. Structural auxiliaries can be further divided into eight subcategories: restrictive, causative, passive, instrumental, temporal, source of action, comparative, and associative.

   1). The restrictive auxiliary ni 55 is usually used in an emphatic construction showing possession. In most cases, it can be omitted.

      pha 55 dza 55 ma 31 ni 55 t'chen 31     α 31 mu 31 ni 55 α 31 fi 55
      brother   ni 55 child         mother   ni 55 hair
      'brother's child'             'mother's hair'

   2). The causative auxiliary mi 55 is usually used in a sentence in which the doer of the action is unknown i.e., can't be identified.

      γ 31 kha 31 mi 31 sw 31 la 55 o 55 α 31 tshaŋ 31 mi 55 san 55 ε 31 ba 35
      he     aux   bad      person    mi 55 kill suffix
      'He was being killed by a bad man'

   3). The passive auxiliary kha 31 has three functions: a) after indirect speech, it denotes the recipient of an action, b) after names of places, it denotes the place of an action, and c) after the names of objects, it indicates that they are instruments.
a 31 io 31 tsha 31 ḋan 55 kha 31 ṣi 55 va 31 thi 31 ṭuṇ 55 dzan 55
younger brother aux book one copy give
'I gave my younger brother a book'

khoñ 55 min 31 kha 31 ba 31 ḋi 31 thi 31 rom 55 e 31
Kunming aux very far aux
'Kunming is very far away'

a 31 tshi 31 tshi 55 kha 31 ṣa 55 ra 31 wa 55 tshi 31 dw 31 gom 55 e 31
grandmother bag aux flour put suff
'Grandmother uses a bag to hold flour'

4) The instrumental auxiliary mi 55 is used after the name of an
instrument to show that the instrument is used in the performance of an
action.

ŋ 31 va 55 mi 55 ọmŋ 55 a 31 tshi? 31 e 31
axe mi 55 firewood chop suffix
'He splits firewood with an axe'

5) The temporal auxiliary tha 35 is used after a temporal noun to show
that the action is taking place then.

a 31 io 31 thi 31 tsha 55 a 31 ṭi 55 si 31 la 55 thi 55 ṭi 31 tha 35 mo 31
one ten two month one day tha 35

ko 55 dzan 31 kha 31 thum 55 buŋ 55 e 31
aux arrive suffix
'I arrived at Mugujia on December 1st'

6). The source of action auxiliary khoñ 31 ne 55 or ne 55 is put after a
noun or a pronoun to show the starting point of an action.

khun 55 dza 31 ham 35 doŋ 31 ne 55 kha? 55 a 31 ṭi 55 dw 31 a 31
vegetable garden inside ne 55 chicken two clif

tshaŋ 31 a 31 ne 55
run suffix
'Two chickens ran out of the vegetable garden'
7). The comparative auxiliary thanŋ 55 a 31 is put after a noun or a pronoun to show that it is being compared.

đw31 đaŋ31 khu 55 kho 55 nw 31 thanŋ 55 a 31 ia 55 kho 55 nw 31 sin 31 e 31 stick that clf. aux comp. this clf. aux thin suff
'This stick is thinner than that stick'

8). There are two inclusive auxiliaries: ñe 31 ñe 31 ña 55 and ta 55 ti 55 They are more or less the same in meaning and usage.

a 31 io 31 ñe 31 ñe 31 ña 55 phac 31 io? 55 ië 31
1 (auxiliary) five clf. have
'There are five people including me'

ñ 31 də 31 phi 55 nw 31 ta 55 ti 55 tsha 31 ma 55 za 55 som 53 io? 55 ië 31
he sister aux. auxiliary women three clf. have
'There are three women, including his sister'

2. There are two determinative auxiliaries, namely, nw 31 and a 55. Sometimes the two are used together. These occur after a noun, a pronoun, or a phrase to emphasize it in the sentence.

ia 31 khuŋ 55 nw 31 thanŋ 55 a 31 khu 55 khuŋ 55 nw 31 ta? 55 e 31
this room aux. aux. that room aux. big suffix
'That room is bigger than this room'

a 31 io 31 a 55 khoŋ 55 min 31 khuŋ 31 ne 55 də 55 ne 31 iwm 55 a 31
1 aux. Kunming aux. come suffix
'I came from Kunming'

3. The adverbial auxiliary li 31 or uq 31 li 31 is mainly used after words or phrases to allow them to be used adverbially in a sentence.

și 31 tha 31 thi 55 föi 31 thi 55 föi 31 li 31 a 31 ba 35
time one day one day aux go
'Time has passed by day by day'

ŋ 31 m 31 li 31 nũ 31 m 31 li 31 nũ 31 li 31 phuŋ 31 a 31 gū 35 a 31 da 55
he as say as say aux. tear fall have
'He is crying while talking'
IX. CONJUNCTIONS

The conjunction si 55 is used to connect words or phrases.

α 31 hŋ 35 si 31 α 31 suŋ 55 em 55 dem 55 si 31 an 55 dem 55

bowl aux. chopsticks eat suffix aux. drink suffix

'bowls and chopsticks' 'something to eat and something to drink'

Conjunctions which are used to connect sentences are dealt with in the syntax section.

X. MODALS

The language has a rich inventory of modals, which are usually put at the end of a sentence to express a certain mood, such as interrogation, warning, rhetorical question, estimation, conjecture, declaration, etc. The examples below will give you a rough idea of the modals.

iₙ 55 tʃi 35 nuₙ 35 a 55 nा 31 a 55 m 31 so 55 o 31 me 53
this clf. aux. you aux. not know suf. question

'Don't you know about it?'

dₜu 31 bₜ 31 kₜₐ 31 me 31 gu 55 tₜₐ 35 phₜu 31 a 31 dʒₐ 55 si 31 la 35
bridge aux. pass aux. prefix careful suf. mood

'Be careful when you cross the bridge'

a 31 io 31 a 55 dʒₐŋ 55 a 31 dʒₜᵩŋ 55 a 31, nə 31 le 53
l aux. see suf. you mood

'You have also seen it, right?'

XI. INTERJECTIONS

Interjections are usually used at the beginning of a sentence to express emotions, such as an emotional reply, a surprise, or a sigh.

ʔo 55 ʔo 55 ʰu 53 o 31. dʒₐ 35 ʰu 53 o 31
hey! hey take. quick, take.

'Hey, take it. Come on, take it!'

ʔe 35 a 31 fₜi 55 gu 55 bₜ 55 a 31 le 55
Oh! hair also white suffix

'Oh, my hair has turned white already.'
ca 55  ie 55 saŋ 55 nuw 31  guw 55 tshi 55 m 31 dzi 55 da 55
what!  now  also  yet  not  leave  mood
'What! Still haven't left?'

**Syntax**

I. **Members of a Sentence and Word Order**

A sentence in Anong consists of a subject, predicate, object, attribute, and adverbial.

1. The word order is SOV.

α 31 be 55 ŋ 31 khw 55 io 55 e 31
goat  horn  have suffix
'Goats have horns'

2. Nouns and pronouns precede the head noun when used attributively.

α 31 phw 31 ni 55 va 55 ŋ 31 meŋ 55
father  aux.  axe  he  face
'father's axe'  'his face'

Adjectives, numerals, and demonstratives follow the head noun.

ŋi 55 luŋ 55 thi 55 log 55  ga 31 nuw 31 se 55
eye  one  clf.  clothes  new
'one eye'  'new clothes'

γumŋ 55 dzumŋ 55 ie 31 dzumŋ 55
tree  this  clf.
'this tree'

3. Adverbials usually precede predicates. However, some of them can be placed after predicates. Please see the examples given in the adverbial section.

II. **Simple Sentences**

Simple sentences can be divided into the following categories according to the mood and sentence structure.
1. Declarative sentences are indicated by either a declarative affix or a declarative modal.

η 31 μεη 55 νυ 31 φυ 55 φυ 55 ε 31
he face aux. yellow yellow suffix
‘His face is very sallow’

2. Interrogative sentences are formed in a number of ways. They can be formed by using interrogative pronouns, an alternative interrogative pattern, or a yes-no interrogative pattern.

ηα 31 α 55 ιε 55 φιε 55 θι 55 δζα η 31 η 31 δζι 55 ε 31 ιε 55 δα 53
you aux. again one time come suf. mood
‘Have you come again?’

κα 55 io? 55 χα 31 μυ 31 νυ 31 ια 55 κα 31 γεν 55 α 31 δζα 53
who clothes aux. here put suffix
‘Whose clothes are place here?’

3. In imperative sentences the imperative form of the verb is used.

ηα 31 κηεν 55 γεν 31 ε 31 βι 55
you vegetable buy go
‘(You) go and buy vegetables’

4. Implorative sentences use the implorative form of the verb.

η 31 κα 31 ιε 55 φιε 55 θι 55 ςιη 35 τςι ι 55 λα 55 εμ 55 ιε 31
he aux. one time time bowl again suf. eat suf.
‘Please let him eat another bowlful’

5. Exclamatory sentences contain either an interjection or an exclamatory modal.

ʔα 55 λα 55. βα 31 ςι 31 α 31 δα η 31 ε 31
Wow! very painful suf.
‘Wow! It’s very painful’

6. With some sentences, a modal indicating estimation is used.

μυ 55 συμ 55 ια 55 κα 55 νυ 31 α 55 φοη 31 τςια 55 γαμ 55
peach this basket aux. fifty pound
approximately have modal
'This basketful of peaches is about 25 kilograms'

III. COMPLEX SENTENCES

Complex sentences can be divided into two types, compound sentences and complex.

1. Compound sentences are not usually connected by conjunctions. According to the relationship between the simple sentences, compound sentences can be divided into the following types.

   1). Comparative compound sentences.

   a 31 io 31 a 55 ta? 55 o 55 thi 55 nuw 31 ven 35 tham 55 e 31 dzuw 55 a 31,
   l aux. big suf. one clf. buy prt. suffix
   η 31 a 55 tehem 31 o 55 thi 55 nuw 31 ven 35 tham 55 e 31 dzuw 31 a 31
   he aux. small suf. one clf. buy prt. suffix
   'I bought a big one; he bought a small one'

2). Progressive comparison compound sentences.

   mo 31 ko 55 dzan 31 ia 55 kha 31 khuw 31 ne 55 tshi 55 thi 31 rom 55 e 31,
   Mugujia here aux. very far suf.,

   mo 31 ko 55 dzan 31 khuw 31 ne 55 ko 31 sen 55 kha 31 ba 31 ṣi 31
   Mugujia aux. gong shan aux. even

   thi 31 rom 55 e 31
   far suf.
   'Mugujia is very far from here; Gongshan is even farther than Mugujia from here'

3). Continuous compound sentences

   η 31 saŋ 55 ba 31 ṣi 31 a 31 ne 55, thi 31 ca 55 gam 55 ka 31 than 55
   he strength very have, one 100 pounds over

   qur 55 zi 35 dzor 31 e 31
   emp. carry can
'He is very strong; he can even carry over a hundred pounds on his back.'

2. Complex sentences with subordinating clauses usually have conjunctions. According to the relationship between the main clause and the subordinating clauses, they can be divided into the following types.

1). Transitional

ηα 31 ma 55 șu 31 kha 55 a 31 io 31 kha 31 și 55 va 31 le 31 cu 55
you from now on l aux. letter

ϕhu 31 a 31 ța 55 i 35 la 53 m 31 ie 35 le 53 a 31 io 31 na 31 man 55
pref. write suf. mood l angry

ε 31 ie 31
suffix
You must write to me from now on; otherwise I will be offended'

2). Cause

la 31 ma 55 ie 31 xaŋ 35 nuți 31 don 55 kha 31 fi 31 ța 31 fi 55 ba 31
field this piece aux. inside aux. plow animal dung very

și 31 a 31 sa 55 și 31 le 31 a 31 mu 55 dzuŋ 55 și 31 si 31 la 55 ε 31
load suf. conj. corn very good suf. 'A lot of dung was applied to this field; therefore, the corn is thriving'

3). Conditional

ηα 31 m 31 so 55 o 55 la 55 țî 31 fi 31, a 31 io 31 kha 31 sin 55 zuŋ 55
you not-understand-suff conj. l aux. ask can
'If you don't understand, you can ask me'

4). Concession

ț 31 a 55 țhî 31 maŋ 31 a 55 le 55 li 31, la 31 ma 55 a 55 tșhi 55
he aux. old suf. conj. l field aux. very

ua 55 dzo 31 ε 31
do can suf.
Although he is very old, he can still do a lot of work'