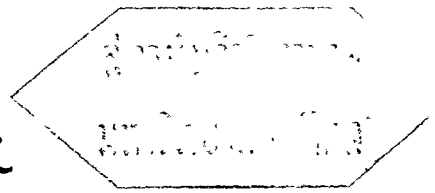


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A SYNTACTIC DESCRIPTION OF SO : AN AUSTRALIAN LANGUAGE IN MALAYA

BY

MALAI L. PERJURNING

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF

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MEMORANDUM OF THE SUPERVISORY GRADUATE COMMITTEE

1960

We, the members of the Supervisory Graduate Committee

for

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

unanimously approve the thesis entitled

A STUDY OF THE WRITING OF THE AMERICAN INDIAN LANGUAGE OF TEXAS

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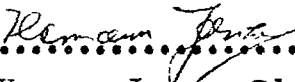
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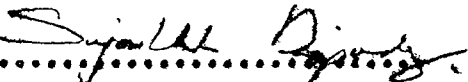
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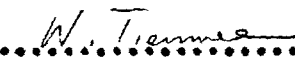
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ABSTRACT

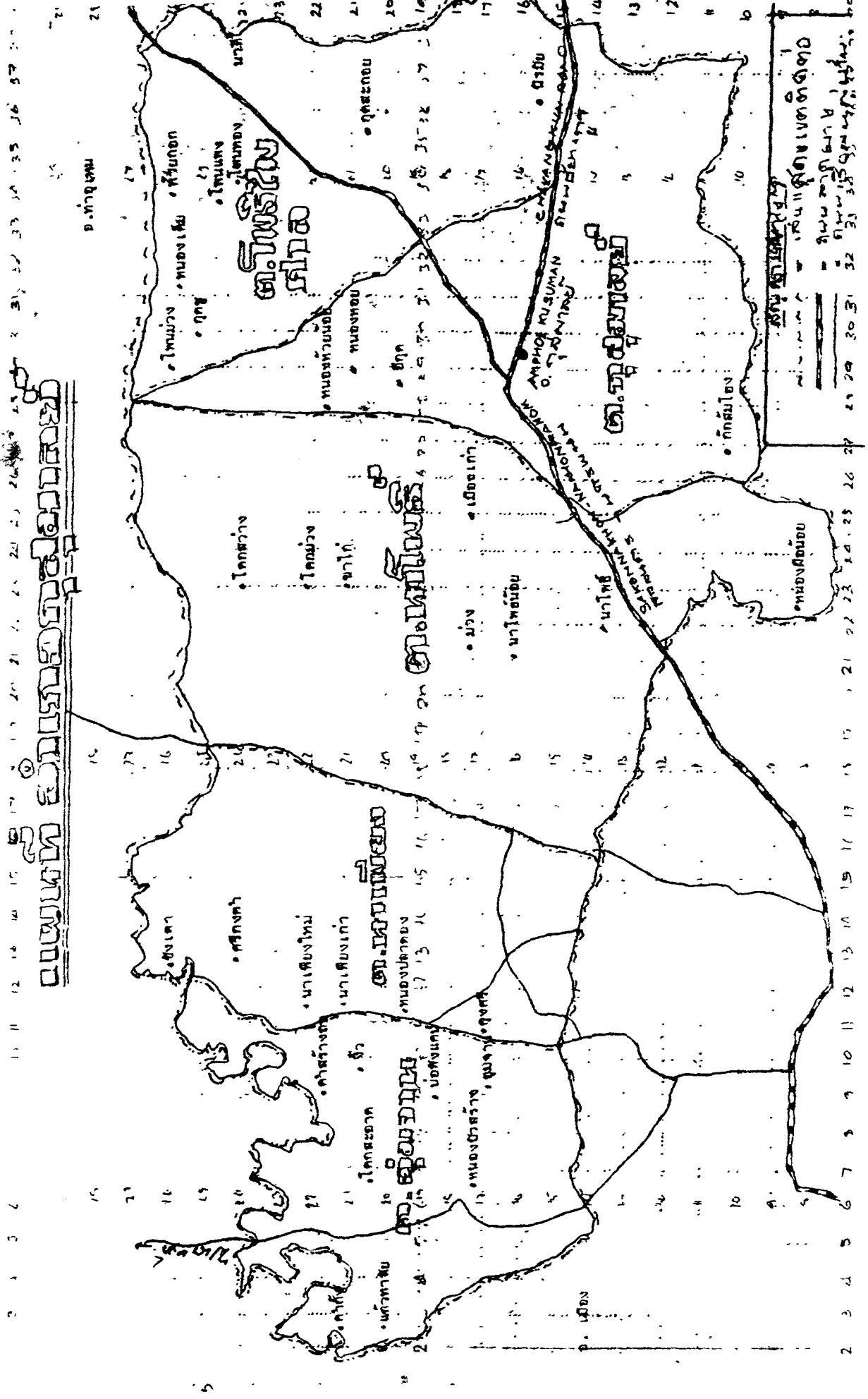
This thesis is a syntactic description of So (t̃sro:), an Austroasiatic language in Thailand. The data was gathered during field work in Kusuman District, Salon Pathon. Supportive data is taken from the unpublished word list of Mrs. Keele. The categories of analysis are the grammatical levels of word, phrase, clause, sentence and a small description of the paragraph and discourse. The description uses the tagmemic approach and other recent theories. It focuses not only the structure but also semantic.

The comparative study of the various So dialects and of So with other closely related Mon - Khmer languages such as Brao and Chaobon are suggested for further study.

ABBREVIATIONS

.	=	action
Adv	=	adverb phrase
adv	=	adverb
asp	=	aspect
aux	=	auxiliary
C	=	condition
Cl	=	clause
Cl bi	=	bitransitive clause
Cl comp	=	comparison clause
Cl des	=	descriptive clause
Cl eq	=	equative clause
Cl exis	=	existence clause
Cl eval	=	evaluation clause
Cl in	=	imperative clause
Cl intr	=	intransitive clause
Cl loc	=	locative clause
Cl no	=	notion clause
Cl prop	=	provision clause
Cl quot	=	quotative clause
Cl rec	=	reciprocal clause
Cl rel	=	relative clause
Cl temp	=	temporal clause
Cl tr	=	transitive clause
Cl tr,n,ex.	=	transitive nominal extension clause
Cl yes/no ques.	=	yes/no question clause

MAP OF SC VILLAGE IN KUSUMAN DISTRICT.



They use musical instruments in the "yaaw" ceremony but the participants don't begin dancing right away. They must divine and determine certain particulars before

The medium is getting ready.

The witch doctor calls upon the spirit that is responsible for the sickness to come and enter the medium.

(The So people believe that in order to treat sicknesses, they must find out which spirit has been offended and what type of offering the spirit wants for appeasement.)

class	=	classifier
conj	=	conjunction
∪	=	deduction
DO	=	direct object
IV	=	directional verb
Dem	=	demonstrative
Dest	=	destination
emp	=	emphatic
F.P, f.p	=	final particle
GG	=	general ground
I	=	item
impol	=	impolite
inner exp	=	inner expansion
inton	=	intensifier
Loc	=	location
Manner	=	manner
no inf	=	no inflection
IV	=	main verb
n	=	noun
NP, no	=	nominal phrase
NP c	=	additive complex nominal phrase
NP cp	=	appositional complex nominal phrase
NP m	=	noun phrase
NP nu	=	numeral phrase
NP pr	=	pronoun phrase

nu	=	numeral
O	=	object
outer exp	=	outer expansion
P	=	predicate, purpose
PE	=	prior event
pl	=	plural
pp	=	prepositional phrase
pr	=	pronoun
prep	=	preposition
Q. , qv.	=	question word
R	=	result
Rel	=	relator
rel.pr.	=	relative pronoun
S	=	subject
SE	=	sub-event
Sec	=	section
Sent con.	=	conditional sentence
Sent cov.	=	covarying sentence
Sent ded.	=	deductive sentence
Sent intro.	=	introduction sentence
Sent pur.	=	purposeful sentence
Sent sim.	=	simple sentence
Sent temp. seq	=	temporal sequence sentence
SG	=	specific group
sing	=	singular
T	=	time

	verb
	= verb phrase
VP ac	= active verb phrase
VP bi	= bitransitive verb phrase
VP cop	= copula verb phrase
VP des	= descriptive verb phrase
VP eq	= equational verb phrase
VP exis	= existence verb phrase
VP eval	= evaluation verb phrase
VP im	= imperative verb phrase
VP in	= intransitive verb phrase
VP loc	= locative verb phrase
VP no	= notion verb phrase
VP prop	= propulsion verb phrase
VP rec	= reciprocal verb phrase
VP tr	= transitive verb phrase

0. INTRODUCTION

0.1 Objective of this thesis

The objective of this thesis is to present a grammatical outline of the So language. As the term "outline" implies, this grammatical description is not an in-depth study because of the limit of time. Nevertheless, it does give basic grammatical characteristics of the So language on the word and phrase, clause and sentence, paragraph and discourse levels.

0.2 The Descriptive Approach

The grammatical approach adopted in this study is partially following the in Model of Tagmemics, seeing language as a hierarchy of Ranks - discourse, paragraph, sentence, clause, phrase and word. Certain insights suggested by more recent theories have been partially made use of, so the present approach appeared to offer a simpler explanation for the general reader. Each unit will be described in terms of its structure and the distinctive marks, its classes and types, transforms and its functions. For pedagogical ease I start with the clause and work down to the morpheme then take the sentence and work up to the highest rank.

0.3 The So Setting

0.3.1 History of the So tribe

The So people are a minority group that immigrate to Sakonkakhon and Nakhon-Rhanon provinces from Laos many years ago. They have a distinct language of their own as well as customs and traditions.

History of their (i)migration:

From a written report by Sajaan Sakon Somsawat and an interview with Kusuman Kaman, a summary of the immigration seems to be that they came in two major groups.

First group: The first group came from the town of Uu in Laos. They moved to Sakonkathon province to the town of Muang Kaw (meaning 'old settlement') or Siisathanaat. There was subsequently some sort of the plague moved from Muang Kaw to Kusuman as well as the surrounding areas which included today in the subdistrict of Ampoe Kusuman. Today this district very heavily populated by the So people.

Second group: The second group came from the town of Kadaengkaenglok in the area of Kongkaemahaachai (Laos). They immigrated to the town of which is called PhoThiPhaisaan today. It is located about four kilometers from where the first group settled.

History of Muang Kaw

About 150 years ago Muang Kaw had the name of Siisathanaat. According to legend this is the way Siisathanaat came into being. There was a man named Thammamuangsung and his wife living in the town of Uu, a So town in the province of Mahachai, Laos, north east of the Mekhong river. One day they set out in search of a fertile area in which to settle, for according to prophecy the So people would one day settle and become prosperous in an area south and east of the Mekhong river. Thammamuangsung and his wife made a bamboo raft and traveled down the river. One day their raft caught on an obstruction and couldn't be moved. Through the mercy of one who gave them life and through the care of the one who controls the universe, neither of them were injured.

were able to take three long pieces of bamboo from the large raft and a small raft. They took only the bare necessities with them and made for shore. There they rested. Later, upon exploring the area they found old

ruins as well as ruins of old homes. They realized that it was an old

They laid down and slept there that night. In the morning they have gone across the river on the raft to continue their search, but

was so sick that he couldn't travel. His wife search for and

tree roots to use as medicine and after treating him for many he recovered. Together they cut down bamboo trees and made another

When it was finished, they crossed to the other side of the river.

then continued ^{on} by foot always heading to the direction of the setting

In the late afternoons they'd make a shelter together and then make a

on each side to keep the wild animals away. Then they would lie down sleep.

They traveled for many days. One afternoon they came to a choice spot in which to make camp so they made a shelter and slept. That night Thavnaymuangsung had a dream. He dreamed that the very spot where they slept would come to be a prosperous community complete with temples. So in the morning he told his dream to his wife. They began to cut trees right away and burn the area off in order to build a house to live in.

When the 50 people from the other side of the river in the town of Uu learned that Thavnaymuangsung had settled in a new place, many of them left Uu and came to settle there with him. As new folks arrived at the settlement, their relatives and friends were overjoyed to see them and pitched right in, helping them clear more land and build their homes. Together they made fields, houses and temples. The area grew quickly into a prosperous

settlement. They then decided to name the settlement Siisathanaat because it somewhat resembled a snake, being only forty meters wide and some five hundred long. Eventually it grew to over five hundred families. Thavanavuangsum was the village leader. By this time he had two children, a son whose name is Thawding and a daughter whose name is Hiang.

The people build three temples, Wat Iya, Wat Thaat and Wat Haung Sin. Of the three temples had the special buildings where their idols were stored or buried. In addition to that there were two more temporary locations where the priests lived. The settlement grew and prospered rapidly because people worked day and night not having to worry about food as there was a stream and small lake in the area from which they could get their food. The lake was called 'Kutthannaan' and the stream 'Khammann' stream. Even today you can still see the long raised piece of ground that used to be the town of Siisathanaat.

It is estimated that the building of Siisathanaat began around 1821 when Thavanavuangsum was 26 years old. The settlement prospered for some 22 years but became a "ghost town" around 1843. There were two reasons for this.

1. A cholera epidemic struck and people were dying daily.
2. The rains failed to come so there was a drought.

Because of this, the settlers moved to a new location to start new villages. Some of them moved to the foot of the mountains in the Baan Waeng area which is in the subdistrict of Suang Tav. Some of them moved about two kilometers to the east of the old village and started a village which is now the village of Kusuman. The old village of Siisathanaat is today referred

to as muang Kav which means Old Settlement.

History of Kusuman

The town of Sittamarat was established around 1521 and prospered for some 22 years. In the year of 1543 there was a drought and also an epidemic that took the lives of many of the settlers. Thammaamuangsung, the founder of the village took a group of the villagers and moved with them two east to a large stream surrounded by fertile ground and started new village there. The village was first called Usumal.

Thammaamuangsung had two children, a son by the name of Thawking and a daughter by the name of Sang. Thammaamuangsung was the village leader thirty-three years until his death in 1876. His son then became the leader.

Thawking (also known as Thawking) had a number of children because he had a total of four wives.

His first wife who he married at the age of 31 was a So woman from the village of the Thai Isaan name Sang Luang and they had two children. His second wife who he married at the age of 36 was a Phu Thai woman named Sang Long.

His third wife, who he married at the age of 42 had three children. Her name was Sang Phut.

His fourth wife, who he married at the age of 48 was a So woman from Usumal named Sang Long who was still alive in 1971.

During the time Thawking was the village leader, he had an opportunity to go to Bangkok for one year and study government. When he completed this study he received the title of Thra Paranaasat. He also

changed the name of 'Uusumal' to 'Kusuman'. That was in 1891 and it has been called Kusuman ever since.

Phra /aramaasaa was the village leader until 1913. At that time he turned the job over to someone else because of his advanced age. He died in 1931.

Also recorded in Santra-hayachakri we have this concerning the old Kusuman. "The Tai So people settled in the town of Mahaachai-kroung on the northeast side of the Mae Khong river. In 1838 they broke away from Anuvong of the third dynasty in Vientien. Four years later in 1842 King ordered Mong, who was the ruler of Sakonnakhon under the King, invite the leader of the village of Thaang on the other side of the river to come and settle on this side. At this invitation Phia Luangsung a large group of the Tai So people from the town of Mahaachai immigrated to the west side of the river and settled east of the town of Sakon Nakhon. Also at that time the King ordered Kusuman to be a subdistrict of the town of Sakon Nakhon. It was called "Kusumanthon."

Also recorded in Sansongdej by Songdej-tromphraya Saorong Rachanuphan it states, "The town of Kusumanthon is a small town close to the town of Nakhon Phanon with little official business. It isn't big enough to be a province. Therefore it was decreed that it should no longer be such and will be a subdistrict of Nakhon Phanon. Later it was transferred to become a subdistrict of "Sakon Sakon".

The Paachaban'itsathaam states that Kusuman is a subdistrict of Sakonnakhon. It was originally a subdistrict of Nakhon Phanon for 71 years. (1843 - 1914) It was a Tambon of the district of Ampoe Kuang for

48 years (1914 - 1962). On October 1, 1962 it became a Sing Ampoe and on November 15, 1967 it became an Ampoe.

Kusuman is to the east of Sakon Nakhon and consists of 454 square kilometers.

To the north it borders on Ampoe Tha-U-Thon and Ampoe Siisongkhiran which are both in Sakon Nakhon province.

On the south it borders on Ampoe Nang, Sakon Nakhon.

History of Pho Thi Thaisaan

"Two hundred years ago 50 people lived in the town of Naakadaengtrao in Muang Youngtrao Naasachai (also called Muang Thuvaa) on the northeast bank of the Naekhong river (now Laos). According to the oral tradition, it is said that the people believed that they could only prosper if they moved to the southwestern side of the Naekhong river. On top of that, they didn't want to live under the control of France any longer. So forty families made rafts and crossed the Naekhong river. At that time Phrayaaprasongprathanthani was the governor of Sakon Nakhon. When he heard that a group of people had been unhappy living on the other side of the river and that they had immigrated over to this side, he prepared a place for them about four kilometers from the town of Siisatanaat, and called the area Naabon. In 1836 it became a subdistrict of Siisatanaat.

The people of Naabon were forced to pay a type of **tax to the** headman of Siisatanaat and therefore requested that the governor find a new area for them to live in. He agreed to help them and suggested that they live in the area which is now the village of Pho Thi, but the area

was too dry to suit them so they requested to move to Khaw Hua which is now the village of Pho Thi Paitsaan. This village was started 29 years after the village of Kusuman. Phra Phisaan Suananura was the first village leader. Sai Litranj' isaan was the second leader after him. Later Sai Mit became known as Phra Phisaan. He was the village leader until 1913. In the end both Kusuman and Pho Thi Paitsaan were transferred from Pathon province to Sakon Pathon.

Appearance and Belief

The So people are rather darkish but not very different from Thai people. They dress like Thai in the countryside. Most of them are poor

The So people are peaceloving people who hold strongly to the old

They are spirit worshippers. They make offerings to spirits of the fields and rocks and worship the spirits of their ancestors as described below in the 'So Thang Dang' ceremony. They also follow the Buddhist religion. For the most part the So people are law abiding citizens. In years gone past they have looked very much to themselves but more recently many have sought different occupations and they have integrated into the Thai society to a greater degree.

'So Thang Dang'

This refers to different types of ceremonies that the So tribes people of U. S. Thailand perform. These ceremonies have to do with the worship of ancestral spirits and are not in any way a type of entertainment or done for pleasure, as the Thai "fingernail dance" or the

"bamboo" dance.

These spirit worshipping ceremonies include :

1. Ceremony which the So people call "atung kamut" (ung as in sung)

"atung" means to call or order

"kamut" means the spirit of the dead

"atung kamut" therefore refers to the ceremony performed on the corpse of a dead relative before that corpse is removed from the house for disposal. The So people believe that when the person dies, there must be a transferral of the "spirit" of that one from the realm of the living to the realm of the dead. If the ceremony isn't performed, they

that the spirit will remain in the realm of the living and cause trouble to the family, possibly by causing sickness or an accident. (any sickness or accident that did occur in a village where someone failed to perform the ceremony would be a 'result' of that failure and would prove the validity of the ceremony)

That the ceremony amounts to then, is the transferring of the "status" of the dead from that of the "living" to that of the "dead". The one who officiates in the ceremony must be a respected member of the family of the deceased, usually an uncle. Paraphernalia for the ceremony includes two bowls woven from bamboo strips, candles, flowers, "grasshoppers" made of woven bamboo, (two of which are placed on each of the bowl), and two pairs of short bamboo sticks. (one pair is placed on each of the bowl) The "grasshoppers" are symbolic said to bring happiness to the deceased like that of the grasshopper who "sings" in the trees. The pair of sticks

on either bowl represents the corpse. These bowls are then placed at the head of the corpse.

At this time the leader of the ceremony will verbally send the spirit off. Then he will lead the other men who are taking part in the ceremony around the casket, three times in one direction and then three times in the opposite direction. They carry with them offerings that are normally made to the spirits of the dead.

Some of the members of the family who are sitting there observing the ceremony will have empty whiskey bottles with a rubber band around the middle which they pull out and release making a "ting", "ting" sound. Others have small pieces of steel like a small axe head or a small digging spade end which they clang together in rhythm with the "ting" of the whiskey bottles. At the same time the other people in the room are saying, "hoo', hoo', hoo'" (sounds like the hoo in hook with the final 'k' chopped off), again all in rhythm. (the resultant sound is said to be the language of dead spirits)

Before taking the casket down out of the house (the houses are built on stilts) two of the relatives will stand on either side of the casket with their backs toward each other holding onto a string or a small rope. The leader of the ceremony will then take a sharp knife and hack the string apart in the middle. This signifies the completion of the transfer from the realm of the living to the realm of the dead.

In addition to this ceremony, on the third day after the funeral, they will have another ceremony in which they "invite" the spirit to come

up and live in the house. One of the corner posts on the back of the house is indicated as the place where the departed spirits live. This is where the living relatives go to speak to the dead spirits whenever there is any necessary business with them, such as someone marrying out of the "spirit family" or "leaving" the family for some other reason. Failure to inform the "spirits" will result in some sort of sickness or accident. This section of the house, between the corner pole and the next one to it, where the spirit lives, is restricted in that no one marrying the family may ever enter it.

2. Ceremony that the So people refer to as "saeng sanam"

Another name for this is "lōng sanam" (saeng = lōng)

"saeng sanam" is the ceremony in which the spirits of the ancestors are invited to come and partake of the different spirit offerings. The reason that the So tribal people do this ceremony is that they believe that the spirits of their dead still dwell in their houses. So when they've finished doing their fields and have rice and food for the year, they invite their "ancestors" to come and partake with them. Sometimes they ask the different spirits of dead relatives how they are doing in the land of the dead, whether they are happy or sad, have plenty or are in need.

A date is fixed for the ceremony in advance and several "spirit families" may have the ceremony on the same day. This could include several families from the same village and even families from other villages. If several "spirit families" end up having their ceremony on the same day, they will choose a house with a large grounds so they can combine the ceremonies. When a location is settled on, they will make temporary shelters

for the use of the different ones who will be taking part. They will fix up a shelter where the cooking is done, a place for bathing, sleeping etc. Also the different paraphernalia that will be needed for the ceremony is gathered. This would include different bowls, certain leaves, chicken eggs, and uncooked rice and liquor.

When the day arrives, the witchdoctor will be in the center of the open area with the different spirit offerings surrounding her. The spirit mediums, one from each "spirit family", will be in a circle around witch doctor. Then the witch doctor will begin his chanting and call the spirits to "come down" and enter the mediums. (they are all women) When the spirits have "come down" and entered the mediums, they will inquire about the condition of the "dead relative", whether he is happy or sad etc. Also the mediums will dance around the different offerings.

The musical instruments used for the ceremony are /hæ:n/, /kə'çappi:/, /bən/, and /p^həha:t/. When the music starts the mediums will get up and begin to display their different powers of witchcraft which they've studied. This would include walking on hot coals. Or they might pantomime going fishing or boxing or anything else that is consistent with what they did before they "died". This ceremony may go on for many days and nights. When the possessing spirits leave the mediums, they are invited back again and again.

3. Ceremony which they call "yaaw"

There are many different ceremonies that they refer to as "yaaw"ing, but here we will only be talking about the ceremony for the treatment of sickness. According to tradition, the so people believe that all sickness

is caused by offending different spirits or different spirits possess a person for one reason or another. Therefore they believe that in order to treat sicknesses, they must find out which spirit has been offended and what type of offering the spirit wants for appeasement. They believe that if the appropriate offering is made, the sick person will recover.

When someone becomes sick, the older members of the family will often decide that they need to "yasu". They gather the different things for spirit offering, such as black rice, red rice, flowers, etc. In addition this they may divine to determine other specifics concerning the sick and necessary treatment. Suppose they needed to find out whether it was the spirit of the fields which was offended or not. If they were "divining" with rice kernels they would first determine that an even number of kernels stands 'yes' and an odd number for 'no'. Then they'd take ten to twenty kernels in one hand and throw them against the open palm of the other hand. Then all they have to do is count the number of kernels and they have their answer. They also use a sword in divining as well as a chicken egg. The sword balancing on its point can mean either 'yes' or 'no'. The egg standing up in their hand can also mean yes or no.

As the ceremony of "yasu"ing beings, the witch doctor will chant and call upon the spirit that is responsible for the sickness to come and enter the medium (which spirit is responsible will have already been determined). Then the medium begins to shake, often violently, they know that the spirit has entered her body. Then the witch doctor will ask the "spirit" where it came from, what it wants for appeasement, what it wants to eat etc. and promises that they will get it. At times it wants a chicken or even a pig. If a pig is desired they will buy a pig's ears, snout and tail and then

make the offering to the spirit saying, "Here's the pig that we promised you!" They believe that the spirits are easily fooled.

Contacting the spirits often takes a long time. They use musical instruments when they "yaaw" but the participants don't begin the dancing like movements right away. They must divine and determine certain particulars before the "dancing" begins. In the old days either the processed person or the medium would take the offering bowl into the room and then the "dancers" would come in, one carrying two sticks another /phanha:t/ and yet another /pa^hno^h/. They would "dance" all around the offering bowl and then the witch doctor would begin her **chatting**.

0.3.3 Geographical Setting and Population

The So are the minority group of the Tai people living in the NE area of Thailand. They called themselves and their language 'So' (pronounced /tso:z/). In the past, they moved from place to place. At present almost all of the So speaking population in Thailand is found in Sakon Nakhon and Mahon Phanon. The largest concentrations are to be found in Kusuman District, Sakon Nakhon province as illustrated in Map.1 Others are to be found in Phant and Tha-U-Thon districts in Mahon Phanon.

Kusuman is to the east of Mahon Phanon and consists of 454 square kilometers.

To the north it borders on Ampoe Tha-U-Thon and Ampoe Siisongkhan which are both in Mahon Phanon province.

On the south it borders on Ampoe Huang, Sakon Nakhon.

On the east it borders on Ampoe Huang, Mahon Phanon.

On the west it borders on Ampoe Huang, Sakon Nakhon.



For the most part of the area there is a layer of porous rock under the topsoil. There are no rivers in the area and only about three or four small streams. When the rain stops, it is very dry indeed. In the hot season it is extremely hot and in the cold season extremely cold. There is a lot of rain in the rainy season, but things dry up quickly when the rain stops. Presently there are 29,905 people in five tambons and 46 villages. 85% of these are Thai citizens belonging to the So tribe.

The vice-district officer of Kusuman gave a figure of 22,000 for the number of So-speaking people in Kusuman. Besides, there are over 10,000 So-speaking people in Nakhon Phanom. The above figure suggests that the So are a medium-sized language group probably numbering over 35,000 speakers.

0.3.4 Language Setting

The So language is in the Katuic branch of the Mon-Khmer family. It is spoken in both Thailand and Laos. The word 'So' came from the local Lao word pronounced /so:re:/ 'talking together'. It is said that the So are inert and lazy. They have a simple life. They do not like to work; they do not care about the future. After finishing their routine, they sit chatting by the fire. As a result, the Loatian called them /so:re:/. As time went by, the term /so:re:/ should have been shortened to be 'So'.

The So don't have a written language. They have no alphabet. The old people say that they used to have a written language which was written on buffalo hide. During a period of drought and famine, they cut little pieces off, roasted them and ate them. In the end the whole piece was consumed and so their alphabet was lost. Others say that dogs stole the hide and ate it.

As stated before, the So people are now living in the Northeastern provinces - Sakon Nakhon and Nakhon Phanom of Thailand. Therefore, Northeastern Thai (10) has the heavy influence on the So in every area of their lives, and as a result NE loanwords are pouring into the language.

Most So are bilingual to some degree, some highly so, others less so. The degree of bilingualism also depends on the distance of the home

from Thai centers. In the community, both between themselves, they their own language. They use So together with NE dialect when Thai people involved in any way in the discussion. The Standard Thai is spoken by only when they speak to their teachers.

The So area appears to be dialectally fairly homogeneous. The speech in Kusuman district is fairly representative of the majority of the So speech community; therefore, I have taken the speech of Kusuman area as the norm for my grammatical description of So.

0.4 Research on the So language

Mrs. Beverly K. etc who probably made the first study of the language did research on So vocabulary. Unfortunately, she is no longer in Thailand. Mr. Gene Cutwin now living there continues working on translation of the Bible. Besides, Mr. Jerry Gainoy, a lecturer at Srinakharinwirot University (Bangsaen), is compiling a So dictionary. Apparently, the work of the mentioned people has not appeared in published form. However, my work has benefited greatly from their work.

0.5 Source of Data

This description is based on the speech of the So people in Ban Kusuman, Kusuman district, Sakon Nakhon province. My main informant is Miss. Than Manwong, aged 38. She received education in a Thai school for 4 years. Her parents received no school education at all and hardly used the Standard Thai or ^{any} dialect. Some stories were told by Mr. Chanthai Platsut, 48 years old. **Others** were contributed by Mr. Gutwein. Additional information came from Mr. Klang and Mr. Joy including other So villagers.

The data was gathered during the field work at Kusuman from the 10th December, 1979 to the 8th of January, 1980. The second trip lasted two days for checking. Due to the limited time, the description presented here is not to be considered an exhaustive one. More data would undoubtedly lead to find out more structural patterns.

The data consists of elicited words, phrases, sentences, stories as well as spontaneous utterances recorded on tape.

In analysing, I use my own kinesthetic feeling. For the vowels and registers, I afterwards checked them with the notes of Mrs. Keele and Mr. Gainey.

0.6 Transcriptions

The transcriptions used here are not regarded as the phonemic system. I adopted Mrs. Keele's system for convenience in writing.

p	voiceless unaspirated bilabial stop
ph	aspirated bilabial stop
b	voiced bilabial stop
t	voiceless alveolar stop
th	aspirated alveolar stop
d	voiced alveolar stop
k	voiceless velar stop
kh	aspirated velar stop
ʔ	glottal stop
f	voiceless labio-dental fricative
s	voiceless alveolar fricative
h	voiceless glottal fricative
tʃ	voiceless alveolar affricate
c	voiceless prepalatal affricate
ch	aspirated prepalatal affricate
m	voiced bilabial nasal
n	voiced alveolar nasal
ɲ	voiced palatal nasal
ŋ	voiced velar nasal
l	voiced alveolar lateral
r	voiced alveolar tap
w	voiced bilabial semivowel
y	voiced palatal semivowel
i	high front unrounded short vowel
i:	high front unrounded long vowel

e	high-mid front unrounded short vowel
eː	high-mid front unrounded long vowel
ɛ	low-mid front unrounded short vowel
ɛː	low-mid front unrounded long vowel
æ	low front unrounded short vowel
æː	low front unrounded long vowel
ɨ	high central unrounded short vowel
ɨː	high central unrounded long vowel
ə	high-mid central unrounded short vowel
əː	high-mid central unrounded long vowel
ʌ	low-mid central unrounded short vowel
ʌː	low-mid central unrounded long vowel
ɑ	low central unrounded short vowel
ɑː	low central unrounded long vowel
u	high back rounded short vowel
uː	high back rounded long vowel
o	high-mid back rounded short vowel
oː	high-mid back rounded long vowel
ɔ	low-mid back rounded short vowel
ɔː	low-mid back rounded long vowel
ɒ	low back rounded short vowel
ɒː	low back rounded short vowel

0.7 Register¹

So is a Mon-Khmer language which has a system of two registers. The first register is found as normally voiced vowels and the second register consists of breathy-voiced vowels. Stated in terms of pitch, normal syllables (1st register) usually have mid level pitch whereas breathy syllables (2nd register) have low rising pitch.

0.8 Stress

The majority of the words of So are monosyllabic. On disyllabic it is usually the second of the disyllabic forms which is stressed, in the shortening of the unstressed first syllable.

ku:ci:t → kũ?ci:t. 'die'²

The disyllabic words having ?a? as the first syllable may have to drop the first syllable, resulting in a monosyllabic form.

?a? wãh 'rice'
 ci:a wãh 'eat rice'
 oat

0.9 General Characteristics of So Language

A. The weakening of certain verbs makes them have one or more uses as verbs, adverbs, etc. in addition to their normal use as main verbs.

like	/o:n/	'give',	/pã?/	'go'
	/ã:t/	'be, live',	/ku?ci:t/	'die'

on preverbal or postverbal functions.

vowels (2nd register) are represented by a grave accent mark
 vowel

means unstressed

3. mpeⁱ? (V,0 deletion)

'Mother'

D. Affixes are scarcely found (Sec 4.2).

E. A morpheme may sometimes drop its presyllable as mentioned in (Sec. 0.8)

F. Complex verb phrases are common in this language.

CHAPTER I - CLAUSE

Clauses are constructions of phrases which consist of words and morphemes strings. Clauses normally function as elements in a sentence, but may also be embedded in a noun phrase.

A Clause is usually marked off by a pause before and after it. The length of the pauses signals the status of the clause in the sentence, signals the difference between sentence - medial breaks and sentence - breaks. A clause is also marked by an intonation contour which signals the clause classes.

So clauses are described in terms of nuclear and peripheral slots.

The structure of So clause may be diagrammed very generally as:

= ± S:np + P : vp ± O : np ± IO : np ± Loc : pp/place name/den
± Man : adv.p ± Temp : word/phrase ± Final Part : f.p.

That is, the nucleus generally follows an S-P-O-IO order and the elements follow the nucleus. The nucleus elements are an optional position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1), an obligatory Predicate filled by a verb phrase (Sec 2.2), an optional Object position filled by a nominal phrase, and an optional Indirect Object position filled by a nominal phrase. The peripheral elements are an optional Location position filled by a phrase (Sec 2.3) or a place name or a demonstrative (Sec 3.2), an Manner position filled by an adverb phrase (Sec 2.4), an optional position filled by a word or a phrase and an optional Final Particle position filled by a final particle (Sec 3.15)

These peripheral elements supply additional information to the basic situation expressed by the clause nucleus. The Location position includes such notions as source, destination, direction etc. There will seldom be more than of these notions in a single clause. The Manner position describes the of performing the action. The Temporal position indicates either the at which the action takes place or the duration of the action. The Final position indicates politeness or command or reverence of the speaker.

So basic clause types discussed here are divided into statement, and interrogative classes, as determined by their form and by their in sentences. Each of these classes may be subdivided by the transitivity

.1 Statement Clause

The statement clause functions primarily in the nucleus and periphery declarative sentences, though it may also function in the periphery of or interrogative sentences, or in the nucleus of social sentences or be embedded at other levels.

The statement clause is marked by a final mid level or very slightly intonation.

Structurally, statement clauses may be divided into the following transubtypes : transitive, intransitive, bitransitive, descriptive, equation, propulsion, quotative, locative, existence, reciprocal, evaluation, and relative. These subtypes differ from each other in the verb which they take, in some of their nuclear slots, in some of their optionals, and in their transformation potential.

1.1.1 Transitive Clause

The elements of the transitive clause are :

Cl. tr. = \pm S : np + P : vp _{tr.} \pm O : np

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a transitive verb phrase (Sec 2.2.1,3.10) and an optional Object position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1). These elements constitute the nucleus, and they may be preceded and/or followed by peripheral elements. Peripheral elements Location, Manner, and Temporal are **fairly common**. There seems to be a postnuclear position. Temporal is the only element observed in both the prenuclear and the postnuclear positions.

1.	ʔaʔlay	ci:a	mpɪl	æ:m	lɪʔ
	he	eat	tanarind	delicious	indeed

'He ate tanarinds very deliciously.'

2.	mpeʔ	puam	yih	ciʔkat
	mother	progressive mk.	sew	skirt

'Mother is sewing a skirt.'

3.	raʔnæn	ki:	puam	ʔaʔroh	taʔna:m	ʔaʔlu:an	ʌ:t
	child	that	prog.mk	water	tree		live

'That child is watering trees.'

4.	ʔaʔlay	cəʔ	kaʔmu:t	ʔaʔsæ:ŋ	taŋ	kaʔlo:nkaʔmu:t	maʔhay
	he	place	body	down	in	coffin	yesterday

'He placed the body down in the coffin yesterday.'

5. ?an war wak hay 'He dislikes us.'
 he(i:np) hate group we

The normal order of these elements is S-P-O. It may vary to O-S-P when the object is in focus and some elements may be deleted, giving elliptical forms if the context or situation is obviously understood.

Transitive Battery

Partial citation on the clause root :

1. /dan 'dan' - Actor (represented as S)
 ci:a 'eat' - Action (represented as V)
 mpil 'tamarind' - Goal (represented as O) /

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1. dan ci:a mpil
 / S V O /
 'Dan ate tamarinds.'</p> | <p>1. Declarative Active. Used in simple discourse.</p> |
| <p>2. dan <u>ngv</u> ci:a mpil
 tuis
 / S dan V O /
 'This Dan ate tamarinds.'</p> | <p>2. Declarative emphatic active. Used to emphasize the actor.</p> |
| <p>3. dan <u>puam</u> ci o mpil
 prog.nk
 / S pre.V V O /
 'Dan is eating tamarinds.'</p> | <p>3. Declarative continual active. Used to identify the Action.</p> |
| <p>4(a). dan ci:a mpil ha?
 / S V O q.part /
 'Dan did (you) eat tamarinds?'</p> | <p>4. Simple yes/no question. Used to question the reality of the action.</p> |

(b). $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{ci:a} & \text{mpil} & \text{ha?} & \text{dan} \\ /V & 0 & \text{q.part} & 5/ \end{array}$

'Did (you) eat tamarinds, Dan?'

5. $\begin{array}{cccccc} \text{dan} & \text{ci:a} & \text{mpil} & \text{ca:} & \text{ha?} & \\ /3 & V & 0 & \text{already} & \text{q.part/} & \end{array}$

'Has Dan already eaten tamarinds?'

5. Simple yes/no question. Used to question the reality of the

6. $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{mpil} & \text{dan} & \text{ci:a} & \text{ca:} \\ /0 & S & V. & \text{adv./} \end{array}$

'Tamarinds, Dan has already eaten.'

6. Declarative emphatic Goal. Used to emphasize the Goal.

7. $\begin{array}{cccccc} \text{mpil} & \text{a?} & (\text{thi:}) & \text{dan} & \text{ci:a} & \\ /0 & \text{q.part} & (\text{rel.pr.}) & S & V/ & \end{array}$

'Tamarinds were the things (that) Dan ate, weren't they?'

7. Yes/no question. Used generally to question for sure of the Goal and to emphasize the Goal.

8. $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{dan} & \text{i:} & \text{ci:a} & \text{mpil} \\ /S & \text{pre v.} & V & 0 \end{array} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ha?} \\ \text{a?} \end{array} \right\} \text{q.part/}$

'Would you like to eat tamarinds, Dan?'

8. Yes/no question. Used to question the desire of the

9. (a) $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{ta?row} & \text{dan} & \text{caq} & \text{ci:a} \\ /q.w. & & \text{pre v.} & V \end{array} \text{mpil } C/$

9. Extra question. Used to question for supplementary information not given in the clause

(b) $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{dan} & \text{ci:a} & \text{mpil} & \text{ta?row} \\ /3 & & & \text{q.w./} \end{array}$

(c) $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{dan} & \text{ci:a} & \text{ta?row} & \text{mpil} \\ /S & V & \text{q.w.} & 0/ \end{array}$

'Why did Dan eat tamarinds?'

10. $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{dan} & \text{mpil:ayh} & \text{ci:a} & \text{mpil} \\ /1 & \text{not} & V & 0/ \\ & \text{pre.v} & & \end{array}$

10. Negative active. Used to negate the action.

'Dan didn't eat tamarinds.'
(because they are sour or because he does not like tamarinds.)

11. dan ha?bi:n ci:a mpil 11. Negative active.
 /S not get V O/
 pre.v
 'Dan didn't eat tamarinds.'
 (Perhaps there was no tamarinds left
 or he had already gone to bed, etc.)
12. dan ci:a mpil ha?bi:n 12. Negative active.
 /S V O neg./
 'Dan can't eat tamarinds.'
 (because he is sick or if he eats
 he may have a stomachache.)
 etc.
13. dan phu: ci:a mpil..... 13. Embedded Actor. Used to fill
 /S rel.pr V O/ a nominal slot in clause gi
 further information about t
 Actor.
 'Dan who ate tamarinds.....'
14. dan pan la?kuay ci:a mpil 14. Identification of Actor. Us
 /S V_{cop} N V O/ generally after a stated or
 implied question, 'Who was
 actor?'
 'Dan was the person who ate tamarinds.'
15.ta?row dan ci:a mpil... 15. Extra embedded clause. Used
 /.....QU. S V C.../ to fill a nominal slot in a cl
 adding supplementary inform
 or relating it to a different
 setting.
 '.....why Dan ate tamarinds.....'
16. mpil (thi:) dan ci:a..... 16. Embedded Goal. Used to fill
 /O (rel.pr) S V...../ a nominal slot in a clause gi
 further information about t
 Goal.
 'The tamarinds that Dan ate.....'
17. mpil klap dan ci:a pi? 17. Declarative passive. Used w
 /O Ik.pass S V_{lost-V}/ the Goal is the sentence to
 'The tamarinds were eaten by Dan.'

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---|
| 24. dan
/s/
'Dan' | 24. Action and Goal deletion. Used as a shorter form of the answer for questions in 16 and 17. |
| 25. mpɪl
/o/
'Tamarinds' | 25. Actor and Action deletion. Used as an elliptical form of the answer for questions in 12, 13 and 14. |

.etc.

Restrictions on the above battery :

1. In all forms, the Actor and Goal may freely have appropriate generic or anaphoric nouns or pronouns substituted for them, and there may be co-occurrence restrictions between certain nouns and verbs, according to the semantic needs. For example, in this battery inanimate nouns cannot fill the Subject slot.
2. In all forms, the Action itself cannot tell the listeners what tense it is.
3. All question forms require a low pitch on the question words/question particles.
4. In form 8, if the question word /tə'row/ 'why' is initial, it is usually followed by the proverb /caŋ/ 'therefore'.
5. Normally the order of a transitive clause is S-V-O. Sometimes, in order to bring the object into focus as the peak of the Action, the order is O-S-V, as in nos. 6,7. Note that it often has /cə:/ 'already, finish' as an accompanying particle.

6. Forms 14, 15, 18 require a stress and high pitch on the intensifiers /hə:/ or /ki:/.
7. The subject of the transitive clause will be an Experiencer, not an Actor with verbs like /ma²ha:ŋ/ 'hungry' /pa²say/ 'to be full'

Form 13 is appositional when the Actor is a proper noun, and is descriptive when the Actor is a common noun. Similarly with the Goal in Form 16.

9. Form 13 - 16 take incomplete parts of larger intonation contours.
0. Verbs filled in form 17 (passive construction) are restricted. Semantically speaking, the limited passive verbs usually have unpleasant meanings such as taŋ 'hit, peh 'kill, kon 'seize', si²ma: 'scold' (verb ci:ŋ 'eat' is rarely used in passive form).

of constants function words) in the formulaic above :

1. nay 'this' (Sec 3.3)
2. pu:n 'showing continuous action' (Sec 3.8)
3. ha² - /ha² ~ ?a²/ 'question particle'

ha² is used in slow speech.
?a² is used in fast speech.

4. ce: 'already' showing completion of action (Sec 3.6)
5. mpi:ayh 'not' - mpi:ayh ma? ha? ha²bi:n (Sec 3.3)
6. thi: thi:, phu:, ∅ (Sec 3.2)

phu: used with human Actors or human Goals.
thi: used with non-human Actors or non-human Goals.
∅ used with human and non-human Actors and Goals.

7. ʔaʔməʔ - ʔaʔməʔ, ntrow
ʔaʔməʔ used with human actors or human Goals
ntrow used with non-human actors or non-human Goals
8. taʔrow - taʔrow, məʔ, saʔməʔ (Sec 1.3, 3.14)
9. pan - pan (Sec 1.1.5, 3.9)
10. laʔkuay - 'person' (Sec 3.1)
11. klap - klap is a passive marker.
12. caŋ - caŋ (Sec 3.9)

A special feature of the transitive clause type is the possibility of overlap of two clauses, namely the nominal extension clause (Janzen 1972 :

The nominal extension clause occurs after the object nominal phrase (O_1) which is at the same time the Subject (Actor) of a second statement clause. Structurally, there are two subtypes of the nominal extension clause. One is marked by /ə/; the other by /a:n/. These two subtypes differ from each other in their structure and function.

1. The elements of the transitive nominal extension clause type A are :

$$Cl_{tr\ n.ex} = \pm S_1 : np + P : \underbrace{VP_{tr} + O_1}_{(S_2)} : np + P_2 : \left\{ \begin{array}{l} VP_{intr} \\ VP_{tr} \\ VP_{cop} \end{array} \right\} \pm \left\{ \begin{array}{l} O_2 \\ \emptyset \end{array} \right\} :$$

That is an obligatory Object₁ (functioning as Subject₂) filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory Predicate position filled by a transitive intransitive or copula verb phrase and an optional Object₂ position or obligatory Complement position filled by a nominal phrase.

1.	(naw) hc	tə:ŋ use	ku [?] la: tiger	sə:ŋ ascend	lo:n look	i:k again
	S ₁	P ₁	O ₁ (S ₂)	P ₂		

'(He) sent the tiger to come down and to see again.'

2.	?an he	ka? then	hɑ:m see	na:y - ci [?] - phaw head of sailors	ʌ:t live	tuh over there
	S ₁	P ₁		O ₁ (S ₂)	P ₂	Loc.

'Then, he saw the head of sailors over there.'

3.	?a [?] co: dog	hɑ:m see	sia? fish	pa [?] lɑ:m name	də:ŋ float
	S ₁	P ₁	O ₁ (S ₂)		P ₂

'The dog saw the fish floating.'

4.	ŋkə? I(imp)	ka? then	pa? Ic	?a [?] tɑ:ŋ tell	pha [?] ŋay village headman	kom seize	?an hc
	S ₁	P ₁			O ₁ (S ₂)	P ₂	C ₂

'Then, I went to tell the village headman to seize him.'

5.	?a [?] lay he	pəh kill	tə: class	ku:ci:t die
	S ₁	P ₁	C ₁ (S ₂)	P ₂

'He killed himself.'

6.	ʔan he	o:n give	may hin	paʔ go	toh hide	Δ:t live	tiʔ at	taʔna:m tree	ʔaʔlu:ŋ tree
	S ₁	F ₁	O ₁ (S ₂)		P ₂				

'He let him (his father) hide in the bush.'

7.	wak group	hay we	nay this	i: prog. int.	ʔaʔləʔ choose	dam be	phaʔnay village headman
		S ₁		F ₁	O ₁ (S ₂)	P ₂	Cp.

'We will choose Dam our village headman.'

Transitive nominal extension type A. Battery

Partial citation on the clause root.

- wak hay 'We' - Actor represented as S
- ha:m 'see' - Action represented as V
- ʔaʔlay 'he' - Recipient of Action or Actor₂ represented as O
- koh 'cut' - Resultant Action₂ represented as R
- ʔaʔlu:ŋ 'tree' - Goal of Action₂ represented as OR

1. wak hay ha:m ʔaʔlay koh ʔaʔlu:ŋ. Simple form.
/S V O(S₂) R OR/

'We saw him cut trees.'

2. ʔaʔlu:ŋ ʔaʔlay koh wakhay ha:m. 2. Emphatic Goal.
/OR O R V/

'Trees he cut, we saw.'

3. ʔaʔlay koh ʔaʔlu:ŋ wakhay ha:m. 3. Simple form.
/O(S₂) R OR S V/

'He cut trees, we saw.'

Battery adjuncts :

4. hɑ:m ʔaʔlay koh ʔaʔlu:ɑŋ
 /V O R OR/
 ' (We) saw that he cut trees.'
4. Actor Deletion
5. wakhay hɑ:m ʔaʔlay koh
 /S V O R/
 ' We saw that he cut.'
5. Goal of Action₂
(OR) deletion
6. ʔaʔlay koh wakhay hɑ:m
 /O R ε V/
 ' He cut, we saw.'
6. OR₂ deletion
7. wakhay hɑ:m
 /S V /
 ' We saw.'
7. O, R, OR deletion

etc.

Restrictions

- Verbs that can fill V₂ slot in form 4 are restricted. They are
/daŋ/ 'know' /raʔwo:/ 'say' /tə:ŋ/ 'use'
/hɑ:m/ 'see' /ʔaʔtɑ:ŋ/ 'tell' /o:n/ 'let'
/sɑŋ/ 'hear' /kit/ 'think' /ʔaʔlə/ 'choose'
- If R is **intransitive** verb, RC does not occur.
- Form 3, OR, O and R may served as a noun phrase which a relative pronoun /thi:/ is omitted.
- Forms 2 and 3 require a slight pause before S.

5. The Subject Slot may be filled by any animate noun.
 6. Verbs /tæ:ŋ/, /ə:n/, /hɑ:m/, /ʔaʔle/ cannot take forms 2,5,6.

B. The elements of the transitive nominal extension clause type B are :

$$Cl_{tr\ nex.} = \pm \begin{bmatrix} S_1 \\ C_2 \end{bmatrix} : np + P_1 : vp_{tr} + Mk : o:n + \begin{bmatrix} O_1 \\ S_2 \end{bmatrix} : np + P_2 : \left\{ \begin{array}{l} vp_{intr} \\ vp_{tr} \\ vp_{cop} \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \pm O_2 \\ + Cp \end{array} \right\}$$

That is an optional Subject₁ position (and at the same time the marker of the Subject₂ and Predicate₂) filled by a nominal phrase, and the

Predicate₁ position filled by a transitive verb phrase (Sec 2.21, 3.10)

obligatory Marker position filled by o:n , an obligatory Object position

as Subject₂) filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory Predicate₂

filled by a transitive or intransitive or copula verb phrase (Sec 2.2.1,

2.2.3) and an optional Object₂ position or an obligatory Complement position

filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1).

Subject deletion is fairly common. Other elements are normally

present. The normal order is $\begin{bmatrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \end{bmatrix} - P_1 - Mk - \begin{bmatrix} O_1 \\ S_2 \end{bmatrix} - P_2 (O_2)$, but to put focus on P₂, it may be shiftfronted before $\begin{bmatrix} O_1 \\ S_2 \end{bmatrix}$ as shown in examples 2 and 3. This order

$\begin{bmatrix} S_1 \\ C_2 \end{bmatrix} - P_1 - Mk - P_2 - \begin{bmatrix} O_1 \\ S_2 \end{bmatrix}$ generally found in a story. It also indicates that the Action (P₂) have already occurred.

The $\begin{bmatrix} O_1 \\ S_2 \end{bmatrix}$ is often deleted when the P₂ is filled by a copula verb phrase as shown in example 4.

1. ta?	o:n	ʔa?lu:an	ʔa?lay	bæc	(S ₁ deletion)
nake		tree		grow/sprout	
P ₁	ik	O ₁ (S ₂)		P ₂	

'(He) made trees grow or sprout.'

2. ta?	o:n	bæc	ʔi?lu:an	ʔa?lay
nake		sprout	tree	
P ₁	ik	P ₂	O ₁ (S ₂)	

'(He) made tree sprout.'

3. ta?	o:n	dəm	ni?	ʔa?lu:an
nake		fall down	all	tree
P ₁	ik	P ₂		O ₁ (S ₂)

'(He) made all trees fall down.'

4. ta?	o:n	(ʔan)	pan	suan	pan	tšay
nake		(it)	he			garden
P ₁	ik	O ₁ (S ₂)	P ₂			C ₃

'(He) turned it into a garden.'

5. ?i:	o:n	may	pa?	cah	suan	cah	tšay
want		you	go	clear the land			garden
P ₁	ik	O ₁ (S ₂)	P ₂				O ₂

'(I) want you to clear the garden.'

6. ?a?lay	?a?ta:n	o:n	ŋkɔ?	pa?	ta?	ŋi:an
he	tell		I	go	do	work
S ₁	P ₁	Mt	O ₁ (S ₂)	P ₂		

'He told me to go to work.'

7. ki:	læ	pa:y	o:n	?a?su:l	kua	lo:n	ne:wmo?	ka?de:
he		say		I	care for	look	how	
S ₁		F ₁	Mt	O ₁ (S ₂)	P ₂			cmp.

'He told me to take care of (you) in whatever way I can.'

1.1.2 Intransitive clause

The elements of the intransitive clause are :

$$Cl_{in} = \pm S : np + P : vp_{in}$$

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (See 2.1) and an obligatory Predicate position filled by an intransitive verb phrase (See 2.2.1). Peripheral location, manner and Temporal are fairly common.

1. la?kuay	ki:	ra?wo	ta?dɛh
person	that	speaks	fast

'That person speaks fast.'

2. ?a?lay	bic	ɬ:t	ti?	ta?na:m?a?lu:an
he	sleep	be/live	at	tree

'He sleeps under the tree.'

3. mpe?	yuar	mpi:ayh	bɛ:n	sa?mɛ:k	nay
mother	awake	not	have/get	morning	this

'Mother could not get up this morning.'

4. raʔnæ:n ki: ni:am ʌ:t
 child that cry be/live

'That child is crying now.'

5. dam taʔku: tiʔ aʔpɛŋ
 Dan sit in/at middle

'Dan sat in the middle.'

6. ʔaʔlay lo:ydʌʔ bɛ:n thi:nɛŋ maʔrɛh
 he swim get 1st regularly

'He is always the first in swimming.'

The normal order of the elements is S - P but sometimes when the
 is more slightly emphatic, the order will be P - S.

raʔwo: taʔdɛh lɛʔ laʔkuay ki:
 speak fast really person that

'That person ~~speaks~~ fast indeed.'

The Predicate is obligatory present, but may be omitted if it has
 been stated in previous clause or sentence as illustrated in transformation
 battery.

There are some verbs that can be both transitive and intransitive.
 Such verbs are lɛp 'flood' co:n 'get on' maʔha:ŋ 'hungry' paʔs
 be full'

Intransitive Battery

Partial citation battery on the clause root.

/ ʔaʔlay 'she' - Actor represented as S
 ni:am 'cry' - Action represented as V/

1. ?a?lay ni:am
/C V/
'She cried.'
1. Declarative active. Used in simple discourse.
2. ?a?lay puam ni:am
/S pre.V V/
'She is crying.'
2. Declarative continual active.
- ni:am a:t ?a?lay
/V post.V S /
'She is crying now.'
3. Declarative emphatic active. Used to emphasize the action.
- ?a?lay ?i: ni:am
/S pre.V V /
'She wants to cry.'
4. Declarative active. Used to express the desire of the actor.
- ?a?lay mpi:ayh ni:am
/C pre.V V /
'She does not cry.'
5. Negative active.
6. ?a?lay { ha? } bi:n ni:am
/S { mpi:ayh } pre.V V /
'She didn't cry.'
6. Negative active. Used to refuse the matter.
- ?a?lay ni:am ha?
/S V q.part /
'Does she cry?'
7. Simple yes/no question. Used to question the reality of the action.
- (a) ?a?lay ni:am ta?row
/S V QV /
(b) ta?row ?a?lay ni:am
/ QV S V /
'Why did she cry?'
8. Extra question. Used to ask for additional information not given in clause root. Form (b) is slightly more emphatic than form (a).

adjuncts :

?a'mə? ni:am
/ Q' V /

'Who cried?'

a) ?a'mə? $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} hə: \\ ki: \end{array} \right\}$ ni:am
/ QW emp. V /

?a'mə? ni:am $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} hə: \\ ki: \end{array} \right\}$
QW V emp. /

'Who? Who cried?'

?a'lay

S /

(cried)

ni:am

V /

'Cry'

9. Questioned Actor. Used to elicit the Actor.

10. Question emphatic Actor. Used to ask for sure who the Actor is.

11. Action deletion. Used as an elliptical form of a full answer of questions 9, 10.

12. Subject deletion.

the above clause

1. Form 1 can also serve as a noun phrase if Subject is a noun.
2. Inanimate nouns are not permitted to fill the Subject position in forms 2 and 4.

No intransitive clause can take a passive form.

of constants underlined here of the above

(See Transitive B)

1.1.3 Bitransitive Clause

The elements of the bitransitive clause are :

$Cl_{bi} = \pm S : np + P_1 : vp \pm O : np + P_2 : o:n \pm IO:np$
--

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1), obligatory Predicate₁ position filled by a bitransitive verb phrase (Sec 2.2.1), optional Direct Object position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1) an

Predicate₂ position filled by o:n 'give', and an optional Indirect position filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral elements consist of and location.

The optional Predicate₂ o:n 'give' which functions like 'to' or in English is normally present except when the verb in the main Predicate₁ o:n 'give'. In addition, if the Predicate₁ is filled by o:n, the O IO can switch their positions as shown in example 4.

mpe ⁱ ?	ca:n	sa ⁱ lok	o:n	sæ:m
mother	buy	shirt/ blouse	for	sister

'Mother bought a blouse for my sister.'

2. mpe ⁱ ?	wo:	pi:n	o:n	ŋko?
mother	told	story	for	I

'Mother told a story to me.'

3. pha ⁱ ni:a	ʔa ⁱ suay	co:na:y	o:n	ko:nka ⁱ mu:t
C	P ₁	O	P ₂	IO
	sent	letter	give	orphan

'Phya sent a letter to the orphan.'

4. ʔa ⁱ lay	o:n	na:	ki:	mpe ⁱ ?
he	give	'blanket	that	mother
S	P	O		IO

or ʔa ⁱ lay	o:n	mpe ⁱ ?	na:	ki:
S	P	IO	C	

'He gave his mother that blanket.'

5. ?an		ta?		wia		ta?	nian		o:n		ŋkɔ?	(0 deletion)
he(imp)		do		work		do	work		for		I(imp)	
S				P ₁					P ₂		IO	

'He worked for me.'

6. ŋkɔ?		i:		muap		kuaj	nay		o:n			(IO deletion)
I		will		give		gong	this		give			
S				P ₁		O			P ₂			

'I will give this gong to (you).'

Bitransitive clauses may be transformed as follows :

Bitransitive Battery

Partial citation on the clause root :

/dam	'Dan'	- Actor	represented as S
o:n	'give'	- Action	" " V
ɲa:(ki:)	(that) 'blanket'	- Goal ₁	represented as O
mpe?	'mother'	- Goal ₂	" IO/

- | | | | | |
|--------|-----|--------|------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. dam | o:n | ɲa:ki: | mpe? | 1. Declarative active. Used in simple |
| / S | V | O | IO / | discourse. |

'Dan gave that blanket to his mother.'

- | | | | | |
|--------|-----|------|--------|---------------------------------------|
| 2. dam | o:n | mpe? | ɲa:ki: | 2. Declarative active. Used in simple |
| / S | O | IO | O / | discourse. |

'Dan gave his mother that blanket.'

- (a) dam caŋi: o:n ɲa:ki: mpe? ya:ŋmo? 9. Extra question. Used to ask for supplementary information not given in the clause root. Forms (c) and (d) are more emphatic than forms (a) and (b).
- /S prev V O IO OW/
- (b) caŋi: o:n ɲa:ki: mpe? ya:ŋmo? dam
- /prev V O IO OW S/
- (c) ya:ŋmo? caŋi: o:n ɲa:ki: mpe? dam
- /OW prev V O IO S/
- dam ya:ŋmo? caŋi: o:n ɲa:ki: mpe?
- /S OW prev V V O IO/

when will you give that blanket to mother?'

ad'

- ' o:n ɲa:ki: mpe?
- /OW V O IO /
10. Questioned Actor. Used to elicit the Actor.

gave that blanket to mother?'

- a) ?a?mɛ? { hɛ: } o:n ɲa:ki: mpe?
- { ki: }
- /OW inten V O IO /
- ?a?mɛ? o:n ɲa:ki: mpe? { hɛ: }
- { ki: }
- /OW V O IO inten/
11. Questioned emphasis Actor. Used to elicit the Actor and to ask for sure who or what the Actor was.

- a) dam o:n ntrow mpe?
- /S V OW IO/
- dam o:n mpe? ntrow
- /S V IO OW/
- ntrow dam o:n mpe?
- /OW S V IO/
12. Action and Goals Deletion. Used as an elliptical form of the full answer for questions 10, 11.
13. Questioned Goal₁. Used to elicit the Goal₁. Forms (a) and (b) are neutral; form (c) is slightly more emphatic than (a) and (b).

'What did Dam give mother?'

14. (a) dam o:n ntrow mpe¹? $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{hə:} \\ \underline{ki:} \end{array} \right\}$
 /S V QW IO inten/
 (b) dam o:n mpe¹? ntrow $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{hə:} \\ \underline{ki:} \end{array} \right\}$
 /S V IO QW inten/
 (c) ntrow $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{hə:} \\ \underline{ki:} \end{array} \right\}$ dam o:n mpe¹?
 /QW inten S V IO/
 'What? What did Dam give mother?'

15. o:n ski:
 /V O/
 '(He) gave that blanket.'

(a) ?i: o:n mpe¹? ya:ŋmo?
 /preV V IO OW /

(b) ?i: o:n ya:ŋmo? mpe¹?
 /preV V QW IO /

(c) ya:ŋmo? i: o:n mpe¹?
 /QW pre V V IO /

'When will (you) give (it) to mother?'

17. (a) dam o:m mpe¹? nA:(phɨ:n) mo?
 /S V IC O (class) QW/

(b) nA:(phɨ:n) mo? dam o:n mpe¹?
 /O (class) QW S V IO/

'Which blanket did Dam give mother?'

8. (a) dam o:n mpe¹? nA: mo? $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{hə:} \\ \underline{ki:} \end{array} \right\}$
 /S V IO O QW inten/

(b) nA: mo? $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{hə:} \\ \underline{ki:} \end{array} \right\}$ emp. dam o:n mpe¹?
 /O OW S V IO/

'Which blanket? Which one did Dam give to mother?'

14. Questioned emphatic Goal₁. Used to elicit the Goal₁ and to ask for sure what the Goal₁ was. Form (c) is slightly more emphatic than forms (a) and (b).

15. Actor and Goal₂ deletion. Used as an elliptical form of the full answer for question in 13,14.

16. Extra-question with the Actor a Goal₁ deletion. Used to ask for supplementary information not given in clause root.

Form (c) is slightly more emphatic than forms (a) and (b).

17. Half-questioned Goal₁. Used when the Goal₁ is only partly known. Form (b) is slightly more emphatic than form (a).

18. Half-questioned emphatic Goal₁. Used to ask for sure which is the Goal₁. Form (b) is slightly more emphatic than form (a).

19. na:ki:
/ 0 /
'That blanket'
19. Actor, Action and Goal₂ deletion
Used as an elliptical form of the
full answer for questions in 18 and 1

Restrictions on the above battery and description of constants in the formulaic battery are somewhat similar to those on the transitive battery.

1.1.4 Descriptive clause

The elements of the descriptive clause are :

$$Cl_{des} = \pm S : np + p : VP_{des}$$

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase

2.1) followed by an obligatory Predicate position filled by a descriptive verb phrase (Sec 2.2.2). Observed peripheral elements are Temporal, Location and Manner (very rare).

1. ?a?lay pa:n 'He is tall.'
he tall
2. ?a?li:k pe:n 'The pig is expensive.'
pig expensive
3. ra?nɜ:n nay ?a?ka:c lɛ? 'This child is lazy indeed.'
child this lazy indeed
4. ci?na?cia: ci?nay ɜ:m 'The food today is delicious.'
food today delicious

or ci?nay ci?na:ci:a æ:m 'Today the food is delicious.'
 today food delicious

5. ci?na:ci:a doŋ nay æ:m lɿ?
 food house this delicious indeed
 'The food of this house is delicious indeed.'

6. ci?nay ?a?pay məc lɿ?
 today you pretty indeed
 'Today you are very pretty.'

An interesting feature of the descriptive clause of So is that
 may be more than one descriptive verb in a clause.

7. doŋ pu:t pa:ŋ məc kɔ:k
 house big tall beautiful white
 'The house is big tall beautiful white.'

8. ra?pay thaw va:ŋ məc
 woman old tall beautiful
 'The woman is old tall beautiful.'

Note that in normal speech the fully expanded form is rarely found
 its use is not incorrect. The speaker usually breaks it into two
 three sentences or uses juncture after each descriptive verbs.

Besides, a reduplicated descriptive verb with a high rising pitch
 as an intensifier.

9. tia[?] tia[?] 'Very very old.'
old
10. ?a[?]ni:a tók tók 'The villagers are very poor.'
villager poor

Descriptive Battery

- / ra[?]nə:n nay 'this child' - Subject represented as S
- ?a[?]ka:c 'lazy' - State or Attribute represented as V
1. ra[?]nə:n ?a[?]ka:c 1. Declarative descriptive. Used in
/ S V / simple discourse.
'This child is lazy.'
2. ra[?]nə:n nay ?a[?]ka:c l[!]? 2. Declarative emphatic descriptive.
/ S V inten/ Used to emphasize the attribute.'
'This child is lazy indeed.'
3. ra[?]nə:n to:nay ?a[?]ka:c l[!]? 3. Declarative emphatic descriptive.
/ S class V inten/ Form 3 is slightly more specific than
'This child is lazy indeed.' form 2.
4. ?a[?]ka:c l[!]? ra[?]nə:n nay 4. Declarative more emphatic descriptive
/ V inten S / Form 4 is used when attribute is in
'Lazy indeed! This child.' focus.
5. ra[?]nə:n nay ?a[?]ka:c ha[?] 5. Yes/no question. Used to question the
/ S V q.part/ reality of the state.
'Is this child lazy?'

6. ra²nə:n nay ha² (thi:) ¹?a²ka:c li¹? 6. Yes/no question. Used to ask for
/ S q.part V inten/ surc whether this is the Subject.
'Is this the child (that) is lazy indeed?'
7. ra²nə:n nay ¹?a²ka:c li¹? ha² 7. Yes/no question (tag question).
/ S V inten q.part/ Used to question the reality of
'This child is lazy, isn't it?' the state.
8. ra²nə:n ¹?a²ka:c..... 8. Noun phrase.
/ S V/
'The lazy child.....'
9. ra²nə:n phu: ¹?a²ka:c..... 9. Embedded Subject. Used to fill a
/ S rel.pr. V / nominal slot in a clause giving
'The child who is lazy.....' further information about the
Subject.
10. ra²nə:n to: mo² ¹?a²ka:c 10. Half-questioned Subject. Used to
/ S class QW V / elicit the Actor when the Actor
'Which child is lazy?' is partly known.

Battery adjuncts

11. ra²nə:n nay pan sa²mo² 11. Questioned attribute. Used to elicit
/ S V_{cop} QW / the attribute.
'How is this child?'
12. (a) ¹?a²me¹? ¹?a²ka:c 12. Questioned Subject. Used to elicit
/ QW V / the Actor. Form (a) is used in
'Who is lazy?' simple discourse, and form (b) is
(b) ¹?a²me¹? $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{hə:} \\ \underline{ki:} \end{array} \right\}$ ¹?a²ka:c used to ask for sure who the Actor
/ QW emp V / is.

Restrictions on the above battery

1. In all forms the Subject may freely have appropriate nouns or pronouns substituted for it.
2. Form 4 requires a pause after 1ⁱ?.
3. Forms 3, 5 and 7 require a stress and high pitch on the intensifier.
4. Form 9 takes incomplete parts of larger intonation contour.
5. Form 8 accepts only nouns (not pronouns) as Subject.

Description of the constants (underlined here) in the battery

The constants in the formulas above are similar to those in the transitive battery.

1.1.5 Equational clause

The elements of the equational clause are :

$$Cl_{cq} = \pm I_1 : np \pm i : vp_{cq} + I_2 : np$$

That is, an optional I_{ter_1} position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1), an optional Predicate position filled by an equational verb phrase (Sec 2.2.3), and an obligatory I_{em_2} position filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral elements—Temporal, Manner and Location are rarely present.

The normal order of the elements is $I_1 - P - I_2$.

1. ?a?lay pan kru: ti? wi:l nay
 he be teacher in village this

'He is a teacher in this village.'

2. dam pan la?kuay cap
 Dam be person good

'Dam is a good person.'

3. ?an ra?mih dam
 he name Dam

'His name is Dam.'

Each element can be deleted when it is obviously understood,

1 when this element in a clause is asked for in a previous question.

4. ?a?me? pan kru: 'Who is a teacher?'
 who be teacher

?a?lay 'He (is a teacher).'

he

Restrictions on the occurrence of elements are :

1. Item₂ can occur immediately after Item₁, if there is a slight pause between them.

ra?nə:n nay kə:n hi?
 child this son I

'This child (is) my son.'

Item₂ cannot precede Item₁. If Item₂ is in the position of

Item₁, the function and the meaning will change except when

the Predicate is the verb ra?mih 'have'

1.1.6 Motion clause

A motion clause consists of a motion verb phrase in relationship with the Location. It never has an object. The elements of the motion clause are :

$$Cl\ mo = \overset{+}{-} S : np + P : vp\ mo \overset{+}{-} Loc_1 : pp/np \overset{+}{-} Loc_2 : np$$

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a motion verb phrase (Sec 2.2.1, 3.10), an optional Location₁ position filled by a prepositional phrase (Sec 2.3) or a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1) and an optional Location₂ position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1). Observed peripheral elements are Manner and Temporal.

A special feature of the motion clause is that the main verb in the motion verb phrase such as ta?luh 'run', pa? 'go', ta?yah 'walk' etc. is frequently followed by directional verb (DV). Such DV are pa? 'go', cu: 'return, come', se:n 'ascend' 'descend', mu:t 'enter'. Besides, there may be two directional verbs in a motion clause.

The normal order of the motion clause is s-p-Loc

1.	?a?lay	ta?luh	lic	mu:t	taŋ	sak
	he	run	escape	enter	in	forest
	S	P		DV		Loc : pp

'He ran and escaped into the forest.'

2.	?a?lay	ta?luh	cu:	doŋ
	he	run	return	house
	S	P	DV	Loc : np

'He ran home.'

3.	pay 3	na [?] class.	ki: [!] that	ʔa [?] lay they	pa [?] go	m [!] aŋ town	tə: [!] from	si [!] ?mə:k morning
			S		P	Loc:np		Temp:pp

'Those three have gone to town since morning.'

4.	ʔan it	ka [?] then	l [!] ə:y float	pa [?] go	n [!] iŋ along	da [?] water
	S		P	DV		Loc:pp

'It then floated along the water'

5.	mə:w cat	ka [?] then	cə:n ascend	si [?] no [?] nest	cəm bird	ki: [!] that
	S		P			Loc:np.

'The cat then went up to the bird-nest.'

6.	mə:w cat	si [?] dəh jump	cə:n ascend	kloŋ back	ʔa [?] cə: dog
	S	P	DV		Loc:np

'The cat jumped on the dog's back.'

7.	cəm bird	par fly	m [!] u:t enter	pa [?] go	ti [?] in	doŋ house
	S	P	DV ₁	DV ₂		Loc:pp

'The bird flew into the house.'

8.	pha village headman	ʔpay come	ŋəh come	tə: [!] from	doŋ house	hi [?] I
	S		P			Loc:np

Occasionally, there are two Location elements telling the starting place (source) to the ending place (destination). Then the order of the elements is S-P-Loc₁ (Source) - DV-Loc₂ (Destination).

9.	dam	ta [?] yah	ta: doŋ	pa [?]	ta [?] li:ŋ
		walk	from house	go	rice-field
	S	P	Loc ₁ :pp	DV	Loc ₂ :np

'Dam walked from his house to the rice-field.'

10.	ŋkə [?]	ta [?] luh	ta: wat	pa [?]	doŋ
	I	run	from temple	go	house
	S	P	Loc ₁ :pp	DV	Loc ₂ :np

'I ran from the temple to the house.'

In order to bring the Action into focus, the Predicate is shiftfronted. It also implied that the Action has already finished and was one of the Action of a sentence.

11.	cu:	ʔan	ka [?]	cu:	mi:at
	return	he		return	still
	P	S			

'Having returned home, he did nothing.'

12.	(..li:a	cu:)	cu:	doŋ	naw	(læ:
	say	return	return	house	he	
	good-bye		P	Loc:np	S	

'(Then he said, "Good-bye".) Having returned his home,.....'

Normally, S, P and Loc. are present but each of these elements may be deleted when it is obviously understood, usually when the element in a clause is asked for in a previous question.

13.	A:	pha [?] pay	ŋəh	ta:	mo [?]
		village	come	from	where
		headman			

'Where do you come from?'

B.	ŋəh	ta:	doŋ	(S deletion)
	come	from	house	

'(I) come from my house.'

14. A: pA? mo?
go where

'Where are you ing?'

B: pA? ta'li:ŋ (S deletion)
go rice-field

'(I'm) going to the rice-field.'

15. A: pA? ta'li:ŋ ha?
go rice-field q.part.

'Are you going to the rice-field?'

B: pA? (S, Loc. deletion)
go

'Yes, I am.'

Though some of the motion verbs and directional verbs are homonymous as seen in the examples above, it is restricted that if a directional verb is the main (motion) verb, it cannot be followed by the same directional verb.

* ?a?lay	pA?	ta'li:ŋ	pA?
he	go	rice-field	go
S	P(MV)	Loc.	DV.

1.1.7 Propulsion clause

The propulsion clause is based on propulsion verbs which function in a complex sentence which contains elements of a transitive clause. It differs from the transitive nominal extension clause (Sec 1.1.1) in that the Object of a propulsion verb phrase is not the Agent (Subject) of the next Predicate (P₂) whereas the Object of a transitive nominal extension clause is at the same time the Agent (Subject) of the next Predicate (P₂). Besides, the Object in the propulsion clause is an inanimate noun whereas the Object, in the transitive nominal extension clause is an animate noun.

The elements of the propulsion clause are :

Cl prop = + $\left[\begin{array}{c} S_1 \\ S_2 \end{array} \right]$: np + P₁ : VP prop + 0 : np + P₂ : DV + Loc : pp/np

That is, an obligatory Subject₁ (and at the same time functioning as the Subject of the Predicate₂) position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1), an obligatory Predicate₁ position filled by a propulsion verb phrase (Sec 2.2.1, 3.10), an obligatory Object position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1), an optional Predicate₂ position filled by a directional verb (Sec 3.10) and an optional Location position filled by a prepositional phrase (Sec 2.3) or a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1).

1.	ʔan he	i:t take	ku:an gong	ʔaʔca:n take up	caʔ to	pa:y top	koh hill
	S ₁ (S ₂)	P ₁	0	P ₂	Loc:pp		

'He took the gong to the top of the hill.'

2.	ma:w cat	ŋka:m bite	i:t take	ka:w glass	ki: that	ʔaʔsa:ŋ take down
	S ₁ (S ₂)	P ₁	0	0	P ₂	

'The cat took the glass down'

3.	ka:n son	i:t take	ʔasaʔ uncooked rice	tiʔ in	wi:l village
	S	P ₁	0	Loc:pp	

'The son went to take uncooked rice in the village.'

4.	ŋkaʔ I	ʔaʔcu: borrow	ʔaʔdax pot	phaʔjay village headman	cu: return	doŋ house
	S ₁ (S ₂)	P ₁	0	P ₂	Loc:np	

I borrowed the village headman's pot and took it home.'

5.	ʔaʔlaʔ	i:t	daʔ	cʔ	ʔaʔdɛh
	she	take	water	put into	pot
	S ₁ (S ₂)	P ₁	O	P ₂	Loc.np

'She put water into a pot.'

Like the transitive clause, the Object may be frontshifted when it is emphasized. The order is O-S₁(S₂) - P₁ - P₂ - Loc.

6.	ku:ɑŋ	ʔan	i:t	ʔaʔca:n	caʔ	pa:y	koh
	gong	he	take	take up	to	top	hill
	O	S ₁ (S ₂)	P ₁	P ₂	Loc:pp		

'He took the gong to the top of the hill.'

The Subject and the Object are normally present but they may be deleted when they are obviously understood, usually when they are asked for in a previous sentence.

Restrictions on the propulsion clause are :

1. The Subject of the Predicate₁ must be the same Subject of the Predicate₂.

2. The Object is normally an inanimate noun.

1.1.2 Quotative Clause

A quotative clause is a clause that contains one of a small group of quoting verbs followed directly or closely by the verb pa:y 'say' which functions as a quotation marker. It is frequently found in a story - telling.

The elements of the quotative clause are :

Cl _{quot.} =	± S:np	+ P: vp _{quot.}	± O:np/pp	+ Mk _{quot.} : pa:y	+ { Quot } : Cl	+ { Cp. } : name
-----------------------	--------	--------------------------	-----------	------------------------------	-----------------	------------------

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a quotative verb phrase (Sec 2.2.1, 3.10), an optional Object position filled by a

nominal phrase (Sec 2.1) or a prepositional phrase (Sec 2.3), an obligatory Quotative Marker position filled by the verb pa:y 'say' and an obligatory Quotative position filled by a clause (Sec 1) or an obligatory Complement position filled by a name (Sec 3.1).

The normal order of the quotative clause is S-P-O-Mk-Quot/Cp.

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----|------------------------------|----------|-----------|----------|------------|------------------|----------|-------|
| 1. | na:yci?paw
sailor headman | læ: then | wo: speak | pa:y say | ta?row why | ?a?rð:na:k shout | Δ:t live | ti at |
| | S | | P | Mk | Quot. | | | |

'The sailor headman then said, 'Why did you come to shout here?'

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|-------------|--------|--------------|-------------|---------------|----------|--------|-------------|-------------|
| 2. | cə: already | ?an he | ?a?ta:ŋ tell | ku?pay wife | pha?ni:a Phya | pa:y say | naw he | ku:ci:t die | cə: already |
| | S | P | | O:np | | Mk | Quot | | |

'Then he told Phya's wife that Phya had died already.'

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|-----------|--------|-----------------|----------|---------------|--------|-------|
| 3. | læ: speak | wo: to | cə? ku?pay wife | pa:y say | ta?mil monkey | ta? do | |
| | P | | O:np | Mk | Quot | | |

'Then (he) spoke to his wife that the monkey.....'

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|--------|-----------------|----------|---------------|-------------|------------|------|
| 4. | ?an he | si?baw announce | pa:y say | pha?ni:a Phya | mpi:ayh not | cu: return | læ:w |
| | S | P | Mk | Quot | | | |

'He announced that Phya would not come back again.'

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|----------------|----------|-------------|---------------|---------------|----------|----------|
| 5. | la?kuay person | thaw old | ?a?lon call | ra?næ:n child | ra?næ:n child | pa:y say | bak kɛ:y |
| | S | | P | O:np | | Mk | Cp |

'The old people call children 'Bak Kiy':

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|------------------|------|-------------|-------------|-----|----------|-------|
| 6. | ?a?ni:a villager | wi:ŋ | ?a?lon call | to: class I | hi? | pa:y say | tšro: |
| | S | | P | O:np | | Mk | Cp |

'The villagers call themselves 'SO.'

7.	wak ¹ group	ʔaʔlay they	ʔaʔlɔŋ ¹ call	ŋkɔʔ ¹ I	pa:y say	kaʔsaw
	S		F	O:np	Mk	Cp

'They call me 'Kasaw.'

8.	dam	coʔraʔmɪh ¹ name	ko:n son	taʔna:m eldest	pa:y say	kaʔsaw
	S	P	O:np		Mk	Cp

'Dam named his eldest son 'Kasaw.'

As far as the data concerned, the clauses containing verbs

ʔaʔlɔŋ¹ 'call' and coʔraʔmɪh¹ 'to name' do not have any transformational forms.

Another common form of quotative clause is S-P-Quot-Mk or Quot-Mk-S-P (usually found in story telling).

9.	are:w cat	ʔaʔblɪh ¹ ask	taʔ saʔmoʔ do how	pa:y say
	S	P	Quot	Mk

'The cat asked, 'How will we do?'

10.	ʔan he	siʔbaw announce	pa:y say
	S	P	Quot	Mk

'He announce that'

11.	ni:am cry	taʔrow why	lo:n son	pa:y say	mpɛʔ ¹ mother	wo: speak
		Quot.		Mk	S	P

'Why did you cry, son?', said mother.'

12.	bi:n get	naʔ f.p.	pa:y say	cɛm ki: bird that	wo: speak
		Quot	Mk	S	P

'Yes, I can get it', said the bird.'

13. $\eta k o^? \quad i: \quad b i: n \quad b e^? \quad n a y \quad i: \quad c i: c \quad | \quad p a: y \quad | \quad m a: w \quad k i: \quad | \quad w o: \quad |$
 will get you this will eat | say | eat that | speak
 Quot | Mk | S | P

'I am going to eat you', said the cat.'

So far, wo: 'speak' is the only quoting verb found in the P of the form Quot - Mk - S - P as seen in the examples 11, 12, 13.

Rarely, the form Quot - Mk - P - S is observed. Only one example has been found.

14. $c i h \quad \eta k o^? \quad | \quad p a: y \quad | \quad ? a^? t a: \eta \quad | \quad ? a^? c o: \quad |$
 ride I | say | tell | dog
 Quot | Mk | P | S

'Ride on my back,' the dog orders.'

The quotative verb phrase may be filled by two quotative verbs.

For example,

15. $n a w \quad | \quad s i^? b a w \quad ? a^? t a: \eta \quad | \quad p a: y \quad | \quad \dots \dots \dots \quad |$
 he | announce tell | say | Cl.
 S | P; seq of V | Mk | Quot

'He announced that.....'

Occasionally, a quotative clause will also contain

sa¹?ki: 'like this' to emphasize the Predicate.

16. $n a w \quad | \quad w o: \quad s a^? k i: \quad | \quad p a: y \quad | \quad \dots \dots \dots \quad |$
 he | speak like this | say | Cl.
 S | P | Mk | Quot

'He said like this that.....'

Whenever the Subject (Speaker) is stated in the previous context, the S and P may be deleted, retaining only the quotation and the quotative marker.

17.	cu:	co?	ko:n	co:	ku?pay		pa:y
	return	see	son	see	wife		say
			Quot				Mk

'Go home to visit our family', (said one of the friend).

18.	cu:	ka?	cu:		pa:y
	return		return		say
			Quot		Mk

'O.K.', (the other friend said)!

The two friends are talking. One persuaded the other to go home to visit his son and his wife.

Quotative Battery

Partial citation of the clause root :

dam	'Dam'	- Actor or Speaker represented as S
ra?wo:/wo!	'speak'	- Action represented as V
cu:co:	'return home'	- Quotation represented as Cl.

- | | | | | | |
|----|----------|-------------------|-------------|--------|---|
| 1. | dam | wo: | <u>pa:y</u> | cu:ce: | 1. Simple indirect statement. |
| | / S | V | mk | Cl / | Used in ordinary discourse. |
| 2. | cu:ce: | <u>pa:y</u> | dam | wo: | 2. Simple direct statement. |
| | / Cl | mk | S | V / | |
| 3. | dam ?an | wo: | <u>pa:y</u> | cu:co: | 3. Emphatic Actor. Used to emphasize the Actor. |
| | / S pron | V | mk | Cl / | |
| 4. | dam | wo: <u>sa?ki:</u> | <u>pa:y</u> | cu:ce: | 4. Emphatic Action. Used to emphasize the Action. |
| | / S | V adv. | mk | Cl / | |

5. dam wo: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} n^1 r^1 \\ c\omega^? \end{array} \right\} \underline{cu^? pa:y} \underline{pa:y} \underline{cu:c\acute{e}:}$ 5. Another simple form of the
 / S V O mk Cl / quotative clause. It has an
 addressee.

Battery adjuncts.

6. $\underline{cu:c\acute{e}:}$ $\underline{pa:y}$ dam 6. V. deletion.
 / Cl mk S /
7. $\underline{cu:c\acute{e}:}$ dam $\underline{pa:y}$ 7. V. deletion.
 / Cl S mk /
8. dam $\underline{pa:y}$ $\underline{cu:c\acute{e}:}$ 8. V. deletion.
 / S mk Cl /
9. $\underline{cu:c\acute{e}:}$ $\underline{pa:y}$ 9. S, V deletion. Used normally
 / Cl mk / in a tale when the context is
 clear who the speaker is.
10. wo: $\underline{pa:y}$ $\underline{cu:c\acute{e}:}$ 10. S deletion.
 / F mk Cl /
11. dam wo: \underline{ntrow} 11. Questioned quotation. Used
 / S V QW / to elicit the Quotation.
12. $^? a^? m\omega^?$ wo: $\underline{cu:c\acute{e}: pa:y}$ 12. Questioned Actor. Used to elicit
 / QW V Cl mk / the Actor or the Speaker.

Restrictions on the quotative battery

1. The forms in this battery are practically interchangeable in any grammatical or semantic context.
2. Forms 9, 10 generally require a stated subject in the preceding sentence.
3. Forms that have pa:y at the final - clause position (7,9,12) require a low pitch at the end.

4. The noun after n[!]ŋ and co[?] in form 5 may be substituted by any animate nouns (Sec. 3.1).

Constants in the battery

pa:y - pa:y is used as the Quotative Marker. It may also function as a main verb.

sa?ki: - sa?ki: (Sec 2.4.3, 3.11)

?an (Sec 3.2)

$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} n^! \eta \\ co^? \end{array} \right\} ku^?pay$ (Sec 2.3.5)

ntrow (Sec 1.3.2, 3.14)

?a?mø? (Sec 1.3.2, 3.14)

1.1.9 Locative Clause

The element of the locative clause are :

$Cl_{loc.} = \overset{+}{-} S : np + P : Vp_{loc.} + L_{oc.} : pp / np$

That is an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a locative verb phrase (Sec 3.10), and an obligatory Location position filled by a prepositional phrase (Sec 2.3) or a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1). Peripheral Temporal has been observed in this clause type.

The normal order of the locative clause is S - P - Loc.

1. ?a?li:k | Δ:t | tar kɔ? ti? kru:m doŋ
 pig | live | in pen at under house

'Pigs are in the pen under the house.'

2. sia? | Δ:t | ti? dΔ?
 fish | live | in water

'The fish lives in water.'

3. ?a?lay | Δ:t | doŋ ci?nay
 he | live | house today

'He {stays} at home today.'
 {is }

To focus the Location, the order will be Loc. - S - P or Loc. - P - S as shown in battery.

Location clause battery

Partial citation of the clause root .

sia? 'fish' - Subject (S)

Δ:t 'live' - Predicate/Verb (V)

ti? dΔ? 'in the water' - Location (Loc)

1. sia? Δ:t ti? dΔ? 1. Simple Location. Used in simple
 / S V Loc / discourse.
 fish live in water
 'Fish live in the water.'

Battery Adjuncts

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>9. sia? ti?da?
/ S Loc /
'The fish in the water.'</p> | <p>9. Verb deletion. It takes the nominal phrase form.</p> |
| <p>10. a:t ti?da?
/ V Loc /
'Live in the water.'</p> | <p>10. Subject deletion. Used generally after a stated question, 'What is in the water?'</p> |
| <p>11. a:t
/ V /
'Live'</p> | <p>11. Subject and Location deletion. Used generally as an answer of the simple yes/no question.</p> |
| <p>12. ti?da?
/ Loc /
'In the water.'</p> | <p>12. Subject and Verb deletion. Used generally after a stated question, 'Where do fish live?'</p> |
| <p>13. <u>ntrow</u> a:t ti?da?
/ QW V Loc /
'What lives in water?'</p> | <p>13. Questioned Subject. Used to elicit the Subject.</p> |
| <p>14. sia? a:t <u>mo?</u>
/ S V QW /
'Where do fish live?'</p> | <p>14. Questioned Location. Used to elicit the Location.</p> |

etc.

1.1.10 Existence clause

The existence clause is mainly used to introduce persons or objects into a discourse.

The elements of the existence clause are :

Cl _{exist} = + P : mi: + S : np - Loc : pp

That is, an obligatory Predicate position filled by mi: 'have, there is', an obligatory **Subject** position filled by a nominal phrase and an optional Location position filled by a prepositional phrase (Sec 2.1.3).

The nominal order of the existence clause is P - S - Loc.

1. mi:	la?kuay	krɛŋ	ti?	wat
have	person	many	at	temple
P		S		Loc.

'There are many people at the temple.'

2. mi:	ba:r	na?	so:ŋ	siaw
have	2	class	2	friend
P		S		

'There are 2 friends.'

3. mpí:ayh mí: | ?a?mè? | i: lap
 not have | who | want return to previous place
 'Nobody wants to return,.'

Occasionally, in order to bring the Location into focus as the peak of the action, the order will be Loc - P - S. It often has a pause after Loc.

4. tí? doŋ hí? | mí: | ?a?lí:k pa?lí:ayh
 at house I | have | pig many
 'At my house, there are many pigs.'

5. ŋkri: doŋ | mí: | ta?na:m ?a?lu:aq
 behind house | have | tree many
 'Behind the house, there are many trees.'

To focus the Subject, the order of the elements will be S - Loc -

6. ?a?lí:k tí? doŋ hí? | mí: pa?lí:ayh
 pig at house I | have many
 'The pigs at my house are a lot.'

7. ta?na:m ?a?lu:aq ŋkri: doŋ | mí: pa?lí:ayh
 tree behind house | have many
 'The trees behind my house are a lot.'

another form is S - Loc.

3. ?a?li:k | ni: pa?li:ayh | ti? doŋ hi?
pig | have many | at house my

'There are many pigs at my house.'

(ni: in this form is sometimes omitted to become a nominal phrase.)

The Predicate and Subject are normally present and the Location is

If P is deleted, the existence clause appears in the form of complex nominal phrase.

1.1.11 Reciprocal Clause

There are two forms of reciprocal clause.

A, The elements of the reciprocal clause type A are :

$Cl_{rec_A} = + S : np + P : vp_{rec} + MK_{rec} : n\dot{n}ŋnə?$
--

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1), and obligatory Predicate position filled by a reciprocal verb phrase (Sec 2.2), and an obligatory Reciprocal Marker filled by n¹nŋnə?.

Peripheral Manner and Temporal are observed,

The normal order of the elements is S - P - MK.

1. ?a?lay | ci?lɔ? | n¹nŋnə?
they | quarrel |

'They quarrelled with each other.'

2. ba:r	siaw		mlt		náŋnə?	kha?na:t
2	friend		love			much

'The two friends very much love each other.'

3. ?an	{	náŋ		hi?		ci?lɔ?		náŋnə?
he	and	I		quarrel				

'He and I quarrelled with each other.'

The Predicate and the Reciprocal marker are obligatory present. The Subject can be deleted if it is a direct speech implied that the S is a first plural personal pronoun - 'we'.

4. ra?kɔp		náŋnə?
see		

'(I and you = we) will see each other again.'

Rarely, the P is shifted to the clause final position when the P is emphasized.

5. ci?lɔ?		náŋnə?		?a?lay nɛr	hi?
quarrel				he and	I

'(we) quarrel with each other, he and I.'

It is restricted that the Subject (if any) in this form must be filled by a nominal phrase which has a plural meaning.

6. ra?nə:n	pay	na?	ci?lɔ?	nɪŋnə?
child	3	class	quarrel	

'The three children quarrelled with one another.'

B. Reciprocal clauses with separate subjects take the form as follows :

$$Cl_{rec_B} = + S_1 : np + P : vp_{rec} + Prep : nɪŋ + S_2 : np$$

That is, an obligatory Subject₁ position filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory Predicate position filled by a reciprocal verb phrase (Sec 2.2, 3.10), and obligatory Prepositional filled by nɪŋ and an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec2.1).

7. ?a?lay	ci?lɔ?	nɪŋ	hi?
he (they)	quarrel	with	I

'He (They) quarrelled with me.'

The S₁ and S₂ can be switched without making the meaning vague.

8. hi?	ci?lɔ?	nɪŋ	?a?lay
I	quarrel	with	he (they)

'I quarrelled with him (them).'

If the P is emphasized, it will take the form A-5.

Reciprocal BatteryPartial citation on the clause root :

/ʔaʔlay/	'he' or 'they'	(S ₁)	}	Actors or Objects of the Action
/hiʔ/	'I'	(S ₂)		
/ciʔloʔ/	'quarrel'	(V)		Action
/n ¹ ɪŋnəʔ/		(Mk)		Reciprocal Marker

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. ʔaʔlay ciʔloʔ n ¹ ɪŋnəʔ | 1. Simple form. Used in ordinary discourse. (form A) |
| / S ₁ V Mk / | |
| 2. ʔaʔlay n ¹ ɪŋ hiʔ ciʔloʔ n ¹ ɪŋnəʔ | 2. Simple form with separate Actors. (form A) |
| / S ₁ prep S ₂ Mk / | |
| or / S _{compound} V Mk / | |
| 3. hiʔ n ¹ ɪŋ ʔaʔlay ciʔloʔ n ¹ ɪŋnəʔ | 3. S ₁ and S ₂ are switched their position. (form A) |
| / S ₂ prep S ₁ V Mk / | |
| 4. ʔaʔlay ciʔloʔ n ¹ ɪŋ hiʔ | 4. Another simple form. Used in ordinary discourse. (form B) |
| / S ₁ V prep S ₂ / | Marker deletion. |
| 5. hiʔ ciʔloʔ n ¹ ɪŋ ʔaʔlay | 5. S ₁ and S ₂ are switched. (form B) |
| / S ₂ V prep S ₁ / | |

Battery adjuncts

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| 6. ciʔloʔ n ¹ ɪŋnəʔ | 6. S deletion |
| / V Mk / | |
| 7. ciʔloʔ n ¹ ɪŋ hiʔ | 7. S ₁ deletion. Used after a stated question, 'Whom did he quarrel with?' |
| / V prep S ₂ | |

8. nɪŋ hi?
/ prep S₂ /

8. S₁ and P deletion. Used in the situation somewhat similar to 7.

9. ʔaʔlay nɪŋ hi?
/ S₁ prep S₂ /

9. P deletion. Used after a stated question, 'Who quarrel each other?'

Restrictions of the battery above

1. This battery accepts the items (in Subject position) which have restrictions against serving as either subject or object of the verb.
2. The verbs that fit in the Transitive Battery or Quotative may the Predicate position in Reciprocal clause.
3. When the S of a reciprocal verb is a plural noun or pronoun, the clause fits the Intransitive rather than the Reciprocal clause.

Description of constants (underlined here) of the battery above

nɪŋ - on the Word level in the sense of 'with' (Sec 3.4) and nɪŋnəʔ 'with oneself' in the reciprocal sense. (Sec 1.1.1.11)

1.1.12 Evaluation Clause

The elements of the evaluation clause are :

$$Cl_{eval} = + It: np \overset{+}{-} P : V_{eval} + Value : NP_{nu} / V_{des}$$

That is, an obligatory Item position filled by a nominal phrase (2.1), an optional Predicate position filled by an evaluation verb (3.10) and an obligatory Value position filled by a numeral nominal (Sec 2.1.3) or a descriptive verb (Sec 3.10). Peripheral Temporal Location are observed.

The normal order is I - (P) - Value.

1. ʔaʔli:k	(ra:ki:a)	thɛ:k	ciʔnay
pig	cost	cheap	today
It	P	Value	Temp

'Figs are cheap today.'

2. tiʔ taʔla:t	sec ʔaʔli:k	(ra:ki:a)	pu:ncit	ba:t
at market	meat pig	cost	40	
Temp	It	P		Value

'at the market, pork costs 40 baht.'

3. siʔlok	to:	nay	(ra:ki:a)	muay kuʔlam
shirt	class	this	cost	100
	It		P	Value

'This shirt costs 100 baht.'

The value position may be shiftfronted when it is emphasized.

The order is Value - Item.

4. muay kuʔlam	siʔlok	to	nay
100	shirt	class	this
Value		Item	

'This shirt costs 100 baht.'

Normally the Item and the Value are present, but they may be

deleted when they are obviously understood, usually when these elements are asked for in a previous question.

5. A: ha?mɔ? 'How much'
 B: muay ku?lam (I, P deletion)
 100

'One hundred (baht).'

6. A: ntrow ra:ki:a muay ku?lam
 what cost 100

'What costs 100 baht?'

- B: si?lok to: nay (P, Value deletion)
 shirt class this

'This shirt.'

.1.1.13 Comparison Clause

There are three degrees of comparison.

1. Comparison of equality
2. Comparative degree
3. Superlative degree

Three degrees of comparison are marked by different markers.

General formula for the comparison clause is :

$$Cl_{\text{compa}} = \overset{+}{-} S_1 : np + P : VP_{\text{des}} + Mk : mk + S_2 : np \overset{+}{-} Qt : Np_{\text{nt}}$$

That is, an optional Subject₁ position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a descriptive verb phrase (Sec 2.2.2), an obligatory Marker position filled by a marker, an obligatory Subject₂ position filled by a nominal phrase and an optional Quantity position filled by a numeral nominal phrase (Sec 2.1.3)

Comparison of equality : (is used to express equality between two subjects)

The comparison of equality clause is marked by ma?lia? ~ ?a?lia?¹
sa: 'same' or mah 'equal'. The Quantity position is always absent.

The normal order is S₁ - P - Mk - S₂.

1. ?an pu:t ?a?lia? jak 'He is as big as a giant.'
 he big same giant
2. ntaŋ ma?lia? ko:l '(He, It is) as heavy as a stone.'
 heavy same stone
3. dam æ:n ma?lia? ku?cah 'Dam is as black as charcoal.'
 black same charcoal
4. ŋkha:n ma?lia? tu:ar '(It's) as light as kapok.'
 light same kapok
5. si:w ma?lia? sa?ra: lu:aŋ '(It's) as green as a leaf.'
 green same leaf
6. mæc ma?lia? yiaŋ 'as beautiful as a fairy.'
 beautiful same fairy
7. ?a?lay pa:g mah hi? 'He is as tall as I.'
 he tall equal I
8. hi? ntaŋ mah mpe? 'I am as tall as mother.'
 I heavy equal mother
9. dam co:y sa: hi? 'Dam is as thin as I.'
 thin same I

Comparative degree (expresses the superiority of one thing over another).

The marker of comparative degree clause subtype is ku:a (a Thai-loan word). The normal order of this clause is S₁ - P - Mk - S₂ - (Qt).

ⁱ ma?lia? is used in a slow speech; ?a?lia? is used in a fast speech.

1. ?a?lay pɑ:ŋ ku:a hi? 'He is taller than I.'
 he tall than I
2. ?a?lay pɑ:ŋ ku:a hi?ba:r niw 'He is two inches taller than
 he tall than I 2 inch
3. ?a?lay pɑ:ŋ ku:a hi? bi?biŋ 'He is a little taller than I
 he tall than I little
4. ?a?li:k pe:ŋ ku:a priat 'Pigs are expensive than
 pig expensive than banana bananas.'
5. dam ntɑŋ ku:a hi? ba:r ki?lo: 'Dam is two kilogrammes heavy
 heavy than I 2 kilo than I.'

Each element may be deleted when it is obviously understood,
 usually when this element in a clause is asked for in a previous question

6. A: ?a?mə? pɑ:ŋ ku:a 'Who is the taller?'
 who tall than
- B: ?a?lay (P - Mk - S₂ - Qt deletion)
 he
7. A: ?a?lay pɑ:ŋ ku:a hi? ha?mə? 'How many (inches) is he taller than I?'
 he tall than I how much
- B: ba:r niw (S₁ - P - Mk - S₂ deletion)
 2 inch
- 'Two inches.'
8. A: pɑ:ŋ ku:a hi? kha?na:t ha? 'Is (he) much taller than I?'
 tall than I much Q. part
- B: mpi:ayh pɑ:ŋ ku:a hi?biŋ (S₁ - S₂ deletion)
 not tall than little
- 'No, (he is) a little bit taller than (you).'

Superlative degree

The commonest sign of the superlative is thi:sut 'most of all'
 which is a Thai loan word or ku:a 'comparative marker' plus phrase
hi?taŋ wi:l 'we in the village' or ka?ni:a ni? 'all friends.'

1. dam pa:ŋ thi:sut 'Dam is the tallest.'
tall
2. dam pa:ŋ ku:a ka?ni:a ni? 'Dam is the tallest boy in his
tall than friend all group.'
3. dam pa:ŋ ku:a hi? taŋ wi:l 'Dam is the tallest boy in the
tall than we in village village.'
4. mpe? hi?plān ku:a hi? taŋ wi:l
mother I fat than we in village
'My mother is the fattest woman in the village.'

1.1.14 Relative clause

The relative clauses are used to refer to specifically identified people or items. They are dependent clauses which are transformed of independent clauses (Sec 1.1.1-1.1.13). The relative normally functions as a modifier of a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1) and is adjunct to the nominal phrase it modifies.

The relative clause is marked by relative pronouns (Sec 3.2). It consists of a relative pronoun plus any independent clause type (Sec 1.1.1-1.1.13).

1. la?kuay (phu.) jəh tə: doŋ pha?ɹay ma?roŋ
person (rel.pr.) come from house village conceited
headman

'The man (who) came from the house of village headman is conceited.'

2. ku: si?ŋay ?an pa? sək bakmuaŋ thi: kə:n ka?mu:t cəh
every day he go ask for mango rel.pr. orphan grow

'Every day he went to ask for a mango that the orphan had grown.'

3. siaw phu: tok pan la?kuay ta?naŋ
 friend rel.pr. poor be person honest

'The friend who is poor is honest.'

1.2 Imperative Clause

The imperative clause is often short and manifesting fewer tagmemes. It may have a structure of the transitive or intransitive clause type, but its function is restricted to a context which is marked as direct speech, i.e., used to command the hearer to do or not to do something.

The imperative clause functions primarily in the nucleus of imperative sentence. It may also function in the nucleus of social sentence, but is rarely used in the sentence periphery or in embedding.

Imperative clauses are marked by final high or high rising intonation. Another overtly marked feature of the imperative clause type is an optional Subject. If the Subject is present, only a second personal pronoun (singular or plural) can function as Head of the nominal phrase and there must be a slight pause after it. The referent is normally omitted because it is previously known from the context.

The elements of the imperative clause are :

$$Cl_{im} = \pm S \quad np + P : vp_{in} \pm DO : np \pm IO : np$$

9. ¹bic ci? (Intransitive Imperative)
 slecp f.p.
- 'Sleep.'
10. o:n ɲa: ¹ki: ?an (Bitransitive Imperative)
 give blanket that he
- 'Give that blanket to him.'
11. pʌ? ci? na? (Motion Imperative)
 go f.p. f.p.
- 'Go.'
12. bæ? sɛ:ŋ ¹lo:n mə? (Motion Imperative)
 you go down look f.p.
- 'You! go and have a look.'
13. ?i:t ?an pʌ? (Propulsion Imperative)
 take it go
- 'Take it away.'
14. də:ŋ ʌ:t doŋ na? (Existence Imperative)
 stay home f.p.
- 'Dang ! Stay at home.'

Structurally, the imperative clause type seems to overlap with the statement clause because the Subjects in both types are optional. To distinguish them, two prominent features are suggested here. First, the negative marker of the imperative clause type is only sa? 'prohibit don't' whereas the negative markers of the statement clause type are mpi:ayh ¹, ma? and ha? 'not' ha?bi:n 'cannot'. (Sec 3.8)

15. sa? ta? ¹mi:əŋ sa? ¹ki: 'Don't make your face like th
 make face like that
- cf. ¹mpi:ayh ta? ka? bi:n
 not make get

16. sA? ci:a ?an 'Don't eat it.'
eat it
- cf. mpi:ayh ci:a 'I do not eat'.
not eat
- ci:a ha? bi:n '(I) cannot eat (it).
eat

The other indication is that no tense marker is permitted in the imperative clause.

17. ci:a cə: (Statement)
eat already

'(He) has already eaten.'

18. pu:am i: pA? cə: (Statement)
be about go already

'(I) am going to.....'

In addition, if wanting to express a strong negative imperative one uses pə? 'stop' before sA? 'don't'. For example :

19. pə? sA? ci?caŋ 'Stop laughing.' (Intransitive
stop laugh Imperative)
20. pə? sA? ci?lo? nɔ:ce? 'Stop quarrelling with each other'
stop quarrel (Reciprocal Imperative)

1.3 Interrogative Clause

The interrogative clause functions primarily in the nucleus of interrogative sentences, but may also function in the nucleus of social sentences or self-expression sentences. It is seldom used in sentence peripheries or in embedding. It is used primarily in direct speech.

Interrogative clauses are marked by distinctive question final particles and by distinctive intonation. Each interrogative type has its own intonation.

Structurally interrogative clauses may be divided into 2 subtypes : simple yes/no question, content-questions. These subtypes differ from each other in their word order, in their question words and in their transformation potential.

The simple yes/no question clause functions in contexts where the truth value of a sentence is under question. As the name implied, it is a question which requires a simple 'yes' or 'no' answer. It takes the same syntactic form as a statement, except that a question marker occurs in clause final position. It is marked by a falling intonation pattern.

The elements of the simple yes/no question clause are:

Cl. yes / no ques. = + Cl + Q.Mk : ha?
--

That is, an obligatory Clause position filled by any statement clause types (Sec 1.1.1-1.1.14) and an obligatory Question Marker position filled by ha? .

1. ra?wɔ: ?i:k muay cə: bi:n ha?
 say again one already get

'Can you say it again?'

2. ?æ:m ha? 'Is it delicious?'
delicious
3. ?i:t ?a?ya:k cə: ha? (Used to ask a woman)
take husband already
- ?i:t ku?pay cə: ha? (Used to ask a man)
 wife
- 'Are you already married?'
4. mpi:ayh pa?ləh ha? 'Don't you eat?'
not eat(impo.)
5. ?a?pay daŋ ha? sa?bat ta?li:ŋ
you know transplant rice-field

'Do you know how to transplant rice?'

6. sa?bat ta?li:ŋ pan ha?
transplant rice-field be

'Can you transplant rice?'

The question marker ha? is obligatory present in contrast to Chrau (Thomas 1971: 62-63) and Chaobon (Ph. Jau 1979 : 160-161) which a high rising intonation will mark the clause as a question, if the marker is omitted.

The normal order of the elements is Cl + hā? but the question marker ha? can be shifted to follow a particular element of the clause which is emphasized.

7. ?a?lay ci:a wah ʌ:t ha? (Normal order)
he eat rice live m.k.
- S V O

'Is he eating rice now?'

8. ?a?wah¹ a? ?a?lay ci:a ki:¹ (Emphasized Object)
 rice mk he eat

'Is it rice that he is eating?'

9. ?a?lay a? ci:a wah¹ ʌ:t ki:¹ (Emphasized Subject)
 he mk eat rice live that

'Is it he who is eating rice?'

10. ci:a ha? (Subject, Object, Deletion)

'Eat?'

etc.

The question marker in every form still takes a falling pitch. Forms 8 and 9 require a final rising intonation, a slight pause after and a stress on the question marker.

Another yes/no question containing the question marker lɛ? ha? is called a tag question. Like in English, the speaker can expect what the answer will be. Though the simple yes/no question and a tag question require 'yes' or 'no' answers, their answers are a little bit different.

11. Q : ?i: pʌ? ta?li:ŋ ha? (simple yes/no question)
 will go rice-field

'Will you go to the rice-field?'

Ans: pʌ? or mpi:ayh (pʌ?)
 'Go' 'No'

12. Q : ?i pʌ? ta?li:ŋ lɛ? ha? (tag question)

'You will go the rice-field, won't you?'

Ans: lɛ?

'Yes.'

1.3.2 Content (wh-) Question

The content question clause functions in contexts where one or more of the participants in an action are unknown and under question. It is marked by question words such as : ?a'mə? 'who, whom', ya:ŋmɔ? 'when'

'when to:nmɔ? 'when', ntrow 'what', mɔ? 'where, which', sa'mɔ? ne:wɔmɔ? 'how', nchi? 'how many', ha'mɔ? 'how many', sammɔ? 'how ta'row 'why.'

The basic pattern of the content question clause is an intonation in which the pitch is the same as in the statement clause type.

There is no specific formula for the content question clause the Question Words (Sec 3.14) normally occur in the same position that element in the statement clause which is stated as an answer in statement clause (Sec 1.1). The semantic meaning and function are on Sentence level (Sec 5.4.2.2).

1. ?a'mə?	pa?	ta'li:ŋ	ma'hay
who	go	rice-field	yesterday
QW.	P	Dest.	Time

'Who went to the rice-field yesterday?'

2. ?i:	pa?	nɪŋ	?a'mə?
will	go	with	who
P			QW.

'Whom will you go with?'

3. { ma'mɔ?	i:	cu:
{ yaŋmɔ?	will	come
when	P	
QW.		

'When will you come?'

4. ?i:	cu:		{ ma?mo? }
			{ ya:ŋmo? }
	P		QW

'When will you come?'

5. (a) ?i:	pa?		ts:nmo?	(b) ts:nmo?		i:	pa?
	will go		when	when		will go	
	P		QW	QW		P	

'When will you go?'

6. ta?		ntrow
do		what
P		QW

'What are you doing?'

7. ntrow		ntsruh	?a?sa:ŋ
what		fall	down
QW		P	

'What is falling down?'

8. ?i:	pa?		mo?
will	go		where
P			QW

'Where are you going?'

9. ra?ma:n		ts: mo?		ʔ ₁ ?kasc	l ₁ ?
child		class. which		lazy	indeed
S		QW		P	

'Which child is lazy indeed?'

10. ta?		{ ne:wmo? }
do		{ sa?mo? }
		how
P		QW

'How will (we) do?'

11. mi:		ko:n		ŋchi?	na?
have		son		how many	class.
P		o		QW	

'How many sons have you?'

Subtypes	Types	Statement	Imperative	Interrogative
transitive	X	X	X	X
intransitive	X	X	X	X
bitransitive	X	X	X	X
descriptive	X	X		X
equational	X	X		X
motion	X	X	X	X
propulsion	X	X	X	X
quotative	X	X		X
locative	X	X	X	X
existence	X	X		X
reciprocal	X	X	X	X
evaluation	X	X		X
comparison	X	X		X

TABLE 1 : THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CLAUSE TYPES AND SUBTYPES

1.4 Basic Transitivity Types (Semantic)

Semantically, clauses may be divided into :
action, location, communication, existence, function, description, quantity and possessor.

1.4.1 Action (verb centered)

The action (V) is the main part or the Nucleus of the clause. It may manifest a Transitive clause (Sec 1.1.1), an Intransitive clause (Sec 1.1.2), a Bitransitive clause (Sec 1.1.3) and an Imperative clause (Sec 1.2). Semantically, the action (verb centered) clause may be subdivided into:

A. Ambient :

An ambient clause refers to the weather or natural phenomena. There is no Actor, i.e., the item and the Action are functioning as one semantic unit; therefore, the ambient clause consists of only a verb - V.

- | | | |
|----|-----------------|------------------------|
| 1. | mi:a ɔ: | 'It has been raining.' |
| | rain already | |
| 2. | ta?riar | 'It is lightening.' |
| | lightening | |

B. Transitive ambient :

- | | | |
|----|----------------------|--------------------|
| 3. | mi:a ka:n ŋko? | 'It rained on me.' |
| | rain touch I | |
| 4. | ŋko? ka:n mi:a | 'I got rained on.' |
| | I touch rain | |

C. Intransitive :

It expresses an action attributed to the Subject as Actor and does not require a direct object to complete its meaning. Thus, it consists of NV.

- | | | |
|----|-----------------|-----------------------|
| 5. | mpe? bic | 'Mother is sleeping.' |
| | mother sleep | |
| 6. | ?a?lay cah | 'He sneezed.' |
| | he sneeze | |

D. Transitive : N V N

The transitive clause typically expresses an action attributed to the Subject as Actor and takes effect on somebody

or something. It takes a direct object to complete the meaning.

7. dam ci:a mpɛl 'Dam ate tamarinds.'
name eat tamarind
8. mpe? yih si?lo? to: nay 'Mother sewed this shirt.'
mother sew shirt Class. this

E. Bitransitive : N V N N

The bitransitive clause expresses an action attributed to the Subject as Actor and takes two objects to complete the meaning.

9. dam o:n ja: ki: mpe?
name give blanket that mother
'Dam gave that blanket to mother.'
10. dam o:n mpe? ja: ki:
name give mother blanket that
'Dam gave mother that blanket.'

F. Imperative : V

The imperative clause expresses command, request, and persuasion. (For details and discussion, see Section 3).

11. bic na? 'Sleep.'
sleep f.p.
12. ci:a ye: 'Eat, please.'
eat f.p.

G. Mixed action : N Vⁿ (N)

There is more than one action in a mixed action

13. ?a?lay | pa? | sɛ:k | bakmuaŋ | ko:nka?mu:t | ku: si?na:
he | go | ask for | mango | orphan | every day
N | V₁ | V₂ | N
'He went to ask for a mango from the orphan every day'
14. ko:n pha?na: | pha:k | bakmuaŋ | ci:a
son Phya | peel | mango | eat
N | V₁ | N | V₂
'The Phya's daughter peeled the mango and ate.'
15. ?an | cu: | i:t | ?a?sə?
he | return | take | uncooked rice
N | V₁ | V₂ | N
'He returned home to take uncooked rice.'

1.4.2 Location (Location centered)

Location may be source (a starting place) or destination (a place toward which someone or something is going or sent). The Location centered clause manifests a Motion clause (Sec 1.1.6), a Propulsion clause (Sec 1.1.7) and a Locative clause (Sec 1.1.9). It may be subdivided into :

A. Locative : N V L

The locative clause indicates where the item is, so the verb is not important.

1. ka[?]saw ʌ:t ti[?] ʃoŋ 'Kasaw is in the house.'
name live in house
2. ʔa[?]li:k ʌ:t taŋ kɔ[?] 'Pigs are in the pen.'
pig live in pen
3. sia[?] ʌ:t ti[?] da[?] 'Fish live in the water.'
fish live in water

B. Motion or Semitransitive : N V L (L)

The motion or semitransitive clause consists of a Subject (Actor) and a motion verb which requires Source and/or Destination because the Actor is moving himself from one place to another place.

4. ka[?]saw pa[?] ta[?]la:t 'Kasaw went to market.'
name go market
N V L(des.)
5. mɛ:w si[?]dɔh ʔa[?]ɔ:n kloŋ ʔa[?]ɔ:
cat jump up back dog
N V L (des.)
'The cat jumped up on the dog's back.'
6. ʔa[?]lay ŋoh tɛ: doŋ pha[?]ɲay
he come from house village headman
N V L (source)
'He came from the house of the village headman.'
7. dam ta[?]yah tɛ: doŋ pa[?] ta[?]li:ŋ
name walk from house go rice-field
N V L (source) L (des.)
'Dam walked from his house to the rice-field.'

C. Propulsion : N V N L (L)

The propulsion clause has the Actor and someone or something else moving from one place to another place.

8.	ko:n	i:t	ʔaʔsoʔ	tiʔ	wi:l
	son	take	uncooked rice	in	village
	N	V	N		L

'The son went to take the uncooked rice in the village.'

9.	ʔan	i:t	ku:an	ʔaʔco:n	coʔ	pa:y	koh
	he	take	gong	take up	to	top	hill
	N	V	N				L

'He took a gong to the top of the hill.'

1.4.3 Communication (Quotation centered)

The communication (quotation centered) clause gives or exchanges of information, or messages by talk. It manifests a Transitive clause (Sec 1.1.1), an Intransitive clause (Sec 1.1.2) and a Quotative clause (Sec 1.1.8). The communication clause may be subdivided into :

A. Talking : N V (N)

1.	ʔaʔlay	puam	wo:	ʌ:t
	he	prog.mk.	speak	live
	N		V	

'He is speaking now.'

2.	ʔan	wo	niŋ	hiʔ
	he	speak	with	I
	N	V		N

'He spoke with me.'

3.	ʔaʔlay	wo:	ʔi:n
	he	speak	story
	N	V	N

'He told a story.'

B. Quotative : N V Q / Q N V

4.	dam	wo:	pa:y	i:	ku:ci:t
	name	speak	say	want	die
	N	V		Q	

'Dam says that (he) wants to die.'

5. dam | ʔaʔpok | pa:y i: ku:ci:t
 name | complain | say want die
 N | V | Q
 'Dam complains that (he) wants to die.'
6. na:y ciʔpaw | lɔ: wo: | pa:y taʔrow ʔaʔro:ŋa:k ʌ:ttiʔ
 sailor headman | then speak | say why shout live here
 N | V | Q
 'The captain then said, 'Why did you come to shout here?'
7. mə:w . | ʔaʔblɪh | taʔ saʔmoʔ pa:y
 cat | ask | do how say
 N | V | Q
 'The cat asked, 'How will we do?'
8. bi:n naʔ | pa:y com ki: | wo:
 get f.p. | say bird that | speak
 Q | N | V
 'Yes, I can get it!', said the bird.'
9. ŋkoʔ i: bi:n brʔ nay ʔi: ci:a | pa:y mə:w ki: | wo:
 I will get 'you this will eat | say cat that | speak
 Q N | V
 'I am going to eat you!; said the cat.'
- C. Information : N V N Q
10. dam | ʔaʔta:ŋ | mɔeʔ | pa:y ʔaʔlay klap kuʔsæn kap
 name | tell | mother | say he pass.mk. snake bite
 N | V | N | Q
 'Dam told his mother that he was bitten by a snake.'
11. ʔan | ʔaʔta:y | kuʔŋy phaʔŋi:a | pa:y naw ku:ci:t cə:
 he | tell | wife Phya | say he die already
 N | V | N | Q
 'He told Phya's wife that Phya had died already.'
12. ʔan | lɔ: wo: | coʔ kuʔŋy | pa:y taʔmɪl taʔ....
 he | then tell | to wife | say monkey do
 N | V | N | Q
 'Then he spoke to his wife that the monkey.....'

1.4.4 Existence (noun centered)

The existence clause ascribes or identifies existence to the item or situation expressed by a noun phrase; therefore,

it is a noun centered clause. It manifests an Equative clause (Sec 1.1.4), an Quotative clause (Sec 1.1.8) and an Existence clause (Sec 1.1.10). The existence (noun centered) clause may be subdivided into:

A. Simple existence : V N

A simple existence clause is used to introduce persons or objects.

1. mi: ta?na:m ?a?lu:ay pa?li:ayh
have three many

'There are many trees.'

2. mi: ba:r na? so:n siaw
have two Class. two friend

'There are two friends.'

B. Identified existence : V N L or N L V N or L V N

The identified existence clause is used to identify where the item is.

3. mi: | la?kuay kri:n | ta:n do:n
have | person many | in house
V | N | L

'There are many people in the house.'

4. ta?na:m ?a?lu:ay | gkri: do:n | mi: pa?li:ayh
tree | behind house | have many
N | I | V

'The trees behind my house are a lot.'

5. ti? do:n | hi? mi: | ?a?li:k pa?li:ayh
at house | I have | pig many
L | I | N

'At my house, there are many pigs.'

C. Identity : N Cop N

The identity clause is used to identify persons or objects. The first noun and the second noun are the same person. This subtype manifests an Equational clause (Sec 1.1.4).

6. dam pan sa:m gko? 'Dam is my sister.'
name be sister I

7. ?a?lay ra?mi:h dam 'Her name is Dan.'
she name

Cop* = Copula means 'join or link'.

A. Ambient state : Adj.

1. laʔtaw khaʔna:t '(It's) very hot.'
hot very
2. saʔŋə:t ciʔnay '(It's) cold today.'
cold today

B. State : N Adj.

3. ʔaʔlay pa:ŋ 'He is tall.'
he tall
4. dam ɿlɪm 'Dam is fat.'
Dam fat
5. raʔnə:n nay ʔaʔkac 'This child is pretty.'
child this pretty
6. kaʔsaw ə:ŋ 'Kasaw is black.'
kasaw black
7. raʔnə:n nay ʔaʔka:c 'This child is lazy.'
child this lazy

C. Comparison :

C 1. Equality: It expresses equality between two objects.

The formula is N Adj N.

8. ʔaʔlay pa:ŋ mah hiʔ
he tall equal I
'He is as tall as I.'
9. dam ɿ:ŋ maʔliaʔ kuʔcah
Dam black same charcoal
'Dam is as black as charcoal.'
10. ʔan pu:t ʔaʔliaʔ ɲak
he big same gaint
'He is as big as gaint.'

C 2. Comparative : N Adj. N

11. ʔaʔlay pa:ŋ ku:a hiʔ
he tall than I
'He is taller than I.'
12. ʔaʔli:k pe:ŋ ku:a priat
pig expensive than banana
'Pigs are more expensive than bananas.'

C 3. Superlative : N Adj {Set
Group}

13. ?a?lay pa:ŋ ku:a hi? taŋ wi:l
he tall than we in village
'He is the tallest boy in the village.'

14. ?a?lay pa:ŋ ku:a ka?ni:a ni?
he tall than friend all
N Adj Group
'Of all his friends, he is the tallest.'

1.4.7 quantity (number centered)

The quantity (number centered) clause expresses any indeterminate bulk, cost of anything which can be determined by measurement. It manifests an existence clause (Sec 1.1.10), an Evaluation clause (Sec 1.1.12) and a Comparative clause (Sec 1.1.13). The quantity (number centered) clause may be subdivided into :

A. Quantity : (N) Qt (Class)

1. mi: siŋ na? 'There are five persons.'
have five class.

2. wak hay mi: siŋ na? 'There are five of us.'
group we have 5 class.

3. mi: ta?na:m ?a?lu:ŋ pa?li:ayh
have tree many
'There are many trees.'

4. mi: ɬa? bi?biŋ 'There is a little water.'
have water little

B. Measure : N Adj Qt Class.

5. ?a?lay pa:ŋ ba:r net 'He is two metres tall.'
he tall two class.

6. dam ntaŋ siŋci:t ki?lo: 'Dam weighs 50 kilogrammes.'
Dam heavy 50 class.

C. Comparative : N Adj N Qt Class.

7. dam pa:ŋ ku:a hi? ba:r ki?lo:
Dam tall than I two handspan
'Dam is two handspans taller than I.'

8. dam ntaŋ ku:a hi? ba:r ki?lo:
 Dam heavy than I two class.
 'Dam is two kilogrammes heavier than I.'

D. Cost : N (V) Qt Class.

9. priat ta?lah ny (ra:ki:a) ba:r ba:t
 banana class. this cost two class
 N (V) Qt. Class.
 'This banana cost two baht.'
10. sa?lok to: ny (ra:ki:a) muay ku?lum ba:t
 shirt class. this cost 100 class.
 N (V) Qt Class.
 'This shirt costs one hundred baht.'

E. Sequential order : N V Or

11. dam pa? ta? pan la?kuay ta?mit
 name go arrive be person first
 N V Or
 'Dam arrived first.'
12. ka?saw ta? ntun
 name arrive last
 'Kasaw came last.'
13. tham ta? thi: ba:r
 name arrive second
 'Than came the second.'
- F. Time : N V Qt Class
14. dam ta? dɔŋ ba:r moŋ
 name arrive house two class.
 'Dam arrived home at two o'clock.'
15. ra?nɛ:n ra?nɛ:n pa? ro:ŋri:an to:n pɛ:t moŋ
 child child go school at eight class.
 'Children go to school at eight o'clock.'
16. mpe? pa? mtaŋ ba:r si?ŋay
 mother go town two day
 'Mother had gone to town for two days.'
17. ŋko? pa? ta?la:t ba:r mo:ŋ ku: si?ŋay
 I go market two class. every day
 'I went to market at two o'clock.'

1.4.8 Possessor : N V

The possessor clause expresses something that belongs to one or that someone holds as property or occupies in person. It manifests a Transitive clause (Sec 1.1.1).

1. ?a?lay mi: ka?ni:n pa?li:ayh
he have friend many
'He has many friends.'
2. wak hay mi: pa?ra? mi: yzi:n
group we have money have gold
'We have money.'
3. pha?nay mi: do:n pu:t
village have house big
headman
'The village headman has a big house.'

1.5 Transitive Modifications

The transitive clause may express causative, benefactive, reflexive and reciprocal.

1.5.1 Causative^{**} : N N V

The causative clause expresses causation, i.e., making a thing assuming a given condition, causing it to be such. It manifests a Transitive Nominal Extension clause type B.

1. ka?saw ta? su:n ni:am
name make sister cry
'Kasaw mad. her sister cry.'
2. ?an ta? ?a?lu:an do:n ni?
he make tree fall all
'He made all trees fall down.'
3. ?an ta? ?a?lu:an ?a?lay bæc
he make tree sprout
'He made trees sprout.'

* Simple possessor usually functions in phrase level (Sec 2.3.3).

** Another method to show causative is the use of prefix ?a?__.

1.5.2 Benefactive : N V N

In the benefactive clause, the second noun (Object) receives benefit from the first noun (Actor). The benefactive manifests a Bitransitive form (Sec 1.1.3).

4. ka?saw ta? ci:a ɔ:n hi?
 name cook for I
 'Kasaw cooked for me.'
5. mpe? kha:y wah ɔ:n mpi:a?
 mother cook rice for father
 'Mother cooked rice for father.'
6. mpe? ca:n sa?lok ɔ:n sa:m
 mother buy shirt for sister
 'Mother bought a shirt for my sister.'
7. dam ta? wia? ta? nian ɔ:n hi?
 name do work do work for I
 'Dam worked for me.'
8. ?an ta? wia? ta? nian ɔ:n mpi:a?
 he do work do work for father
 'He worked for father.'

1.5.3 Reciprocal : N V N or N N V

The reciprocal expresses mutual action or relation. It manifests the Reciprocal clause (Sec 1.1.11) and the Intransitive clause (Sec 1.1.2).

9. ka?saw ci?lo? nɛŋ sa:m
 name quarrel with sister
 'Kasaw quarrelled with her sister.'
10. ?a?lay ci?lo? nɛŋ hi?
 he quarrel with I
 'He quarrelled with me.'
11. ka?saw nɛŋ sa:m ci?lo? nɛŋno?
 name with sister quarrel together
 'Kasaw and her sister quarrelled with each other.'
12. ?a?lay nɛŋ hi? ci?lo? nɛŋno?
 he with I quarrel together
 'He and I quarrelled with each other.'

13. ra?na:n ra?na:n ci?lo? n̄iŋn̄e?
 child child quarrel together
 'Children quarrelled with each other.'

1.5.4 Reflexive : N V N

The first noun (Subject) and the second noun (Object) in a reflexive clause refer to the same person or the same thing. The reflexive manifests the Transitive Nominal Extension clause type A (Sec 1.1.1).

14. ?a?cah pəh to: ku:ci:t
 uncle kill class. die
 'My uncle killed himself.'

15. ŋko? tap ?a?caw
 I hit owner
 'I hit myself.'

1.6 Focus Types (The underlined words are focused.)

1.6.1 Active : N V N

In the active focus type the Subject is the performer of the Action.

1. mpe? p̄e:ŋ hi? 'My mother loves me.'
 mother love I
2. ?a?lay ci:a mpil 'He ate tamarinds.'
 he eat tamarind
3. mpi:a? sian ti:a 'My father fed ducks.'
 father raise duck

1.6.2 Passive : N N V or N V N

4. dam klap mpe? tr̄j. 'Dam was hit by mother.'
 Dam pass nk. mother hit
- 4a. mpe? tap dam 'Mother hit Dam.'
 mother hit Dam
5. mpi:a? klap ku?sen kap 'My father was bitten by
 father pass nk. snake bite a snake.'
- 5a. ku?sen kap mpi:a? 'A snake bit my father.'
 snake bite father

1.6.3 Recipient (Indirect Object) : I V N H or N V I N

6. dam ɔ:n ja: ki: mpe?¹
 Dam give blanket that mother
 'Dam gave that blanket to mother.'
- 6a. dam ɔ:n mpe?¹ ja: ki:
 Dam give mother blanket that
 'Dam gave mother that blanket.'
7. mpe?¹ ɔ:n sa?lok ki: dam
 mother give shirt that Dam
 'Mother gave that shirt to Dam.'
- 7a. mpe?¹ ɔ:n dam sa?lok ki:
 mother give Dam shirt that
 'Mother gave Dam that shirt.'

1.7 Aspect Modifications

The aspect modification is generally expressed by a complex verb phrase in which one element has an Auxiliary modifying function. The aspect modification may be subdivided into:

1.7.1 ModalityA. Ability

1. dam pa? bi:n 'Dam can go.'
 Dam go 333
2. ŋko? ta? bi:n 'I can do (it).'
 I do get
3. ŋko? ta? na? bi:n 'I cannot do (it).'
 I do not get

B. Probability

4. ŋko? naŋka? pa? 'I probably go.'
 I probably go
5. pa? diawwa:
 go probably '(I) probably go.' (This implies that the speaker is more certain than with naŋka?)

C. Desire

6. ŋko? i: ku:ci:t 'I want to die.'
I want die
7. mpi:ayh i: pan cawpha?ɲi:sa 'I don't want to be a
not want be Phya ruler prince.'
8. mpi:ayh mi: ?a?mo? 'Nobody wants to return.'
not have wife
i: lap
want return to previous place
9. ?a?pay i: bi:n ntrow 'What do you want?'
you want get what

D. Necessity / Force

10. ?a?pay tɔŋ pa? ci?nay 'You must go today.'
you must go today
11. ko:n tɔŋ bi: ci?no:nay 'Son, you must go to bed now.'
son must sleep now

E. Suggestion

12. ?a?pay mpi:ayh na:si? ɲu:ac
you not should drink
'You should not drink.'
13. ?a?pay pu:a pa? ci?nay
you should go today
'You should go today.'
14. bak ?a?nay la?kɔy na? ɲu:a ?a?do?
title this person not should be let
'This man should not be alive or be here.'
(This sentence implies that he should be expelled.)

1.7.2 Time AspectA. Future Action

1. ka?saw i:pa? pa?na: 'Kasaw will go tomorrow.'
name go tomorrow
2. dam : i: pa? ɲia: ta?bi: nay
name go party evening this
'Dam will go to the party tonight.'

B. Imminent Action :

3. (yian) puam i: mi:a 'It is going to rain.'
spirit rain
4. ŋkə? puam i: pA? 'I am going now.'
I go
5. dam puam i: ɔ:n pɛ: 'Dam is going to give this
Dam give blanket blanket to mother.'
ki: mpe?
that mother

C. Present Continuous :

6. mpe? puam yih sa?lok ʌ:t 'Mother is sewing a shirt now.'
mother sew shirt live
7. ra?nɛ:n puam ci:a wah 'Children are eating rice.'
child eat rice

D. Habitual Action :

8. ŋkə? kə:y pA? nay 'I used to come here.'
I go here
9. mpi:a? kə:y ci:a ku?sən 'Father used to eat snakes.'
father eat snake

E. Immediate Completion of Action :

10. ŋkə? ca?kɔ: cu: tA? 'I have just arrived.'
I return arrive
11. ca?kɔ: hA:m nay '(I) have just seen it.'
see this

F. Completed Action :

12. ci:a cə: ' (I) ate already.'
eat
13. ?a?lay pA? ta?li:ŋ cə: 'He went to the rice-field
he go rice-field already.'
14. mpe? bic cə: 'Mother slept already.'
mother sleep

TABLE 1 : NOTIFICATION OF UP D L FORS AND THE MULTISCS(CL UsJ)

Genetic	Structure	Genetic	Structure
1.4.1	1.1.1, 1.1.2, 1.1.3, 1.2	1.4.1(B, D, E),	1.1.1
A	1.1.2	1.4.3(A), 1.4.5(B)	
B	1.1.1	1.4.6, 1.5.1, 1.5.4	
C	1.1.2	1.4.1(C), 1.4.3(A),	1.1.2
D	1.1.1	1.5.3	
E	1.1.3	1.4.1(E), 1.5.2	1.1.3
F	1.2	1.4.6(A, B)	1.1.4
G	1.1.1	1.4.4(C), 1.4.5(A)	1.1.5
1.4.2	1.1.6, 1.1.7, 1.1.9	1.4.2(D), 1.4.7(E, F)	1.1.6
A	1.1.9	1.4.2(C)	1.1.7
B	1.1.6	1.4.3(B, C), 1.4.4(D)	1.1.8
C	1.1.7	1.4.2(A)	1.1.9
1.4.3	1.1.1, 1.1.2, 1.1.6	1.4.4(A, B)	1.1.10
A	1.1.1, 1.1.2	1.5.3	1.1.11
B	1.1.8	1.4.7(P, Q)	1.1.12
C	1.1.8	1.4.5(C), 1.4.7(C)	1.1.13
1.4.4	1.1.5, 1.1.8, 1.1.10	1.4.1(X), 1.7.3(Y)	1.2
A	1.1.10	1.7.3(C)	1.3
B	1.1.10		
C	1.1.5		
D	1.1.8		
1.4.5	1.1.1, 1.1.5		
A	1.1.5		
1.4.6	1.1.4, 1.1.1		
A	1.1.4		
B	1.1.4		
C	1.1.1		
1.4.7	1.1.9, 1.1.10, 1.1.12, 1.1.13		
A	1.1.1		
B	1.1.1		
C	1.1.10		
D	1.1.12		
E	1.1.6		
F	1.1.5		
1.4.8	1.1.1		
1.5.1	1.1.1		
1.5.2	1.1.5		
1.5.3	1.1.1, 1.1.2, 1.1.11		
1.5.4	1.1.1		
1.7.3	1.1, 1.2, 1.3		
A	1.1		
B	1.2		
C	1.3		

That is, an optional Quantity₁ position filled by wak 'group', obligatory Head position filled by a noun (Sec 3.1), an optional Modifier filled by a descriptive verb (Sec 3.9) or a prepositional phrase (Sec 2.3) or a relative clause (Sec 1.1.15) or a classifier (Sec 3.6) plus a verb (Sec 3.9), an optional Quantity₂ position filled by a classifier (Sec 3.5), or a classifier or a numeral plus a classifier, an optional Possessor position filled by an optional kho:n and an obligatory nominal phrase, an optional Demonstrative position filled by a demonstrative (Sec 3.3).

The status and relationship of the elements of noun phrase may be as followed.

Quantity ₁ (wak)	Head	Modifier	Quantity ₂	Possessor	Demonstrative
exp.1		exp.2	exp.3	exp.4	exp.5
Periphery	Nucleus		Periphery		

2 : The status and relationship of the elements of noun phrase

The demonstrative word class signals the end of the phrase.

The normal order of the noun phrase in wak is H - Mod. - Qt. - Poss. - in normal speech the fully expanded form is rarely found although its not incorrect.

1.

?a? cɔ:
dog
H

2.

ʔaʔco:	to:	hi:	bi:	ʌ:t
dog	class	that	sleep	live
H.	Class	D.		
Nucleus	Periphery			

'That dog is sleeping now.'

(Note that the classifier here is used to emphasize the Head.)

3.

ʔaʔco:	hiʔ	bi:	ʌ:t
dog	I	sleep	live
H.	Poss		
Nucleus	exp ₄		

'My dog is sleeping now.'

4.

ʔaʔ co:	pay	to:	khə:n	hiʔ	bi:	ʌ:t
dog	3	class	Mk.poss	I	sleep	live
H.	3t nu + class		Poss			
Nucleus	exp ₃		exp ₄	Periphery		

'My three dogs are sleeping now.'

5.

wak	raʔnə:n	raʔnə:n	tiʔ	wi:l	nay	ʔaʔtu:əŋ kaʔmu:t
group	child		in	village	this	
wak	H		Mod :	pp	D.	
exp ₁			exp ₂	exp ₃		
Periphery	Nucleus		Periphery			

'Children in this village are afraid of ghosts.'

6.

?a?co: dog	tò: class.	æ:n black	pu:t big	ki: that	?a?ka:c lazy
H.	Mod.: class + V _{des.}		D.		
	exp. ₂		exp. ₅		
Nucleus	Periphery				

'That big black dog is lazy.'

7.

?a?co: dog	æ:n black	ba:r 2	to: class	ki: that	bi: sleep	æ:t live
H.	Mod.: V _{des.}	Qt: nu+class		D		
	exp. ₂	exp. ₃		exp. ₅		
Nucleus		Periphery				

'Those two black dogs are sleeping now.'

8.

la?kuay person	phu: person	pa? go	tæ: from	coŋ house	na:y district	?amphə. headman	ma?ro r conced
H.	Mod.: Cl _{rel}						
	exp. ₂						
Nucleus	Periphery						

'The man who comes from the house of district headman is
conceded.'

9.	ʔ ə? co: dog	æ:n black	ba:r 2	to: class	khə:ŋ Mk.poss	hi? I	li: that	¹ mæc beautiful	¹ mæc beautiful
	H.	Mod:V ₃ s	Qt:nu +class	Poss		D.			
		exp. ₂	exp. ₃	exp. ₄	exp. ₅				
	Nucleus	Periphery							

'Those two black dogs of mine are beautiful.'

The Modifier position (expansion₂) may be one or multiple. The of multiple modifiers depends on the importance of the modifiers. The placed next to the Head is more important than the following modifier (

10.	ra?næ:n child	krə:k white	sək hair	ʔkəh short	phu: person	səp put on	sa?lok shirt	ka? red
	H	Mod ₁ :v _{des}	Mod ₂ :cl _{des}	Mod ₃ :cl _{rel}	expansion ₂			
	Nucleus	Periphery						

khən vo: co? nə:y ʔamphe:
dare speak to district headman

'The white child wearing short hair, who is wearing a red shirt,
dare to speak to the district headman.'

(The Mod₁, Mod₂ and Mod₃ may switch their positions.)

Note that Classifiers alone may not occur minimally but must occur Numeral or Demonstrative.

Besides, juncture will be used when there are multiple modifiers example 10. Juncture or slight pause is also used in case of ambiguity.

The Head is normally in the first position and the Demonstrative in the final position. The positions of Modifier, Quantity and Possessor fixed, i.e., they may switch with each other. For details and discussion, phrase battery.

So Noun Phrase Battery

Partial citation of So noun phrase on the root:

(H) : sa²lok 'shirt' Possessor (Poss) : khə:ŋ hi² 'my'

(Qt) : ba:rtə: 'two' Modifier (Mod) : tənɕi²puak 'on the mat'

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. H, Qt, Mod, Poss. | 1. Neutral form |
| 2. H, Qt, Poss, Mod. | 2. Neutral form |
| 3. H, Poss, Mod, Qt. | 3. Slight emphasis on Quantity |
| 4. H, Mod, Qt, Poss. | 4. Slight emphasis on Modifier |
| 5. H, Poss, Qt, Mod. | 5. Slight emphasis on Possessor |
| 6. <u>ni</u> ¹ : H, Mod, Qt, Poss. | 6. Slight emphasis on Possessor |
| 7. Mod, <u>ni</u> ¹ : H, Qt, Poss. | 7. More emphasis on Modifier |
| 8. H, Qt, Mod, <u>pan</u> Poss. | 8. More emphasis on Possessor |
| 9. Qt, Mod, Poss. | 9. More emphasis on Quantity (Head deletion) |
| 10. Poss, Qt, Mod. | 10. More emphasis on Possessor |
| 11. <u>ni</u> ¹ : H, Mod, Qt, <u>pan</u> Poss. | 11. More emphasis on possessor |
| 12. H, Qt, Poss, <u>ət</u> Mod. | 12. More emphasis on Modifier |
| 13. H, Qt, <u>hi</u> ² : <u>ət</u> Mod, Poss | 13. Embedded clause. Used to emphasize |

Restrictions on the above battery :

1. The main stress is on the emphatic element.
2. Forms 7 and 10 require a slight pause after the first element.

Description of function words (underlined here)

<u>mi</u> ˈ	'have, there is'	(Sec 1.1.10, 3.10)
<u>pa</u> n	'be'	(Sec 1.1.5, 3.10)
<u>a</u> :t	'live'	(Sec 1.1.9, 3.10)

2.1.2 Pronoun Phrase (NP_{pr})

The elements of the pronoun phrase are :

$$\text{NP}_{\text{pr}} = \overset{+}{-} \text{Qt}_1 : \text{wak} + \text{H} : \text{pr.} \overset{+}{-} \text{Qt}_2 : \text{nu} + \text{class.} \overset{+}{-} \text{D} : \text{den.}$$

That is, an optional Quantity₁ position filled by wak 'group', an obligatory Head position filled by a pronoun (Sec 3.1), an optional Quantity₂ position filled by a numeral (Sec 3.5) plus classifier (Sec 3.6) and an optional Demonstrative position filled by a demonstrative (Sec 3.3).

A pronoun phrase normally consists of a pronoun only.

The full expansion is rarely used.

1.	<table border="1"> <tr><td>ŋkɔʔ</td></tr> <tr><td>I</td></tr> <tr><td>H</td></tr> </table>	ŋkɔʔ	I	H	(i: ku:ci:t)	'I want do die.'
ŋkɔʔ						
I						
H						
		want die				

2.	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>bæʔ</td> <td>paɪ</td> <td>naʔ</td> <td>ki.</td> <td>paʔ</td> <td>ccʔ</td> <td>ney</td> </tr> <tr> <td>you</td> <td>3</td> <td>class</td> <td>that</td> <td>come</td> <td>to</td> <td>here</td> </tr> <tr> <td>H.</td> <td colspan="6">Qt₂ : nu + class. D.</td> </tr> </table>	bæʔ	paɪ	naʔ	ki.	paʔ	ccʔ	ney	you	3	class	that	come	to	here	H.	Qt ₂ : nu + class. D.						
bæʔ	paɪ	naʔ	ki.	paʔ	ccʔ	ney																	
you	3	class	that	come	to	here																	
H.	Qt ₂ : nu + class. D.																						

'You there come here.'

3.

val group	hey we	ba?tev hot
vt ₁	H	

'We are hot.'

The pronoun phrases cannot be transformed into any other forms.

2.1.3 Numeral Phrase (NP_{nu})

The numeral phrase occurs in the Quantity position of an Evaluation clause. It also occurs in the Quantity position of a noun or pronoun phrase.

The elements of a numeral phrase are :

NP _{nu}	=	⁺ Pre - Nu	:	pre nu.	+	Nu	:	nu	+	Class	:	class ⁺	Post N
													Post-n

That is an optional Pre-Numeral position filled by a pre-numeral word (Sec 3.5), an obligatory Numeral position filled by a numeral (Sec 3.5) an obligatory Classifier position filled by a classifier (Sec 3.5), and an optional Post - Numeral position filled by a post - numeral word (Sec 3.5).

1. ni: na: pra?na n muay ku?lan phi:n
 have blanket about 100 class

Pre-Nu	Nu _c	Class
Periphery	Nucleus.	

'There are about 100 blankets.'

2. ni: na: ?i:k muay ku?lan phi:n ma?hi:
 have blanket more 100 class exact

Pre-Nu	Nu _c	Class	Post-Nu
Periphery	Nucleus		Periphery

'There are 100 blankets.'

3. ni: cha: kiap ba:r ki?lo:
 have fat nearly 2 class

Pre-Nu	Nu _c	Class
Periphery	Nucleus	

'There are about two kilogrammes of fat.'

4. ni: ba:r ki?lo: bi?bi:
 2 class little

Nu _c	Class	Post-Nu
Nucleus		Periphery

'There are a little more than two kilogrammes.'

5. ni: ba:r ki?lo: to:
 have 2 class half

Nu _c	Class	Post-Nu
Nucleus		Periphery

'There are two kilogrammes and a half.'

2. mpi:avh bæʔ kaʔ ŋkɔʔ lɔsɪh 'Either you or I am wrong.'
not you or I wrong
3. ʔaʔlay niŋ hiʔ pʌʔ niŋnəʔ 'He and I went together.'
he and I go M.c.rec
4. mə:w naʔ ʔaʔcɔ: ni:am 'The cat and the dog cried.'
cat and dog cry
5. mpeʔ kap mpi:aʔ pʌʔ taʔli:ŋ ku:sɪʔpaj
mother and father go rice-field everyday
'Mother and father go to the rice-field everyday.'

If there are more than two items, the Lk_2 is placed before the last item.

6. mpeʔ mpi:aʔ kap hiʔ pʌʔ taʔli:ŋ niŋnəʔ
mother father and I go rice-field M.c.rec
'Mother father and I went to the rice-field together.'

2.1.5 Appositional Complex Nominal Phrase (NP_{ap})

The appositional complex nominal phrase has no overt marker, but the order in which the elements occur shows the relationship of the element to each other. The first element is always the Head, the second element is always an apposition of the Head. The two elements have the same semantic referent.

The elements of the appositional complex nominal phrase are :

$$NP_{ap} = + Item_1 : np + Item_2 : np$$

That is, an obligatory $Item_1$ position filled by a nominal phrase

2.1) and an obligatory $Item_2$ position filled by a nominal phrase.

The normal order of the elements is $\text{Item}_1 - \text{Item}_2$

1.

kaʔsaw Kasaw	phaʔpaɿ headman	wi:l village	ku:ci:t die	cə: already
Item ₁ :pr		Item ₂ : n		

'Kasaw, the headman of village, died already.'

2.

sə:n sister	hiʔ I	i. title	tan Tam	ʔi:t take	ʔaʔya:k husband	cə: already
Item ₁ : np		Item ₂ : np				

'My sister, Tam, got married already.'

2.2 Verb Phrase

The verb phrase functions in the Predicate position in clauses. According to their function in different clause types there are three different types of the verb phrase, which are also structurally different: active verb phrase, descriptive verb phrase and copula verb phrase. These subtypes differ from each other in the main verb, their potential expansions and the types in which they function.

Verb phrases are marked by having verbs or verb - like elements in the main position together with words immediately before it which are constituents with and subordinate to the main verb.

The structure of a verb phrase may be diagrammed very generally as :

$$VP = \overset{+}{-} \text{Pre-Mod} : \text{asp/aux} + \overset{+}{-} \text{V} : \overset{+}{-} \text{Post-Mod} : \text{v/adv}$$

That is an optional Pre-Modifier position filled by aspects (Sec 3.8) or auxiliaries (Sec 3.9); an obligatory Head position filled by a verb (Sec 3.10) and an optional Post-Modifier position filled by verbs or adverbs (Sec 3.11)

2.2.1 Active Verb Phrase

The active verb phrase functions in the Predicate position of all clause types except descriptive and copula clauses.

The elements of the active verb phrase are :

$$VP_{ac} = \overset{+}{-} \text{Mod}_1 : \text{asp}_1 \overset{+}{-} \text{Mod}_2 : \text{aux} + \overset{+}{-} \text{V} : \overset{+}{-} \text{Mod}_3 : \text{asp}_2 \overset{+}{-} \text{Mod}_4 : \text{adv/v}_{des}$$

That is, an optional Modifier₁ position filled by the aspect subclass₁ (Sec.3.8), an optional Modifier₂ position filled by auxiliaries (Sec 3.9) and obligatory Head position filled by a verb (Sec.3.10), an optional Modifier₃ position filled by the aspect subclass₂ and an optional Modifier₄ position filled by an adverb (Sec 3.11) or descriptive verbs (Sec.3.10).

The arrangement and status of these elements may be diagrammed in a box as follows :

Mod ₁ : asp ₁	Mod ₂ : aux	Head : V	Mod ₃ : asp ₂	Mod ₄ : adv/V
out.exp.	inner exp. ₁		outer exp.	inner exp. ₂
Periphery		Nucleus	Periphery	

TABLE 3 : The status and relationship of the elements of the active verb phrase

The outer expansion of the verb phrase can occur also in the descriptive verb phrase (Sec 2.2.2) and in the copula verb phrase (Sec 2.2.3) whereas the inner expansion can function only in the active verb phrase.

The outer expansion modifies not only the nucleus but also the inner expansion, whereas the inner expansion modifies the nucleus only.

The nucleus of the active verb phrase can have two possible verbs in sequence. The nucleus can be distinguished from the inner expansion on the grounds of the different relationship. These verbs functioning as nucleus can enter into, as well as on the grounds of functional restriction of subclass words.

The relationship of the two verbs functioning as nucleus is always a close sequence of two actions such as si?baw ?a?ta:n 'announce tell'

pa' co' 'go to see'.

The aspect words in general indicate the state of existence of the action. The auxiliaries differ from the aspect words in that they can stand alone.

e.g. $\eta ko'$ khen
 I dare

Two aspect words may occur in sequence. Generally there are more than three words found in sequence in the nucleus and the inner expansion of the active verb phrase.

1.	ŋkɔ? I	npɪ:ayh not	kɛn dare	pɑ? go
		asp.1	aux.	v.
		outer exp.	inner exp.	Nucleus

'I dare not go.'

2.	ʔan he	ca?kɔ: just	kɔ:y ever	pɑ? go
		asp.1	asp.1	v.
		outer expansion		if nucleus

'He's just gone (there) for the first time.'

3.	ŋkɔ? I	ca?kɔ: just	cu: return	tʌ? arrive
		asp.1	seq. of v.	
		outer exp.	if nucleus	

'I have just arrived.'

4.	dan	ʔi: want	ku:ci: die
		aux.	v.
		inner exp.	if nucleus

'Dan wants to die.'

5.	dan	npɪ:ayh not	kɛn dare	ta? do	lɔəyɪh wrong	ʔi:k again
		asp.1	aux.	v.		
		outer exp.	inner exp.	Nucleus		

'Dan dare not make a mistake again.'

6. ʔaʔlay ¹pu:ə pʌʔ way way
 he should go quick quick

asp.1	v.	adv.
outer exp.	Nucleus	inner exp.2

'You should go quickly.'

7. raʔra:n nay ci:a mo:ʔ
 child this eat (eat) fast and big mouth

v.	adv.
Nucleus	inner exp.2

'This child eats greedily.'

8. ŋkəʔ ¹ke:y ʌk pʌʔ kon siaʔ
 I ever like go catch fish

asp.1	aux.	seq. of v.
outer exp.	inner exp.	nucleus

'I used to like to go catching fish.'

9. ŋkəʔ kɪəp həʔ'ə:n pʌʔ ¹le: n=ŋ baʔ
 I nearly not go play with you

asp.1	asp.1	seq. of v.
outer expansion		Nucleus

'I am almost not able to go to play with you.'

10. taʔ ntrow
 do what

v.
Nucleus

'What are you doing?'

11. dan Dan	kon catch	sic? fish	ke:ŋ smart
	v.		v _{des.}
	Nucleus		inner exp. ₂

'Dan is good at catching fish.'

12. ?a?pey you	pu:a should	pA? go	ce: already
	asp.1	v.	asp.2
	outer exp.	Nucleus	outer exp.

'You should have gone already.'

13. ?an he	pA? go	ha?bi:n not
	v.	asp.2
	Nucleus	outer exp.

'He cannot go.'

14. ŋ kɔ?	kɔp nearly	pA? go	ha?bi:n not
	asp.1	v.	asp.2
	outer exp.	Nucleus	outer exp.

'I am almost not able to go.'

2.2.2 Descriptive Verb Phrase

The descriptive verb phrase functions as predicate of the descriptive statement clause type. Its elements are :

$$VP_{\text{des.}} = \begin{matrix} + \\ - \end{matrix} \text{Mod}_1 : \text{ar.}_1 \begin{matrix} + \\ - \end{matrix} \text{V}_{\text{des.}} \begin{matrix} + \\ - \end{matrix} \text{Mod}_2 : \text{asp}_2 \begin{matrix} + \\ - \end{matrix} \text{Mod}_3 : \text{emp} \\ \begin{matrix} + \\ - \end{matrix} \text{Mod}_4 : \text{inten}$$

That is, an optional Modifier₁ position filled by the aspect class 1 (Sec 3.9), an obligatory Head position filled by a descriptive (Sec 3.10), an optional Modifier₂ position filled by the aspect word

2, an optional Modifier₃ position filled by the emphatic word class 3.12), and an optional Modifier₄ position filled by the intensifier word (Sec 3.13).

1.	raʔnæ:n child	ney this	ʔsʔka:c lazy	l ₁ ʔ indeed
			v.	inten.

'This child is lazy indeed.'

2.	ɔp good	khaʔna:t very	l ₁ ʔ indeed
	v.	emp.	inten.

'(It's) very good indeed.'

3.	ku:ti: long	{ l ₁ ʔ ciʔle: } indeed
	v.	inten.

'(It's) very long indeed.'

4.	ŋi:an sweet	ʔ-ʔl ₁ ʔ overly much	l ₁ ʔ indeed
	v.	asp.	inten.

'(It's) very sweet indeed.'

5.	ŋkəʔ I	roʔ comfortable	khəʔ na:t very
		v.	cmp.

'I am very fine.'

6.	pri:l flower	ʔaʔlu:an i	kaʔ saw red	roŋ very
			v.	cmp.

'The flower is very red.'

7.	ŋi:an sweet	o: already
	v.	asp.

'(It's) already sweet.'

8.	ʔaʔlay he	mpi:ayh not	ke: ever	tok poor
		asp.	asp.	v.

'He has never been poor.'

2.2.3 Copula Verb Phrase

The copula verb phrase functions as a predicate in the equative clause type. Its structure can be diagrammed as follows.

$$VP_{cop.} = \begin{matrix} + \\ - \end{matrix} Mod_1 : asp_1 + H_{cop} + \begin{matrix} + \\ - \end{matrix} Mod_2 : asp_2$$

That is, an optional Modifier₁ position filled by the aspect word subclass₁, an obligatory Head position filled by a copula verb (See 3.10) and an optional Modifier₂ position filled by the aspect word subclass₂.

1. ? a?lay
 he

ke y ever	pan be	kru: teacher	ca: already
asp.1	v.		asp.2

'He used to be a teacher.'

2. ? a?lay
 he

puan i: be about	pan be	kru: teacher
asp.1	v.	

'He is going to be a teacher.'

3. dan
 Dan

api:ayh not	ke y ever	pan be	kru: teacher
asp.1	asp.1	v.	

'Dan has never been a teacher.'

4. dan
 Dan

pan be	kru: teacher	bi:n have/get
v.		asp.2

'Dan can be a teacher.'

2.3 Prepositional Phrase

The prepositional phrase functions in Relator position and the object position of clauses, and in the Possessor and Modifier of noun phrases.

Prepositional phrases are marked by the presence of a

Structurally the prepositional phrase may be diagrammed as :

PP = + Rel : prep + Head : np

That is, an obligatory Relator position filled by a preposition (Sec 3) and an obligatory Head position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 2.1).

According to the restriction of word classes functioning as elements of the prepositional phrase, there are 5 subclasses of prepositional phrases.

1. locative
2. benefactive
3. time
4. possessive
5. relational

2.3.1 Locative Phrase: The locative subclass of the prepositional phrase is marked by the prepositional word class₁ functioning as Relator, and it can have any kind of nominal phrase as its Head. The Head of the nominal phrase functioning as Head of the Prepositional phrase however, will be filled

ti? doŋ	'in the house'
nam doŋ	'in the house'
taŋ ci?puak	'on the mat'
taŋ ma?loŋ	'in the sky'
taŋ sak	'in the forest'
ci?kiat doŋ	'near the house'

2.3.2 Benefactive Phrase: The benefactive subclass of the prepositional phrase is marked by the preposition word class₂ functioning as the Relator, which is followed by a nominal phrase where the Head consists of a noun or a pronoun.

o:n hi?	'for me'
phi:a ba?	'for you'
phi:a kruaŋ hi?	'for our country'

2.3.3 Time Phrase: The time subclass of the prepositional phrase is marked by the preposition word class₃ functioning as the Relator, which is followed by a time word. (See 2.1)

ta: si?mo:k	'from/since morning'
ci?kiat bra:n	'near the dawn'

2.3.4 Possessive Phrase: The possessive subclass of the prepositional phrase is marked by the preposition word class₄ - kho:ŋ 'of, belong to' functioning as the Relator, which is followed by a nominal phrase where the Head consists of a noun or pronoun referring to an animate noun.

kho:ŋ hi?	'of me, mine'
kho:ŋ ?a?li:k	'of a pig'

2.3.5 Relational Phrase: The relational subclass of the prepositional phrase is marked by the preposition word class₅ functioning as the Relator followed by a noninal phrase. The relational subclass may be :

A) Instrumental : It can only have the preposition nɛŋ 'with' functioning as the Relator, which is followed by a noun (indicated instrument).

(ci:a)	nɛŋ	ʔaʔti:	'(eat) with hands'
(tɛŋ)	nɛŋ	ʔaʔlu:ɛn	'(hit) with a stick'

B) Directive : It is marked by nɛŋ or cɔʔ 'to' functioning as the Relator, which is followed by a noninal phrase where the Head consists of a noun or pronoun, referring to a human noun.

ʔaʔlay	wo:	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} nɛŋ \\ cɔʔ \end{array} \right\}$	kuʔpay	'He spoke to his wife.'
he	speak		to wife	

C) Identical - Place Relationship : It can only have the preposition nɛŋ 'with' functioning as the Relator, which is followed by a noninal phrase where the Head consists of a noun or pronoun referring to an animate noun.

(ʔaʔlay	ɛ:t)	nɛŋ	mpeʔ	'(He lives) with his mother.'
he	live		with	mother	
(dan	ɛ:t)	nɛŋ	ʔaʔcɔ:	'(Dan is) with his dog.'
Dan	live		with	dog	

D) Reflexive Relationship S-P-($\frac{1}{2}$) in reciprocal clause type_P. It can have only nɛŋ 'with' functioning as the Relator, which is followed by a noninal phrase where the Head consists of a noun or pronoun referring to an animate noun.

(ʔaʔlay	ciʔloʔ)	nɛŋ	hiʔ	'(He quarrelled) with me.'
he	quarrel		with	I	
(mɛ:w	kɛp)	nɛŋ	ʔaʔcɔ:	'(The cat bit) with the dog.'
cat	bite		with	dog	

2.1 Adverb Phrase (AP)

The adverb phrase functions as Manner element of clauses. It also functions in the Modifier₄ position of the active verb phrase (Sec 3.12).

The elements of adverb phrase are :

AP = + Head : Adv + Mod ₁ : emp + Mod ₂ : inten

That is an obligatory Head position filled by an adverb, an optional Post Modifier₁ position filled by an emphatic word (Sec 3.12) and optional Modifier₂ position filled by an intensifier word (Sec 3.13).

1. (ta'yah) way thaa '(walk) very quickly!
walk quick very
- | | |
|---|------------------|
| H | Mod ₁ |
|---|------------------|

2. (?a'lay nu:ac) pa:li:ayh '(He drinks) a lot.'
he drink kha nast
many
- | |
|---|
| H |
|---|

3. (ta'yah) ta'feh thaa: '(walk) very quickly.'
walk quick really
- | | |
|---|------------------|
| H | Mod ₂ |
|---|------------------|

4. (ta'yah) kwe:y le:y '(walk) very slowly.'
walk slow slow
- | |
|---|
| H |
|---|

5. (?a'lay ci'a (uh) pa:li:ay ?a:li: li: '(He ate rice) too much.'
he eat rice many overly much really
- | | | |
|---|------------------|------------------|
| H | Mod ₁ | Mod ₂ |
|---|------------------|------------------|

'(He ate rice) too much.'

6. (?a'lay wo:) sa'ki: li: '(He really said like that.'
he speak like that really
- | | |
|---|------------------|
| H | Mod ₂ |
|---|------------------|

'He really said like that.'

CHAPTER III : WORD CLASS

The word level is the level next below the phrase level in the hierarchy. Words in So may be simple or complex. A simple word is considered to be the minimum meaningful unit which can be spoken in isolation. A complex word is a combination of two or more simple words whose meaning is not the same as the sum of the meanings of its parts.

e.g.	¹ kuat frog	ci:a eat	ma?say moon	'lunar eclipse'
	¹ kuat frog	ci:a eat	ma?na: sun	'solar eclipse'

Words normally function as elements in a phrase, but they may also function on higher levels, especially particles or linkers.

A word is usually marked off in careful speech as a simple or compound phonological foot. Words may be divided into classes according to their function : noun, pronoun, demonstrative, preposition, numeral, classifier, conjunction, aspect, auxiliary, verb, adverb, postnuclear adverb, emphatic, intensifier, question and particle.

3.1 Noun word class

Nouns function in the Head position of a noun phrase (Sec 2.1.1). Nouns may be simple such: ?a?ca: 'dog', doŋ 'house etc. or compound (Sec 4.1.1) or reduplicated (Sec 4.3). The noun word class is a large open class, and may be divided by their cooccurrence potential into the following subclasses : proper noun, common noun and time word.

3.1.1 Proper noun ..

The proper noun subclass consists of nouns functioning in the Head position of a noun phrase (Sec 2.1.1) and as vocatives (Sec 5.10.2). Its members are :

dam	'Dam'	.cə:ŋ	'Dang'
ka'saw	'Kasaw'	sa:ŋpri:əŋ	'Sangprieng'
			etc.

3.1.2 Common Noun

The common noun subclass may be subdivided into human and non-human nouns.

A. Human Noun It consists of kinship terms (and nouns that semantically imply human) functioning in the Head position of a noun phrase (Sec 2.1.1) and as vocatives (Sec 5.10.2). Some members are :

mpe?	'mother'	
mpi:a?	'father'	
siaw	'friend'	(Lao:)
la?kuay	'person'	
ra?pay	'girl, female'	
ra?kəŋ	'boy, male'	
ka?ni:a	'friend'	
ra?mə:n	'child'	
		ect.

Nearly all kinship terms occur as vocatives, sometimes with much broader meanings than they have as nouns. For example a:y means 'older sister', but as a vocative can apply to any female of a certain age.

1 It should be noted here that So like Khmer (but unlike English and Thai) call mpe? mpi:a? 'mother father', whereas English and Thai call 'father and mother'.

	mpi:ay ¹ ʔɔʔ	'father of father'
	mpe ¹ ʔɔʔ	'mother of father'
	mpi:ay ¹ ɲi:ay	'father of mother'
	mpe ¹ ɲi:ay	'mother of mother'
	ʔa ¹ cah	'elder brother or sister of mother'
	nua ¹	'younger brother of mother or father'
=	ʔa ¹ wi: ¹ a	'younger sister of mother or father'
	ʔa ¹ ɲi:	'younger brother of mother or father'
	ʔa ¹ ɔ: ¹ ŋ	'elder or younger brother-in-law'
	ʔa ¹ ɔ: ¹ p	'elder or younger sister-in-law'
	a:y	'elder brother'
	ʌ:y	'elder sister'
	sɜ:m	'younger brother or sister'
	ku ¹ man	'daughter-in-law'
	ku ¹ pay	'wife'
	ʔa ¹ ya:k	'husband'
	ku ¹ ya:	'father-in-law, mother-in-law, the younger brother and sister of your mother-in-law and father-in-law, the older sister or brother or your own spouse.'
	caw	'grandchildren'
	ku ¹ mɔ:n	'a child of your elder brother or sister'
	ŋkɔ:n	'offspring' (used to refer to children in the village)
	kɔ:n	'child'
	ɔɜ: ¹	'great grand-child'

B. Non-human noun

Non-human nouns may be animated and non-animated.

Some members are :

<u>Animate</u>		<u>Non-animate</u>	
ʔaʔco:	'dog'	naʔna:ŋ	'sun'
mɔ:w	'cat'	maʔsay	'moon'
ʔaʔli:k	'pig'	tʂɔ:	'paddy'
ciʔriak	'buffalo'	doŋ	'house'
oem	'bird'	ʔaʔsaʔ	'uncooked rice'
ntruɔy	'hen'	mpɨl	'tamarins'
kuat	'frog'	paʔraʔ	'money'
ti:sɑ	'duck'	dɑʔ	'water'
siaʔ	'fish'	ʔaʔdɑh	'pot'
mpay	'flea'	kraʔ	'excretion'
kuʔnay	'rat'	pe:	'raft' - 11 ²²
kuʔsɛm	'snake'	tuck	'boat'
tɔh	'leech'	ʔaʔti:	'hand'
taʔna:m ʔaʔlu:an	'tree'	ciʔra:sr	'egg'
	etc.		etc.

They can be further described in terms of their semantic types.

C. Time Word

A time word normally functions in the clause Temporal Slot

ndruat	'four days before yesterday'
ndrit	'three days before yesterday.'
ndray	'two days before yesterday'
ndrɨ:a	'the day before yesterday'
maʔhay	'yesterday'
ciʔnay	'today'
paʔna:	'tomorrow'
pra:	'the day after tomorrow'
pray	'two days after tomorrow'
prit	'three days after tomorrow'
pruat	'four days after tomorrow'
ŋchay	'month'
kuʔmp:	'year'
siʔŋay	'day'

Some of time words such as chay ku?mo: si?nay follow numerals when counted (Nu - II) in contrast to common nouns which precede numeral (II - III - CI).

ba:r	ku?mo:	?a?co:	ba:r	to:
2	year	dog	2	class.
'two years'		'two dogs'		

3.2 Pronoun

Pronouns function in the head position of a pronoun phrase (Sec 2.1.2), as a choice class in the possessive phrase and as the relator in Relative clause (Sec 1.1.14). The pronoun class is a closed class. Pronouns may be personal pronouns and relative pronouns.

3.2.1 Personal pronoun

Personal pronouns function in the Head position of a pronoun phrase and as a choice class in the possessive phrase. This subclass has a limited membership.

ŋko?	'first person singular' (female)
ŋkua?	'first person singular' male)
hi?	'first person singular and plural'
?a?su:l	'first person singular' (intimate)
hay	'first person plural'
kha?nuay	'first person singular' (used in legends)
ba?	'second person singular'
?a?pi:ɔ	'second person singular'
məy	'second person singular'
?a?pay	'second person singular and plural'
?an	'third person singular' (intimate)
naʋ	'third person singular'
?a?lay	'third person singular and plural'

Besides, kinship terms (Sec 3.1.2 A) can be used as personal pronouns.

3.2.2 Relative pronoun

Relative pronouns function as pronouns and as relators in Relative clauses (Sec 1.1.11). The members in this subclass are very limited and seem to be loan-words from Thai.

thi: 'which, that' used with non-human nouns.

phu: 'who, whom' used with human nouns.

used with both human and non-human nouns.

3.3 Demonstrative

Demonstratives function in the Demonstrative position of a noun or pronoun phrase (Sec 2.1.1, 2.1.2) and in the Location position of peripheral clause elements. There are two functional subclasses of the demonstrative word class.

Subclass 1 functions in the Demonstrative position of a noun or pronoun phrase (Sec 2.1.1, 2.1.2) and comprises the following members :

nay 'this' is used when the object referred to is near the speaker.

ki: 'that' is used when the object referred to is further away.

In addition, this subclass can be used as pronouns.

?i:t	nay	?o:n	mpé?	'Take this to mother.'
take	this	give	mother	

Subclass 2 functions in the Location position of peripheral clause elements. Its members are :

nay	'here'	toh	'farther than <u>ki:</u>
ki:	'there'	tuh	'farther than <u>toh</u>

3.4 Preposition

Prepositions function in the Relator position of prepositional phrases (Sec 2.3). According to the functional restrictions there are 5 subtypes of preposition word class.

Subclass 1 : This subclass functions as Relator of the Locative subtype (Sec 2.3.1) of prepositional phrase.

ti?	'in, on, at'	naŋ	'in'
taŋ	'in, on, at'	tah	'from'
nam	'in'	mi:aŋ	'in front of'
ŋkri:	'behind'	ci?kiat	'near'

Subclass 2 : This subclass functions as Relator of the benefactive phrase (Sec. 2.3.2) and it has two members.

?a:n	'for'	phɛ:a	'for' (Thai)
------	-------	-------	--------------

Subclass 3 : This subclass functions as Relator of time phrase (Sec 2.3.3) and it comprises two members.

ta:	'from, since'
ci?kiat	'near'

Subclass 4 : This subclass functions as Relator of the possessive phrase (Sec 2.3.3). It is a one-member class.

kho:ŋ	'of'
-------	------

Subclass 5 : This subclass functions as Relator of the relational phrase (Sec 2.3.5). Its members are :

nɛŋ	'with'
co?	'to' (functions as Relator of directive subtype of the relational phrase.)

3.5 Numeral word class

Numerals function as Head in the Quantity position of a noun or pronoun phrase (Sec 2.1.1, 2.1.2). The numeral word class is divided into the following subclasses : pre-numerals, numerals and post-numerals.

3.5.1 Pre-numerals (Pre-nu)

Pre-numerals function in the Pre-Numeral position in the Numeral phrase. They cannot follow a number. This subclass has the following membership.

pra ¹ ma:n	'about'		
?i:k	'more'	ni?	'all'
ki:ap	'nearly'	ra:w	'about'

3.5.2 Numerals

Numerals function as Head in the Quantity position of a noun or pronoun phrase (Sec 2.1.1, 2.1.2). They can occur either immediately before or after a classifier. They may be cardinal or ordinal numerals. Cardinal numerals in So are

muay	'one'	ba:ɹ	'two'
paɹ	'three'	u n	'four'
siŋ	'five'	ta ¹ ?pa:ɹ	'six'
ta ¹ ?pu:n	'seven'	ta ¹ ?kva:l	'eight'
ta ¹ ?keh	'nine'	muayci:t / na:ci:t	'ten'
muayci:ta ¹ ?muay	'eleven'	muayci:t la ¹ ? siŋ	'fifteen'
muayci:t ta ¹ ?pa:ɹ	'sixteen'	muayci:t ta ¹ ?pu:n	'seventeen'
ba:rci:t	'twenty'	pa:ɹci:t	'thirty'

ma: 'one' is used only in combinations with other morpheme, but nuay is used more frequently than ma:

la? occurs between the number multiplier cit 'ten' and any one-syllable number in complex numeral construction involving members eleven to fifteen.

The numbers above fifteen are the combinations of 6, 7, 8 and 9 with 10.

Apart from numbers, this subclass includes the following words :

pa?li:ayh 'many' klɛŋ 'many (people)' ku: 'every'

Ordinal numbers simply propose thi: which is a Thai loan word.

thi: nuay 'first' thi: ba:r 'second' thi: pay 'third'

3.5.3 Post - numerals

Post - numerals occur after the numerals. They are :

ma?hi:	'exact, just'	lɛ:y	'a little over'
ku:a	'over'	kɛŋ	'half'
bi?biŋ	'little'	sɛŋ	'exact'

3.6 Classifier word class

Classifiers function in the Quantity position of a noun or pronoun phrase (Sec 2.1.1, 2.1.2). They are used to indicate the size of the units involved when a number is cited. Semantically the classifier refers to certain groups of nouns, which are collectively labelled by a classifier and referred to in counting. Classifiers may be broadly divided into 4 subclasses.

3.6.1 Specific Classifier

na?	'person'	lan	'lump' (with sto
pial	'flower'	?aŋ	'person' (with m
not	'seed'	lay	'house'
ta?na:m	'trees, vegetables'	pa?lay	'fruit'
hoŋ	'hole'	pa?loŋ	'used with 'taro
san	'lime (with rope, bracelet)'	ra?səŋ	'room'
ca:	'time (with all repeated actions)'	lam	'piece'
ʒkah	'side (with parts of body)'		

to: is the most common classifier of So. It has a wide range of usage. It is used with cigarette, all kinds of tools, utensils and animals.

3.6.2 Collective classifier

mu:	'group'	la?kuay	'person'
ra?səŋ	'room'	ta?lah	'banana' (this classifier may be classified into 3.6.1)
ta?nu:al	'bunch of banana'		

3.6.3 Measure

ba:t	'baht'	lit	'litre'
mo:t	'metre'	?a?caŋ	'a measure of length of two metres.'
kat	'the length from the elbow to the end of the fingers'	ci?kat	'handspan'
kru?	'bucket'	ca?doh	'pot'
ki?lo:	'kilogramme'	ca:k	'glass.'
		?o:	'bowl'

3.6.4 Reduplicative of classifiers

The Head noun and the reduplicative classifier have the same forms. The noun is usually omitted.

wi:l	3	village	→	pay	wi:l	'three villages'
ra?səŋ	2	room	→	ba:r	ra?səŋ	'two rooms'

3.7 Conjunction word class

Conjunctions function in the Linkage position of an additive complex nominal phrase (2.1.4) and in the Sentence level (not in a simple sentence). According to their functions, conjunctions may be subdivided into 2 subclasses : phrase connective words and sentence connective words.

3.7.1 Phrase connective word subclass comprises the following members :

n̄ŋ	'and'	'and'	kap ¹	'and'
wi:a.....wi:a	'both...and'	mpi:ayh.....ka?		'either....or'

3.7.2 Sentence connective word subclass comprises the following members :

bat	'when'	pu:a	'when'
khæn	'if'	puan	'before'
ntu:ŋkri:	'after'	to:n	'when'
ma?lia?	'as if'	ph̄i:a	'in order to'
?o:n	'in order to'	caŋ	'then, therefore'
panjuan	'because'	tian	'because'
khæn	'because'	n̄ŋ	'and'
na?	'and'	hak	'but'
li:	'or'	mpi:ayhka?	'either....or'
n̄ŋ...n̄ŋ	'both...and'	wi:a.....wi:a	'both....and'
mo:y?...mo:y?	'both....and'	h̄a:ŋ.....n̄:ŋ	'the more...the

¹/kap/ seems to be a Thai loan word.

3.8 Aspect word class (asp.)

The aspect word class functions in the Outer Expansion position of the active verb phrase (Sec 2.2.1). It is a closed class and is divided into subclasses.

Subclass 1 functions in the Modifier₁ position of the active verb phrase (Sec 2.2.1) and comprises the following members.

naŋka?	'probable future'	¹ pu:a	'suggestive action'
i:	'future'	¹ puam	'action in process'
¹ puam i:	'imminent action'	ke:iy	'habitual action'
ca?kə:	'immediate completion of action'	to:ŋ	'necessary or obligatory action'
¹ thit?i:	'immediate future'	kiap	'immediate future'
¹ mpi:ayh	'negation'	ma?	'negation'
na?	'negation'		

Subclass 2 function¹ in the Modifier₃ position of the active verb phrase (Sec 2.2.1) and comprises the following members.

¹ cə:	'complete action'	bə:n	'capable action'
ha?bə:n	'negation-incomplete action'		

Note that mpi:ayh is the most common negator whereas ma? and ha? are restrictedly used. ma? (perhaps an acronym of mpi:ayh) seems to be used with only one-syllable body action verb, such as ha:m 'see', pa? 'go', ci:a 'eat', wo: 'speak', not with ta?lüh 'run', ta?yah 'walk'. As far as the data concerned, na? is used with the verbs bə:n 'have, get' mí: 'have and pa? 'go'. ha?bə:n usage seems to be similar to mâyad:y in Thai.

To draw a rule used to determine when or with what words the negator ma?, and ha? may occur needs more data and more time to investigate.

3.9 Auxiliary word class (aux.)

The auxiliary word class functions in the Modifier₂ position of the active verb phrase. It is a closed class. The members are :

?i: 'want' khən 'dare, brave' cuap 'like'

3.10 Verb word class (v)

Verbs function as Nucleus of the verb phrase (Sec 2.2). Verbs can have further structure, which is not stated here in detail.

= According to functional restrictions there are subclasses of verbs

3.10.1 Transitive verb

The transitive verb class functions as Nucleus of the active verb phrase in the transitive statement clause (Sec 1.1.1). It can be further subdivided into three subclasses.

Subclass 1 functions as Nucleus of the transitive verb phrase in the transitive clause (Sec 1.1.1) and typically expresses an action of which the subject is the Actor or the object is the undergoer.

Some members are:

kon	'catch, seize'	ci:c	'eat'
kəh	'cut'	qu:ac	'drink'
təɲ	'hit'	ɔəi	'kill'

Subclass 2 functions in the Predicate₁ position of the transitive nominal extension clause type A. Some members are :

hɑ:m	'see'	daŋ	'know'
tɑ:ŋ	'use'	ɑ:n	'let'
?a?lɛ?	'choose'	sɑn	'hear'

Subclass 3 functions in the Predicate₁ position of the transitive nominal extension clause type B. Its members are :

ta?	'make'	?i:	'want'
?a?tɑ:ŋ	'tell, order'	pɑ:y	'tell'

3.10.2 Intransitive verb

The intransitive verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the intransitive statement clause (Sec 1.1.2). Its members are :

t ^h ku:	'sit'	'ni:am	'cry'
bic	'sleep'	yuar	'get up'
ra?wo:	'speak'		

3.10.3 Bitransitive verb

The bitransitive verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the bitransitive clause (Sec 1/1/3). Its members are :

ɑ:n	'give'	?a?suay	'send'
muap	'give'		

3.10.4 Descriptive verbs

The descriptive verb class functions as Nucleus of the descriptive verb phrase (Sec 2.2.2). It also functions as choice class as adverb in Modifier₄ position of the active verb phrase (Sec 2.2.1). Some of its members are :

pu:t	'big'	ɱɔc	'beautiful'
kro:k	'white'	thaw	'old'
ka?saw	'red'	cap	'good'
?a?ka:ɔ	'lazy'	pa:g	'tall'
tok	'poor'	?a:m	'delicious'

3.10.5 Equational verbs

The equational verb class functions as Nucleus of the copula verb phrase in the equational clause (Sec 1.1.5). Its members are: -

pen	'to be'	ra?mih	'name'
-----	---------	--------	--------

3.10.6 Motion verbs

The motion verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the motion clause (Sec 1.1.6). Some members are :

pa?	'go'	ta?luh	'run'
ta?yah	'walk'	toh	'come'
ta?	'arrive'		

3.10.7 Propulsion verbs

The propulsion verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the propulsion clause (Sec 1.1.7). Its members are :

?a:t	'take, bring'	do:l	'carry'
------	---------------	------	---------

3.10.8 Quotative verbs

The quotative verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the quotative clause (Sec 1.1.8). Its members are :

pa?tap	'tell, leave word'	ra?wo	'speak'
pa:y	'say'	?a?blih	'ask'
si?ma:	'scold, curse'	?a?ta:n	'tell, order'
?a?pok	'complain'	si?baw	'announce'
?a?loŋ	'call'	co?ra?mih	'to name'

3.10.9 Locative verb

The locative verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the locative clause (Sec 1.19). It is a one - member word class.

Δ;t	'live'
-----	--------

3.10.10 Existence verb

The existence verb class is a one - member word class, functioning as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the existence clause.

mi:	'have'
-----	--------

3.10.11 Evaluation verbs

The evaluation verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the evaluation clause (Sec 1.1.12). Its members are :

ra:ki:a	'cost'	ntan	'heavy'
pa:n	'tall'		

3.11 Adverb word class (adv.)

The adverb word class functions in the Head position of the adverb phrase (Sec 2.4) or in the Modifier₂ position in the active verb phrase (Sec 2.2.1). Some members are :

way	'quickly'	kuay	'slowly'
sa?ki:	'like that'	la?nit la?no:t	'very far'
ta?døn	'quickly'	pøn	'highly'

3.12 Emphatic word class (emp.)

The emphatic word class functions in the Modifier₁ position of the adverb phrase (Sec 2.4) or in the Modifier₂ position of the descriptive verb phrase (Sec 2.2.2). Some members of this class are :

kha?na:t	'much, very'	?a?li?	'overly much'
ròg ròg	'very red'	thæ::	'very'

3.13 Intensifier word class (inten.)

The intensifier word class functions in the Modifier₂ position of the adverb phrase (Sec 2.4) or in the Modifier₃ position of the descriptive verb phrase (Sec 2.2.2). Its members are :

ci?lò:	'indeed'	li?	'really indeed'
--------	----------	-----	-----------------

Besides, reduplication of adverbs or descriptive verbs is often used to show intensification. (Sec 4.3)

mác mác	'very beautiful'	kuay kuay	'very slowly'
---------	------------------	-----------	---------------

2.14 Question words (q.w.)

The question words function on clause level as markers of content question words. They are :

?a?mɛ?	'who, whom'	ntrow	'what'
mɔ?	'which'	sa?mɔ?	'how'
'nchi?	'how many'	ha?mɔ?	'how many'
sammɔ?	'how many'	ya:ɔmɔ?	'when'
to:nmɔ?	'when'	ta?row	'why'

3.15 Final particles (f.p.)

Final particles function in the Final position of the clause. It is difficult to find a single unifying semantic factor among the various final particles. The meanings include affirmation, negation and interrogation. It is common to find two particles co-occurring, but three is rare. Some final particles are :

ha?	'yes/no question particle'
do:k	'negative particle'
de:	'imperative or statement polite particle'
ye:	'imperative particle implied invitation'
nɛŋ	'imperative particle' (asking for permission or command)
ci?	'imperative particle' (command, annoyed)
to?	'imperative particle' (polite)
na~na:	'imperative particle' (slight command)
nɛŋne?	'let's' (persuasion); a marker in reciprocal clause'

CHAPTER IV : WORD TYPES

Words sometimes have significant internal morpheme structuring, notably, compounding, affixation, reduplication and onomatopoeia.

4.1 Compounding

Compounding is the intermediate state between a single morpheme with no internal structure and two morphemes in construction with each other. Nouns and verbs are most commonly compounded.

4.1.1 Compound Nouns

Two or more morphemes which are syntactically inseparable and function together as a noun are regarded as 'compound nouns'. Forms of compound nouns are :

A) N - N

mpi: mother	da? water	'river'
ra?na: way	ta?yah walk	'pavement'
si?lok hair	mat eye	'eyelash'
ci?rə:r egg	ntruay hen	'egg'
krə? excretion	ka?tu:n	'ear - wax'
krə? excretion	mat eye	'eye - wax'
kó? pen	ti:a duck	'a duck - pen'

B) N - V

klɔ:ŋ	bic	'bed - room'
room	sleep	
ntruay	ʔaŋ	'fried-chicken'
hen	roast	
siaʔ	hæ:k	'salted fish'
fish	salty	

C) N - N - V

sɔ:ŋ	lɔ:ŋ	ŋkæh	'shorts'
pants	leg	short	
sɔ:ŋ	lɔ:ŋ	kuʔti:	'trousers'
pants	leg	long	
saʔlok	plæ:ŋ	ŋkæh	'short-sleeve shirt'
shirt	arm	short	
saʔlok	plæ:ŋ	kuʔti:	'long-sleeve shirt'
shirt	arm	long	

D) Generic N - Specific N.

siaʔ	laʔkhoʔ	'serpent - head'
fish		
siaʔ	ciʔkæn	'catfish'
siaʔ	ʔaʔbɪn	'carp'
siaʔ	paʔciam	'sheat fish'
siaʔ	siʔyæ:ŋ	'kind of fish, a small one'
siaʔ	paʔkhɔŋ	'climbing perch'
kuat	ʔaʔkə:p	'frog'
frog		
kuat	tʃra:	'tiny frog'
kuat	liʔaŋ	'a kind of tiny frog'

E) Numeral - N

pay	ɔ:ː	'triangle'
three	corner	

pu:n	ɔ:ː	'square'
four	corner	

4.1.2 Compound Verbs

Two or more morphemes which are syntactically inseparable and function together as a simple verb are regarded as 'compound verbs'.

A) V - N

ʔuk	mɪt	'worry'
at one's wits	mind	
end		

hɑ:m	mɪt	'sympathize with'
see	mind	

ntʃruh	mɪt	'to be frightened'
fall	mind	

pɪt	mɪt	'to be frightened'
lose	mind	

pa:ʔat	muh	'to have the breath knocked out'
stuffy	nose	

ciʔ	mɪt	'to be sorry, regret'
lose	mind	

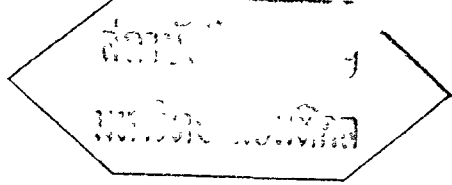
klap	mɪt	'to be satisfied'
correct	mind	

B) V - N - N

tɔc	mat	mi:aŋ	'lose face'
sell	eye	face	

4.2 Affixation

Affixation in So is very rare. Only one prefix is found.



<u>?a?</u>	'causative'	has a fairly wide range of occurrence.
po:n	'to jump down'	<u>?a?po:n</u> 'to drop sth. down'
ci:n	'to cook'	<u>?a?ci:n</u> 'to be cooked'
lic	'to go to another place'	<u>?a?lic</u> 'to remove'
co:n	'to go up'	<u>?a?co:n</u> 'to take up'
sæ:n	'to go down'	<u>?a?sæ:n</u> 'to take down'
ŋu:ac	'to drink'	<u>?a?ŋu:ac</u> 'to give drink'
mpə:y	'to take a bath'	<u>?a?mpə:y</u> 'to give a bath'
pat	'(for the fire) to go out'	<u>?a?pat</u> 'to put the fire out'

4.3 Reduplication

So reduplication may be described under three main categories : repetitive reduplication, euphonic alternation of rhyme syllable, semantic reduplication of synonyms and combination of euphonic and semantic reduplication.

So reduplication is used to specialize or intensify the meaning of the base with a tendency to suggest plurality or emphasis. In the case of entire reduplication of the base it may suggest according to the content, either plurality or intensification. A large portion of So reduplication is phonaesthetic.

4.3.1 Repetitive Reduplication may be :

A) Syllable Reduplication : Two free morphemes ($M_1 + M_1$) are repeated for plurality or emphasis.

nchay	nchay	'months'
ku?mɔ:	ku?mɔ:	'years'
moŋ	moŋ	'very bright'
wiap	wiap	'very glaring'
roŋ	roŋ	'very red'
hɛt	hɛt	'many'

B) Partially Reduplication CVC₁ - CVC₂

hɛ?	hɛh	'strike to flame'
blɛ?	blɛh	'(used for a fever) high fever'

4.3.2 Euphonic Alternation of Rhyme Syllable

One morpheme has its own meaning; the other is added for euphonic purpose. This type of reduplication is used for emphasis.

cap	ci:a	'very good'
good		
la?ŋit	la?ŋɔ:t	'so far that one cannot reach'
far		
ta?li:ŋ	ta?ram	'rice - field'
rice - field		
la?hək	la?hə:y	'sort of easy going person'
ʔa?hɛk	ʔa?hɛy	'scatter all over'
sniff		
hun hu:	hun ha:y	'easily angry and annoyed'
angry and annoyed		
ra?mu:t	ra?mɛ:n	'like and love each other.'
	reconcile	

4.3.3 Semantic reduplication of synonyms is used to put emphasis.

la ¹ ?kuay	khæt	la ¹ ?kuay	khuaŋ	'A very bad person'
person	angry	person	person who brings bad luck	
liŋ	lo:n			'to consider carefully'
consider	look			
ci:a	wah	ci:a	ci ¹ ?na:	'eat rice'
eat	rice	eat	food	
ta ¹ ?	doŋ	ta ¹ ?	su:	'to arrive home'
arrive	house	arrive	hut	
taŋ	raŋ	taŋ	mi:	'very rich'
prep.	rich	prep	have	
kam	ku:n			'very good'
good	good			
da ¹ ?	tik ¹			'water'
water	water			

4.3.4 Combinations of euphonic and semantic reduplication

ci ¹ ?riaŋ	mat	ci ¹ ?riaŋ	muh	'tear' (n)
tear	eye	tear	nose	

4.4 Onomatopoeia

Many onomatopoeia words are reduplicated. Some are just single words, and others may be repeated two or three times.

hoh	hoh	'sound of a dog'
həh	həh	'sound of a small dog'
ŋkri:k	ŋkri:k	'sound of a rat'
hih	hih hih	'sound of a horse'
?u:y	?u:y	'sound of a pig when hungry'
?i:k	?i:k	'sound of a pig when it was hit'
ka:p	ka:p ka:p	'sound of a duck'

1 tik is suspected to be a Khmer loan word.

ʔok ʔiʔok ʔok	'sound of a hen'
ʔo:k ʔo:k	'sound of a hen when it is going to be killed'
ʔa:k ʔa:k	'sound of a crow'
tɾp tɾp	'sound of water dropping'
sə:t sə:t	'sound of flowing water'
hiʔ hiʔ	'sound of laughing'

etc.

CHAPTER V : SENTENCE

A sentence is generally characterized by having one independent main clause, and may also have one or more subordinate clauses or temporals (Thomas 1971 : 166).

Sentences normally function as elements in a paragraph. The end of a surface sentence is usually marked by special intonation patterns.

The semantic structure of a sentence is composed of a propositional nucleus (Sec 5.1) with or without compounding (Sec 5.2) and setting (Sec 5.3) and with illocution, mood and reality values (Sec 5.4, 5.6). Semantic prosodies run through a sentence and presuppositions (Sec 5.8) undergrid it.

The surface structure of a sentence is composed of a nuclear form (Sec 5.9) with or without peripheral slots (Sec 5.10) and with intonation stress (Sec 5.11), and completeness characteristics (Sec 5.12).

5.1 Locution Nuclear types (Semantic)

Sentences may be divided semantically into the following subtype simple statement, introduction, temporal sequence, covarying, conditional, purposeful, and deductive. These subtypes differ from each other in the different relations between their component parts, as indicated by different connectors and different transformation potential.

5.1.1 Simple Statement Sentence

The simple sentence is composed of just one clause. It can be manifested by any clause type described earlier in section 1. They usually have their own grammatical independence, that is, without having

5.1.2 Introduction Sentence

In its simplest form it seems to be most commonly found at the beginning of the paragraph or discourse. It is composed of Introduction and Predication or Description.

$\text{Sent intro} = \text{Introduction} - \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Predication} \\ \text{Description} \end{array} \right\}$
--

The introduction sentence consists of at least two clauses. The first one mainly used to introduce persons or objects into a discourse is filled by an existence clause (Sec 1.1.10). Then there are statements about them in the second clause filled by a statement clause (Sec 1.1),

- | | | | | | | |
|----|------------------|-----------|--------------|-----------|----------------------------|----------------|
| 1. | mi:
have | ba:r
2 | na?
class | so:ŋ
2 | siaw
friend | - Introduction |
| | pi:a
persuade | | na:ŋe?
go | pa?
go | rapca:ŋ
seek employment | - Predication |

'There are two intimate friends; they persuaded each other to seek employment.'

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|----------------|-----------|----------------|-----------------|----------------|-------------|-----------|
| 2. | mi:
have | so:ŋ
. | siaw
friend | - -Introduction | | | |
| | siaw
friend | muay
1 | na?
class | pan
be | phu:
person | tok
poor | |
| | siaw
friend | muay
1 | na?
class | pan
be | phu:
person | mi:
rich | - Descrip |

'There are two intimate friends; one is poor, the other is rich.'

No linker is used between two clauses and the order is Introduction - Predication, No transform has been found here.

5.1.3 Temporal Sequence Sentence¹

A sentence may be introduced by a repetition or part of a preceding sentence . This indicates a temporal sequence of actions "having done something then....." In story - telling the repetition is frequently followed by /cə: kə?/ /cə: lə:/ finish....then. Other linkers used in temporal sequence sentence are /lə:/ /caŋ/ 'then' /cə: caŋ/ /cə:ka?caŋ/ 'and then' /pu:a/ 'when' /huan/ 'before' /ntu:n kri:/ 'after'. This type of sentence has solely temporal sequence without causative relationships.

This sentence type may be formulated as :

$\text{Sent}_{\text{temp}} = \begin{array}{c} \text{Prior Event} \\ \text{(PE.)} \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} \text{Subsequent Event} \\ \text{(SE.)} \end{array}$
--

That is a Prior Event plus one or more Subsequent Events. Each of these positions is filled by a clause (Sec 1) and is joined or linked by a temporal linker mentioned above or zero.

These linkers signify the completion of the previous action and its temporal relation to the following action.

¹ It is quite possible that this should not be considered a nuclear type, as it apparently can be accounted for by additive compounding of a simple nucleus plus sequential time movement.

1. PE, SE₁, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{cə:lə:} \\ \text{cə:ka?} \end{array} \right\}$ SE₂
2. PE $\boxed{\text{cə:}}$, caŋ SE₁, $\boxed{\text{cə:}}$, cə: SE₂
3. PE $\boxed{\text{cə:}}$, caŋ SE₁, cə:caŋ SE₂
4. nuaŋ SE₂ PE, caŋ SE₁
5. ntu:n kri: PE, SE₁, caŋ SE₂
6. pú:a PE $\boxed{\text{cə:}}$, caŋ SE₁, (caŋ) SE₂
7. PE, cə: SE₁, SE₂
8. PE $\boxed{\text{nuaŋ}}$, caŋ SE₁, cə:caŋ SE₂
9. nuaŋ SE₁, SE₂, PE
10. PE $\boxed{\text{cə:}}$, SE₁, cə:ka? SE₂
11. PE, SE₁, SE₂
12. PE, SE₁ $\boxed{\text{cə:}}$, caŋ SE₂
13. PE, SE $\boxed{\text{nuaŋ}}$, cə:ka? caŋ SE₂
14. SE₂ $\boxed{\text{ntun}}$ PE SE₁

The words in boxes /cə:/ 'finish' /ntu:n/ 'after', /nuaŋ/ 'before' are functioning as adverbs of time. They are homonymous with those functioning as linkers. The underlined words are temporal sequence linkers which may be divided into two types according to their positions.

A) Linkers which occur only in sentence - final position.

Such linkers are /cə:/, /caŋ/ 'then' /cə: caŋ/ /cə:ka?/ /cə:lə:/
cə:ka?caŋ/ 'finish....then or and then'

B) Linkers which occur only in sentence - initial

position. Such linkers are /pú:a/ 'when' /nuaŋ/ 'before' /ntu:nkri:/ 'after'.

Form 11 requires a slight pause after PE and SE₁. In other

words, a pause is used instead of a linker.

Forms 4,5,9,14 ~~and~~ rarely used.

5.1.4 Covarying Sentence

The covarying sentence is used to describe two or more events whose actions vary together.

The elements of the covarying sentence are :

Sent_{co} = Free Variable (FV) - Conditioned Variable (CV)

That is, a free variable plus a conditional variable; each of these positions is normally filled by a clause.

The covariance may be a covariance of simple degree marked by hæ:ŋ, quality marked by /sa?mɔ?/ /ha?mɔ?/ location marked by 'zero, and time marked by /ya:ŋmɔ?....ya:ŋki:/ , /ya:ŋmɔ?.....ma?rɛh/

The normal order of the elements is FV - CV. No transform has been found.

A. Covariance of Simple Degree

1.	hæ:ŋ	ŋu:ac ¹		hæ:ŋ	bu:l
		drink			drunk
		FV			CV

'The more (you) drink, the more drunk you become.'

2.	hæ:ŋ	ta?luh ¹		dam	hæ:ŋ	miay
		run				be tired
		FV				CV

'The more Dam runs, the more tired he becomes.'

or dam	hæ:ŋ	ta?luh ¹		(?an)	=	miay
		run				be tired
		FV				CV

3.	ʔaʔlay	hæ:n	mɔ:hɔʔ		(ʔaʔlay)	ka:n	tɪc	plɛ:
			angry				have	head
		FV				CV	a pain	

'The angrier he is, the more he has a headache.'

B. Covariance of Quality

4.	ʔaʔlay	i:t	saʔmɔʔ		hiʔ	kaʔ	i:t	bi:n
	he	take	how		I		take	get/have
		FV					CV	

5.	bæʔ	cah	haʔmɔʔ		kaʔ	aʔcɔ:n	maʔhi:
	you	cut with	how much			take up	
	(impo)	knife				CV	
		FV					

6.	tɪn	pɛʔ	saʔmɔʔ		bi:n	saʔ	ki:
	hit	go	how		get		
		FV				CV	

C. Covariance of Location

7.	bɔ:n	hiʔ	ciʔtan		kaʔ	ki:	bɔ:n	hiʔ	bi:c
	place	I	weave			is	place	I	slee
		FV					CV		

'The place where I weave is the place where I sleep.'

D. Covariance of Time

8.	mi:a	ya:ŋmɔʔ		trɪh	ka:	ya:ŋki:
	rain	when		sow	rice	seedlings
		FV			CV	

'Whenever it rains, (the farmers) sow.'

9. ?a?lay ca^h sak ya:ŋmɔ?[?]
 he cut weed when
 with knife
 FV
- ra?kop ku?saⁿ { ya:ŋki:^h }
 see snake { ma?rə^h }
 CV regulary

'Whenever he clears away the weed, (he) always sees a snake.'

10. ?an cu^h ya:ŋmɔ?[?] ŋkɔ?[?] pɔ[?] ya:ŋki:^h
 he come when I go
 FV CV

'When he comes, I will go immediately.'

11. ta? krə:^hŋ pɔ^h ya:ŋmɔ?[?] mpe?^h ri:ay ya:ŋki:^h
 do thing lose when mother angry
 FV CV

'Whenever (I) lost something, mother will be angry.'

5.1.5 Conditional Sentence

The So conditional sentence is made up of one or more initial clauses giving a condition or cause and a final clause stating the consequence or the result action. This sentence type may be formulated as :

<p style="text-align: center;">Sent_{con} = + Condition (C) + Result (R)</p>
--

The conditional clause and the result clause may be linked by having a conjunction Before each clause. When the condition is known /paŋɯan/ /ti:an/ 'because' /bat/ 'when' /caŋ/ or /lɛ:y/¹ 'therefore' are used, when the condition is unknown /kɯn/ 'if' is used. Besides

¹ /lɛ:y/ is a Thai loan word.

/khan/ 'if' may be compounded with /ya:ŋmɔ?... ya:ŋki:/ to emphasize that if the condition occurs, the result will definitely take place.

The normal order of the elements is C - R

1	<u>khan</u>	ni?	doŋ	ni?	krú:əŋ	koh	ta?nɑ:m	ʔa?lu:əŋ	ji?	
	if	all	house	all	country	cut	tree		all	
	ta?	ueyh	ta?	ku?cah		ta?nɑ:m	ʔa?lu:əŋ	ka?	dap	ji?
	make	fire- wood	make	charcoal		tree			then	finish
			C				R			

'If everyone in our country chops all trees to make fire-wood or charcoal, there will be no tree left.'

2	<u>khan</u>	ʔa?mɔ?	cú:əy?	bá:n		khəŋ	si?	mí:	ra:ŋwan
	if	who	look for	have		probably		have	reward
			C					R	

'Whoever found it, (he) would probably get a reward.'

3.	<u>khan</u>	ʔa?lay	ci:a	wáh	pa?ueyh	ya:ŋmɔ?		(ʔa?lay?	tíc	pún	ya:ŋ
	if	he	eat	ric	spoiled	when		(he)	have	stomach	a pain
			C						R		

'Whenever he eats spoiled rice, he will always have a stomach ache.'

4	<u>khan</u>	hə?	bá:n	kə:w	tí?	sawka?do:ŋ	ci?paw	ʔa?sə:ŋ	o:i:n	ŋkɔ?
	if	you	get	glass	at	mast	junk	take down	give I	
			C ₁						C ₂	

hay	ka?	bá:n	cú:	lash
we	then	get	return	f.p.
		R		

'If you can get the glass at the mast and take it down for me, we are able to go home.'

12 ʔaʔməʔ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{ki:} \\ \underline{hə:} \end{array} \right\}$ tic puŋ 'Who? Who had a stomach ache?'

13 ʔaʔlay ci:a ntrow caŋ tic puŋ 'What did he eat and made him have a stomach ache?'

etc.

Partial formulaic battery of which the above citations are an example.

1 khæn C , R

2 khæn C ya:nmoʔ , R ya:nki:

3 C , $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{caŋ} \\ \underline{lə:y} \end{array} \right\}$ R

4 pannuan C , $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{caŋ} \\ \underline{lə:y} \end{array} \right\}$ C

5 R , khæn C

6 R , pannuan C

7 C , R

8 bat C , caŋ R

Battery adjuncts

9 taʔrow , R

10 taʔrow $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{ki:} \\ \underline{hə:} \end{array} \right\}$ R ,

11 ʔaʔməʔ R

12 ʔaʔməʔ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{ki:} \\ \underline{hə:} \end{array} \right\}$ R

13 Participant content question (ntrow) , R

Functions of the forms in the above battery

1. Less probable Condition. Used in discourse. The degree of certainty is less than 2.
2. Emphatic conditional sentence. Used to emphasize that if the Condition occurs, the Result will definitely take place.
3. Factual-Result form. Used in simple discourse to indicate that the Action has already occurred.
4. Emphatic Cause. Used to emphasize the Cause or Reason.
5. ~~khən~~ is shifted to the medial position. Used as form 1.
6. Simple form. Used as form 3.
7. Simple and natural form without any connector. Used when the Condition is reported to be known as factual.
8. More probable future condition than 1.

Battery adjuncts

9. Questioned Cause. Used to elicit the Cause.
10. Emphatic questioned Cause. Used to ask for sure what the Cause is.
11. Cause deletion and questioned Actor. Used to elicit the Actor.
12. Same as 10 but more emphatic.
13. Questioned Goal in Cause. Used to elicit the Goal.

Restrictions on the above battery

1. In all forms, a pause is required after each clause.
2. Forms 10, 12 require a high pitch on the word /ki:/ or /hə:/
3. In form 2, /~~khən~~/ is obligatory present; otherwise, it becomes a covarying sentence—a covariance of time.

Description of the constants (underlined words) in the formulaic battery above

1. khən : khən ~ sən 'if' are in free variation. They are served to make a condition whose action has not yet taken place. Their positions in sentences are initial or medial.
khən.....ya:ŋmɔʔ.....ya:ŋki: is served to emphasize the Condition.
2. caŋ : caŋ . lə:y 'therefore'
Both occur medially before the Result clause.
If the Result clause is shifted to the beginning of the sentence, they are not used here. In other words, they never occur in sentence - initial position.
3. pannuan : pannuan . ti:an 'because'
pannuan may be used in sentence - initial or sentence - medial position. If it is in the initial position, caŋ or lə:y will be used as an accompanying connector. Structurally speaking, pannuan and ti:an are different from each other in that the former is followed by a clause, either full or elliptical whereas the latter is followed by a noun or pronoun. They are similar in that, semantically speaking, they are used when Condition is known. Also, they indicate that the Action has already occurred.
4. bat : bat, pu:a 'when'
To me, pu:a seems to be a Thai-loan word from phə: As far as the data concerned, it occurs initially only.
bat seems to have a future sense.

5.1.6 Purposeful Sentence

A Purposeful sentence indicates an action and its purpose. It is characterized by a purposeful sequence of actions. The Purpose clause is generally the negation or the increasing of the situation in the Cause Clause.

Sent_{purpose} = Previous State (Cause) - Action (Result)
- Expected State (Purpose)

A full Purposeful sentence is composed of a Previous State or Cause position filled by a clause, an Action or Result position usually filled by a motion clause or a transitive clause or descriptive clause and an Expected State or Purpose position filled by a clause which indicates the purpose or motivation of the Action. - Elliptical Purposeful sentences can have the same form as Conditional sentences.

1.	ʔaʔlay he	mɸi:ayh not	roʔ well		paʔ bo	coʔ see	mo: doctor		o:n give	(ʔaʔlay) bə:n w: (he) recuper. way quick
		C				A			P	

'He was sick; (he) went to see the doctor so as to recuperate q'

2.	ʔaʔlay he	phiʔ try	raʔwo: speak	taʔlok taʔlok funny		o:n give	ku:naʔ every Class.	ku:naʔ l.
		A					P	

'He tried to say funny things in order to make everyone laugh.'

3.	mpeʔ mother	khə:y cook	wah rice		o:n give	mɸi:ayʔ father	ci:a eat
		A				P	

'My mother cooked rice for father to eat.'

Purposeful Sentences Battery in So

1. dam mpi:ayh rɔʔ 'Dam was sick' - Cause (C)
 dam pəʔ ɔʔmɔ: 'Dam went to see the doctor' - Result (R)
 pah 'To have an operation' - Purpose (P)
 2. dam mpi:ayh rɔʔ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{lə:y} \\ \underline{caŋ} \end{array} \right\}$ pɔʔ ɔʔ mɔ: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{phɛ:a} \\ \underline{ɔ:n} \end{array} \right\}$ pah A.22

Dam was sick so (he) went to see the doctor in order to have
 therefore

an operation.

3. panuan dam mpi:ayh rɔʔ ?an $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{lə:y} \\ \underline{caŋ} \end{array} \right\}$ pɔʔ ɔʔ mɔ: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{phɛ:a} \\ \underline{ɔ:n} \end{array} \right\}$ pah

Because Dam was sick, he, therefore, sent to see the doctor to have
 an operation.

4. dam pɔʔ ɔʔmɔ: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{phɛ:a} \\ \underline{ɔ:n} \end{array} \right\}$ pah panuan ?an mpi:ayh rɔʔ

'Dam went to see the doctor to have an operation because he was sick.'

5. dam mpi:ayh rɔʔ pɔʔ ɔʔmɔ: pah

'Dam was sick; (he) went to see the doctor to have an operation.'

Reduced Forms

1. dam mpi:ayh rɔʔ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{caŋ} \\ \underline{lə:y} \end{array} \right\}$ pɔʔ pah A22.

'Dam was sick, so (he) went to have an operation.'

2. dam mpi:ayh rɔʔ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{caŋ} \\ \underline{lə:y} \end{array} \right\}$ pɔʔ ɔʔ mɔ:

'Dam was sick, so (he) went to see the doctor.'

3. panuan dam mpi:ayh rɔʔ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{lə:y} \\ \underline{caŋ} \end{array} \right\}$ pɔʔ pah

'Because Dam was sick so therefore (he) went to have an operation.'

4. panuan dam mpi:ayh rɔʔ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{lə:y} \\ \underline{caŋ} \end{array} \right\}$ pɔʔ ɔʔ mɔ:

'Because Dam was sick so therefore (he) went to see the doctor.'

5. dam pA? cɔ̃? mɔ: pannuan ?an mpi:ayh rɔ̃?

'Dam sent to see the doctor because he was sick.'

6. dam pA? cɔ̃? mɔ: ?an mpi:ayh rɔ̃?

'Dam went to see the doctor; he was sick.'

7. dam mpi:ayh rɔ̃? ?an pA? cɔ̃? mɔ:

'Dam was sick; he went to see the doctor.'

Surface formulas :

1. C , $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} lə:y \\ \underline{can} \end{array} \right\}$ R , $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} phi:a \\ \underline{ɔ:n} \end{array} \right\}$ P
2. pannuan C, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} lə:y \\ \underline{can} \end{array} \right\}$ R, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} phi:a \\ \underline{ɔ:n} \end{array} \right\}$ P
3. R , $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} phi:a \\ \underline{ɔ:n} \end{array} \right\}$ P , pannuan C
4. c , R , P

Reduced forms

- | | |
|--|-------------|
| 1. C , $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{can} \\ lə:y \end{array} \right\}$ P | (Reduced R) |
| 2. C , $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{can} \\ lə:y \end{array} \right\}$ R | " P |
| 3. <u>pannuan</u> C, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{can} \\ lə:y \end{array} \right\}$ P | " R |
| 4. <u>pannuan</u> \ C, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \underline{can} \\ lə:y \end{array} \right\}$ R | " P |
| 5. R , <u>pannuan</u> C | " P |
| 6. R, C | " P |
| 7. C, R | " P |

Restrictions and Cooccurrences

1. Cause (C) and Result (R) tend to require the same surface subject, so a subject of R that is not a subject of C must be named.
2. Purpose (P) does not have surface subject expectations, so any participant from R can be the subject of P.
3. C and P must have the same participants in the same semantic roles in order to determine pronoun reference in P.

Description of the constants (underlined words) in the formulaic above

1. ǝ:n : ǝ:n , phi:a* , ∅

They are used to indicate the purpose. ∅ is used to show the purpose when the Action position is filled by a motion clause.

2. can : can , lə:y

3. panuan : panuan , ti:an

For description of can and panuan, see the description of the constants in Conditional sentence (Sec 5.1.5).

5.1.7 Deductive Sentence

A full deductive sentence consists of General Ground (GG) plus Specific Ground (SG) and Deduction (D) . GG is normally deleted. Elliptical Deductive sentences take the form of Conditional sentences as shown in examples 2.3.

* phi:a is a Thai loan word.

A.) Contrast in Predicate only

The subject of the second clause may be deleted.

Besides the subjects in both clauses may be omitted if it is previously known who the Actor is.

1. mpi:a[?] ka[?] p[^] lo:n ti:y hak ma[?] daŋ
 father go see but not know
 S₁ P₁ S₂ = ∅ (S₁ = S₂)
- pa:y wi:l kɔ:n ka[?]nu:l
 say village daughter

'The father went to see but did not know that this was his daughter's village.'

2. nik ʌ:t naŋ mi:t hak ma[?] wo: cɔ[?] a[?]ya:k
 think live in heart but not speak to husband
 S₁ = ∅ P₁ S₂ = ∅ P₂ (S₁ = S₂)

'(She) thought in mind but did not tell her husband.'

B.) Contrast in both Subject and Predicate

3. ka[?]saw p[^]ʔ ŋkah nɔ[?] hak dam ʌ:t doŋ
 go side out but live house
 S₁ P₁ S₂ P₂

'Kasaw went outside but Dam stayed at home.'

4. ŋkɔ[?] ci[?]caŋ hak ʔan ni:an
 I laugh but he cry
 S₁ P₁ S₂ P₂

'I laughed but he cried.'

5. hi[?] ʔa[?]lb[?] ʔan (hak) ʔan mpi:ayh sa[?]bɔŋ
 I call he (but) he not to answer someone call
 S₁ P₁ O₁ S₂ P₂

'I called him (but) he did not answer.'

C.) Contrast in Subject and Object

6. ta?na:m nay ŋko? pan la?kuay cōh hak
 tree this I be person grow but
- O₁ S₁ P₁
- ta?na:m tuh ?an pan la?kuay cōh
 tree that he be person grow
- O₂ S₂ P₂ (P₁ = P₂)

'I grow this tree but he grows that tree.'

In addition, the contrastive compounding may have no connector, i.e., the two contrasting clauses are just put side by side.

7. ↓ mpe? i: sa?mæ ka? ↓ mpi:ayh ?a?tu:an
 mother prog. scold not afraid
 mk
- conj. ∅
- S₁ P₁ S₂ = ∅ P₂

'(Although) mother would scold, (I) was not afraid.'

5.2.2 Equivalent Compounding

Equivalent or paraphrase compounding states a single situation two or more times. The equivalence may be strict or loose, varying from identical repetition to pronominalized repetition, synonymy, negated antonyms, generic - specific, statement - specification, of locative paraphrase. In all of these, though the form changes, the situation being described remains the same.

The elements of the equivalent compounding are two simple sentences placed side by side. The subject of the two sentences is the same person and it may be deleted in the second clause. If the subject of the first clause is a proper noun, the subject of the second clause is stated by a pronoun. This compounding type is not marked by

special characteristics except a slight pause between two clauses.

1. dam pΛ? ŋkəh nɔ? | ?an pΛ? ta?li:ŋ
 go outside he go rice-field

'Dam went outside; he went to the rice-field.' (more specific)

2. dam klap tɔŋ | ?an klap tɔŋ nɪŋ ?a?lu:əŋ
 pass mk hit he pass mk hit with stick

'Dam was hit; he was hit was hit with a stick.' (more detail)

3. ?an ta?yah | ha? bi:n ta?luh
 he walk not have run

'He walked; (he) did not run.' (negated antonym)

4. dam ma? rɔ? | ?a?lay pan ?a?huar
 not well he be cold

'Dam was sick; he had a cold.' (more specific)

5. dam ni:am | ?an ni:am lɪ?
 cry he cry really

'Dam cried; he cried indeed.' (repetition)

5.2.3 Alternative Compounding

Alternation may be either exclusive or inclusive, obligatory or optional, and alternative predicates of alternative part. There are four types of alternative compounding (for a simple binary alternative), which again may have alternating predicates of participia

Alternation in this language is marked by /lɪ:/ 'or'

A) X or Y

1. la i: pΛ? doŋ ŋkɔ? ha? lɪ: (pa:y) or i: pΛ? doŋ
 you go house I q.mk go house I

'Are you going to my house or going to his house?'

2. i: bic ha? li:pa:y pa? .. go
 sleep or go
 'Would you like to sleep or to go?'

B. X OR Y or both

3. bæ? i: pa? doŋ ŋko? ha? li:pa:y i: pa? ta?la:t ha?
 you go house I or go market or
 li:pa:y i: pa? ni? ba:r bɔ:n
 go all 2 place
 'Will you go to my house or go to the market or go to both places?'

C. X or Y or neither

4. bæ? i: pa? doŋ hi? ha? li:pa:y pa? ta?la:t ha?
 you go house I or go market
li:pa:y mpi:ayh pa? ni? ba:r bɔ:n
 or not go all 2 place
 'Will you go to my house or go to the market or neither at all?'

D. X or Y or both or neither

5. bæ? i: pa? do hi? ha? li:pa:y pa? ta?la:t ha?
 you go house I or go market
li:pa:y pa? ni? ba:r bɔ:n ha? li:pa:y mpi:ayh pa? læ:yh
 or go all 2 place or not go
 'Will you go to my house or go to the market or go to both places
 or neither at all?'

5.2.4 Additive compounding

Additive compounding adds a second situation to a first, both filling in the same position in the sentence nucleus. It is marked by /niŋ/.

In additive compounding usually only the Subject or the Predicate contrast, not both.

A1 Same subject but different predicate

1. ka[?]saw wo: nɛ̃ŋ ni:am nɛ̃ŋ 'Kasaw both speaks and cries.'
 speak cry
2. ka[?]saw ra[?]wo: p[?] ni:am p[?] 'Kasaw both speaks and cries.'
 speak go cry go
3. ka[?]saw ra[?]wo: { nɛ̃ŋ } ni:am 'Kasaw speaks and cries.'
 na[?]

B. Different subject but same predicate

4. ka[?]saw nɛ̃ŋ dam ni:am 'Kasaw and Dam cried.'
 and cry
5. hi[?] i: p[?] mɛ̃aŋ pa[?]n[?]: s[?]:m hi[?] i: p[?] nɛ̃ŋ
 I go town tomorrow sister I go also
 'I will go to town tomorrow, (and) my sister will go, too.'
6. ka[?]saw wo: mo:y[?] ni:am mo:y[?]
 speak cry
- 'Kasaw both speaks and cries.'

5.3 Peripheral elements

A sentence may have a time or a location setting.

5.3.1 Time setting

The time setting of a sentence may be indicated by a single word, a phrase or a clause. It can either precede or follow the nucleus. Semantically, it may be subdivided into :

A) Punctiliar : It indicates one point of time either past, present or future. Such time settings are :

ndruat	'four days before yesterday'
ndrit	'three days before yesterday'
ndray	'two days before yesterday'
ndri:a	'the day before yesterday'
ma?hay	'yesterday'
ci?nay	'today'
pa?na:	'tomorrow'
pra:	'the day after tomorrow'
pray	'two days after tomorrow'
prit	'three days after tomorrow'
pruat	'four days after tomorrow'
ba?bi: nay	'to night'
nchay ki:	'last month'
nchay nay	'this month'

1. ?a?lay i: pΛ? pa?na:
he go tomorrow

'he will go tomorrow.'

2. nchay ki: nkɔ? ta? pa?ra? pɪt ti? miɑŋ
month that I do money lose in town

nchay nay nkɔ? ta? pa?ra? pɪt ti? ta?la:t
month this I do money lose in market

'Last month I lost my money in town; this month I lost it at the m

B) Repetitive iterative : It indicates the repeated time. So far I have found only one word - ku: si'ŋay 'every day'

3. ŋkɔʔ pʌʔ taʔ taʔli:ŋ ku: si'ŋay
I go make rice-field every day

'I go to plough every day.'

C) Linear : It indicates one period of time, usually marked by a phrase or a clause.

tə:ray 'in the old days'

tə: si'mə:k taʔ taʔbi: 'from morning till evening'

du:n si'daw du:n si'ŋay 'all day all night'

tɔ:n mpeʔ pʌʔ taʔ la:t 'while mother goes to market'

4. tə:ray ŋkɔʔ pan raʔn :n ŋkɔʔ cuap pʌʔ cuayʔ kuat ku: si'ŋay
I be child I like go look frog every day
for

'In the old days when I was a child, I liked to look for (to catch) frogs everyday.'

5. ləh taʔ aʔlu:ŋ du:n si'daw du:n si'ŋay
go out do tree a long night a long day
time time

'(They) went out to chop trees all day all night.'

6. lɔ:n sə:m (tɔ:n mpeʔ) nɪŋ tɔ:n mpeʔ pʌʔ taʔla:t
look sister instead mother f.p. when mother go market

'Take care of sister while mother goes to market.'

D) From (ablative) : It indicates the starting point of time.

e.g. tə: si'mə:k 'since morning'

7. mpeʔ pʌʔ taʔli:ŋ tə: si'mə:k
mother go rice-field from morning

'Mother has gone to the rice-field since morning.'

8. te: nay co? mat sA? ta?læ? n¹ŋ (ŋ) kɔ?
from now on don't mix up with I

'From now on, don't mix up with me.'

9. te:nay to:pA? ?a?pay sA? ta?
from now on you not do

'From now on, you, don't do it again!'

- E) To (dative) : It indicates the finishing or ending time

con phuak tA? 'until the sunlight approached'

tA? ta?bi: si?daw 'till evening'

10. ?a?lay bic A:t ti? ta?nA:m ?a?lu: aŋ du:n con phuak tA?
he sleep live at tree a long until sunlight
time arrive

?a?lay caŋra? mia
he be conscious

'He sleeps under the trees for a long time until the sunlight approaches
he then feels conscious.'

11. ta? nti: khâw pansa: naw ô:n cōh ?a?lua:ŋ
arrive season Buddhist Sabbath he give grow tree

'Till the Buddhist Sabbath, he told (the orphan) to grow trees.'

5.3.2 Location Setting

A sentence location setting is usually marked by a prepositional phrase. It can either precede or follow the nucleus. It may be, semantically, subdivided into:

- A) General : So far, I have found only one phrase.

← ku: bɔ:n 'everywhere'

1. ?a?lay pA? ku:bɔ:n ?a?lay i: pA?
he go every place he want go

'He goes everywhere he wants to go.'

B) Internal : It is usually marked by nkah¹klɔ:n or taŋ klɔ:n 'inside'
ti? or taŋ or nan 'in'

2. ?a?lay ʌ:t taŋklɔ:n don
 he live inside house

'He is inside the house.'

3. ?an ta?luh tua ko:k
 he run all over forest

'He runs all over the forest.'

4. ɔ:n ?a?yask cʌ:n la?haw ti? wi:l
 give husband buy medicine in village

'(She) told her husband to buy medicine in the village.'

C. External

5. nkah no? wat mi: ra?n:n kri:ŋ.....
 side out temple have child many

'Outside the temple, there are many children.'

D) Proximity

ti?donhi? 'at my house'

ci?kiat don 'near the house'

{ taŋ }
 { ti? } ci?puak 'on the mat'

nkri: don 'behind the house'

{ ti? }
 { taŋ } kru:m don 'under the house'

6. ?a?do? taŋ ci? puak 'Place it on the mat.'
 place sth. on. mat

7. ?a?li:k ʌ:t taŋ ko? ti? kru:m don
 pig live in pen under house

'The pigs are in the pen under the house.'

8. ti? don nko? mi: ?a?li:k pa?li:ayh
 at house I have pig many

A) Degrees of assurance : very certain to uncertain

1. khæn bəʔ tən ŋkəʔ ŋkəʔ i: tən bəʔ aʔlap liʔ (very certain)
 if you hit I I will hit you return really
 a borrowed
 object

'If you hit me, I will hit you in return for sure. (very certain)

2. khæn ʔan klap tən ʔan tən ni:am
 if he pass.mk hit he must cry

'If he is hit, he must cry.' (certain)

3. khæn pa:y niʔ don niʔ kruan koh taʔnΛ:m ʔaʔlu:an niʔ
 if say all house all country cut tree all
 taʔ usyh taʔ kuʔcah taʔnΛ:m ʔaʔlu:an kaʔ dap niʔ
 make fire-wood make charcoal tree then finish all
cə:kaʔ mpi:ayh mi:a læ:w
 not rain

'If everyone in our country chops all trees to make fire-wood

or charcoal, there will be no tree left and it will not rain.' (certain)

4. khæn mi:ayh mi: dΛʔ mi:a cə:kaʔ tok læ:w
 if not have water rain poor

'If there is no rain (i.e, it does not rain), we (farmers) will
 be in trouble.' (certain)

5. cu:kaʔ maʔ dan i: cu: coʔ ʔaʔməʔ pa:y kə:n wo:
 return not know return who say son speak

Quot

'If we returned home, we did not know whom we would see; said the son.'

6. khæn ŋkəʔ klap tən ŋkəʔ nankaʔ ni:am
 if I pass.mk hit I probably cry

'If I am hit, I probably cry.' (uncertain)

7. khæn mi: pal wak hay { khəʔ } ku:ci:t niʔ
 if have war group we { nan } die all

'If there is a war, we all probably die.' (uncertain)

8. khən ʔa?mə? cu:ay? bi:n khon si? mi: ra:ŋwan
if who look for get have reward

'Whoever found it, (he) would probably get a reward.' (uncertain)

9. khən ʔa?lay pʌ? hi? kha?do? pʌ?
if he go I go

'If he goes, I will probably go.' (uncertain)

10. khən ha? mi: wia ntrow ka?si? pʌ?
if not have word what go

'If I do not have any word to do, (I) will probably go.' (uncertain)

Sources of knowledge may be general, first - hand, or second - hand knowledge.

11. ku:na? daŋ pa:y ʔa?lay keh ʔa?lu:aŋ
every know say he cut tree
class

'Everybody knows that he has chopped trees.' (general)

12. wak hay daŋ pa:y ʔa?lay keh ʔa?lu:aŋ
group we know say he cut tree

'We know that he has chopped trees.' (1st)

13. ŋkə? daŋ pa:y khən daŋ ci:a wah pa?uəyɰ ya:ŋmɔ:? ʔa?lay
I know say if eat rice spoil when he

ʔi: puŋ ya:ŋ ci:
have a pain stomach

'I know that whenever Dan eats spoiled rice, he will always have a stomach ache.' (1st)

14. pa?nʌ: khən ka?saw kap daŋ ha? mi: wia ntrow
tomorrow if and not have work what

ʔa?lay ka?si? pʌ? pa:y ko:n hi?
they go say son I

'My son tells me that tomorrow if Kasaw and Dam do not have any work to do, they will probably go.' (2nd hand knowledge)

5.4.2 Interrogative

Interrogatives may be divided broadly into yes/no questions and content (wh_) questions.

5.4.2.1 Yes/No questions (Truth value questions)

Yes/No questions may presume the answer in various degrees.

1. ?a?pay pʌ? ta?li:ŋ ha? 'Will you go to the rice-field.'
 you go rice-field Q.mk

The answer of this question may be 'yes' pʌ? or
 'no' mpi:ayh.

2. ?a?pay i: pʌ? ta?li:ŋ li? ha?
 you go rice-field

'You are going to the rice-field, aren't you ?'

The question implied that the speaker has expected the answer of 'yes'.

3. mpi:ayh pʌ? ta?li:ŋ li? ha?
 not go rice-field

'You are not going to the rice-field, are you ?'

This negative question implied that the speaker has expected the answer of 'no'.

5.4.2.2 Content Questions

Content questions may ask for tagmemes from the sentence, clause or phrase level.

1. i: pʌ? ya:ŋ mɔ?
 go when (asking for Temporal)

'When will (you) go ?'

2. i: pʌʔ tɔ:n mɔʔ (asking for specific Temporal)
go

'When will you go ?'

3. i: pʌʔ wi: li:a mɔʔ (asking for more specific Temporal)
go

'At what time will you go ?'

4. ʔaʔmɛʔ i: pʌʔ (asking for Actor)
who

'Who will go ?'

5. ci:a ntrow ki: (asking for Goal)
eat what that

'What are you eating ?'

6. taʔrow caŋ pʌʔ cɔʔ mɔ: (asking for Cause)
why therefore go see doctor

'Why did you go to see a doctor ?'

7. taʔ { saʔ mɔʔ } (asking for Action)
do { ne:w mɔʔ }
how

'How will we do ?'

8. mi: kɔ:n nchiʔ naʔ (asking for Quantity)
have child how many class.

'How many children have you ?'

9. pʌʔ mɔʔ (asking for Location)
go where

'Where are you going ?'

etc.

5.4.3 Imperative Illocution

An imperative illocution is a statement of desired action, whose force may vary from strong to mild compulsion.

A. Degrees of compulsion

1. pΛ? ci:a wah ci? pΛ? (command)
 go eat rice f.p. go

'Go to eat.'

2. pΛ? ci:a wah ci?nɔ:nay (vommand)
 go eat rice now

'Go to eat now.'

3. nay ! pΛ? ci:a wah bi:n cə: (repeat command)
 this go eat rice get already

'Hey ! Go to eat.'

4. tæ? pΛ? pa?læh ci?nɔ:nay ci? (very displeased and annoye)
 you go eat(impo.) now f.p.
 (impo)

'You ! Go to eat now.'

Notice that the pronoun and verb used here are shifted into the impolite forms.

5. nay ! ŋkɔ? a?tɑ:ŋ pΛ? ci:a wah (displeased and angry)
 this I tell go eat rice

'Listen ! I told you to go to eat.'

6. pΛ? ci:a wah wa:y? də: (asking permission)
 go eat rice before f.p.

'I'm going to eat before, O.K. ?'

7. pΛ? ci:a wah ci? na? (giving permission)
 go eat rice f.p. f.p.

'Go and eat.'

8. pΛ? ci:a wah (də:) (neutral)
 go eat rice f.p.

'Go and eat.'

9. pΛ? // pΛ? ci:a wah (invitation)
 go go eat rice

or pΛ? ci:a wah // pΛ?
 go eat rice go

'Come on, let's go to eat.'

10. pΛ? ci:a wah niŋnə? {tɔ?} (pe:rsuasion)
 go eat rice together f.p.
 {yɔ:}

11. pʌʔ ci:a wah yə: (invitation - more polite)
go eat rice f.p.

'Come and eat, please.'

B. Sources of compulsion : 1 st, 2 nd, 3 rd person.

12. nay ! ŋkɔʔ ʔaʔtʌ:ŋ pʌʔ ci:a wah (1 st)
this I tell go eat rice

'Listen ! I told you to go to eat.'

13. pʌʔ ci:a wah yə: (1 st)
go eat rice f.p.

'Come and eat, please.'

14. phi:a to: tæʔ aʔcaw bæʔ pu:a pʌʔ (2 nd)
for Class. you(impo) owner you should go

'For your sake, you should go.'

15. mpéʔ aʔtʌ:ŋ pʌʔ ci:a wah ciʔnɔ:nay (3 rd)
mother tell go eat rice now

'Mother told you to go to eat now !'

C. Objects of compulsion : 1 st, 2 nd, 3 rd person.

16. pʌʔ // pʌʔ ci:a wah (1 st)
go go eat rice

'Come on, let 's go to set.'

17. pʌʔ ci:a wah ciʔrɔ:nay (2 nd)
go eat rice now

'Go to eat now.'

18. pʌʔ ci:a wah yə: (2 nd)
go eat rice f.p.

'Come and eat please.'

19. dam tɔŋ pʌʔ ciʔnɔ:nay (3 rd)
must go now

'Dam must go now.'

5.4.4 Social Illocution

A social illocution establishes, maintains or terminates a communication relationship between two speakers. It includes greetings, responses, conversation maintainers, farewell, etc.

Greetings

A :	pA?	mɔ?		'Where ade you going?'
	go	where		
B :	pA?	ta?li:ŋ		'I am going to the rice-field.'
	go	rice-field		
A :	ŋəh	tə:	mɔ?	'Where do you come from?'
	come	from	where	
B :	ŋəh	tə:	doŋ	'I come from my house.'
	come	from	house	
A :	rɔ?		ha?	'How are you?'
	comfortable		q.Mk.	
B :	rɔ?			'Fine'
<u>or</u>	mpi:ayh	rɔ?		'Not fine.'

Responses*

Responses can occur as the sole leximic constituent of whole clauses and even whole utterances

1. ə: ə: 'an affirmative response used by male or female'

e.g. ə: ə: naw phu: ki: l : 'Yes, that is the right person.'

she person that f.p.

ə: bi:n na? 'Yes, (I) can get it.'

get f.p.
2. do:y 'an affirmative response used by male or female'

e.g. A : tɹ. nay tɔ: pA? ?a?pay sA? tɔ?

from this go you don't do

'From now on, you, don't do it again.!!'

* In addition, main verb or part of the question marker may be used as affirmative response (Sec. 1.3)

B : dɔ:y
 'Yes.'

3. mpi:ayh 'a negative response'

A : A : pʌ? niŋ nə? ha? 'Let's go together, will you?'
 go together Mk.q.

B : mpi:ayh 'No.'

Farewell

A : cu: də: 'I'm going (home).'
 wa:y?
 ɲuaŋ

B : cu: ɬaŋ 'Have a good journey.'
 return recuperate

kuay raʔkop niŋnə? 'See you again.'
 see/meet together

5.4.5 Self-Expression Illocution

A self-expression illocution is an expression of the speaker's feelings addressed to nobody in particular. The pitch is usually high-rising.

1. o:y! Used when one is hurt.
2. ɱəh! Used when one is surprised.
3. o:ɪ! Used when one is displeased or sad.
4. yow! Used when one is angry.
5. bah! Used when one is angry.
6. bu:ɪ! Used when one is angry and annoyed.
7. pəʔtho:noh! Used when one is very angry.
8. ɱəʔ! Used to call attention.
9. ʔəh! 'Take this!', an exclamation of command.'
10. ba:ɪ! Used when one can think it out.'
11. ʔəʔkə:y! Used when one want to refuse, i.e. to indicate that one don't really want to do it.

5.5 Mood

Sentence moods, reflecting the attitude of the speaker toward his subject matter, may vary along several parameters such as pleasure to displeasure, surprise to expected, hope (desire) to despair, pride to shame, concerned to unconcerned, delight to regret and the like. These may be manifested by self-expression illocution, pitch, stress and intonation.

5.5.1 Pleasure

Degrees of pleasure : from pleased to displeased

1. cap ci:a lǎ? ka?saw pʌ? na? (very pleased)
good really go also

'It is really wonderful that Kasaw will go also.'

2. nkɔ? ə:n dan pa:y ka?saw pʌ? nǎʊ (pleased)
I glad know say go also

'I am glad to know that Kasaw will go also.'

3. o:y! hi? war lǎ? ka?saw pʌ? na? (displeased and angry)
I angry really go also

'Oh! I really don't like Kasaw to go with us.'

4. pə? sa? ra?wo: pa:y ka?saw i: pʌ? nǎʊ nkɔ? mut mat
stop don't speak say will go also I annoy
(displeased and annoyed)

'Stop talking that Kasaw will go also, I am annoyed.'

Experiencers of pleasure : general, 1st, 2nd, 3rd person.

5. cap ci:a lǎ? ka?saw pʌ? na? (general)
good really go also

'It is really wonderful that Kasaw will go also.'

6. nkɔ? ə:n dan pa:y ka?saw pʌ? nǎʊ (1st)
I glad know say go also

'I am glad to know that Kasaw will go also.'

7. ?a?pay khon si? ə:ŋ daŋ pa y ka?saw pa? niŋ (2nd)
 you probably glad know say go also

'You are probably glad to know that Kasaw will go also.'

8. dam pu:a miŋ pu:a daŋ pa:y ka?saw pa? niŋ (3rd)
 satisfy when know say go also

'Dam is satisfied when (he) knows that Kasaw will go also.'

5.5.2 Surprise

Degrees of surprise : from unexpected (surprise) to expected

1. mpe? niŋ daŋ pa:y ?an lic cə: (unexpected)
 mother surprise know Kay he escape already

'Mother was surprised to know that he had already escaped.'

2. ?a?pay naŋka? mpi:ayle kiŋ pa:y ?an i: lic me:nha? (unexpected)
 you probably not think way he will escape amk.

'You probably do not think that he would escape, do you?'

3. ŋko? kiŋ cə: pa:y ?an toŋ lic (expected)
 i think already say he must escape

'I thought (expected) that he had to escape.'

Experiencers of surprise : 1st, 2nd, 3rd person.

4. ŋko? kiŋ cə: pa:y ?an toŋ lic (1st)
 I think already say he must escape

'I thought (expected) that he had to escape.'

5. ?a?pay naŋka? mpi:ayh kiŋ pa:y ?an i lic me:nha? (2nd)
 you probably not think say he will escape Q.mk.

'You probably do not think that he would escape, do you?'

6. mpe? niŋ daŋ pa:y ?an lic cə? (3rd)
 mother surprise know say he escape already

'Mother was surprised to know that he had already escaped.'

5.5.3 Hope or Desire

Degrees of desire : desire (hope) to despair (hopeless)

1. ŋko? kuaŋ ki:n pa? cə mpe? (hope)
 I hope get go see mother

'I hope I can go to visit my mother.'

2. dam wo: pa:y ?a?lay i: ku:cit lɿ? (strong desire)
 speak say he want die really

'Dam says that he really wants to die.'

3. ŋkɔ? mpi:ayh ku:an bɿ:n pa? cò? mpe? (hopeless)
 I not hop get go see mother

'It is hopeless for me to go to visit my mother.'

4. ŋkɔ? loeyh mɿt taŋ kɔ:n ki: (despair)
 I disappoint in child that

'I am disappointed in my son.'

Experiences of derire (hope) : 1st, 2nd, 3rd person.

5. ŋkɔ? lɛ: ku:an pa:y lə? pan la?kuay cɔp (1st)
 I hope say you be person good

'I hope that you are a good person.'

6. khxn ?a?pay i: bɿ:n pa?ra? pa?li:ay? tɔŋ ta? wia (2nd)
 if you want get money many must do work

'If you want to get a lot of money, you must work.'

7. dam ku:an ?a?pay ya:n mɿ: (3rd)
 hope you

'Dam is waiting for you and is hoping that you will come.'

Objects of desire: action, causer and action, actor and action

8. loeyh mɿt lɿ? (action)
 disappoint

'(I'm) really disappointed.'

9. ŋkɔ? loeyh² mɿt¹ taŋ kɔ:n¹ ki: (causer and action)
 I disappoint in son that

'I'm disappointed in my son.'

10. ŋkɔ? lɛ: ku:an² pa:y b.? pan la?kuay cɔp (action and actor)
 I hope say you be person good

'I hope that you are a good person.'

5.5.5 Concern

Degrees of concern : from concerned to unconcerned

1. 0: ! ncəm mɸi:ay¹ hay de: (very concerned)
miss father we f.p.

'Oh! I really missed father.'

2. ŋkɔ² a¹yé¹? mpe¹? lɪ¹? (very concerned)
I pity mother really

'I feel pity for mother.'

3. ʔa¹yo¹? ʔan caŋ ɬ:n ʔah ci:a (concerned)
pity he therefore give he eat

'(I) gave something for him to eat because of a feeling of pity.'

4. ta:m ʔan pa²tah ʔan pa²? (unconcerned)
disregard he release he go

'Disregard him. Let him go (wherever he wants and do whatever he likes)

5. bə² sɬ² ka²ti²? lɔ:y (unconcerned)
you don't worry at all

'You, don't worry (above it) at all!'

Experiencers of concern : 1st, 2nd, 3rd person

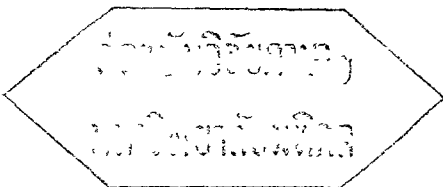
6. example 3 subject deleted (∅) (1st)

7. bə² sɬ² ka²ti²? lɔ:y (2nd)
you don't worry at all

'You, don't worry (about it) at all.'

8. ʔa¹ni a wi:l ka²ti²? pa:y ta²na:m ʔa¹lu:an ni²? (3rd)
people village worry say tree all

'The villagers are worried that there will be no trees left.' (if we chopped all trees).



5.5.6 Regret

Degrees of regret : from regret to glad

1. ၵကဝ်? khi:n mɪt ta? pa?ra? pɪt (regret)
I sorry do money lose

'I am sorry that I have lost my money.'

2. ?a?thaw lə:y pa:kklə:y læ: ni:am (regret)
title (old woman) regret and cry

'She then regretted and cried.'

3. ၵကဝ်? ə:n kha?na:t bi:n ra:nwan (glad)
I glad very get reward

'I am very glad to get areward.'

Experiencers of regret : 1st, 2nd, 3rd person.

4. ၵကဝ်? khi:n mɪt ta? pa?ra? pɪt (1st)
I regret do money lose

'I am sorry that I have lost my money.'

5. læ? sɔ? ə:n kha?na:t (2nd)
you don't glad very

'You, don't be glad.'

6. ?a?thaw lə:y pak klə:y læ: ni:am (3rd)
title - old regret and cry
woman

'She then regretted and cried.'

5.6 Reality Types

Reality differs from the Assurance parameter of the Declarative illocution in that Assurance measures the certainty of the relationship between the parts of the sentence, while Reality states the relationship of a verb to the actual, i.e, it tells us whether or not the events of the sentence actually take place. Any sentence which transports the state into the realm of the hypothetical, the contrafactual, the factual of the uncertain is included here.

5.6.1 Hypothetical

1. kʰən hiʔ pan ʔaʔlay hiʔ i: paʔ
if I be he I will go

'If I were he, I would go.'

2. kʰən hiʔ pan cəm hiʔ kaʔ par taŋ maʔbən
if I be bird I fly in sky

'If I were a bird, I would fly in the sky.'

5.6.2 Contrafactual

3. kʰən ʔaʔlay mpi:ayh ci:a wah ʔaʔlay khon siʔ ku:c
if he not eat rice he probably die

'If he had not eaten rice, he would have died already.'

4. kʰən ʔaʔlay mpi:ayh taʔh ʔaʔlay khon siʔ ku:ci:t cə:
if he not breathe he probably die all

'If he had not breathed, he would have died already.'

5.6.3 Factual

5. ʔaʔlay tic pən panpən ci:a wah paʔuəy
he have a stomach because eat rice spoiled
pain

'He had a stomach ache because he had eaten spoiled rice.'

6. ?a?lay ci:a wah pa?usyh caŋ tic puŋ
 he eat rice spoiled therefore have a stomach
 pain

'He had eaten spoiled rice; therefore he had a stomach ache.'

5.6.4 Uncertain

7. khən ?a?lay ci:a wah pa?usyh ?a?lay kha?dɔ? tic puŋ
 if he eat rice spoiled he probably have stomach
 a pain

'If he ate spoiled rice, he would probably have a
 stomach ache.'

8. khən ?a?lay tən ɿkɔ? ŋ kɔ? nənka? ni:am
 if he hit I I probably cry

'If he hit me, I would probably cry.'

5.7 Semantic Prosodies

There are at least six types of information that flow through a sentence without being part of the sentence structures discussed above; time movement, information flow reference, assertion, topicalization, and cohesion structure.

Time movement and information flow in So language tend to depend largely on events, that is string of verbs and verb phrases.

References are introduced usually once and sparingly referred to later by pronouns.

5.7.1 Time Movement

The actions in a sentence stand in various temporal relationships with each other, ranging from simultaneous to overlapping or to separated succession. They may be either linear or punctiliar. These relationships may be indicated by simple subscripts as below here.

1. ku:na? tən ku:ci:t (T_{1a}) dam ka?pan la?kuay muay na? (T₁) dam
 every must die be person one class
 class

tən ku:ci:t nɪŋ (T₁)
 must die also

(T₁ is in specific time. T_{1a} is a general **statement**.)

'All men are mortal, and Dam is a man so Dam too must be mortal.'

2. i:t ?ueyh pʌ? ?a?nu? (T₁) i:t ?ueyh pʌ? ?a?nu?
 take fire-wood go set a fire take fire-wood go set a fire

cə:ka: i:t dʌ? c ? a?dɛh (T₂) i:t pʌ? a?ko? ti? ta?pɛh (T₂)
 and then take water put in to pot take go put on stove

cə:ka: i:t lay pʌ? a?rɛk ?a?wah (T₃) cə? lay (T_{3a})
 and then take basket go wash rice put into basket

'Take fire-woods to set a fire (T₁) and then put water into a pot (T₂)
 and place it on the stove (T_{2a}) and then wash rice (T₃) and put it
 into basket (T_{3a}).'

Note that T₂ and T_{2a} occurred nearly at the same time, and so did T₃ and T_{3a}. The word /cə:ka:/ 'and then' separated time movement into T₁, T₂ and T₃ but there are relationships among them, i.e., they occur consecutively and the actions are linear.

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------|------------|----------------|----------------|-----------|----------------|----------------|------------|---|
| 3. trɪh | ka: | <u>cə:ka:</u> | luk | ka: | <u>cə:ka:</u> | pʌ? | si?bat | : |
| sow | seedlings | | pull out | seedlings | | go | transplant | |
| T ₁ | | | T ₂ | | | T ₃ | | |
| pʌ? | si?bat | <u>cə:ka:</u> | tʃrɔ: | ci:n | <u>cə:ka:</u> | ci?ri:at | | : |
| go | transplant | | rice | ripe | | harvest | | |
| | | T ₄ | | | T ₅ | | | |

'First sow seedlings (T₁) and then pull out seedlings (T₂) then transplant (T₃)
and after it is ripe (T₄), harvest it. (T₅).

T₁, T₂, T₃, T₄ and T₅ occur consecutively and the actions are linear.

5.7.2 Information flow

A sentence is composed of new information and old information. General rules regarding the presence of deletion of old information and the introduction of new information are :

A) In all forms, subjects or objects which are old information is usually deleted or replaced by pronouns if it is already known, and the context is clear.

1. kɔ:n ka?mu:t ?a?ka:c li? ø ʌ:t ɳiŋ ?a?cah ka? ha? bi:n ø
 son ghost lazy really live with aunt not have
- ʌ:t ɳiŋ ?a?ni: ka? ha? bi:n
 live with younger not have
 brother of
 mother or father

ø = subject deleted (kɔ:n ka? mu:t)

'An orphan who is very lazy cannot live with either his aunt or his uncle.'

2. ?an ?a?ka:c li? ?a?c h ka? sa?mæ: ø ɳiŋ tɔn ø ɳiŋ
 he lazy indeed aunt scold also hit also
- ø = object deletion

'He is very lazy, so his aunt not only curses (him) but also hits (him).'

3. ŋkɔ?(N) tɔn dam(N) ?an(O) ka? ɳi:am
 I hit he he cry (?an = Dam)

'I hit Dam, then he cried.'

B) New information may be introduced by various ways.

B.1 By mentioning the name of the participant.

B.2 By the phrase bata?nay or bat ?a? di?

B) Provided that using a pronoun would make the sentence ambiguous, the noun has to be repeated.

2. dam	taŋ ¹ hit	kaʔsaw	kaʔsaw	laʔ then	ni:am ¹ cry
S ₁		O ₁	S ₂		
C			R		

'Dam hit Kasaw, so Kasaw cried.'

C) Some sentence types such as Purposeful sentence have specific pronominalization and reference rules. Rules for the Purposeful sentence may be found in Restrictions on the Purposeful sentence.

5.7.4 Assertion Structure (Sentential prominence)

At least one or more clauses in a sentence may be asserted (marked in the examples with *). In a Purposeful sentence the Cause cannot be asserted by itself of just with Purpose.

1. paŋuan dam mpi:ayh rɔʔ *ʔaʔlay paʔ cōʔ mɔ: *ō:n pah
because not well he go see doctor for operation

'Because Dam was sick, he went to see a doctor to have an operation.'

2. dam mpi:ayh rɔʔ *ʔaʔlay caŋ paʔ cōʔ mɔ:* ō:n pah

'Dam was sick, he therefore went to see a doctor to have an operation.'

3. dam paʔ cōʔ mɔ: *ō:n pah paŋuan ʔaʔlay mpi:ayh rɔʔ

'Dam went to see a doctor so as to have an operation because he was sick.'

(See also the Purposeful sentence battery, i.e., the reduced clause may be asserted to make a full sentence).

Besides, the rule governing which clauses may be asserted is that a slight pause is required when a clause is asserted.

4. mpe[?] p[?] ta[?]la:t *ca:[?]ŋ sɛɛ[?] ?a[?]li:k nch[?]ɛ:[?]ŋ ?a[?]sɔ[?]
 mother go marked buy meat, pig oil uncooked rice

'Mother went to market to buy pork, oil and uncooked rice.'

Clauses before the assertion are presupposed, asserted clauses are stated, and clauses following the assertion are predicted. Locution and mood assertion differences may be marked by lexicon or intonation.

5. cap ci:a li[?] ka[?]saw p[?] ja[?]
 good really go also

'It is really wonderful that Kasaw will go also.'

Asserted Locution : ka[?]saw p[?] ja[?] 'Kasaw will go also.'

Presupposed mood : pleasure

Here reduplicated word cap ci:a plus a high pitch on the word li[?] are used to indicate pleasure mood. Note that we may use cap cap instead of cap ci:a without making the meaning vague, but the pattern of the intonation need to be changed a little bit.

cap cap li[?]

6. bɔ[?] // p[?] pa[?]lɔh ci[?]
 you go eat f.p

Asserted locution : p[?] ci:a wah[?] 'Go and eat.'

Presupposed mood : displeased, annoyed and angry.

The lexicons used here also indicate the mood.

pa[?]lɔh 'eat' and bɔ[?] 'you' are impolite forms.

5.7.5 Topicalization

A sentence frequently highlights one participant as the topic of the sentence (underlined here). It is basically manifested by mentioning the topic noun at the beginning of the sentence.

1. sa:n pri:an ləh taʔ aʔlu:an nən mpi:ayʔ
proper name go out do tree with father

'Sangpriang went out to chop trees with his father.'

2. kən kaʔmu:t ʔaʔka:c liʔ
son ghost lazy really

'An orphan is very lazy.'

3. kuʔya: pan kuʔya: mat su:t
mother-in-law be mother-in-law eye blind

'The mother-in-law is blind.'

The topicalization of the main participant in a paragraph is highlighted by introductory sentence (Sec 5.1.2) filled by an existence clause.

4. mi: ba:r naʔ so:n siaw siaw muay naʔ pan phu: tok
have two class two friend friend one class be person poor
siaw muay naʔ pan phu: mi:
friend one class be person have

'There were two friends. One is poor; the other is rich.'

5.7.6 Cohesion Structure

A sentence may be bound together as a unified whole by final location, time, final particle, initial head₁-head₂- time linkage, conjunctions, pause and intonation.

A) Location It functions as a boundary marker of a sentence.

It may be either at the beginning or at the end of a sentence.

1. mi: ?a?li:k pa?li:ay? ti? doŋ hi?
have pig many at house I

'There are many pigs at my house.'

B) Time

2. ŋkɔ? pɔ? ta? ta?li:ŋ ku: si?ɔy
I go do rice-field every day

'I go to plough everyday.'

3. te:ɔy ŋkɔ? pan ra?na:n ŋkɔ? cuap pɔ? cuay? kuat ku: si?ɔy
I be child I like go look for frog every day

'In the old days when I was a child, I liked to look for (to catch) frogs everyday.'

C) Final particle

4. ci:a wah ye: 'Eat, please.' (invitation)
eat ruce f.p

5. bic ci? 'Sleep' etc.
sleep f.p

D) Initial Head₁ - head₂ - time linkage binds two clauses into one sentence.

6. ŋchay ki: ŋkɔ? ta? pa?ra? pɔt ti? ɬaŋ
month that I do money lose in town
ŋchay nay ŋkɔ? ta? pa?ra? pɔt ti? ta?la:t
month this I do money lose at market

'Last month I lost my money in town;
this month I lost it at the market.'

E) Conjunctions

7. ?a?lay mpə:y dɔ? sɛp si?lok ci?kat cə ka? ci:awah
he take a bath put on shirt and then eat rice

'He took a bath, dressed himself and then etc.'

8. panʔuan mpi:ay rɔʔ dam caŋ pʌʔ cɔʔ mɔ:
because not well therefore go see doctor

'Because he was sick, Dam therefore went to see a doctor.'

F) Pause (marked here by //)

9. ŋkɔʔ pʌʔ taʔla:t // ca:ŋ bat // sɔc ʔaʔli:k
I go market buy vegetable meat pig

'I went to market to buy vegetables and pork.'

G) Intonation (See also Sec.5.11)

10. pʌʔ mɔʔ 'Where are you going?'
go where

11. pʌʔ pʌʔ ci:a wah niŋnəʔ yə:
go go eat rice Mk.rec f.p

'Come on, let's eat together please.'

12. puam i: pʌʔ taʔ li:ŋ 'I' am going to the rice-field.'
prog.mk will go rice-field...

5.3 Presupposition

Certain things are normally expected in a sentence as a result of universal experience, local culture, or the discourse context.

Presupposition may be :

5.3.1 Sentential Encyclopedia The encyclopedia may contain contextually known, culturally known and universally known information necessary for the understanding of the sentence. This information is usually not marked or stated in a sentence. The speaker expects the hearer to already know.

1. dam pʌʔ cɔʔ mɔ: 'Dam went to see a doctor.'
go see doctor

To understand this sentence, the hearer must have in his encyclopedia the following information :

a) sick people generally go to see a doctor (cultural)

b) doctors generally make sick people recover from
illness. (universal)

(a) and (b) are presuppositions that the speaker expects the hearer to know.

5.8.2 Structural Presuppositions

The locution structures presuppose certain time, information, reference, and assertion structures in whole or in part. For details and discussion of these are semantic prosodies, (Sec 5.7) .

5.8.3 Contraexpectancies

Unexpected events or contraexpectancies generally marked in So with hak 'but'.

2. dam nu:ac pali:ay? hak ?a?lay rɔ? kha?na:t
drink much but he well very

'Dam drinks a lot but he is very well.'

3. dam ?a?ka:c li? hak ku: na? mal ?a?lay
lazy really but every class like he

'Dam is lazy indeed but everyone likes him.'

4. ka?saw pan la?kuay cɔp hak ha? mi: :a?mə? mak ?a?lay
be person good but not have no like he

'Kasaw is a good person but nobody likes him.'

5.9 Nuclear Form Types (Surface forms)

The surface form of a sentence may be classified into five forms : simple, juxtaposed, embedding, fused and conjunction - linked forms.

5.9.1 Simple Form

A simple form consists of just a single clause and manifests a simple statement sentence (Sec 5.1.1) or reduced sentences of other types (Sec 5.1.2 - 5.1.6).

- | | | | | | |
|----|--------|------------|----------|------|------------------------------------|
| 1. | ʔa?lay | ci:a | mpil | ʌ:t | 'He is eating tamarinds.' |
| | he | eat | tamarind | live | |
| 2. | pa? | ci:a | wah | | 'Go and eat.' |
| | go | eat | rice | | |
| 3. | pa? | ta?li:n | ha? | | 'Are you going to the rice-field?' |
| | go | rice-field | q.mk. | | |
| 4. | ni:am | ta?row | ko:n | | 'Why are you crying, son?' |
| | cry | why | son | | |

etc.

5.9.2 Juxtaposed Form

A juxtaposed form consists of two or more clauses simply put side by side without any conjunctions. It may or may not be marked by an intonation break. The intonation break, giving each sentence a full intonation contour, makes the actions more discrete. Without an intonation break this form will have the same form of a fused sentence. Juxtaposed forms are especially used to describe a sequence of actions.

The juxtaposed form may manifest introduction, temporal sequence, covarying conditional and purposeful sentence types (Sec 5.1.1 - 5.1.6) and compounding types (Sec 5.2).

- | | | | | | | | | |
|----|-----|-----------------|------|--|--------|-----------------|-----|--------|
| 1. | dam | mpi:ayh | ro? | | ʔa?lay | pa? | co? | mo: |
| | | not | well | | he | go | see | doctor |
| | | Cl ₁ | | | | Cl ₂ | | |

'Dam was sick; he went to see a doctor.'

2. ka[?]saw ta[?] ci:a Δ:t | ?a[?]lay kh^o:y wah Δ:t
 make eat live | she cook rice live
 CL₁ | CL₂

'Kasaw has been cooking; she is cooking rice now.'

3. ?an sa[?]mə: s[?]ko[?] | n[?]ko[?] cok ?an ba:r cā:
 he curse I | I to box he 2 time
 CL₁ | CL₂

'He cursed me; (so) I boxed him 2 times.'

4. dam kláp t[?]ɔn | ?an ni:am
 pass.mk hit | he cry
 CL₁ | CL₂

'Dam was hit; he cried.'

5. dam mpi:ayh r[?]ɔ[?] | ?an p[?] n[?]ian ta[?]bā: ray ha[?] bā:n
 not well | he go party evening this not get
 CL₁ | CL₂

'Dam was sick; he cannot go the the party tonight.'

5.9.3 Embedding Form

The embedding form is used to give additional information about a nominal phrase (subject or object). There are two types of embedding.

A) Relative embedding form

A subordinate clause, relating the subject or object of the main clause to some previously mentioned action, may be attached to the main clause by embedding. The embedded clause marked by thi:* or phu:* or zero

* thi: and phu: are Thai loan words.

has to be next to the nominal phrase.

1. siaw phu: tok pan la?kuay ta?naŋ
friend poor be person honest

'The friend who is poor is honest.'

2. la?kuay thi: ku: ci:t dəp dʌ? dəp tək
person die sink water

'The men who were dead sank down in the water.'

3. ra?kəŋ ɣəh tɜ: doŋ pha?ŋay ma?roŋ ?a?lɛ?
man come from house head of conceited overly
village

'The man who comes from the village headman's house is very conceited.'

4. ku: si?ŋay ?an pʌ? sɛ:k bak muan thi: kɔ:n - ka?mu:t cõh
every day inw go ask for mango son ghost grow

'Every day he went to ask for a mango that the orphan had grown.'

B) Appositive embedding form

An appositive embedding form is a noun phrase used to give additional information about a subject or an object.

5. ka?saw a:y ŋkɔ? pan kru:
elder I
sister

'Kasaw, my elder sister, is a teacher.'

6. ?a?lay wo: cɔ? ka?saw , a:y ŋkɔ?
elder I
sister

'He spoke to Kasaw, my elder sister.'

5.9.4 Nominal Extension Form

A nominal extension form (See clause section 1.1.1) occurs in a Purposeful sentence when the subject of the Purposeful clause is the understood object of the Action or Result.

1. dam	mpi:ayh	ro?	ʔa?lay	caŋ	pa?	co?	mo:	pah
	not	well	he	therefore	go	see	doctor	have an operation
S_1			S_1				$O_1(S_2)$	
		C		A				P

'Dam was sick; he therefore went to see a doctor to have an operation.'

2. naw	ts:ŋ	ku?la:	sa:ŋ	lo:n	i:k
he	use	tiger	ascend	look	again
S_1		$O_1(S_2)$		V_2	
	A			P	

'He sent the tiger to come down and see again.'

3. ŋkə?	ka?	pa?	ʔa?ta:ŋ	pha?nəy	kom	ʔan
I	then	go	tell	village headman	seize	he
S_1				$O_1(S_2)$	V_2	0
	A				P	

'I went to tell the village headman to seize him.'

5.9.5 Fused Form

A fused form is usually composed of a motion clause followed by a statement clause indicating an action which is the purpose of the directional movement. The two clauses have the same subject, so the subject is usually deleted in the second clause. The two clauses fused into a single sentence constitute a close-knit sense of actions.

A fused form may manifest a purposeful sentence (Sec 5.1.6).

1. 'a?ya:k husband	lɔh go out	∅	ta? do	a?lu:aŋ tree
S ₁	P ₁	S ₂	P ₂	O
Cl ₁		Cl ₂		

'The husband went out to chop trees.'

2. 'a?lay he	cu: return	doŋ house	∅	ci:a eat	wah rice
S ₁	P ₁	Dest	S ₂	P ₂	O
Cl ₁			Cl ₂		

'He returned home to eat.'

3. ŋkɔ? I	co:n ascend	∅	lo:n look	si?no? nest	- cəm bird	wa:y? first	də: p.
S ₁	P ₁	S ₂	P ₂	O			
Cl ₁		Cl ₂					

'I will go up to see the bird - nest first.'

4. 'an he	cu: return	∅	i:t take	'a?sə? unhusked rice
S ₁	P ₁	S ₂	P ₂	O
Cl ₁		Cl ₂		

'He returned home to take unhusked rice.'

5.9.6 Conjunction-linked form

A conjunction-linked form is made up of two or more clauses linked by a single conjunction or co-ordinated conjunctions (Sec 3.7). On the basis of the position of conjunctions this form class may be subdivided into : initial conjunction-linked form, medial conjunction-linked form, initial-medial combination, and repeated conjunction.

A. Initial conjunction-linked form

1. $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{bat} \\ \text{pu:a} \end{array} \right\}$ hi? pa? co? ki: lə: ó:n may wo: pa:y....
when I go to there then give you speak say

'When I arrive there, you have to say.....'

2. khan ma?ha:ŋ ci:a nuaŋ
if hungry eat first

'If (you are) hungry, have it first.'

3. nuan pa? ci:a wah ?a?lay mpə:y dΛ'
before go eat rice he take a bath

'Before going to eat, he took a bath.'

4. ntu:nkri: mpə:y dΛ? ?a?lay səp si?lok
after take a bath he put on shirt

'After he had taken a bath, he put on a shirt.'

B. Medial conjunction-linked form

1. lo:n sɜ:m nɪŋ to:n mpə? pa? ta?la:t
look sister also when mother go market

'Take care of sister when I (mother) go to market.'

2. dam ta? ma:liə? pan ?a?caw doŋ
do as if be owner house

'Dam acts as if he were the owner of the house.'

3. ?a?lay mpi:ayh rɔʔ caŋ paʔ cɔʔ mɔ: ɕ:n pah
 he not well therefore go see doctor in order have an
 to operation

'Dam was sick; therefore, he went to see a doctor to have an operation.'

4. dam paʔ cɔʔ mɔ: pha:a pah
 go see doctor in order to have an operation

'Dam went to see the doctor in order to have an operation.'

5. ?a?lay mpə:y dɔʔ cə: caŋ səp si?lok
 he take a bath already then put on shirt

'He took a bath; then, (he) put on a shirt.'

6. dam tic pun pa:nuan ?a?lay ci:a wah pa?ucyh
 have a stomach because he eat rice spoiled
 pain

'Dam had a stomach ache because he had eaten spoiled rice.'

7. bə:n tian kəʔ
 get because you

'(I) got it because of you.'

8. kaʔsaw wo: { nɔn } ni:am
 speak and cry

'Kasaw speaks and cries.'

9. ŋkɔʔ ci?caŋ hak ?an ni:am
 I laugh but he cry

'I laugh but he cries.'

10. bəʔ i: paʔ don hi? ha? li: pa:y paʔ ta?la:t
 you wil go house I Mk.q. or say so market

'Will you go to my house or go to market?'

C. Initial-medial combination

1. pá:uan ci:a wah pa?uəyh ?a?lay { can } tic puŋ
 because eat rice spoiled he { lə:y } therefore have stomach
 a pain

'Because he ate spoiled rice, he therefore had a stomach ache.'

2. mpi:ayh bæ? ka? ŋkə? ta? loəyh
 not you or I do wrong

'Either you or I made a mistake.'

D. Repeated conjunctions

1. ka?saw wo: nəŋ ŋi:am nəŋ
 speak also cry also

'Kasaw both speaks and cries.'

2. ka?saw wo: mo:y? ŋi:am mo:y?
 speak also cry also

'Kasaw both speaks and cries.'

3. wi:a bæ? wi:a ŋkə? loəyh
 both you and I wrong

'Both you and I are wrong.'

4. hə:n ŋu:ac lə:n bu:l
 more drink more drunk

'The more you drink, the more drunk you become.'

It will be noted that most of So sentences contain no conjunction between clauses. Clauses may simply run together under a single intonation contour.

5.10 Peripheral Slots

Sentence peripheral slot includes adverbials, vocatives, particles and exclamations.

5.10.1 Adverbials

Adverbials are words or phrases, usually with the structure of prepositional phrases (Sec 2.3) or of reduplicated forms (Sec 4.2). They include items such as ma¹rəh 'regularly' ci¹tΛ:n 'in time' tha¹mit ta¹mi: 'at first' etc. (Sec 3.10). They normally either precede or follow the nucleus. Adverbials manifest time setting (Sec 5.3.1), location setting (Sec 5.3.2) and manner setting.

1. ta:ray hi? pan ra¹ɿ:ɿ:n pΛ[?] kom sia[?] ma¹rəh
in the old I be child go catch fish regularly
times

'When I was a child, I always went to catch fish.'

2. ?a[?]lay i: pΛ[?] pa[?]nΛ:
he will go tomorrow

'He will go tomorrow.'

3. tha[?]mit tha[?]mi: ka: pΛ[?] thay ta[?]li:ŋ.....
at first go plough rice-field

'First, plough the rice-field.'

4. bic pin din Λ:t 'Sleep still (like a stiff man)'
sleep very still live
M

5. bic ku:ci:t pin¹din 'He slept dying stiffly.'
sleep die very still = stiff

6. sΛ[?] ci:a ?a[?]rək ?a[?]rə:y 'Don't eat greedily.'
don't eat greedily

5.10.2 Vocatives

Semantically vocatives function in a paragraph level but often manifest on the sentence level. They may occur in the initial - sentence position or in the final - sentence position.

1. dam pA? mɔ? (Name) 'Where are you going, Dam?'
go where
2. ci:a wah ca: ha? ?a?thaw (Title)
eat rice already Q.mk a title used to call an old woman
'Have you finished eating?'
3. ta? ntrow mpe? (Kinship term)
do what mother
'What are you doing, mother?'

For details, see Sec 3.1

5.10.3 Final Particles

Final particles (Sec 3.11) function in the periphery of a sentence. They have no meanings by themselves. They manifest sentence illocution, i.e, affirmative, negative or interrogative. They occur after the nuclear clause of either simple sentences or multiple clause sentences. Besides, there may be more than one final particle in a sentence.

1. pA^ ci:a wah ye: 'Come to eat, please.'
go eat rice f.p.
2. bi? 'Sleep.'
sleep f.p.
3. ta^yah pA? cɔ? nay sA? kuay ci?
walk go to this don't be slow v.p.
'Come here; don't be slow.'

4. ci:a wa:y? ci? na? khrn ma?ha:n
eat first if hungry

'Eat first if you are hungry.'

5.10.4 Exclamations are usually before the sentence. They also can be used by themselves. See also Sec 5.4.5.

1. "yow ! ?a?mē? ba:r ra?nāh ka? ba:r pu:t "
(angry) who 2 name 2 part

'Oh ! who has two names will get two parts.'

2. "0: ! ncəm mpi:ay? hay "
(sad and concerned) miss father ve

'O ! I miss father.'

3. bah pa? a?blāh ?an lo:n mē?
(angry) go ask he see f.p.

'Go to ask him !'

5.11 Prosodic Morphemes

Prosodic morphemes affecting the sentence include general intonation contours, intonation prominence, and stress placement.

5.11.1 General Intonation Contours

Four significant intonation contours in So have been found.

A) A final mid level or slightly falling intonation manifests a declarative statement, a content question with a final question word, an alternative question or an imperative that expresses command especially with displeasure of annoyance.

1. i: pA? ta?li:ŋ (Statement)
will go rice-field
'I'm going to rice-field.'
2. i: pA? ya:ŋmɔ? (content question)
will go when
'When will you go?'
3. i: bi: ha? li: pa:y pA? (alternative question)
will sleep Q.mk or to
'Would you like to sleep or to go?'
4. pA? ci:a wah ci?nɔ:nay (command)
go eat rice now
'Go to eat now !'
5. br? // pA? pa?lən ci?nɔ:nay ci? (command with displeasure
you go eat (impo) now f.p. and annoyance)
'You ! Go to eat now.'
- B) A falling intonation manifests a simple yes/no question.
6. i: pA? ta?li:ŋ ha?
will go rice-field Q.mk
'Are you going to the rice-field?'
- C) A final high or high rising intonation manifests an imperative illocution that expresses invitation or persuasion.
7. pA? ci:a wah yə: (invitation)
go eat rice f.p.
'Come and eat, please.'
8. pA? ci:a wah nən nə? yə: (persuasion)
go eat rice Mk_{rec} f.p.
'Let's go to eat together.'

D) Level pausing intonation in a state indicates that the speaker has not yet finished his statement.

9. ŋkɔʔ i: pʌʔ taʔla:t cʌ:ŋ.....
 I(impo.) will go market buy

'I am going to market to buy.....'

5.11.2 Intonation Prominence

Emphasis may cause individual word in a sentence to be raised or lowered. This factor evaluates the importance of each word in a sentence.

1. ʔaʔməʔ { hə: } ni:am
 who { ki: } cry
 cmp.

'Who? Who is crying?'

2. pʌʔ // pʌʔ cia wəh ciʔ nɔ: nəy
 go go eat rice now

'Go ! Go to eat now.'

The underlined word are emphasized.

5.11.3 Stress Placement

In So, sentence stress (underlined here) is normally on the last syllable or on the penultimate syllable when there is a final particle.

1. i: pʌʔ taʔ li:n
 will go rice-field

'I am going to the rice-field.'

2. ŋkɔʔ mak ləʔ
 I love you

'I love you'

3. ʔaʔdɔʔ taŋ ciʔpuak ciʔ
 place on mat f.p.

'Place it on the mat.'

Different placement of sentential stress is possible, i.e., a word that we want to emphasize may take a sentence stress.

4. hə? pɑ? ci:a wah ci'nɔ:nay
you go eat rice now

'You! Go to eat now.'

5. mpi:ayh mpi:ayh mɔ:n
not not right

'No, it is not right!'

5.12 Completeness

A sentence may be full, elliptical, or incomplete. Ellipsis (marked by \emptyset) in a sentence may involve the deletion of certain elements - subject, verb, object, conjunction, the former condition or cause. Elements tend to be deleted under the circumstance that they are obviously understood from the context or from general (cultural) knowledge as shown in examples 1 - 6.

Incompleteness (marked here by.....) is usually a result of a sudden breaking off in mid utterance by a pause to think or an interruption as shown in examples 7 - 8.

1. \emptyset pɑ? mɔ? (Subject deletion)
go where

'Where are you going?'

2. dam \emptyset (Predicate deletion)

'Dam did it.' (cried, went, etc.)

3. mpɛ tɔn \emptyset (Object deletion)
mother hit

'Mother hit.' (Dam, him, etc.)

4. dam ci?caŋ Ø ŋkɔ? ni:an (Conjunction deletion)
 laugh I cry

'Dam laughed (but) I cried.'

5. A : ta?row ta?mΛ: tɜ: mɛ:k
 why wake-up early

'Why do you get up so early?'

- B : Ø ŋkɔ? pi:aw pΛ? ta? wia? (Former Action Deletion)
 I hurry go do work

'I am hurried to go to work.'

6. dam ci:a la?haw ku: si?ŋay (General knowledge Deletion)
 eat medicine every day

'Dam takes medicine every day.'

7. khan Ø pΛ?..... (Incomplete form)
 if go

'If (you) go,.....'

8. A : mpe? a?lɔŋ Ø ta?row Ø daŋ ha?
 mother call why know Mk. Q

'For what did mother call (me)? Did (you) know?'

- B : Ø mpi:ayh daŋ saŋ pa:y.....
 not know hear say

'No, (I) didn't. Hearing that.....'

CHART 2 : HOW TO MATCH UP THE FORMS AND MEANINGS (SENTENCES)

SEMANTIC	→	STRUCTURE	STRUCTURE	→	SEMANTIC
5.1.1		5.9.1	5.9.1		5.1.1
5.1.2		5.9.2	5.9.2		5.1.2, 5.1.3, 5.1.4, 5.1.5
5.1.3		5.9.2, 5.9.6 A _{3,4} B _{1,5}			5.1.6, 5.1.7, 5.2.1, 5.2.2
5.1.4		5.9.2, 5.9.6 D ₃			5.2.4
5.1.5		5.9.2, 5.9.6 A _{a,2} B _{6,7} C	5.9.3		5.1.6
5.1.6		5.9.2, 5.9.4, 5.9.5 5.9.6, B _{3,4} C	5.9.4		any form
5.1.7		5.9.2, d.9.6 C	5.9.5		5.1.6
5.2.1		5.9.2, 5.9.6 B ₉	5.9.6A ₁		5.1.5
5.2.2		5.9.2	A ₂		5.1.5
5.2.3		5.9.6 B ₁₀	A ₃		5.1.3
5.2.4		5.9.2, d.9.6 D _{1,2,3}	A ₄		5.1.3
5.3.1		5.10.1	5.9.6B ₁		5.1.3
5.3.2		5.10.1	B ₂	-	5.6.2
5.4.1		5.9.6 A ₂	B ₃		5.1.6
5.4.2		5.9.1	B ₄		5.1.6
5.4.3		5.9.1	B ₅	.	5.1.3
5.4.4		5.9.1, 5.10.2, 5.10.3	B ₆	-	5.1.5
5.4.5		5.10.4	B ₇		5.1.5
5.4.6			B ₈		5.2.4
5.5.1		5.9.1, 5.9.2	B ₉		5.2.1
5.5.2		5.9.1, 5.9.2	B ₁₀		5.2.3
5.5.3		5.9.1, 5.9.2	5.9.6C ₁		5.1.5, 5.1.6
			C ₂		5.2.3
5.5.4		5.9.1, 5.9.2	5.9.6D ₁		5.2.4
			D ₂		5.2.4
5.5.5		5.9.1, 5.9.2	D ₃		5.1.4
			5.10.1		5.3.1
			5.10.2		5.4.4
5.6.1		5.9.6 A ₂			
5.6.2		5.9.6 A ₂ , B ₂	5.10.3		5.4.4
5.6.3		5.9.6 C ₁	5.10.4		5.4.5
5.6.4		5.9.6 A ₂			

CHAPTER VI: PARAGRAPH AND DISCOURSE

6.0 Paragraph

A paragraph is tentatively defined as a structured sequence of actions (episode), usually with a single topic and a single setting and a single set of actors (Thomas 1971:200).

Paragraphs normally function as elements in a discourse (Sec.6.4). They tend to be marked off by words changing the time setting or the location setting of the action (Sec.6.3), or by changing the major participants (Sec.6.2).

6.1 Structure Types

Paragraphs may be divided into two subtypes: monologue and dialogue. These two subtypes differ from each other in their structure.

6.1.1 Monologue Paragraph

Monologue, as its name implies, is a speech act in which only one person speaks. Monologue paragraphs may be divided into four types: narrative, reportive, procedural and expository on the basis of their internal structure.

A. Narrative Paragraphs

A narrative paragraph consists of a chain of events in which the speaker is not personally involved. It serves as vehicles of entertainment and at the same time it may provide a moral notion at the end (See Appendix, Text1).

Surface characteristics of a narrative paragraph are:

1. The subjects narrated are in the third person, and the time aspect is in past tense_A, a past tense which does not associate the narrator with the action (Cf. time aspect in a reportive paragraph).
2. The time is generally in chronological sequence.
3. A narrative paragraph is distinguished from other types in that it may contain direct and indirect speech.
4. Conjunctions used in narrative paragraphs to link the

preceding event and the following event are cə:ka? 'and then', ka? 'next' or 'then'.

5. Repeating of words, and reduplication, are common in narrative paragraphs to add vividness to the action.

ka?tiy ka?tiy katiy	'tear at it with your teeth'
ci?tit ci?tit	'very tough'
hunhu: hunha:y	'(sort of person who) easily angry and annoyed'
ta? ŋu:ac ta? ci:a	'to cook'
ta? wia? ta? ŋian	'to work'
?a?hək ?a?hiay	'scattered all over'
nam doŋ nam su:	'in the house'
ni? doŋ ni? { kruaŋ wi:l }	'all in the village and country'
ta? sop ta? me:n	'funeral'

(Examples here taken from the story of 'A Daughter-in-law and a Mother-in-law')

B. Reportive Paragraphs

A reportive paragraph develops a topic which involves a personal experience or diary, so it may consist of a chain of sequential happenings, locations and events. (See Appendix, Text 2 as an example.)

General characteristics of a reportive paragraph are that the subject reported is in the first person and the time aspect is in past tense_B, a past tense which associates the speaker (reporter) with the events.

A reportive paragraph involving a personal experience usually consists of a chain of sources and destination marked by motion verbs

such as <u>pΔ?</u> 'go' (20 times)	<u>sa:n</u> 'get off, down' (2 times)
<u>cə:n</u> 'get on, up' (3 times)	<u>mu:t</u> 'enter' (1 time)
<u>tΔ?</u> 'arrive' (4 times)	<u>loh</u> 'go out' (1 time)
<u>cū:</u> 'return' (3 times)	

A reportive paragraph usually starts and ends with time setting punctiliar.

muay si'ŋay
 one day
 'One day
 ta? doŋ ka? sa'daw
 arrive house evening
 '(We) arrived home in the evening.'

A diary topic consists of a chain of temporal sequence. It may be introduced by an initial time specification (punctiliar) or initial time repetition (repeated iterative).

si'mə:k nay ŋko? yu:ar tæ: mə:k cə:ka?
 morning this I get up early then
 mpə:y dɔ? səp si'lok ci'kat caŋ pɔ? ci:a wəh
 take a bath put on shirt skirt then go eat rice

'This morning I got up early. Then I took a bath, dressed myself and ate.'

ku:si'ŋay ŋko? tɔŋ khə:y ?a'wəh ɔ:n mpə? khə:y
 every day must cook rice for mother cook
 ?a'wəh cə: cə:ka? pɔ? mpə:y dɔ? səp si'lok
 rice already then go take a bath put on shirt
 ci'kat cə:ka? ci:a wəh
 skirt then eat rice

'Every day I have to cook rice for mother. After finishing cooking, I take a bath, dress myself and eat.'

C. Procedural Paragraphs

A process or procedural paragraph develops a topic which is a step-by-step prescription how to do something of which text 3 and 3A are examples. General characteristics of a processive paragraph are:

1. The first step in the chain of processive steps is marked by tha'mit tha'mi: 'at first' and the following steps are

marked by cə:lə: or cə:ka? 'and then'.

tha?mit tha?mi: i:t ?usyh pA? a?nu? i:t ?usyh pA?
a?nu? cə:lə: ə:n sa?A:t

'First we plough and rake. After raking, we let it dry.'

2. It is a direct speech in which activities are described in chronological order and in first person (plural) - hi? , hay .

tha?mit tha?mi: hi? ka? pA? thay ta?li:ŋ
first I go plough rice-field

'First we plough.' (From text 3)

cə:ka? hay ka? i:t ntip ?a?dʌh ?a?tʌh ray
then we take lid pot close basket for
cooking sticky rice in

'Then we take the lid of a pot and put on the basket for cooking sticky rice.' (From text 3)

3. A procedural paragraph usually ends with either ni? ma? nay 'That's all ' or cə:ka?cə: 'That's finished.'

khə:y ?a?wah ni? ma?nay
cook rice all that

khən tʃrə: cə:n law cə:ka?cə:
carry paddy up to barn already

4. Sometimes, the speaker also assures the listener that the procedure given will produce good results, so she may tell the purpose of doing so.

i:t ?a?lu:əŋ kuat :?a?cə:n pa?lih
take stick put sth. over take up turn over

?a?cə:n phə:a ə:n ci:n tua
take up for give to be cooked all over

'Take it up in order to make it cooked all over.'

D. Expository Paragraphs

An expository paragraph is an exhortation to do something with reasons and explanations. It consists of a chain of viewpoints related to a given conceptual notion because it concerns with a response to a situation rather than to a question. (See Appendix, text 4 as an example.)

Expositive paragraphs are different from other types in that they are not chronological and that the subjects are described in any person, usually excluding first person singular.

In conclusion, contrasts among monologue paragraph types may be summarized in a matrix as follows:

Monologue Subtypes	Person of Subject	Time Aspect	Coherence Constraint	Time Setting
Narrative	3rd.	Past _A	Chronological	Single
Reportive	1st.	Past _B / Present	Chronological	Single/ Repetitive
Procedural	1st. (pl)	Present	Chronological	Single
Expository	1st. (pl) / 2nd./3rd.	Any Tense	Hypothetical	-

TABLE 4: CONTRAST AMONG MONOLOGUE PARAGRAPH SUBTYPES

6.1.2 Dialogue Paragraph

Dialogue is a speech act in which two persons speak alternately (See Appendix, text 5 and 5A as examples). It may be the manifestation of an argument or discussion. General characteristics are:

1. There are at least two persons involved.
2. The first person ŋko? ŋkua?, ?a?ni:a, hi? hay and the second person ba?, ?a?su:l, ?a?pay, māy are used or deleted, depending upon the styles. (sec.6.5)
3. It consists of questions and answers, proposals and responses, remarks and evaluations.
4. The answers usually omit words or phrases when they are obviously understood, normally when these elements in a

clause are asked for in a previous question and the answers usually use the same structure as its question.

5. Stress and intonation will change according to the situation and mood of the speaker.

6.2 Paragraph Topic

The paragraph topic is a participant being focused. A participant focused paragraph is introduced by a noun or a name. After that, the participant is referred to by the same word or by a pronoun. Indeed, the boundaries of the participant focused paragraph may be identified largely by the shifting of one participant to another participant. (See Appendix, text 1)

In the old times, there was a dog stealing a piece of meat from a shop. He stole it and took it away. He ran and ran so that nobody could catch him. Then he came to a river. He crossed a small bridge. While crossing the bridge, he saw his reflection in the river, so he barked. When he barked, the meat dropped and sank down into the water.

6.3 Setting

A paragraph is frequently set in a particular time or place. The time setting may be indicated by adverbs of time such as:

ts:ray	'in the old days'
muay si ¹ ?ɲay	'one day'
muay si ¹ ?ɲay ba:r si ¹ ?ɲay	'a few days later'
muay ku ¹ ?no: ba:r ku ¹ ?no:	'a few years later'
ta ¹ ? si ¹ ?ɲay ki:	'(till) that day'

The location setting may be indicated by place nouns or by prepositional phrase (Sec.3.3) such as:

?u ¹ ?do:n	'Udorn'
sa ¹ ?kon	'Sakon Nakhon'
ti ¹ ?m ¹ ɲaŋ	'in town'

nam doŋ nam su: 'in the house'
 ti? ta?li:ŋ 'in the rice-field'

6.4 Discourse

The discourse is the largest semantic unit in language. Discourses function as elements in behaviour patterns. It consists of discussion on one subject or on an interwoven group of related subjects.

Only the narrative discourse type is presented here. There seems to be more, but I have done no analysis on it yet. Narrative discourse is normally composed of a stage setting paragraph, the events of the story, and an closure paragraph.

The stage setting paragraph is often just one sentence, setting the background of the participant(s).

e.g. mi: siaw ba:r na? siaw muay na?
 have friend two Class. friend one Class.
 pan phu: tók siaw muay na? pan phu: mi:
 be person poor friend one Class. be person rich

'There were two friends. One is poor; the other is rich.'

(Story of two friends)

1. ts: ray mi: ku?ya: nɛŋ ku?man
 in the old have mother with daughter
 days -in-law -in-law
2. ku?ya: pan ku?ya: mət su:t thaw cə: lə:
 mother- be mother- eye blind old already
 in-law in-law
3. ku?man ki: hunhu: hunha'y
 daughter- that easily angry and
 in-law annoyed

'In the old days, there were a mother-in-law and a daughter-in-law. The mother was blind and old; the daughter was angry and annoyed.' (Story of a daughter-in-law and a mother-in-law)

The first sentence in a narrative discourse usually introduces the main character of the story.

The body of the story may consist of one or more narrative paragraphs, telling the story in cycles, or starting from a problem going to a small climax and to a final climax (resolution).

Consider the story of a mother-in-law and a daughter-in-law as the example.

Problem: muay si¹?nəy ki: lə: pa¹? ?aŋ təh tuh ɔ:n
 one day that then go roast leech that give
 ci:a ha¹?nəy
 eat at once
 ?a¹?thaw lə: ci:a ci:a lə: m¹əy maŋ
 title to call then eat eat then tired only
 an old woman
 ka¹?t¹əy ka¹?t¹əy ka¹?t¹əy təh hə:y
 pull pull pull leech
 "ntrow pat ci¹?tit thə: kə:n ntrow nəy"
 what be tough very daughter what this
 "o: pa¹?lo:t pu¹:t m¹pə?"
 Oh! kind of fish big mother

'One day the daughter-in-law gave a roasted leech as food for her mother-in-law to eat. It was very tough, so mother was tired of eating and pulling the leech. Then she asked, "What is it? Very tough. What is it?" "Oh! It's a big fish, mother."

Small climax:

 cə:lə: kə:n ba:w cu:
 and then son return
 "ta¹? ntrow m¹pə? m¹əy ci:a ntrow"
 do what mother you eat what
 "ə: nəw pa:y pa¹?lo:t pu¹:t ŋkə? m¹əy
 she say kind of big tired
 fish
 m¹p¹:əyh ha:m ?an ci¹?təh cak t¹:y"
 not see it tear just once
 completely
 "o:y m¹pə? təh dəy ki: pa:y"
 Oh! mother leech f.p. that say

'Then the son returned home. He asked his mother,

"What are you doing? What are you eating?"

"A big fish, she said. I was tired of eating it. It was never completely torn just once."

"Oh! it's a leech, mother," said the son.'

She was very sad. Then she prayed that when she died, only her daughter-in-law would be able to carry her body.

Resolution:

The resolution began when she died and nobody could carry her body. Then the daughter carried it by herself.

The closure paragraph of a narrative discourse is usually just one sentence, stating either the death of the villain or the long life of the hero. Sometimes, it gives a moral notion to the reader.

lo:n	ki:	ʔaʔtat	taʔkən	cə:	lə:	kuʔman
coffin	that	fall on	neck	and then		daughter-
						in-law

ku:ci:t	lə:y
die	forever

'The coffin fell on her neck. Then she died.'

(Story of a daughter-in-law and a mother-in-law)

6.5 Styles

There may be more styles in SO, but only three styles have been observed. They are folklore telling style, careful or polite style, and colloquial style.

6.5.1 Folklore telling style

The folklore telling style is used in reciting folklore. It is marked by reduplication (Sec.4.3) and words added for euphony and heavy use of exclamation (sec.4.5). See for example Appendix-text 1.

1.taʔ	nu:ac	taʔ	ci:a	'to cook'
de	drink	de	eat	

2. liŋ¹ lo:n¹ 'to think and consider
consider look carefully'
3. ni¹? doŋ ni¹? wi:l¹ 'all in village'
all house all village
4. ta¹? doŋ ta¹? su: 'to arrive home'
arrive house arrive hut
5. ca:p ci:a 'very good'
good
6. la¹?ŋit la¹?ŋo:t 'very far'
far
7. ta¹?li:ŋ ta¹?ra:m 'rice-field'
rice-field

Reduplication and comparison are used to add vivid imagery to the action.

- ntaŋ m¹? p¹hɔ:nku:tə:k 'as heavy as earth'
heavy same earth
- m¹?c ma¹?li:a? y¹i:an 'as pretty as fairy'
pretty same fairy

Besides, words used in the action are cleverly devised. In the story of Sangprieng, the wife of Phya asked Sangprieng,

"Where has Phya gone to?" for she thought that her husband was now on the way to the wonderful place where Sangprieng told him about. Killing Phya and wanting to get his wife, Sangprieng who was tricky, answered, ta¹? m¹ian ka¹? 'He has gone to the swollen town,' he answered. A few days later, she asked, ta¹? m¹ian pri¹? 'He is now arriving at the decay town,' he answered. Again and again, she asked, ta¹? m¹ian ro:n 'He is now arriving at the hot town.' ta¹? m¹ian la¹?ŋit la¹?ŋo:t 'He is now arriving at a very far town that anyone can't reach.'

The word ka¹? 'swollen' implied that he died and was swollen now. pri¹? implied that the body was now decayed. ro:n 'hot' implied that it's time that the body was cremated and la¹?ŋit la¹?ŋo:t 'very far' implied that he (Phya) will never come back.

Some words used in the folklore telling style are now extinct from active use.

- hunhu: hunha:y 'easily angry and annoyed'

6.5.2 Careful (Polite) Style

The careful or polite style is not used among friends but is used with strangers. It is marked by less elliptical forms in order to eliminate ambiguities, less direct quotation, and less final particles.

6.5.3 Colloquial Style

The colloquial style is used in ordinary conversation. It is marked by short sentences, elliptical forms, little use of reduplication, and heavy use of final particles and loan words from Northeastern Thai. Besides, vocatives and cursing words are commonly used in this style.

One thing that has been observed is the choice of pronoun usage in these three styles as shown in the matrix below.

Pronouns Styles	1st					2nd				3rd		
	kha?nuay	ŋko?/ ŋkua?	?a?su:l	hi?	hay	ka?	?a?ni:a	?a?pay	may	?an	?a?lay	nav
Folklore	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Careful				X	X			X	X	X	X	X
Colloquial		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X	

TABLE 5: DIFFERENT PRONOUN USAGE ACCORDING TO STYLES

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APPENDIX

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Text 1 : A daughter-in-law and a mother-in-law

ku?man nãŋ ku?ya:

1. tɛ:ɪay mi: ku?ya: nãŋ ku?man
in the have mother- and daughter-
old days in-law in-law
2. ku?ya: pan ku?ya: măt su:t thaw cõ:
mother- be mother eye blind old already
in-law -in-law
3. læ: ku?man ki: hunhu: hunhã:y
and daughter- that easily angry and annoyed
in-law
4. ha?mõ? caŋ ku:ci:t ci? pa:y
when will die f.p. say
5. mi: maŋ ta? ŋu:ac ta? ci:a ð:n ci:a dõ?
have only do drink do eat give eat not
ta? wla? ta? ŋian ntrow pa:y
do work do work what say
6. krã? ?a?lu:m ka? ?a?hãk ?a?hãy nam doŋ nam su:
excrete urinate scatter all over in house in hut
7. mu: nay sãŋ pa:y wãr lã? tõ?
all this hear say angry really f.p.
8. muay si?ŋay ki: læ: pa? ?aŋ teh tuh ð:n ci:a
one day that then go roast leech give eat
ha?nay ?aŋ teh tul. pũ:t
at once roast leech big
9. "ʔoh npe? may ci:a ci?na: wãh nay" pa:y
take this mother you eat food rice this say
10. ?a?thaw læ: ci:a
title used then eat
to call an
old woman
11. ci:a la? mãay maŋ ka?tãy ka?tãy ka?tãy teh hã:y
eat tired only pull pull pull leech already
ti: ci?tõh ti: pũ:t pũ:t
pull tear pull big big
12. "ntrow pat ci?tit thã: kõ:n ntrow nay"
what be tough very son what this

13. "o pa?loc pu:t mpé?" pa:y
Oh! kind of fish. big mother say
14. cə:lə. kə:n ba:w ru: "ta? ntrow mpé? may ci:a ntrow"
then for come do what mother you eat what
15. ə: nāw pa:y 'p'lot pu:t"
she say fish big
16. ŋkə? mɛ:ay mɛ:ayl ha: "an ci?toh cak tɛ:y
I tired not see it tear just once
17. "o:y mpé? tən day ki:" pa:y
Oh! mother leech f.p. that say
18. ?a?thaw ləy pakzɛ:l:y lə: ni:am
she then sorry and cry
19. lə: "tho: ku?nan ŋkə? nay nə? ci:lɛ:k nə? i:t tɛh
then daughter I this f.p. strange f.p. take leech
ə:n ci:a lə: ?aŋ wa: tɛh ə:n ci:a" pa:y
give eat roast leech give eat say
20. "ci:tu? ci:tu? do:" pa:y "nāw tɛ: pa:ŋ lə:n niŋ" pa:y
say god look also say
21. "pa?nə? pra: nay lə: phu: pəh nay ku:ci:t cə:lə:
tomorrow the day this person kill I die already
after
tomorrow
ni?doŋ ni? kruaŋ nay sɔ? ə:n kra:ŋ ?a?dɛ:ŋ pə:t
all house all country this don't give carry take be able
kə:n mɛ:l:ay? mɛ:n ku?mar kha?nuay dɔ:l i:t" pa:y ?a?thaw
if not right daughter I carry take say she
ka? pra:tha?na: sɛk sa?ki:
wish again like that
22. nuay ku?no: lə: ku?no: ?a?thaw lə: ku:ci:t
one yea two ku?no she then die
23. ku:ci:t ka? ni? doŋ ni? wi:l pa? ta? sɔp ta? mən
die all house all village go funeral
24. ta? si?ŋay pəŋ ?a?thaw ka? ?a?sə:ŋ lə:w ?a?sə:ŋ
arrive day cremate she take down take dow
i: pa? ci? ni? doŋ ni? wi:l kre:ŋ ka?
will go f.p. all house all village carry on one pole
mɛ:l:ayh pə:t
not be able
between two people
25. nɛ:ŋ mɛ? phə:nku:ts:k
heavy same earth

26. cə:lə: thəw nɑ:ɣ 'nɑŋkɑ? i: ə:n ku?mɑn ?ɑ?thəw dɑ:l
and then old she say want give daughter she carry
27. cə:lə: ə:n ku?mɑn ?ɑ?thəw dɑ:l dɑ:l muay nɑ?
and then give daughter she carry carry one time
kɑ? pə:t lɑ?kɑy hu:nəh lə:hə: pɑ? niat
be able person other go in go quiet
a big retinue
28. tɑ? re:w kɑ? i: ?ɑ?cuh kɑ? mɸi:ayh pə:t
arrive graveyard want put down not able
29. lə:ŋ ki: ?ɑ?tɑ tɑ?kə:ŋ ku?mɑn kɑ? ku:ci:t lə:y
coffin that fall on neck daughter die forever

Free Translation

In the old days, there were a daughter-in-law and a mother-in-law. The mother was old and blind. The daughter-in-law was easily angry and annoyed. "When will my mother die?", she said to herself. The mother did nothing except ate, drank and made the house dirty. This caused the daughter to be angry.

One day the daughter roasted a leech and gave it to mother as food to eat. "Take this, mother", said she.

The mother then ate it. She ate and tried to tear the leech until she was tired. "What is this? Why is it so tough?", she asked. "Oh! It's a big fish, mother", replied the daughter.

Then the son came home and asked,

"What are you doing, mother? What are you eating?"

"Oh! it's a big fish", she said. I'm tired of tearing it."

"Mother! It's a leech", the son said.

The mother was very sorry. She cried and said, "My daughter-in-law was so bad that she could give me a leech to eat. God! Look!" Then she thought that if she would die nobody could carry her body except her daughter-in-law.

A few years later she died. All villagers went to the funeral. On the cremation day nobody was able to carry the body. It was as heavy as earth. Then the daughter carried the body. She was able to do it by herself while other people in the procession just walked along. Having arrived at the graveyard, she wanted to put it down, but she was unable. The coffin fell on her neck and then she died.

Text 2 : Going to Udon

1. mɔ:y si'ɣaj ki: ka'ni:a hi? pi:a pa? ?udɔ:n
one day that friend I persuade go Udon
2. pi:a pa? co:kɔ? hi? ka? pa? lɛ: pa?
persuade go then I go and go
3. co: ka? sɔp si'lek
and then put on shirt
4. pa? kan rot ti? doŋ ka'ni:a ?a?ki:
go get on car at house friend that
5. pa? kan rot ka'ni:a ra?wo: pa:y "sa? pa? rot
go get on car friend speak say don't go
do:yɜa:n pa? rot na:y?ampɔ:"
bus go car head district
6. nɔw i: pa? ?a?pɕh ŋtruay ti? ?udɔ:n
he will go cock- fight at Udon
7. hay pa? nɛŋ na:y?ampɔ:
we go with head district
8. ?a?ko:y! hi? ma? knɛn cih rot na:y ?ampɔ:
I not brave ride car head district
mpi:ay pa? do:k
not go E.p.
9. ka'ni:a hi? wo: pa:y "panrow de:" may ka? ta?ku: ɛ:t
friend I say say what's wrong" you sit live
miat lɛ: may sa? wo: ntrow lɛ:
still and you don't say what
10. e: pa? ka? pa?
yes go go
11. co: ka? pa? cakno:y rot ta? ta? ka? co:n
then go for a car arrive arrive get on
while
12. co:n co: lɛ: ku?pɔy na:y ?ampɔ: ka? pa?
get on then wife head district go
13. pa? cɛ:lɛ: sɛ:ŋ ti? sa?kon
go then get off at Sakon
14. sɛ:ŋ ti? sa?kon hay lɛ:y pa? ?udɔ:n
get off Sakon we then go Udon
15. pa? ?udɔ:n ta? ?udɔ:n cɛ:lɛ: na:y?ampɔ: ?a?blɛh
go Udon arrive Udon then head district ask
pa:y "ra:n mo? ci?na: ci:a ?ɛ:m"
say shop which food delicious

16. cə: lɔ: pa? lo:n tu: ?u?do:n
then go look through Udorn
17. ti?mɔ? ra:n ?a:ha:n ?a:m ka?ni:a hi? ra?wo:
at where shop food delicious friend I say
18. pa? tha:y tuh cih rot loh pa? cə? ki: mu:t ci:a wah
go there drive car out go to there enter eat rice
19. ci:a wah pa?say cə: lɔ: na:y ?ampo: ?a?pəh ntruay
eat rice full already then head district cock-fight
no? mɔ:ay
outside town
20. hi? ka? ka?ni:a hi? ka? pə? ka:ypra?cak
I and friend I then go proper name
21. pa? i:t sa?lok pa? thu?ra? bi-bi:n
go take shirt go business little
22. loh tah ka:y pra?cak mu:t ?u?do:n
out from proper name enter Udorn
23. ka?ni:a wo: pa:y kən rot na:y ?ampo: wa:y? ha?
friend speak say got on car head district before q.part
24. mɔi:ayh hi? ?a?tu:ay mɔpə? hi? ri:ay
not I fear mother I angry
25. hi? ka? wo: sa?nay lɔ: ta? sa?mɔ?
I then say like this do how
26. cu: ha? 27. cu:
return q.part. return
28. cə: ka? cə:n rot cu:
and then get on car return
29. tɔ? dɔŋ ka? sa?daw
arrive house evening

Free Translation :

One day my friend persuaded me to go to Udorn. There I went with her. I dressed and went to get on a car at my friend's house. Then my friend said, "Don't go by bus. Go with the headman of the district." He is going to have a cock-fight at Udorn." "No, I'm afraid. I won't go with him." She told me not to be afraid, just sit. Finally, I decided to go with her.

We, my friend and I, went to Udorn in the car of the headman. His wife also went with us. She got off at Sakon Nakhon and we continued our journey to Udorn. After having finished eating, the district headman went to a cock-fight and we went to Khay Pracak to do some business. Then we went to take a shirt. My friend wanted to return home in the car of the district headman, but I didn't. At last we returned home in a bus and arrived home in the evening.

Text 3 : How to grow rice nas... ta? ta?li:

1. tha?mit tha?mi: hi? hi? pa? thay ta?li:n
first I go plough rice-field
2. pa? thay ta?li:n cə: lə: kri:at
go plough rice-field already then rake
3. kri:at cə: lə: w:n sa?A:t
rake already then give dry
4. sa?A:t bi?bi:n cə: ka? trəh
dry little already then sow
5. trəh ka: cə: lə: i:k muay nchay ka? loh ka:
sow seedling already then later one month pull seedling
out
6. pa? sa?bat
go transplant
7. i:k ba:r pay nchay ka? ri:at tšro:
later two three month harvest paddy
8. ri:at cə: ka? khon ?a?dɛn do? ti? li:an
harvest already carry take let at threshing ground
khon do? ti? li:an cə: pəh
carry let at place already hit
9. pəh cə: ka? ti: tšro: co? law
hit already then gull paddy into barn
10. khon tšro: w:n law cə: ka? cə:
carry paddy up to barn already then already

Free Translation

First we plough. Next we rake and let it dry. Then we sow. A month later, we pull out the seedlings and then transplant. A few months later, we harvest and take it to the thrashing floor to be thrashed. After that we put it in the barn and that's finished.

Text 3A : How to cook rice i: khə:y ?a?wah

1. tha?mit tha?mi: i: khə:y ?a?wah i:t ?ueyh pa? ?a?ju?
first will cook rice take firewood go set
a fire
2. i:t ?ueyh pa? ?a?ju? cə: lə: ?ueyh bli:
take firewood go set a fire already then firewood flame

- i:t dΔ? cə? ?a?dΔh i:t pΔ? ?ə?ko? ti? ta?pəh
take water into pot take go place on stove
3. cə; ka? i:t ray pΔ? ?a?rəy ?a?wəh cə? ray
then take basket used to go rinse rice into basket
cook sticky rice
4. cə? ray cə: ka? ?a?rəy dΔ? i:k muay cɪ:
put into basket then rinse water again one time
5. cə: ka? i:t ray pΔ? cə: ti? ?a?dΔh thi: ?a?ko? ti? ?ueyh
then take basket go place on pot where place on fire
6. ?a?ko? la? ti?ueyh cə:ka? ?a?nu?ueyh Δ:t ma?rəh
place on fire then fire live regularly
7. cə: ?an ka? hu:l cə:n ?an hu:l ?a?cə:n cə:ka? i:t
already it smoke go up it smoke go up then take
ntɪp ?a?dΔh ?a?təh ray
lid pot close basket
8. pu:a ?an cə:n tu:a cə:ka? hay ka? i:t ?a?lu:əŋ
when it ascend all over then we take stick
(smoke)
kuat ?a?cə:n pa?lih ?a?cə:n pa?lih phi:a ə:n ci:n tu:a
ascend turn over ascend turn over for for cooked all over
9. cə: ka? ?an ci:n cə:ka? təh cə? ka?tok
then it cooked then pour into tray
10. təh cə? ka?tok cə:ka? i:t ?a?lu:əŋ ku?wəl
pour into tray then take stick make it separate
11. cə:ka? i:t cə? təp ?a?wəh
then take into thing used to put sticky rice
lɛ: khə:y ?a?wəh ɲi? mə?nəy
then cook rice all this

Free Translation :

First, (we) take fire-woods to set a fire. Next (we) put water into a pot and place it on a stove. Then (we) wash uncooked rice and put it into a basket for cooking. (We) place the basket on the pot where the fire is always burning. When there is steam, take the lid of the pot to close the basket. ✱

When there is steam all over the basket, we use a stick to turn the rice over in order to make it cooked all over. After it is cooked,

pour it into a tray. Then we use a stick to make spread the rice out not to make it too sticky. Now we put it into a basket used for keeping glutinous rice. And that's all.

Text 4 : We should conserve trees.

1. khə:n pa:y ɟa? doŋ ɲi? kru:ŋ kəh ta?na:m ?a?lu:aŋ
 if say all house all country cut tree
 ɲi? ta? ?ueyh ta? ku?cah ta?na:m ?a?lu:aŋ ka? dap
 all do fire-wood do charcoal tree then finish
 ɲi? cə: ka? yi:aŋ ka? mpi:ayh mi:a læ:w
 all and then rain not rain
2. wak hay ka? ha?bi:n ta? ta?li:ŋ ha?bi:n ta? ta?ram
 group we then cannot do rice-field cannot do
 ta? suan ta? tʃay
 do garden
3. wak hay ra?nuh læ: tok læ:
 group we trouble and poor then
4. læ: ta? sa?mo?
 then do how
5. ka? kə:t ?uk?aŋ ?a?cə:n kham la?kuay ta? ta?li:ŋ ?a:say
 then be worry ascend because person do rice-field depend on
 { mɔay } da? mi:a sa?bat ta?li:ŋ da? mi:a ɲu:ac
 { mɔŋ } only water rain transplant rice-field water rain drink
6. khə:n mpi:ayh mi: da?mi:a cə:ka? tok læ:w
 if not have rain then poor

Free Translation :

If everyone chops trees to make fire-woods and charcoal, there will be no more tree. As a result, it does not rain. We (the farmers) cannot work on rice-field, cannot do gardening. This causes us poor and trouble because transplanting and gardening depend on rain only. Besides, we drink water-rain. If there is no rain, we then are poor.

Text 5 : Dialogue

A : i:t ?a?yɑ:k cə: ha? ?a?pɑy
take husband already part you

'Are you married?'

B : i:t cə:
take already

'Yes, I am.'

A : ni: kɔ:n ,chi? na?
have child how many

'How many children do you have?'

B : bi:n pɑy na? cə:
get three already

'I have had three children and I am going to have another one.'

A : lo:n mɛ? mpi:cyh kɔ:y bi:n kɔ:n mɛc ʌ:t
look same not ever have child pretty still

'You don't look like the one who has a child. You're still pretty.'

B : sɑ? pɑ? yuɑŋ hi?
don't go coax I

'Don't coax me.'

A : hi? rɑ?wɔ: loh tɔ: mɛt ha? bi:n yuɑŋ
I say out from heart not get coax

'I really mean it.'

Text 5A : Dialogue

A : dɑm mɛ? ?a?lɔŋ lɑ?
name mother call E.p.

'Dam! Mother called you.'

Dam : ?a?lɔŋ tɑ?rɔw dɑŋ hi?
call why know mak..

'For what did she call me?'

A : mpi:ayh sɑŋ pɑ:y nɑw i: wɑ:n pɑ? tɑ?lɑ:t pɑ? cɑ:ŋ ...
not hear say she want give go market go buy

'I heard that she wanted you to go to market to buy.....'

Dam : ?a?noy ! ?a?ka:ic
 lazy illy

'Oh! No. I'm reallazy.'

A : pa? ta?dah na: ?ci? mpe? mo:ho? do:k
 go quick f.p. mother angry f.p.

'Go quickly. Mother will be angry.'

Dam : mo:ho? li? bo? hay
 angry really other we

'Our mother is rely easily angry.'

A : wo: mpe? ?a?di:ntruh ?a?dah ?a?rok
 say mother fall down pot hell

'You blame mother. You may go to the hell.'

Dam : pu:a pu:a ? do:
 enough enough f.p.

'Stop! That's enagh. I'm going now.'

