PHRASES TO SENTENCES IN KUAY (SURIN)

BY

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Abstract

This Thesis describes the basic grammatical levels of the Kuay language as spoken in Ban Wan, Tambon Bukraeng, Amphoe Chomphra, Surin Province, Thailand. Kuay is a language in the Katuic Branch of the Mon-Khmer language subfamily of the Austroasiatic family.

The grammatical levels studied are phrases, clauses and sentences. The description uses the tagmemic concepts of slot and fillers.

For further study, a comparative syntactic study of Kuy or Kuay with other dialects, is suggested.

Abbreviation and Symbols

A	=	Adverbials
AA	=	Accompanying Actor
Adj	=	Adjective
adjp	=	adjective phrase
AR	=	Accompanying Recipient
Aux	=	Auxiliary verbs
B	=	Beneficiary
C	=	Causer
Cl, cl	=	Classifier
Cl.	=	Clause
Cl_{indep}	=	Clause independent
Com adv	=	Comparative adverb
Con	=	Condition
Dem, dem	=	demonstrative
dep	=	dependent
Des	=	destination
Dir, dir	=	directional
DO	=	Direct object
emph	=	emphasis
FP	=	Final particle
H	=	Head noun
I	=	Item
indep	=	independent

Int	=	Intentional verbs
Inst	=	Instrument
Intro part.	=	Introductory particle.
IO	=	Indirect object
L	=	Location
Lk, lk	=	linker
M.Cl.	=	Main clause
Mk, mk	=	marker
MV	=	main verb
n	=	noun
Neg, neg	=	negatives
n of pl	=	noun of place
np	=	noun phrase
num	=	number
Or	=	Orientation
P	=	Predicate
plu	=	plural
Poss	=	Possession
Post neg	=	Post negative
Prep	=	preposition
prep np	=	prepositional noun phrase
Pre V	=	Preverbs
Qnt	=	Quantification
Qual	=	Quality

$Qual_{inher}$	=	inherent physical qualities
$Qual_{non\ inher}$	=	non-inherent physical qualities
Re	=	Result
Redup.f	=	Reduplicative form
Ref mk	=	Reflexive marker
S	=	Subject
Sen	=	Sentence
Subor Cl.	=	Subordinate Clause
Sw	=	Self-Expressive words
T	=	Temporal
V	=	verb
vp	=	verb phrase
Vp_{bi}	=	bitransitive verb phrase
Vp_{equ}	=	equational verb phrase
Vp_{tr}	=	transitive verb phrase
Vp_{intr}	=	intransitive verb phrase
Vp_{amb}	=	ambient verb phrase
Vp_{mot}	=	motion verb phrase
Vp_{quot}	=	quotative verb phrase
Vp_{poss}	=	possessor verb phrase
Vp_{pro}	=	propulsion verb phrase
/	=	or
+	=	obligatory
±	=	optional
±...∓	=	can not occur in the same construction

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Introduction

0.0 Objective of the thesis.

This thesis is a study of the Kuay Language describing its syntax from phrases to sentences. This grammatical description is not an in-depth study, but it gives details at important points. The description of noun phrases and verb phrases will be presented first, followed by a description of clauses and sentences.

0.1 Kuay, Kuy, Suay, Lao Suay and Khmer Suay

Kuay, Kuy

Kuay [kuai] or Kuy [kuui] means "human being", but these are different from each other in that they represent different dialects.

Suay

Both Kuay and Kuy are called Suay [suai] by the local thai (thai, lao) people, and the Kuay or Kuy called themselves Suay when they speak with thai people, saying that they speak Suay and are suay people.

As Prasert Sriwises (1978 : iv) said : The term "Suai" refers to the Kui. "Suai" is the name by which the thai and Lao came to call the Kui (although the Khmer use the term "Kui"). The term appears to have originated during the early Bangkok period when the Kui were required to / sòŋ sùai / , or pay annual tribute or taxes, e.g. in the form of forest products, to Bangkok. As a result of this practice the Kui came to be called, / sùai / , "those who pay tribute," by the Thai.

- Lao Suay, Khmer Suay (Eric Seidenfaden uses the term Lāo Soai, Khmer Soai.)

Lao Suay and Khmer Suay signify Kui who have changed their mother togue for either that of Lao (Thai) or Khmer.

0.2 The data

The term Kuay in this study refers to the dialect and the speakers of Kuay at Ban Wan (Wan Village; Prasert spells it บ้านหว้าน, but my informant spelled it บ้านว่าน.) Tambon Bukraeng (บุแกรง).Amphoe Chomphra of Surin province. There are other groups of the language called Kuy by native speakers who live at Dong Bang village, Tambon ChomPhra, Amphoe ChomPhra , Surin. These villages are about eight kilometres from each other.

My main Language helper who provided the data used in this thesis is Miss Kone Bunleart (กร บุญเลิศ) (16 years old), from Wan Village where all of the people speak Kuay in their daily life. However they can speak Thai and Khmer and use them in contact with those people. (Sometimes a Kuay man speaks Kuay with a Khmer man who khows Kuay, but a Khmer will normally speak Khmer.) My language helper understands the Kuy language as spoken in many districts of Surin and other dialects in Srisaket and Buriram, but she can not understand the Kuay language at Suphanburi. (It was not known to her that there are Kuay in Suphanburi prior to her coming to Bangkok. Neither of them know each other's language, and they had to use Thai to communicate.) My language helper is a twilight student at grade 4, so she knows Thai, too.

I also had other language helpers : Miss Ramphai Phengphit (รำไพ เพ่งพิศ)-- (17 years old) for the Kuay dialect and Miss Khiaw Burana (เขียว บูรณะ)-(48 years old), and her sons and her cousins for the kuy dialect, so I could see the differences in their vowels, in some vocabutary items and in a few structural constructions, e.g. :

1. Vowels :

Kuy :	ʔanuʔ	Kuay :	ʔanoʔ	'father'
	dìaʔ		dùaʔ	'water'
	nduaj		ndɔ:j	'point (v)'

2. Vocabutary :

dìaʔ nʔɔ:j	num ʔɔ:j	'sugar'
pil maliʔ	piar dɔ:k chɔ:n	'jusmine'
khania	ndo:	'each other'

3. In Quotative clause :

naw	wa:w	dun	saʔa:t	naw	wa:w	pa:j dun	canap/ saʔa:t
he	say	house	beautiful	he	say	that have	beautiful

(He says that a house is beautiful.)

The data consists of elicited elements, free utterances, and text recorded on tape.

0.3 The place of Kuay in the Mon-Khmer Family.

Thomas and Headley (1970 : 398-418) placed Kuy in the North Katuic group of the Katuic branch of the Mon-Khmer subfamily of the Austroasiatic family, and Kenneth D. Smith (1981 : 194) placed it in

the West Katuic group.

0.4 A brief history of the Kuay or Kuy in Thailand.

Several people have written about the history of the Kuay or Kuy people, from different viewpoints, so I will present each auther's information seperately, without trying to reconcile them.

0.4.1 Prasert Sriwises (1978 : ii-iv). According to published sources : (ไพบูลย์ สุนทรารักษ์ 2503 (1960), ดำเนิร เลขะกุล 2505 (1962) and 2518 (1975), Rote Sodesiri. 1972), and oral tradition, the original homeland of the Kui (Kuy) in thailand was in various areas of the southern lao provinces of Attapeu, Champasak and Saravane. The oral tradition of the Kui in Surin province indicates that the Kui people began migrating to Surin from Muang Saen Pae (Saen Pang) and Attapeu, both located east of the Mekong River, during the reign of the Thai monarch King Narai (1656-1688). These sporadic migrations continued until the late Ayudhaya (1700-1760) period when large-scale migrations of defferent groups of Kui into Surin began, continuing up to the Dhonburi (1760-1783) period of Thai history.

Tradition further indicates that there were four main groups, each having its own chief(s) and settling in different locations in the Surin area as follows :

1. Chiefs /tɕhiaŋ pum/ and /tɕhiaŋ phɯ̀ɯt/ and followers settled at /mɯaŋ thii/ [mɯ̤ɯ̤ŋ thi̤i]. In Kui [mɯ̤ɯ̤ŋ thi̤i] means literally 'high city'. It is presently a totally Khmer-speaking village located in the eastern part of Amphoe Muang, Surin province.

2. Chief /tɕhiaŋ sǐi/ and followers settled at /bâan kùt wǎai/ presently Rattanaburi, Surin province

3. Chief /tɕhiaŋ khá? or khà?/ and followers settled at /bâan ?àttɕapanɯŋ/, presently a village in Amphoe Songkha, Surin province

4. Chief /tɕhiaŋ tɕhai/ and followers settled at /bâan tɕaaraphát/, presently a totally Khmer speaking village in the western part of Amphoe Sikhoraphum, Surin province

The Prachum Phongsawadan Phak Si (ประชุมพงศาวดาร ภาค ๔, a section of the Thai historical chronicles) mentions these four chiefs' inolvement in an episode which occured around 1760 during the Ayudhaya-period reign of Phra Chao Ekathat. The story goes that a white elephant escaped from the Ayudhaya area and fled northeast into the Pimai area (of present day Khorat province.) The four chiefs who were highly skilled in the arts of elephant hunting, assisted in the capture of the white elephant, and as a reward for their good deed were conferred titled ranks by the Thai King as follows :

1. /tɕhiaŋ pum/ was given the title of /lǔan surin sanèehǎa/ and the position of /tɕâu mɯaŋ surin/.

2. /tɕhiaŋ sǐi/ was given the title of /lǔaŋ nakhɔn tau/ and the position of /tɕâu mɯaŋ rátanáburii/.

3. /tɕhiaŋ khá?/ was given the title of/ lǔaŋ sǎŋkhàburii/ and the position of /tɕâu mɯaŋ sǎŋkhà?/.

4. /tɕhiaŋ tɕhai/ was given the title of / khǔn surijawoŋ/ and the position of /tɕâu mɯaŋ tɕaaraphát/.

Later, during the Dhonburi period of Thai history, /lŭaŋ surin sanèe hăa/ moved from /mɯaŋ thii/ and estabished a new village at /bâan kù? phathai or khuu pathai/ which still later became /mɯaŋ surin/, or the present day Surin provincial capital, at that time it was the center of the Kui-speaking people in Surin.

It is traditionally believed that the city of Surin was originally settled and inhabited by Kui-Speaking people, but that the Kui were subsequently assimilated by the Khmers who migrated into the area. The fact that the villages of /bâan tɕaaraphát/ and /mɯaŋ thii/ and, in part, the city of Surin are now Khmer-speaking may serve to substantiate this belief. It should be pointed out, however, that even though there is other evidence of this assimilation of the Kui by the Khmer (and the lao) in Surin and other areas, the question demands much more investigation-especially linguistic investigation.

0.4.2 Siriwat Khamwansa (ศิริวัฒน์ คำวันสา 1980 : 28 - 30). About 11th century A.D., the southern part of what is now North-east thailand was under the control of the /khɔ̆:m/ (Khmer) in the Land Chenla period. Then the /khɔ̆:m/ were expelled from this territory by the Lawa. Later the /khɔ̆:m/ returned and expelled the Lawa from the territory which is now Srisaket and Surin but the /khɔ̆:m/ didn't govern this territory because they feared that the Lawa would return and reassert their power over this territory again. As for the Lawa, after being expelled, they went up to the North. About 2260 B.E (1717 A.D.), Suay who lived in Attapusanpae (Near Champasak), probably were soldiers in

command of a leader of one tribe of Lao, named Khun Cuang (ขุนเจือง, not thăwhŭn thăw cɯaŋ : 1667-1708 B.E.). This tribe, were warriors and were good at caring for elephants, they liked freedom and didn't want anyone to govern them. So when Khun Cuang died, and the power of the Suay was gone, the Suay decided to leave their original territory to find a new place to live, crossed over the right side of of Mae Khong which in those days was fertile virgin forest. They crossed and recrossed the Mun River until reaching the Lamdom Rever, stayed in Amphoe Warinchamrap, then went south-west and entered Khukhan (Srisaket). They stayed at Ciang Aee, then went south to the Dongrek mountains, passed west to Sangkha, and ended up at Surin. The Suay came, at various times, to this territory in four groups.

1. Chiefs /tɕhiaŋ pum/ and /tɕiaŋ pɯ̀ɯt/ and followers settled at /mɯaŋ thii/.
2. Chiefs / tɕhiaŋ sĭi/ and followers settled at /bâan kùt wăai/ presently Rattanaburi, Surin.
3. Chief /tɕhiaŋ khá? or khà?/ and followers setted at /bâan ?àttɕapanɯŋ/, pressently a village in Sangkha, Surin.
4. Chief /tɕhiaŋ tɕhai/ and followers settled at /bâan tɕaaraphát), presently a village in Sikhoraphum, Surin.

Note, however, that in /thîaw 71 caŋwàt/ (2503 B.E : 398) said that Suay came to this territory in five groups.

1. /tɕhiaŋ khà?/ group
2. /tɕhiaŋ pɯm/ group

3. /tɕhiaŋ sǐi/ group
4. /tɕhiaŋ sǒŋ/ group, settled at /bâan muaŋ liŋ/, presently a village in Chom Phra, Surin.
5. /tɕhiaŋ phan/ group, settled at /bâan lamduan/, presently a village in Khukhan, Srisaket, Surin, and in /Prawàt mahàat thai sùan phuumiphâak/ (2526 B.E : 39) said that there were six groups coming here.

1. /tɕhiaŋ pɯm/ group, settled at /bâan muaŋ thii/
2. /tɕhiaŋ sǐi/ group, settled at /bâan kùt wǎai/
3. /tɕhiaŋ sǒŋ/ group, settled at /bâan mɯaŋ liiŋ/
4. /tɕhiaŋ khǎn/ and /taaka?tɕa?/ group settled at /bâan khôok lam duan/
5. /tɕhiaŋ khà?/ group, settled at /bâan ?àttɕa panɯŋ/
6. /tɕhiaŋ chai/ group, settled at /bâan kùt pàthai/

Siriwat also says that besides these groups, there were Suay who came into this territory at various other times. The largest immigration was in 2320 BE. (1777 A.D.) when the Dhonburi army attacked Champasak and Attapeu. In those days the Suay (in Thailand) could communicate with the /khɔ̌:m bo:ra:n/ (old Khmer) by crossing the Dongrek mountains into Cambodia, but their neighbours were Lawa and Thai (Lao). At first, they borrowed the culture of their neighbours more than that of the /khɔ̌:m/ because of living close together. In that period Khmer from Cambodia (Cambodian) emigrated to Surin too, but did not live together with the Suay.

0.4.3 Erik Seidenfaden (1952 : 175-177) : According to Professor H.J. Fleure, the Kui preceded the Khmer, who, to begin with, may

have been represented only by a warrior class. Gradually the Khmer immigrants probally wrested from the Kui the Mekhong valley and most of the Khorat plateau, as well as Central and Eastern Cambodia. In our porticular case we should think it reasonable to suppose that prior to the coming of the Khmer the plain of Ubon, Roi-Et and Udorn were populated by Kui of various tribes, while the former circles of Nakhon Rajasima, or Khorat, and Phetchabun were inhabited by Chao Bôn and perhaps some Phi Tong Luang or Yumbri.During historical times, from the 9th or 10th century A.D. and onwards, we are witness to the continuous strong southward push of the Thai along the Mekhong River. This movement of conquest was intensified and quickened during the reign of the energetic and warlike Lāo King, Phra Chao Fa Ngŏm (1353-1373), who enlarged the Kingdom of Lān Chang (Luang Phrabang) to embrace the whole of Northeast Siam. As we have seen from the foregoing this conquest of the Thai is still going going on by peaceful means. culturally as well as linguistically.

(: 161, 156) The Siamese Kui are generally divided into four main groups or tribes : the Kui M'ai, Kui M'lô, Kui Yö and Kui M'loa. The principal area in which the Kui live is to the North bordered by the Mūn river, to the southeast and South by the mountain range of Dong Rek, and to the west , partly by the Lam Chī river and Buriram province, partly by the Khmer peopled amphö of Surin, The "Kui country" is rolling and generally reaches a height of only about a hundred meters above sea level. A few very low isolated hills are met with not for to the north of the might barrier of Dong Rek. A long, low

and fairly broad ridge, consisting of red decomposed basalt, called Dong Din Daeng runs almost the entire length of this territory, from the northeast in amphö Det Udom southwestward into the territory of amphö Sougkhà, where it ends. All these territeries are considered the home of the Kui people.

0.4.4 Cit Phumisak (จิตร ภูมิศักดิ์ 2519 432-446) : The territory of the Suay is a forest between the Mun River and Dong Rek mountains; from Buriram, Surin, Sisaket to Ubonratchathani. Most of the Suay people live the south of the Mun River but they do not live together with the Khmer in Surin province. There are Suay north of the Mun River too. but only a few, except in Amphoe Suwannawaree (Khong Ciam) and Khemmaraat, northeast of Ubonratchathani, where many Suay live.

Of these four provinces, Sisaket is the province where there are the most Suay. About 2450 B.E., Sisaket was still a Suay province, but there were some Lao Wiang (Lao of Vientiane Branch) living there too. However the culture of the Lao is superior, so the Suay assimilated to the Laos and most of them become Laos. Suay in this territory, originally were called /khamĕ:n pà: doŋ/ meaning "Khmer of the jungle.' These Suay had their original territory in Attapeu, Campasak and Sarawan of Laos. The elephent Suay (who care for elephents) in Surin emigrated from Sanepang and Attapeu, on the left side of Khong River in Southern Lao, to Surin province in King Narai's reign (2199-2231 BE.), and settled in Sikhoraphum, Sangkha, Rattanaburi etc. These emigrants are called in Lao : Khā but they are called by thais : /Khamĕ:n pà: doŋ/.

In the Dhonburi and early Rattanakosin period (2320-2350 B.E) the Thai army attacked Campasak, Khong, and Attapeu, and brought many /khamɛ̌:n pà: don/ to Surin and Sisaket. Later /khamɛ̌:n pà: don/ were brought in at various times setting many /khamɛ̌:n pà: don/ towns.

These people are called Suay as Eric Seidenfaden (1952 : 158) said that : "During the reign of Phra Nang Klao (1824-1851) a census was taken of this part of Northeast Siam, and the population was divided for taxation purposes into Lao, Khmer and Suai (Kui.). Today, or rather already for more than forty years now, the names Lāō Soai, and Khmer Soai have come to signify Kui who have changed their mother tongue for either that of Lāō (Thai) or Khmer." But Suay always call themselves Kuay, meaning in their tongue "human being."

0.5 The location of Kuay or Kuy

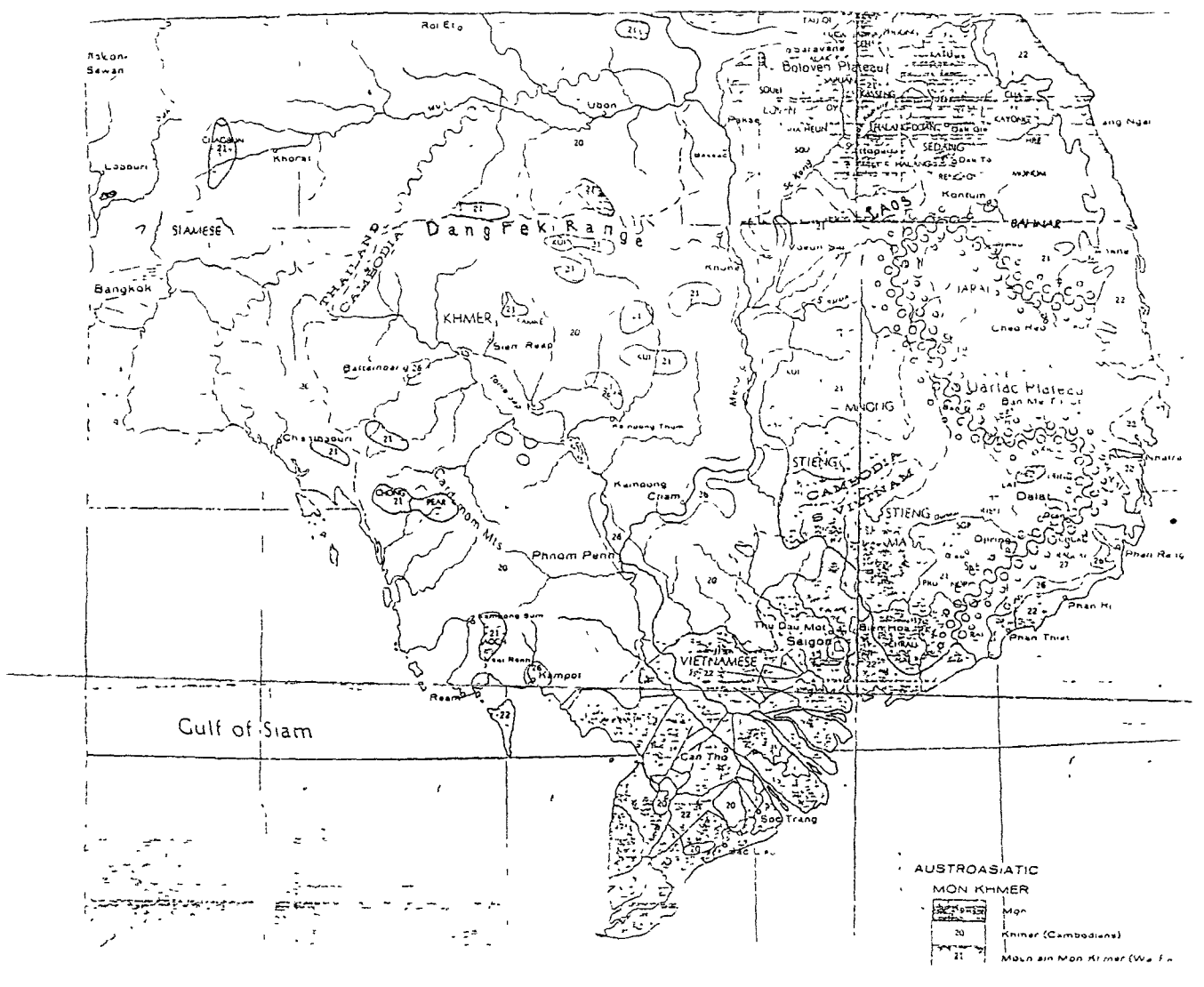
0.5.1 Location of Kuy

Frank M. Lebar (1964 : 159) : The majority of the Kui, estimated at over 100,000, are in the Siamese provinces of Surin, Sisaket, Ubon, and Roi Et; those in Cambodia are primarily in the northern Siem Reap Kampong Thom Area. (See map. 1)

0.5.2 'Solid Core' Kuy area

William A. Smalley (1964 : 20) : The Kuy solid core area is much smaller than the Khmer solid area. Both are doubtless shrinking slowly, as is probably the over-all distribution of both groups. However, in areas where land is being fully used new villages of different ethnolinguistic composition are not likely to penetrate

Map 1 The Location of Kuy in Cambodia



(Map copied from Frank M.Lebar 1964)

very rapidly. How much of the area is likely to remain solid Khmer or Kuy for some time to come due to this reason we cannot predict without a survey of land use, and other relevant factors. (See map 2)

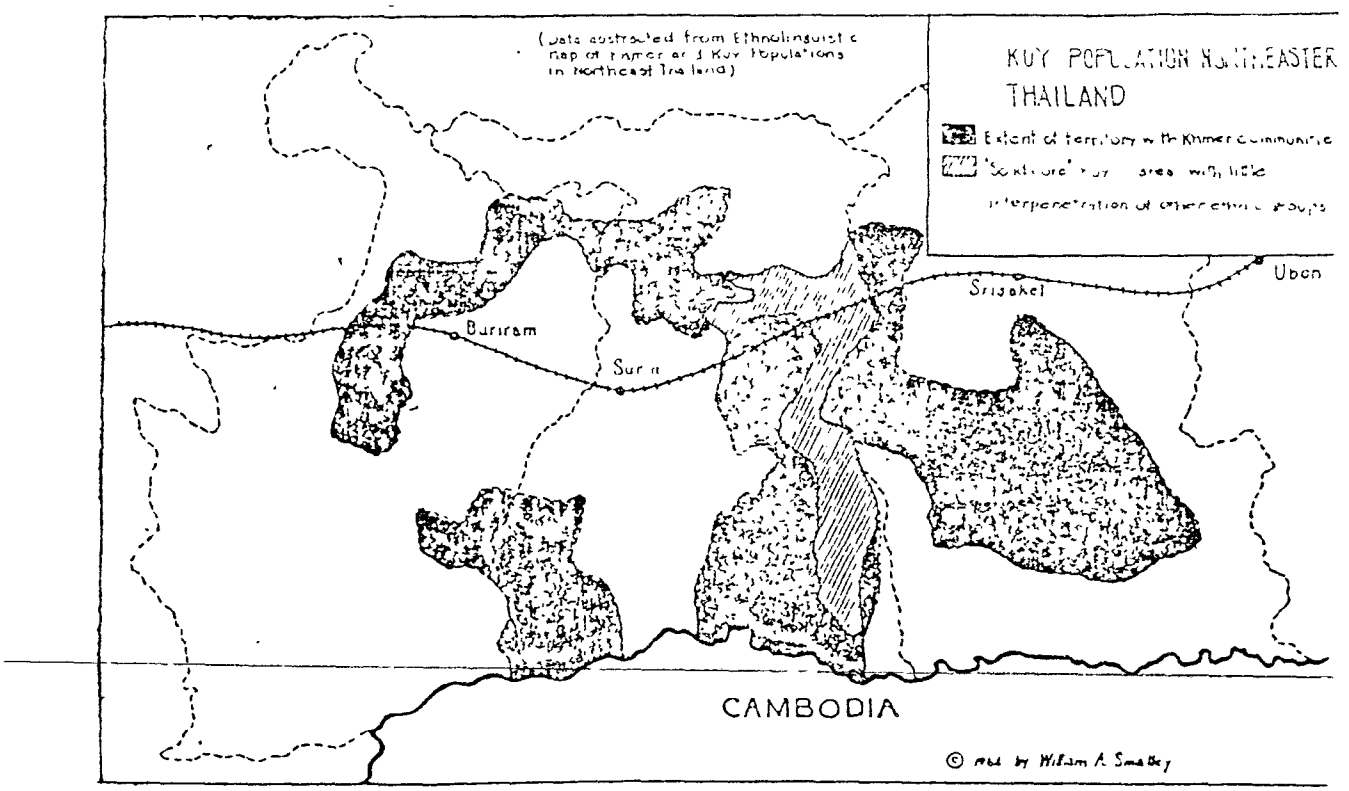
0.5.3 Kui tribes and clans in Northeast Siam.

Eric Seidenfaden (1952 - : 161-175) : Our Siamese Kui are generally divided into four main groups, or tribes ; the Kui M'ai of the east with some scattered clans in the west; the Kui M'lô in the east, center and west and the north, the Kui Yö of the center and in the north and the Kui M'loa in the center and the West. As a matter of fact we shall see that they are divided into several more tribes or clans.

We shall now treat the various Kui groups from east to west according to the amphö (districts) in which they live, or were living back in the years of 1917-19 when we were in contact with them. In doing so we shall begin with the northeastern part of changvat Ubon, with amphö Khemarat, which, as will be seen from the accompanying sketch map (See map 3.), comprises a long stretch of country lying between the low forest-clad range of Phu Phān and the mighty Mekhong river. The Kui living here are of the M'lô tribe, their villages lying in the southern part of the district, in 1917 they numbered about 3,550 souls. The remainder of the population of this amphö were Thai or Lāo Kāo in the central part (Prachumphongsawadarn section 4 called Lāo who cross from Wieng Can to Thailand, Thai while called Lāo who lived in Campasak and Ubon, Lāo Kāo.), and Phuthai in the northern part, where also lived a small colony of Khā Brao and Khā lovae who had come over from the other side of Mekhong.

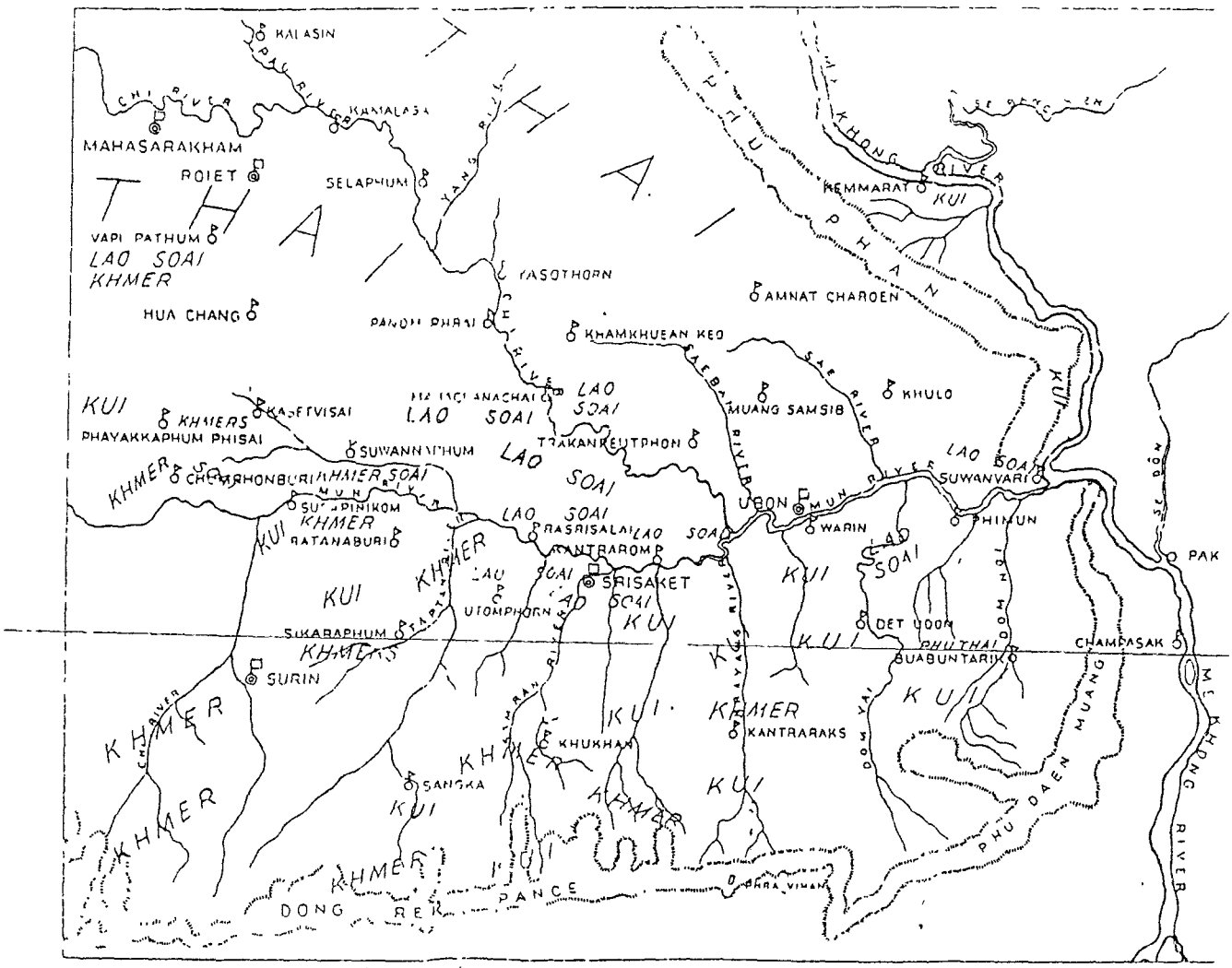
Map 2 Kuy Population Northeastern Thailand :-

' Solid Core ' Kuy area.



(Map copied from William A.Smalley 1964 : 26)

Map 3 Sketch map showing habitat of Various Kui tribes and clans in North East Siam



Sketch map showing habitat of various Kui tribes and clans in North East Siam

(Map copied from Eric Seidenfaden 1952 : 181)

South of the district of Khemarat lies the wild mountainous and tiger-infested amphö Suvarnavari that extends right down to the Mūn at its out let in the great river, and for a short distance below the same. The inhabitants, besides lāo Kāo, were Kui M'lô. Some Lāo Vieng were also living here. Old people, when questioned, replied that formerly the entire territory of the two amphö of Khemarat and Suvarnavari were inhabited solely by Kui, probably all of them M'lô. There were also living some 800 Lāo Soai, former M'lô.

We will now cross over the Mūn river to the amphö of Phimūn Mangsahān. Though at present peopled by numerous Lāo Kāo there can be no doubt that it really is old Kui territory, and as a matter of fact there were still over 2,300 Lāo Soai, former Kui M'ai, living there. To the west of this amphö lies that of Warinchamrap, just opposite the large, properous town of Ubonrajadhani, capital of the former circle of the same name. In 1917 the population of this amphö was made up of Lāo Kāo and Phuthai, besides 11,400 Lāo Soai, former Kui M'ai, and 2,300 pure Kui M'ai, still speaking their mother tongue.

To the south and southeast of amphö Warinchamrap is the extensive amphö of Det Udom which includes the sub-amphö of Bān Bao Buntharik, the territory of the latter extending right down to the Dong Rek range. Its population consisted in 1917, besides lāo and Phuthai, of some 6,700 Lāo Soai, former Kui M'ai and Yö and 3,800 pure Kui M'ai.

The ampho of Kantraraks lies to the southwest of Det Udom. The population consisted in 1917 of 15,000 Khmer, 148,000 Kui M'lô,

850 Kui Kantoa and 1,000 Lāō Viengchan colonists. There were Khmer neighbours. Living among the Khmer were some Khmer Soai, former Kui M'ai.

To the north of amphŏ Kantraraks, lying between the amphŏ of Warinchamrap and Srisaket, is the amphŏ of Kantra-rom. The population consisted of Thai people and Kui, the latter being in the majority. There were 3,530 M'lô, 2,600 M'loa, 2,500 M'ai, 1,630 Höt and 1,120 Yŏ, besides 7,600 Lāō Soai, former Kui M'lô, Yŏ and Höt; the Thai element numbered some 5,300 persons, Lāō Kāō and Vieng, Thai Korat and Phuthai (4,400).

The amphŏ of Srisaket, the head district of the changvat of the same name, was formerly all Kui. Even today, when all the inhabitants speak Thai or Lāō (with a peculiar accent) they are commonly called Soai Srisaket. The population in 1917 numbered over 27,000, of which only one-seventh were of pure Thai blood : there were approximately 17,000 Lāō Soai, former Yŏ and M'lô, with a sprinkling of Khmer who now all speak the Lāō Kāō dialect, furthermore 5,850 Kui M'lo, 110 M'ai and 300 Khmer. To the east of mŏang Srisaket, in Bān Phônsai and Dôn there lived Kui Yŏ mixed with Phuthai settlers. Bān Nôn Kwauv and four more villages were also said to be Kui Yŏ, though some thought the villagers were rather Thai Yüai come down from the north. The large old fortified village called Bān Lamduan Yai, south of mŏang Srisaket, is inhabited by Lāō Soai, former Kui M'lô, though we suppose them rather to be former Yŏ as the possess the old Yŏ tradition about which more anon. Another Lāō Soai village

is lying south of this old fortress, but further south all is Khmer, right down to the border hills.

The amphö of möang Khukhan, which formerly gave its name to the present province of Srisaket. The population consisted in 1917 of 32,000 Khmer, 6,260 Lāo Vieng settlers and 17,800 Kui, divided in 12,450 M'lô, 2,250 M'ai, 1,240 Yö and 470 Pörr, besides 1,400 Lāo Soai (formerly Kui M'lô). The Khmer living to the east of the town included some Khmer Soai.

The amphö of Rasrisalai. The population consisted in 1917 of some 2,700 Kui Yö and 23,000 Lāo Soai (formerly Yö).

Amphö Uthumphornphisai. Of the 29 tambons (village groups) 22 were Lāo Soai with 38,380 former Kui Yö, M'lô and M'loa; 3 were pure Kui, 2 were Khmer Soai, and 2 were Khmer mixed with Lāo and Phuthai. The Khmer Soai were former Kui M'loa; the pure Kui were divided intc 5,780 M'loa, 2,090 M'lô, 1,720 Kandrau, 900 M'ai and only 100 Yö. Thai people included 1,450 Phuthai and 1,200 Lāo Vieng.

Amphö Ratanaburi is situated to the northwest of Uthumphornphisai. The population is 1917 numbered 24,000-odd persons; viz : 21,780 Lāo Soai, former Kui M'lô, 2,440 Kui M'lô, 130 Khmer Soai, also former M'lô and 420 Khmer, besides a sprinkling of Thai Khorat traders.

To the south of amphö Ratanaburi is the amphö of Sikharaphum with its civil headquarters at Bān Anan. The numbers for the various ethnic groups were then given as follows : 13,000 Kui M'loa, 4,300 Kui M'lô, 5,900 Lāo Soai, formen M'loa, 4,300 Khmer Soai, former M'lô and 3,200 Lāo Vieng, the latter being new-comers; there were also 3,900 Khmer.

Amphŏ Suraphinikhom lies to the northwest of amphŏ Ratanaburi and north of amphŏ Sikharaphum and amphŏ Surin. The population numbered in 1917 same 45,000 individuals, mostly Môn-Khmer people. The figures given were 11,200 Kui M'lô, 1,560 Kui M'ai, 12,600 Khmer Soai, 8,250 Lāo Soai and 1,500 Khmer. The Thai elements included 8,250 Lāo Kāo, 420 Lāo Vieng and 400 Thai Korat.

Amphŏ Chumponburi lies on the northern bank of the Mūn river, to the west of Suraphinikŏm. In 1917 there were living in this district about 13,000 Khmer Soai, former Kui M'lô, as were also the 1,900 Lāo Soai, same 400 Thai Khorat and about 6,000 Lāo Kāo.

Amphŏ Phakhaphumphisai is the most Southwestern of the amphŏ of Changvat Roi-Et. Its population in 1917 consisted of 2,000 Kui M'lô, 1,100 Kui Yŏ, 400 Lāo Soai, former M'lô. There were 1,350 Khmer and many Thai; viz : 14,500 Lāo Kāo and 1,350 Thai Khorat.

From this northern excursion we will go south to the amphŏ of Surin, which is westernmost of the amphŏ of the changvat of the same name; it is generally accounted to be a Khmer district.

Amphŏ Sangkhà is the last Kui-peopled district to be treated. It is situated to the south of amphŏ Surin and Sikharaphum and thus west of Khakhan; its western border adjoins the territory of amphŏ Prakhonchai of changvat Buriram while to the south it borders on Cambodia. The population in 1917 numbered altogether 23,400 individuals, of which number 13,200 were Khmer and 10,200 Kui M'lô. Near the border, as well as further east, south of Khukhan, we were told that there

lived Khā̃ people -- others said Chām. We suppose they were simply Kui Pörr. It may be added that the Khmer living along the frontier, the so-called Khmer Dong or Khmer Pā are in general not culturally superior to the Kui at all.

Beulan M. Johnston (1976 : 259) says,"In Thailand there are two principal dialects of Kuy-Kuy and Kuy Mla - with in - numerable sub-dialects showing marked differences in pronunciation and occasional differences in vocabulary." For example, we can divide them clearly by the word which means 'what', in that

Kuy	Kuy	uses	nɑ:
Kuy	Mla	uses	mlɑ:
and the other Kuys		use	mluɑ?

0.5.4 The Prsent Location of the Kuay (Kuy) in thailand.

Prasert Sriwises (1978 : iv-vi) says that almost all of the present day Kui-speaking population in Northeastern Thailand is found between the Mun River and the Dong Rek Mountains, which form the Thai-Cambodian border. The largest concentrations are to be found scattered throughout the province of Surin and Sisaket (See map. 4). There are other groups of villages in the districts in the of eastern and southern parts of Ubon-Ratchathani province, through which, it is traditionally believed, the various Kui migrations from southern Laos passed. Smaller pockets of Kui settlements are to be found scattered throughout most of Buriram province, and in the district of both Nakhon Ratchasima (Khorat) and Mahasarakham provinces. Most of

Map 4 Map Showing Amphoes where Kui-Speaking Villages Are Located

X = Location of Ban Wan

(Map copied from Prasert Sriwises 1978 : V)

the kui villages in Buriram (and Nakhon Ratchasima) are called /bâan mài/ or [so?tmai] 'new villages' by the Kui in Surin and Srisaket As they represent relatively recent migrations from Surin and Srisaket into those provinces. (However my language helper Kone Bunlert, does not know the term so? tmaj.) Some of the Kui villages in Buriram, however, plus those in Mahasarakham and those that may exist (or may have existed) in Roi-Et province,are a remnant of the formerly larger Kui population.

The districts of these provinces where Kui are located are :

Nakhon Ratchasima.	(นครราชสีมา)
1. Huai Thalaeng	(ห้วยแถลง)
Maha Sarakham	(มหาสารคาม)
1. Phayakkhaphum Phisai	(พยัคฆภูมิพิสัย)
BuriRam	(บุรีรัมย์)
1. Satuk	(สะตึก)
2. Muang	(เมือง)
3. Krasang	(กระสัง)
4. Lam Plai Mat	(ลำปลายมาศ)
5. Nong Ki	(หนองกี่)
6. Prakhon Chai	(ประโคนชัย)
7. Ban Kruat	(บ้านกรวด)
Surin	(สุรินทร์)
1. Chumphon Buri	(ชุมพลบุรี)
2. Tha Tum	(ท่าตูม)
3. Rattanaburi	(รัตนบุรี)
4. Chom Phra	(จอมพระ)

5. Sanom	(สนม)
6. Samrong Thap	(สำโรงทาบ)
7. Sikhoraphum	(ศีขรภูมิ)
8. Muang	(เมือง)
9. Sangkha	(สังขะ)
10. Prasat	(ปราสาท)
11. Kap Choeng	(กาบเชิง)
Si Sa Ket	(ศรีสะเกษ)
1. Uthumphon Phisai	(อุทุมพรพิสัย)
2. Muang	(เมือง)
3. Kanthararom	(กันทรารมย์)
4. Prang Ku	(ปรางค์กู่)
5. Phrai Bung	(ไพรบึง)
6. Khu Khan	(ขุขันธ์)
7. Khun Han	(ขุนหาญ)
8. Kantharalak	(กันทรลักษ์)
Ubon Ratchathani	(อุบลราชธานี)
1. Khong Chiam	(โขงเจียม)
2. Warin Chamrap	(วารินชำราบ)
3. Det Udom	(เดชอุดม)
4. Na chaluai	(นาจะหลวย)
5. Nam Yun	(น้ำยืน)

0.6 General Background of the Kuay people in Ban Wan. (Wan village.)

The Kuay people have do not have a special culture.

They behave like the thai people. Normally they speak Kuay in their daily life but they will switch to thai or Khmer when they contact with Thais or Khmers.

The customs and religious practices of the Kuay are almost the same as the Thais, they are apparently Buddhists but basically they believe in spirits. The spirit they fear the most is called pɔ:p. My language helper told me that she really believes in pɔ:p, and everybody in the villages accepts that there are pɔ:p. They also believe in mɔ̌:phǐ: 'shamans' who cure patients and conquer pɔ:p. A pɔ:p is a mɔ̌:phǐ: who is bad-behaved in his previous life.

The Kuay of Ban Wan have no waj khrá? khɛ̌ɛ ceremony-smpà? phra khɛɛ 'to worship the moon' as the Kuay in Suphanburi do (Pailin Yantreesingh 1981 : 7)

0.7 The phonological system of Kuay in Ban Wan.

0.7.1 Word Patterns

Kuay words may be either monosyllabic : haj 'I', caw 'come', phɯ̀:t 'big', or disyllabic : ?acɔ: 'dog', sajɯ:n 'stand', taphat 'six'. In disyllabic words, the first syllable is unstressed, and generally it has a neutral vowel a as its nucleus (Many a: of Kuy in Ban Tael often became a, too. as Prasert Sriwises point out (1978 : ๗)).

The Kuay language has a system of two registers of voice quality. The first register is the syllables with normal vowels and higer pitch which is unmarked in my transcription. The second register

is syllables with breathy vowels and lower pitch which is marked by a grave accent over the vowel. It means that the feature of voiced quality is distinctive or contrastive, as :

?op	· put in an oven	(Normal)
?ò̤p	· boil	(Breathy voice)

A monosyllabic word consists of a consonant initial, which can be simple or complex, a vocalic nucleus, which may be simple or complex, and with or without a simple consonantal final : ca: 'eat', ɲɔ? 'source', priàt 'banana', dwà?'water', nthruaj 'hen', thus a cluster of up to 3 initial consonants can occur.

A disyllabic word consists of a simple consonantal initial, a central vowel a as a presyllable, plus a major syllable in which the pattern is like the monosyllable word pattern : ?atria 'mushroom', ?atrià? 'buffalo', ?acɛ̆:m 'bird'.

0.7.2 Consonant

Ban Wan Kuay has 22 consonants :

	Bilabial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Vl. unasp. stops	p	t	c	k	?
Vl. asp. stops	ph	th	ch	kh	
Vd. stops	b	d			
Nasals	m	n	ɲ	ŋ	
fricatives	f	s			h
approximant	w		j		
lateral		l			
Vibrant		r			

All of these consonants can be an initial consonant, only 14 consonants can be a final consonants.

Final Consonants :

p		k	?
m		ɲ	ŋ
			h
w		j	
	l,r		

The Consonant phonemes of Kuay of Suphanburi (Pailin 1980 : 93) are 21, that is no /f/, and consonants of Kuy of Ban Tael (Prasert 1978 : vii) are 23, that is having /dʑ/, too. In Kuay both in Ban-Wan and in Suphanburi /j/ corresponds to /dʑ/of Kuy of Ban Tael as :

dʑɯɯŋ jɯɯŋ 'foot'.

0.7.3 Vowels

Kuay has 22 simple vowels, and 3 diphthongs :

	Front		Central		Back	
	short	long	short	long	short	long
Close	i	i:	ɯ	ɯ:	u	u:
Half-Close	e	e:	ə	ə:	o	o:
Half-Open	ɛ	ɛ:	ʌ	ʌ:	ɔ	ɔ:
Open			a	a:	ɑ	ɑ:
Diphthong	ia		ɯa		ua	

Kuay of Suphanburi has no /ɑ:/, /ʌ:/ but the Kuy of Ban Tael (Surin) has both /ɑ:/ and /ʌ:/ like the Kuay of Ban Wan.

Concerning diphthongs, they are the same in the three places that have been investigated.

Chapter I

Noun phrases

1.0 General Statement

Kuay noun phrases have noun or noun-like elements as their head. They function normally as fillers of clause participant slot (Sec. 3.0); filling the subject, direct object, indirect object or peripheral slots. And they may function as Location or time setting at the sentence rank.

The general form of the Kuay noun phrase can be described as :

+ H :n ± Qual : adj/v ± (+ Qnt : num + Cl : cl) ± Or : dem

The general noun phrase in Kuay normally consists of an obligatory head slot followed by an optional Quality slot, an optional Quantification plus classifier, and an optional orientation slot.

The head slot is filled by nouns (Sec. 1.1), the Quality slot is filled by adjectives or verbal adjectives (Sec.1.2), or verbs (Sec. 1.3), Quantification by numbers (Sec. 1.4), Classifier by Classifiers (Sec. 1.5) and Orientation by demonstratives (Sec. 1.6) For example;

	H	Qual	Qnt	Cl	Or	
1.	duŋ	phɯ̀:t	paj	duŋ	tuh	
	house	big	3	cl	dem(there)	Those three big houses
2.	duŋ	phɯ̀:t			kɔj	
					dem(that)	that big house.
3.	duŋ	phɯ̀:t	paj	duŋ		Three big houses.
4.	duŋ	si:bɔ:?				
		white				White house.

For the head noun, when it is modified by two Quality slots, of which one is an inherent physical quality and the other is a non-inherent physical quality, the form of the Kuay noun phrase will normally be like this :

$$H \pm Qual_{non\text{-}inher} : \{canap\} \pm Qnt \pm Cl \pm Qual_{inher} : \{phw\grave{:}t\} \pm Or$$

For example;

1. duŋ canap paj duŋ phẁ:t tuh
   house beautiful 3 cl big those
   (Those three big beautiful houses.)

but they can occasionally be reversed as :

$$H \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \pm Qual_{non\text{-}inher} \pm Qual_{inher} \\ \pm Qual_{inher} \pm Qual_{non\text{-}inher} \end{array} \right\} \pm Qnt \pm Cl \pm Or.$$

For example :

2. duŋ canap phẁ:t paj duŋ tuh
   (Same meaning as 1.)

~~3. duŋ phẁ:t canap paj duŋ tuh~~
   (Same meaning as 1.)

When modifying by three Quality slots, it is :

$$H \pm \begin{bmatrix} Qual_1 \\ Qual_2 \\ Qual_3 \end{bmatrix} \pm \begin{bmatrix} Qual_2 \\ Qual_1 \\ Qual_1 \end{bmatrix} \pm Qnt \pm Cl \pm \begin{bmatrix} Qual_3 \\ Qual_3 \\ Qual_2 \end{bmatrix} \pm Or$$

For example :

1. duŋ canap si:bɔ:? paj duŋ phẁ:t tuh
   house beautiful white 3 cl big those

2. duŋ si:bɔ:? canap paj duŋ phùa:t tuh

3. duŋ phùa:t canap paj duŋ si:bɔ:? tuh

(1, 2, 3 - Those three white big beautiful houses.)

It can also be

$$H \pm \left\{ \begin{array}{l} Qual_1 \pm Qual_2 \pm Qual_3 \\ Qual_2 \pm Qual_1 \pm Qual_3 \\ Qual_3 \pm Qual_1 \pm Qual_2 \end{array} \right\} \pm Qnt \pm Cl \pm Or.$$

For example :

4. duŋ canap si:bɔ:? phùa:t paj duŋ tuh

5. cɯŋ si:bɔ:? canap phùa:t paj duŋ tuh

6. duŋ phùa:t canap si:bɔ:? paj duŋ tuh

(4, 5, 6 - Same meaning as 1, 2, 3.)

Every class of adjectives can fill each slot. In text, I found no more than one Quality slot but in elicited data up to three Quality slots have been permitted.

As for the possessor, it can occur in three positions, as in the formula;

$$+ H \pm Poss : (\pm \underline{khaŋ/haŋ} + n) \pm Qual \pm Qnt \pm Cl \mp Poss$$

$$(+ \underline{khaŋ/haŋ} + n) \pm Or \mp Poss : (+ \underline{khaŋ/haŋ} + n)$$

That is, an optional possessive slot can occur immediately after the head noun, where it has an optional linker khaŋ/haŋ plus

an obligatory possessor noun, or it can occur after the Classifier or after the Orientation, where the linker khaŋ/haŋ is obligatory, plus an obligatory possessor.

For details on the fillers of the possessive slot see Sec. 1.7 Possessives.

1.1 Nouns

Nouns are those items that can occur in the head slot and possessor slot of a noun phrase. They may be :

1.1.1 Phonological form types.

Nouns may be divided phonologically into monosyllabic, and disyllabic.

Some monosyllabic nouns are :

duŋ	'house'
prìat	'banana'
dwà?	'water'
kɛ:w	'bottle'
cɔ:k	'glass'
khial	'bee'
triam	'spade'

Some disyllabic nouns are :

?a:trìa?/?atrìa?	'buffalo'
?a:cɔ:/?acɔ:	'dog'
?a:cɛ:m/?acɛ:m	'bird'

nthrɛ̀:l	'egg'
nthruaj	'hen'
mpial	'flower'
n?o:l	'wasp'
taruam	'word'

1.1.2 Grammatical function types

Noun may be divided grammatically into common nouns, personal pronouns, personal names and measurement nouns.

1.1.2.1 Common nouns : They are the general nouns as;

dɯ̀a?	'water'
do:j	'rice'
mpial	'flower'
nthruaj	'hen'
nthrɛ̀:l	'egg'
thabɯa	'door'

etc...

1.1.2.2 Personal pronouns : the Kuay common personal pronouns which I found most often are : haj 'I', ma:n 'you', naw 'he/she', ?aj 'it/she/he'. These may be used as plurals by modification with mo: preceding singular pronoun such as, mo:haj 'we', mo: ma:n 'you-plu'.), mo:naw 'they' and mo:?aj 'they'

The most common kinship terms used as pronouns are :

ʔano? thùat/no? thùat	'grandfather's father'	to a respected man.
ʔano? thaw/no? thaw	'grand father'	
ʔano? phɯ̀:t/no? phɯ̀:t	'uncle'	
ʔano?	'father'	
ʔamɛ̀? thùat/mɛ̀? thùat	'grandfather's mother'	to a respected woman.
ʔamɛ̀? thaw/mɛ̀? thaw	'grandmother'	
ʔamɛ̀? phɯ̀:t/ mɛ̀? phɯ̀:t	'aunt'	
ʔamɛ̀?	'mother'	

ʔapəj	'mother's younger sibling'	to a middle aged man or woman.
ʔaɲi:	'father's younger sibling'	

ʔapəj to a younger sister-in-law.

ʔaɲi: to a younger brother-in-law.

~~sa:j~~ 'older sibling' to an older young man or young woman.

sɛ:m 'younger sibling' to a young man or young woman.

kamɔ:n 'nephew, grandchild' to clearly younger people.

talɛ̀:p to older brother or older sister in law.

'ʔapəj, ʔaɲi:' can be used by an older brother -in-law to call his wife's younger sister and younger brother.

'no? phɯ̀:t, mɛ̀? phɯ̀:t' can be used by a younger brother-in-law to call his wife's older brother and older sister.

All simple kin terms can be used in direct address to the appropriate kin.

1.1.2.3 Personal names : I found personal names occasionally occuring in the head slot or possessive slot in noun phrases.

1. duŋ haŋ dɛ:ŋ
   house of Daeng
   (Daeng's house.)

2. duŋ ?adɛ:ŋ
   house Daeng
   (Daeng's house.)

3. dɛ:ŋ bɯa na? dam
   Daeng two cl Dam
   (Daeng and Dam (two persons).)

1.1.2.4 Measurement nouns : They are nouns used in measurement, normally ~~modified by a Quantity (Sec. 1.10.2)~~, as :

bɯa	me:t	'two metres'
2	metre	
sɔ:ŋ	kama:	'five years'
5	year	
paj	kilo:	'three kilograms'
3	kilogram	

Question words, such as : daj 'who', na: 'what' can occur in the noun phrases too, functioning as nouns, but they can not take any

numbers, classifiers, adjectives and demonstratives.

daj/kadaj 'who' can be in either clause initial position or clause final position, as :

1. daj caw
   who come
   (Who comes ?)

2. caw tiŋ daj
   come with who
   (With whom do (you) come (here) ?)

3. naw cam daj
   he wait who
   (For whom does he wait ?)

4. duŋ nɛ: kʌ:t haŋ daj
   house this is belong to who
   (To whom does this house belong ?)

na: normally is in clause - final position (1, 2) or is in the post - position slot of main verb in Existential Clause (3).

1. naw wɑ: na:
   he do what
   (What does he do ?)

2. nɛ: khɯ: na:
   this is what
   (What is this ?)

3. kʌ:t nɑ: kua tiŋ ca:n
have what is in dish
(What is in the dish ?)

1.1.3 Internal structure types

Nouns are divided as Simple noun, compound noun and complex noun.

1.1.3.1 Simple noun : composed of a single word, as :

duŋ	'house'
?uh	'light'
dɯ̀a?	'water'
sa:j	'older sibling'
sɛ:m	'younger sibling'
?acɔ:	'dog'
nthruaj	'hen'
mpe:t	'knife'
khanɯa	'friend'
kadɯah	'paper'

1.1.3.2 Compound nouns : Compound nouns in Kuay may be formed by simply juxtaposing or linking nouns together with compound markers, which can be divided into equivalent, contrastive, alternative and additive.

1.1.3.2.1 Equivalent compounding (appositive, equivalence) is a common form of compounding (usually found in a tale, a story).

The regular form is a general noun as the first noun, with a pronoun as the second noun which is restating the first noun within the noun phrase. It is probably a form of topic marking, and it occurs only in the subject slot of a clause, as :

1. ʔacɔ: ʔaj mprɔ:n
   dog it run
   (A dog runs.)

2. ʔadɛ:ŋ naw ci:
   Daeng he go
   (Daeng goes.)

3. naw mɔh pa:j, 'ʔaja? ma:ŋ wa: na:."
   he ask that Aja you do what
   (He asks what do you do, Aja ?)

4. nɛ: ʔaja? naw kʌ? pa:j...
   Intro part. Aja she then say
   (then Aja said.....)

I found sometimes the first half of the compound is a general noun plus a demonstrative, while the second half is a personal name or a relative clause. There is a slight pause between the two halves, as :

1. kuaj kəj , dɛ:ŋ | ci: talà:t
   person that Daeng go market
   (That man named Daeng goes to the market.)

2. kuaj kəj , chamɯh dɛ:ŋ | ci: talà:t

named-Relative Cl.

(Same meaning as 1.)

There is also a construction with a pronoun before a common noun, when a person or animal under discussion suddenly appears, as :

khì: | ?aj ?acɔ:

that it dog

(There ! That's the dog.)

1.1.3.2.2 Contrastive Compounding : compounding pairs a noun with its negated opposite marked by pi? mɛ:n or pi? kʌ:t, as :

1. ?ano? pi? mɛ:n ?amɛ̀? | ci: talà:t

father not real mother vp

(father, not mother) - go to the market.

2. ?ano? pi? kʌ:t ?amɛ̀? | ci: talà:t

father not is mother vp

(father, not mother)

1.1.3.2.3 Alternative Compounding : it permits a choice from usually two nouns linked by --rɯh-- or pi?--kʌ?--

1. ?ano? rɯh ?amɛ̀? | ci: talà:t

father or mother vp

(Father or mother.)

2. pi? ?ano? kʌ? ?amɛ̀? | ci: talà:t
   not father so mother | vp
   (Either father or mother.)

1.1.3.2.4 Additive Compounding : combines usually two related nouns linked by --na?--, --naŋ--, tiŋ--tiŋ, --naŋ--naŋ, --bɯa na?-, --naŋ.

1. ?ano? na? ?amɛ̀?
   father and mother
   (father and mother)

2. ?ano? naŋ ?amɛ̀?
   with
   (Same as 1.)

3. tiŋ ?ano? tiŋ ?amɛ̀?
   both both
   (both father and mother)

4. ?ano? naŋ ?amɛ̀? naŋ
   with with
   (Same as 1.)

5. dɛ:ŋ bɯa na? dam
   Daeng two cl Dam
   (Daeng and Dam (two persons))

6. ?ano? ?amɛ̀? naŋ
   with
   (Same as 1.)

The most common form of addition in Kuay is two nouns combined together without any additive markers, as :

1. ?ano? ?amɛ̀?
   father mother
   (Father and mother.)

2. ?acɔ: ?ali:?
   dog pig
   (Dog and pig.)

1.1.3.3 Complex nouns have two forms.

1.1.3.3.1 A generic term followed by a specific name, as :

?aka: sakaɲ 'a carp' (fish - carp)

The {sakaɲ} class of fish names almost always have the ?aka: with it.

There is a {kro:c/mɔ:n} class of nouns, which are names of trees. They can all be used in complex forms with khal 'tree' and sala: 'leaf' but only the {kro:c} subclass can be used with plaj 'fruit'.

For example :

khal	kro:c	'orange tree'	(tree - orange)
khal	priàt	'banana tree'	(tree - banana)
khal	mɔ:n	'mulberry tree'	(tree - mulberry)

sala:	kro:c	'orange leaf'	(leaf - orange)
sala:	prìat	'banana leaf'	(leaf - banana)
sala:	mɔ:n	'mulberry leaf'	(leaf - mulberry)
plaj	kro:c	'orange'	(fruit - orange)
plaj	prìat	'an unripe banana'	(fruit - banana)

There is no plaj preceding prìat when it means a ripe banana.

The {kro:c} subclass consists of ....

kro:c	'orange'
khɔŋ	'mango'
lahɑŋ	'papaya'
to:ŋ	'coconut'
prìat	'banana'
saɗwa	'guava'
ʔaphò:n	'hog plum'
ŋkʌŋ	'egg-plant'
mfal	'(in thai) lép mɛ:w'
ta:l	'fan palm'
nkʌŋ samù:t	'potato' etc.....

The {kro:c/mɔ:n} subclass consists of the {kro:c} subclass

plus

mɔ:n	'mulberry'
dɔ:k chɔ:n	'jasmine'
ŋthe?	'chilli'

etc....

1.1.3.3.2 A general noun preceded by a part of that noun, as :

plaj lɔ:ŋ 'fruit' (fruit - tree)

khal lɔ:ŋ 'a tree' (trunk - tree)

lɔ:ŋ comes from ʔalɔ:ŋ 'a piece of wood'

1.2 Adjective qualities.

Adjectives occur in the Quality slot. All adjectives are verbal adjectives in that they can function either as verbal predicates or adjectives.

1. duŋ canap nɛ:
   house beautiful this
   (This beautiful house.)

2. dun nɛ: canap
   house this beautiful
   (This house is beautiful.)

When only one Quality slot occurs in a noun phrase, this slot can be filled by inherent physical qualities (size, colour...) or by non-inherent physical qualities, as :

1. duŋ si:bɔ:ʔ tuh
   house white that
   (that white house)

2. duŋ phɯ̀:t paj duŋ
   house big 3 cl
   (three big houses)

3. duŋ canap nɛ:
house beautiful this
(this beautiful house)

When there are two Quality slots, (one is $Qual_{inher}$ and the other is $Qual_{non-inher}$), the slots normally are like this :

The $Quality_1$, is normally filled by non-inherent physical qualities while the $Quality_2$ is filled by inherent physical qualities, as :

1. duŋ canap paj duŋ phɯ̀:t tuh
house beautiful 3 cl big those
(those three big beautiful houses.)

2. duŋ canap si: bɔ:? nɛ:
house beautiful white this
(this white beautiful house.)

When three Quality slots occur, there is no restriction. (Sec 1.0)

1.3 Verb qualities.

Verbs can fill the Quality slot, being a modifier of the head noun, as :

1. nthrɛ̀:l ?ɔ̀p
egg boil
(boiled egg)

2. nthruaj ʔop

   hen boil

   (a boiled hen)

3. nthrɛ:l thɑ:t

   egg fry

   (fried egg)

4. nthruaj ʔaŋ

   hen bake

   (a baked hen)

1.4 Numbers

Numbers fill the Quantification slot of noun phrase. Original Kuay numbers are normally used from 1 to 10. They are :

muaj	' 1 '
bɯa	' 2 '
paj	' 3 '
pɔ:n	' 4 '
sɔ:ŋ	' 5 '
taphat	' 6 '
tapo:r	' 7 '
tako:r	' 8 '
take?	' 9 '
mi:cət	'10 '

Above 10, Thai numbers are generally use. However there are some words for other numbers as : chɯaw '20', mi:rɔ:j/muaj rɔ:j '100'

normally mi: rɔ:j

In isolation muaj is used for 'one', but in quantifying a noun phrase it can be used in three ways, depending on the head noun.

a. Human beings as the head noun.

When the head noun is a human being, mi: is used, as :

kuaj mi: na?
person one cl
(One man.)

b. Animals as the head noun.

When an animal is a head noun, muaj is used, as :

1. ?acɔ: muaj klam
dog one cl
(One dog.)

2. ?ɛtrìa? muaj klam
buffalo one cl
(one buffalo.)

3. ?ali:? muaj tɔ:n
pig one piece
(one piece of porc)

c. Other things as the head noun.

When other things : thing, flower, etc... are head noun, both muaj and mi: can be used, as :

1. mpial mi: re?

   flower one cl

   (one flower)

2. mi: do:ŋ mi: tual

   one time one baht

   (each time one baht)

3. mi: / muaj } rɔ:j

   one hundred

   (One hundred)

However muaj can be used with human beings, but one should be cautious of this usage because it carries a bad sense, too. (One might think that we are comparing him to an animal.) mi: can be used with animal head nouns, too. For other things mi: is found more often than muaj. Only tanaj is used differently as :

~~mi: in mi: tanaj 'one day = time setting'~~

muaj in muaj tanaj 'one day = counting'

da:l 'many', ne? 'how many', klo:p 'every' function normally in the numeral slot of the noun phrase.

da:l, ne? can take classifiers of all sorts.

da:l can be an adverb, too. (But its opposite bi? 'few' can be only an adverb.) (Sce. 3.2.8)

klo:pis used only with the classifier na?.

Examples;

1. kuaj da:l na?

   man many cl

   (many men)

2. ?acɔ: da:l klam

   dog many cl

   (many dogs)

3. dwà? da:l cɔ:k

   water many glass

   (many glasses of water)

4. dun da:l lan

   house many cl-(same as dun)

5. ta:n da:l tual

   money many baht

   (many bahts)

---

6. prìat da:l plaj

   banana many cl-fruit

   (many bananas)

7. prìat da:l talah

   banana many cl-bunch

   (many bunches of bananas)

8. ne? na?

   how many cl-person

   (how many persons)

9. ne? tual

how many baht

(how many bahts)

10. klo:p na? mprɔ:n

every cl run

or

mprɔ:n klo:p na?

(everybody is running)

khlɯŋ, mania, tan mania "half a, and a half" can occur with every sort of classifier except with human beings and animals. It fills the normal numeral slot when it means 'half a -', as :

1. dɯ̀a? mania cɔ:k

water half glass

(a half glass of water)

2. naw ca: prìat mania plaj

he eats banana half cl

(He eats half of a banaan.)

3. pɛ?chʌ:ŋ mania khù:

sandal half cl-cluster

(half a pair of sandals)

It can be postposed after the classifier slot when it is a modifier of the normal numeral, as :

1. dwàʔ paj cɔ:k { mania. / khlɯŋ. } (three and a half glasses of water)

   water 3 glass half

2. mi: taŋaj taŋ mania

   one day half

   (one and a half days)

3. do:j bɯa ca:n { taŋ mania / mania }

   rice 2 dish half

   (two and a half dishes of rice)

For approximate figures, prama:n 'about' may be borrowed from thai (?), as :

sa? thawah prama:n taphat met

pond wide about six metre

(A pond is wide about six metres.)

There is no specific word to mark Ordinal numerals. If it is necessary, thai ordinal numerals can be used as,

thî: nɯ̀ŋ 'first'

thî: sɔ̌:ŋ 'second' .....

in

naw sɔ:p bɯ:n thi: nɯ̀ŋ

he exam can number one

(He passed the exam with the highest mark.)

1.5 Classifiers

Kuay classifiers are those items which are used to indicate the set or sort or shape of the units involved when a number is cited. All classifiable nouns must be accompanied by a classifier if a number is present. There are four types of classifiers in Kuay : regular classifiers, self classifiers, standard measures and temporary measures.

1.5.1 Regular classifiers : they are a set of words which function solely as classifiers.

Some regular classifiers are :

na?	for	'human beings' kuaj
klam	for	'animals and things' ?acɔ: (dog), ?atrìa? (buffalo), nthrɛ̀:l (egg), khal (basin), cɔ:k (glass), pi:p (kerosene oil tin), ca:n (dish), kɛ:w (bottle)
thɔ:n	for	'piece of wood' ?alɔ:ŋ
re?	for	'flower-like' mpial (flower), pial dɔ:k chɔ:n (jasmin), ?atria (mushroom)
throh	for	'a piece of loin cloth' nchick (loin cloth)
kɔ:n	for	'round object' ?it (stone), num (khanŏm - thai word)
khù:	for	'a pair' kuaj (human being), ?atrìa? (buffalo), pe? chʌ:ŋ (sandal)
laŋ	for	'house-like' duŋ (house), muŋ (mosquito net)
lawɛ:ŋ	for	'room : original classifier which can count from post house' hɔŋ (room)
talah	for	'a cluster of bananas' prìat (banana)
cathɑ:ŋ	for	'a bunch of bananas' priat(cathɑ:ŋ can be a self-classifier,too.sec. 1.5.2)

For example;

1. kuaj bɯa na?

   (two men)

2. khal bɯa klam

   (two basins)

3. ?alɔ:ŋ bɯa thɔ:n

   (two pieces of wood)

4. ?atria bɯa re?

   (two mushrooms)

5. nchik bɯa throh

   (two loincloths)

6. ?it bɯa kɔ:n

   (two pieces of stone)

7. pɛ? chʌ:ŋ bɯa khù:

   (two pairs of sandal)

8. duŋ bɯa laŋ

   (two houses)

9. hɔŋ bɯa lawɛ:ŋ

   (two rooms)

10. prìat bɯa talah

    (two bunches of bananas)

1.5.2 Self classifiers are a set of nouns used to classify themselves.

Some self classifiers are ....

pial — for only mpial/pial (flower). Normally 'mpial' is used with the classifier 're?' (See 1.5.1)

hɔŋ — for 'room' hɔŋ

duŋ — for 'house' duŋ

taŋaj/ŋaj — for 'day' taŋaj

khal — for 'tree' khal lɔŋ (tree), khal sadwa (guava-tree)

plaj — for 'fruit' plaj lɔ:ŋ (fruit), plaj to:ŋ (coconut), plajlahɔŋ (papaya) (Except 'prìat' (banana) which means a ripe banana.)

sala: — for 'a leaf' sala: lɔ:ŋ 'a leaf'
sala: prìat (a leaf of banana),
sala: mɔ:n (a leaf of mulberry)

cathɑ:ŋ — for 'a leaf of banana which is long causing not being cut from its trunk.'
cathɑ:ŋ prìat (a leaf of banana.)

For example;

1. mpial mi: pial
   flower one cl
   (one flower)

2. hɔŋ paj hɔŋ
   room 3 cl
   (three rooms)

3. duŋ bɯa duŋ
   house 2 cl
   (two houses)

4. paj ŋaj
   3 cl
   (three days)

5. khal sadɯa bɯa khal
   tree guava 2 cl
   (two guava -trees)

6. plaj to:ŋ paj plaj
   fruit coconut 3 cl
   (three coconut - trees)

7. sala: mɔ:n da:l sala:
   leaf mulberry many cl
   (many mulberry leaves)

8. catha:ŋ priàt paj catha:ŋ
   leaf banana 3 cl
   (three banana leaves)

When ŋaj is the head noun it normally is deleted, and mpial, hɔŋ sometimes can be deleted.

1.5.3 Standard measures are measures which are cultural conventions. They are :

kilo: 'kilometre' , 'kilogram' used for units of length and of weight.

met 'metre' a unit of length for ditches, wells or ponds, or of height

kamɑ: 'years'

For example;

1. sɔ: pɔ:n kilo:
   milled rice 4 kilokram
   (milled rice four kilokrams)

2. sa? paj me:t nɛ:
   pond 3 metre this
   (this three metre pond)

3. ?aju chɯaw kamɑ:
   old 20 year
   (twenty years old)

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kilo:, me:t, kamɑ: can fill the head slot of a noun phrase as in pɔ:n kilo: 'four metres',

~~taphat me:t 'six metres'~~

kamɑ: chuat 'year of rat'
(kuay word + thai word)

or chɯaw kamɑ: 'twenty years' (Sec. 1.10.2)

1.5.4 Temporary measures are objects which can be used for measuring. They include :

ca:n 'dish or bowl' for rice, curry and water.
cɔ:k 'glass' for water
kɛ:w 'bottle' for water

For example;

1. do:j bɯa ca:n
   rice 2 dish
   (two dishes of rice)

2. dɯ̀a? bɯa cɔ:k
   water 2 glass
   (two glasses of water)

3. dɯ̀a? bɯa kɛ:w
   water 2 bottle
   (two bottles of water)

1.6 Demonstratives.

Kuay demonstratives have at least four degrees of distance, expressed as follows : nɛ: 'this', kaj 'that, tuh 'that, there' and bɔ:n tuh 'overthere (far)'.

For example :

kuaj kaj | chamɯh ʔadɛ:ŋ
man that \ name Daeng
(that man named Daeng)

In this slot normally only a demonstrative occurs, but sometimes there can be a linker khaŋ/haŋ plus a demonstrative :

khaŋ/haŋ + demonstrative, giving more specific meaning, as :

1. ʔacɔ: haŋ kəj
   dog lk that
   (that dog)

2. duŋ haŋ kəj
   house lk that
   (that house)

3. duŋ paj laŋ khaŋ kəj
   house 3 cl lk that
   (those three houses)

1.7 Possessives.

The possessor slot in a noun phrase may occupy various positions, as described in Sec 1.0

In the possessor slot will normally be an optional linker khaŋ/haŋ with obligatory personal pronoun or personal name. When it is a personal name, if there is no linker khaŋ/haŋ, it usually has the form ʔa + name; but if there is a linker khaŋ/haŋ the ʔa is deleted.

For example :

1. duŋ phɯ̀:t paj duŋ bɔn kəj haŋ haj | canap
   house big 3 cl overthere of mine beautiful
   (Those three big houses of mine.)

2. duŋ phɯ̀:t paj duŋ haŋ kəj bɔ:n kəj
   (Same meaning as 1.)

3. duŋ haŋ haj nɛ:

house of mine this

(this my house)

4. sɛ:m haj mi: na?

younger-sibling my one cl

(my one younger sibling)

5. duŋ haj muaj laŋ

house my one cl

(One house of mine.)

6. duŋ ?adɛ:ŋ paj duŋ bɔ:n kaj

house Daeng 3 cl overthere

(those three houses of mine)

7. duŋ haŋ dɛ:ŋ

house of Daeng

(Daeng's house)

---

khaŋ/haŋ can mark possession either as a possessive linker in a noun phrase, or as a predicate of possession in a clause. A construction may be ambiguous, as in :

duŋ canap phẁ:t paj duŋ tuh haŋ haj, where haŋ may be a possessive marker, giving the same meaning as :

duŋ canap phẁ:t paj duŋ haŋ haj tuh

house beautiful big 3 cl of mine those

(those three big beautiful houses of mine)

or haŋ may be a verb, giving the same meaning as :

duŋ	canap	phɯ̀:t	paj	duŋ	tuh	kʌ:t haŋ		haj
house	beautiful	big	3	cl	those	are	of	mine

(those three big beautiful houses are of mine.)

1.8 Deletion :

The head noun is usually not deleted, but its deletion is occasionally permitted when a number and a classifier which has the same form of the head noun is present. This deletion, which I found, only occur with taŋaj 'day', mpial 'flower' and hɔŋ 'room', as :

1. bɯa taŋaj
   two day
   (two days)

2. paj pial tuh
   3 cl that
   (those three flowers)

3. paj hɔŋ
   3 cl
   (three rooms)

1.9 Transformations :

A noun phrase may be transformed into other forms of noun phrase or into a clause in the following ways :

Root / Item : duŋ, Qual : phɯ̀:t, Qnt : bɯa, Cl : duŋ, Poss : haŋ haj, Dem : kaj /

(house) (big) (two) (of mine) (that)

Formulas	Functions
1. Item, Qual, Qnt, Cl, Poss, Dem	np , neutral
2. Item, Qnt, Cl, Poss, Dem, Qual	Cl., neutral
3. Item, Redup. f-Qual, Qnt, Cl, Poss ,Dem	np , emph.Qual
4. Item, Qnt, Cl, Poss, Dem, Qual + phò:t	Cl . more emph.Qual
5. Item, Qnt, Cl, Poss, Dem, Redup.f-Qual	Cl . emph Qual
6. Item, Qual, Qnt, Cl, Dem, Poss	np , neutral-rather emph Poss
7. Item, Qual, Qnt, Cl, Dem, kʌ:t, Poss	Cl. rather emph Poss

Examples :

1. duŋ phɯ̀:t bɯa duŋ haŋ haj kəj
   (those two big houses of mine.)
2. duŋ bɯa duŋ haŋ haj kəj phɯ̀:t
   (those two houses of mine are big.)
3. duŋ phɯ̀:t phɯ̀:t bɯa duŋ haŋ haj kəj
   (those two very big houses of mine)
4. duŋ bɯa duŋ haŋ haj kəj phɯ̀:t phò:t
   (those two houses of mine are very very big.)
5. duŋ bɯa duŋ haŋ haj kəj phɯ̀:t phɯ̀:t
   (those two houses of mine are very big.)
6. duŋ phɯ̀:t bɯa duŋ kəj haŋ haj
   (those two big houses of mine.)
7. duŋ phɯ̀:t bɯa duŋ kaj kʌ:t haŋ haj
   (those two big houses belong to me.)

Functors :

Redup.f - Reduplicative form

phò:t - adverb in this case uses as 'very very'

kʌ:t - verb 'belong to'

These long forms are all possible but in normal usage there is seldom more than three root element present, as below.

/Item : duŋ, Qual : phẁ:t, Dem : kaj/

1.	Item, Qual, Dem	duŋ phẁ:t kaj (that big house)
2.	Item, Dem, Qual	duŋ kaj phẁ:t (that house is big)
3.	Item, Redup.f -Qual-Dem	duŋ phẁ:t phẁ:t kaj (that very big house)
4.	Item, Dem, Qual + phò:t	duŋ kaj phẁ:t phò:t (that house is very very big)
5.	~~Item, Dem, Redup.f-Qual~~	duŋ kaj phẁ:t phẁ:t (that house is very big)

1.10 Other noun phrases.

Here I will mention Prepositional phrase and measurement noun phrase.

1.10.1 Prepositional phrase : The Kuay prepositional phrase is a noun phrase preceded by a preposition. It is used as a filler of the location, direction or destination slots of some motion clauses,

(Sec. 3.1.5), propulsion clauses (Sec. 3.1.9), and existential clauses (Sec. 3.1.8), of peripheral slots in other clauses, such as instrumental, time setting, location slot, etc.

(Sec. 3.1.8) and peripheral slots of other clauses.

Common Kuay prepositions are :

ʔu: 'from, at, to'	tiŋ 'with, in, to, by'
kadɔ:p 'below'	pɔ:ŋ 'on' , ʔɑ:n 'to'

Examples of a prepositional noun phrase filling a locative slot:

1. naw ʔɛ: do:j do? | tiŋ tu:
   he bring rice keep | in cupboard
   | pɔ:ŋ to?
   | on table

   (He brings { some rice to keep in a cupboard.
   { a dish of rice to lay on the table.)

2. kʌ:t nthruaj da:l ʔu: duŋ haj
   are hen many at house I
   (There are many hens at my house.)

Examples of a prepositional noun phrase filling an instrument slot;

1. ʔamɛ̀ʔ tam haj tiŋ ʔalɔ:ŋ
   mother hit I with a piece of wood
   (Mother hits me with a piece of wood.)

2.	naw	ca:	do:j	tiŋ	taj
	he	eat	rice	by	hand
					buaŋ
					spoon
	(He eats rice by				hand
					spoon.)

1.10.2 Measurement noun phrase : it is a unit in which the head noun specific is a measurement, being modified by a Quantity. It is normally used as a filler of the object slot in an Equational clause (Sec 3.1.10).

1. naw ?aju chɯaw kamɑ:
   he old 20 year
   (He is twenty years old.)

2. kana: nha:j bɯa kilo:
   rood far 2 kilometre
   (The road is far two kilometres.)

3. to? nɛ: thi: mi: me:t
   table this tall 1 metre
   (This table is tall one metre.)

Chapter II

Verb phrases

2.0 General statement

Verb phrases in Kuay normally function as the predicate of a clause but are sometimes found functioning in Noun phrases (Sec 1.3) in a Quality slot. A verb phrase consists of a main verb together with all verbal elements immediately before and after it without being interrupted by any clause level slot. Only a main verb is obligatory. The verb phrase thus takes the form :

$\overbrace{\text{Prev}_1 - \text{Prev}_2}$ - Neg - Post neg - Int - Aux - MV - Dir

The preverbs, negative, post negative, intentional verb, auxiliary and directionals are normally only one word each. The main verb may be simple, compound, or complex. The main verb is the minimum of the phrases and the clauses.

2.1 Preverbal particles

Kuay preverbal particles usually occur in the two initial slots of the verb phrase.

a. Preverbal particle$_1$.

Preverbal particle$_1$ indicates the existence of the action or it sometimes indicates the near future when it occurs with a future word. I have found only one word in this slot, kamlaŋ '-ing, continuing' as :

1. haj kamlaŋ ca:
   I -ing eat
   (I am eating.)

2. haj kamlaŋ tiŋ ca:
   I -ing will eat
   (I am about to eat.)

b. Preverbal particle$_2$.

Preverbal particle$_2$ indicates future action or 'still' doing the action. Only two words occur in this slot; tiŋ 'will (future)', doŋ 'still', as :

1. haj tiŋ ca:
   I will eat
   (I will eat.)

2. haj tiŋ ci:
   I will go
   (I will go.)

3. haj doŋ cam ma:ŋ
   I still wait you
   (I still wait for you.)

4. haj doŋ pi? ca: ?ah
   I still not eat FP-neg
   (I have not eaten.)

2.2 Negatives.

The negative slot is placed after the preverbs and before all other verbal elements. There are four forms :

pi? , wi? , lɛh and jah ʔɑ:n.

pi? , wi? , lɛh have neither semantic nor grammatical difference; as :

haj	pi? / wi? / lɛh	diŋ.
I	not	know

(I don't know.)

jah ʔɑ:n is different from pi? , wi? , lɛh in that it is used for negative imperative (prohibitive) sentences (Sec 4.5.2.1.2.b) , and often cooccuring with the final particle dʌ̀: ; as :

1.	jah	ʔɑ:n	takɑw	sɛ:ŋ	dʌ̀:
		not	sit	down	FP

(Don't sit down.)

2.	jah	ʔɑ:n	klɑʔ	haj	dʌ̀:
		not	forget	I	FP

(Don't forger me.)

3.	jah	ʔɑ:n	klɑʔ	dʌ̀:
		not	forger	FP

(Don't forget.)

2.3 Post negative.

This slot requires an immediately preceding negative and it may co-occur with all negatives, except jah ʔɑ:n. Only one word occurs in this slot, than, meaning completeness of undone action. Its meaning is similar to doŋ, but it occurs only with negative verb phrase, as :

1. pi? than ca: ʔah (= doŋ pi? ca: ʔah)
   not still eat FP-neg
   (have not eaten.)

2. don pi? than ca: ʔah
   still not still eat FP-neg
   (same as 1.)

3. pi? than bɯ:n ca: ʔah.
   not still can eat FP-neg
   (Same as 1.)

2.4 Intentional verbs.

Kuay intentional verbs precede an auxiliary verb. They are jah 'want to', khʌ:j 'used to', and toŋ 'must/have to'. These intentional verbs differ from preverbal particles (Sec 2.1) in that they are negatable and differ from auxiliary verbs (Sec 2.5) in that the deletion of them destroys the real meaning.

For example :

1. naw pi? jah lɔh ci:.
   he not want come out
   (He doesn't want to come out.)

2. naw khʌ:j phʌ:? ?achʌ:l

he used to meet tiger

(He used to meet a tiger.)

3. naw toŋ ca:

he must eat

(He must eat.)

2.5 Auxiliary verbs.

Auxiliary verbs in Kuay are a set of verbs which occur immediately before the main verb and are used to modify the verb to indicate the motion of the action or to indicate the ability of doing that action, or sometimes it may indicate past tense. Auxiliary verbs are different from preverbal particles in that (1) the auxiliary verbs will follow the negatives, post negative and Intentional verbs while the verbal particles will precede them, (2) the auxiliary verbs are negatable and (3) generally they can also be used in a main verb slot (but with different meaning). They are different from the intentional verbs in that they can be deleted without seriously affecting the meaning or the function of the clause in its context. And they are different from the directionals in that they occur immediately in pre-main verb slot. The six auxiliary verbs which have been found are :

mprɔ:n 'state of running' } different from the main verb in that
hu:c 'state of walking' } they are not the main action.

sɛ:n 'the state of going down'

ci: 'initiating an action' ('go' + MV)

caw 'initiating an action' ('come' + MV)

bɯ:n 'being able to do the action/past tense'

For example :

1. naw | mprɔ:n ci: | talà:t
   he running go market
   (He goes to the market by running.)

2. naw | hu:c ci: | talà:t.
   he walking go market
   (He goes to the market by walking.)

3. naw | sɛ:ŋ ŋa:t | dɯa?
   he going down drink water
   (He drinks some water by going down in the shoal of river or of pond.)

4. naw | ci: phʌ:? | mo: khanɯa
   he go meet friends
   (He goes to meet (his) friends.)

5. naw | cəw bɔ:j | mɑ:ŋ
   he come find you
   (He goes to meet/find you.)

6. naw | bɯ:n ca: | do:j
   he can eat rice
   (He ate rice.)

7. naw bɯ:n ci:
   he past tense go
   (He went.)

8. naw pi? bɯ:n ci:
   he not past tense go
   (He didn't go.)

2.6 Main verbs

Kuay main verbs are those elements which stand alone in the main verb slot. The main verb slot may be filled by a simple, a compound verb or a complex verb.

2.6.1 A simple verb.

A simple verb is a single member of the verb class. Some simple verbs are :

ca:	'eat'
tam	'hit'
to:l	'buy'
tac	'sell'
wɑ:	'make/do'
sɔh	'get'
diŋ	'know'
ɲa:m	'cry'
kua	'stay'
can	'to be defeated'
lɛh	'dead'
kʌ:t	'have, be'
ci:	'go'
cəw	'come'
bʌ:?	'open'
wɑ:w	'speak'
phʌ:?	'meet, see'

mɛ:	'see'
kɛh	'break with a hand'
doh	'explode, with explosive, balloon, etc.'
klə?	'forget'
kacaŋ	'smile, laugh'
takih	'break by any ways, except by hand.'
nthroŋ	'diligent'
nchi:l	'be lazy'
takaw	'sit'
sajɯ:ŋ	'stand'
cakhal	'know'
nthʌ:l	'close/uphold'
thalɯaj	'break (explode not loud as doh), with dish, glass, etc.'

2.6.2 A compound verb.

A compound verb is normally two coordinated main verbs, may be formed by simply juxtaposing or linking verbs together with other compound markers. They can be divided into four types as equivalent, contrastive, alternative and additive. They can be coined freely, though there are some common combinations.

1. Equivalent compounding. The regular form is a positive verb followed by its negated autonym. It looks rather like some contrastive compounding, but they are different in that there are no linking markers in Equivalent

compounding, but there are linking markers in Contrastive Compounding, as :

1. ŋaj nɛ: | kataw pi? sakɔ?
   today hot not cold.
   (Today is hot, not cold.)

2. haj | pachaj pi? he:w
   I be full not hungry
   (I am full, not hungry.)

3. naw | mprɔ:n pi? bɯ:n hu:c | ci: talà:t
   he run not can walk to market
   (He runs, not walk to the market.)

2. Contrastive Compounding. It links two verbs with the contrastive compounding marker teh. One verb is positive, the another is negative. The negative verb comes first, as :

naw | pi? mprɔ:n teh hu:c | ci: talà:t
he not run but walk to market
(He doesn't run but walk to the market.)

3. Alternative Compounding. It permits a choice from usually two verbs. They are linked by rɯh or pi? -- kʌ? markers, as :

1. naw mprɔ:n rɯh hu:c ci: talà:t.
   he run or walk go market
   (He runs or walks to the market.)

2. naw pi? mprɔ:n kʌ? hu:c ci: talà:t.

he not run then walk go market

(He either runs or walks to the market.)

4. Additive Compounding. It adds two verbs together by :

1. being juxtaposed;

naw wɑ: ca:

he make eat

(He cooks.)

naw mprɔ:n hu:c ci: talà:t

he run walk go marget

(He runs and walks to the market.)

2. repetition (of the action)

naw mprɔ:n ?ɛ: mprɔ:n ?ɛ: ci: talà:t

he run get run get go market

(He runs and runs to the market.)

naw hu:c hu:c ci: talà:t

he walk walk go market

(He walks and walks to the market.)

3. adding nəŋ -- nəŋ or tiŋ -- tiŋ as markers.

naw | mprɔ:n nəŋ hu:c nəŋ | ci: talà:t

he run and walk and go market

(He both runs and walks to the market.)

naw	tiŋ	mprɔ:n	tiŋ	hu:c	ci:	talà:t
he	both	run	both	walk	go	market

(He both runs and walks to the market.)

2.6.3 A complex verb.

A complex verb is a verb with a non-verbal element added. Some complex verbs are :

1.

haj	khɯt	tʌ?	mɑ:ŋ
I	think	to	you
	v	prep.	

(I miss you.)

2.

haj	salɔ:	bac	bac	nthruaj
I	make- a curry	curry	curry	hen
	v		n	

(I make a chicken curry.)

2.6.4 Subclasses.

There are several subclasses of verbs according to their co-oocurence with particular clause types (Sec 3.1). The major subclasses of verbs are :

1. bitransitive : ʔɑ:n 'give' , khian (ʔa:n) 'write(to)' , tac (ʔɑ:n) 'sell (to)' ʔɔh (ʔɑ:n) 'scoop up(to)', sòŋ (ʔɑ:n) 'send(to)' (sec 3.1.1)

2. transitive — khɯt tʌʔ 'miss', mak 'love', tam 'hit', che: 'scold', ca: 'eat' (sec 3.1.2)

3. intransitive — kroh 'bark', kacaŋ 'smile/laugh', ŋa:m 'cry', wɑ:w 'speak'. It has a stative (verbal adjective) subset: cakhɑ:m 'be thin', thì: 'be tall', phɯ̀:t 'be big', thɯap 'be fat', kataw 'be hot', ʔɛ:m 'be sweet', ʔataŋ 'be bitter', bɔ:ʔ/si:bɔ:ʔ 'be white', nchoh 'be rotten', ho: 'be raw', nɛ:n 'be tight', cɛ:ŋ 'be ripe', lahual 'be loose' (sec 3.1.3)

4. ambient — phrah ma: 'rain', kataw 'be hot' (sec 3.1.4)

5. motion : ci: 'go', lop 'come back', caw 'come', hu:c 'walk' (sec 3.1.5)

6. quotative — ntaj (pa:j) 'tell (that)', diŋ(pa:j) 'know (that)', che: (pa:j) 'scold (that)', pa:j 'tell/scold/speak (that)', khɯt (pa:j) 'think (that)', wɑ:w (pa:j) 'say (that)' (sec 3.1.6)

7. possessive : kʌ:t 'be,have', kʌ:t haŋ 'belong to' (sec 3.1.7)

8. existential	kʌ:t 'have-usually preposing', kua 'stay' (sec 3.1.8)
9. propulsion	ʔɛ: 'get', capɯaj 'paddle', chih 'take (a bus)' (sec 3.1.9)
10. equational	khɯ: 'be', chamɯh 'mane', ʔaju 'be--old', rakhɯa 'cost' (sec 3.1.10)

2.7 Directionals.

Directionals follow the main verb. They can also occur as main verbs, but have a slightly different meaning. They are :

ci:	'the direction of going' (MV + 'go')
caw	'the direction of coming' (MV + 'come')
sɔh	'the state of going up' (MV + 'get up')
sɛ:ŋ	~~'the state of going down' (MV + 'go' down')~~ 'can + going down'
phʌ:ʔ	'the state of reaching a goal' (MV + 'meet')
bɯ:n	'the state of a goal coming to somebody' (MV + 'receive) 'to be able'.

1. naw hu:c ci:
   he walk going
   (He walks away.)

2. naw lop caw

   he come back come

   (He comes back.)

3. naw lop caw duŋ

   he come back come house

   (He comes back home.)

4. naw ju:l sɔh

   he awake get

   (He gets up.)

5. naw takaw sɛ:ŋ

   he sit go down

   (He sits down.)

6. naw ca: sɛ:ŋ

   he eat can + going down

   (He can eat (it) down.)

7. naw khɯt phʌ:?

   he think meet

   (He knows./He meets the answer.)

8. naw khɯt bɯ:n

   he think receive

   (He knows./He receives the answer.)

9. naw ca: bɯ:n

   he eat can

   (He can eat.)

ci:/caw 'go/come' in the auxiliary verb slot (sec 2.5) contrast with this slot in that ci:/caw in the auxiliary verb slot precede transitive

verbs such as phʌ:? 'meet', bɔ:j 'meet/find' to initiate the action or precede motion verbs such as ci: 'go', caw 'come' to indicate the motion of the action, while ci:/caw in the directional slot normally follow motion verbs, to state the direction of the action.

sɛ:ŋ in the auxiliary verb slot contrasts with this slot in that sɛ:ŋ in the auxiliary verb slot preceding the main verb means 'the state of going down', while sɛ:ŋ in this slot following the main verb means 'the state of going down' or 'can + going down'.

bɯ:n in the auxiliary verb slot is different from bɯ:n in this slot in that bɯ:n in the auxiliary slot means 'to be able to, already did' while bɯ:n in this slot means 'the state of a goal coming to somebody' or' to be able to'.

2.8 Reduplication :

Reduplication in Kuay may be of two types, Complete Reduplication and Partial Reduplication.

a. Complete Reduplication.

Complete Reduplication, in which the reduplicated (1^{st}) element usually has rising pitch and is longer than the root (2^{nd}) element.

Some examples of complete reduplication are :

1. phɯ̃:t phɯ̀:t

   big big

   (be very big)

2. kɛ:t kɛ:t

small small

(be very small)

3. he:w he:w

hungry hungry

(be very hungry.)

4. pacha:j pachaj

full full

(be very full)

5. bɔ:? bɔ:?

white white

(be very white)

b. Partial Reduplication.

Partial Reduplication. The first element is the root, and there is no rising pitch. I found only one word :

saɲu? saja?

dirty

(to be very dirty)

The above reduplications strengthen the meaning, but I have found some complete reduplications, which weaken the meaning : the reduplicated (1 st) element is shortened, with no pitch change, as :

1. kɛt kɛ:t

small small

(be somewhat small)

2. phɯ̀t phɯ̀:t

big big

(be somewhat big)

in

1. kuaj kɛt kɛ:t

man small small

(a man is somewhat small)

2. naw phɯ̀t phɯ̀:t

he big big

(He is somewhat big.)

2.9 Prominence :

These verbs can be made prominent in a discourse by :

1. Using a special verb instead of normal verb as;

naw nat do:j

he eat- rice

rather impolite

instead of

naw ca: do:j

he eat rice

(Both of them mean 'He eats rice.', but the first one implies that he eats a lot, spoon after spoon very quickly and hungrily.) I have found only one pair of words like this and they can be used only for people, not animals.

2. Using reduplicative adverbs to modify, as :

1. ca: bi? bi?
   eat little little
   (eat very little)

2. hu:c waj waj
   run quick quick
   (run very quickly)

3. Using completely reduplicated verbs. (See 2.8a)

2.10 Transformation :

No systematic transformation of the Kuay verb phrase has been found.

No nominalized verb forms have been found yet.

One verb has been found which can be changed from positive to negative just by intonation. It is din 'know'. I found din used positively and negatively both in dialy life and in elicited data. So din can mean 'know' and 'don't know', as :

din 'know'
din 'don't know'.

for example :

Question : ?amɛ? pi? kua dun. naw ci: na:
mother not stay house she go where

ma:ŋ din the:

you know FP-question

(Mother is not home. Do you know

where she has gone ?)

Answer : din (Yes, I know.)

or

din (No, I don't know.)

Chapter III

Clauses

3.0 General statement

Kuay clauses are described in terms of nuclear and peripheral slots. Nuclear elements are Subject (S), Predicate (P), Direct object(DO) Indirect Object (IO), and sometimes Location (L) or Direction (Dir). Peripheral elements consist of : Adverbals (A), Temporal (T), Location (L), Accompanying Actor (AA), Accompanying recipient (AR), Causer (C), Instrument (Inst), Beneficiary (B) and Final Particle (FP). Basic clause types are determined by the types of slots occurring in the clauses nucleus. The nuclear slots normally follow S-P-DO-IO order. The peripheral clause slots precede or follow the nucleus, optionally occurring with all clause types.

The normal order of clause elements is :

T - L - C - (S - P - DO - IO) - B - AA - AR - Inst - A - T - L - FP.

That is the clause nucleus, having a normal order of optional subject, optional predicate, optional direct object and optional indirect object, is preceded or followed by the peripheral clause elements.

A clause normally functions as an element in a sentence, but it can also be embeded in noon phrase as relative clause.

3.1 The Nuclear clause types.

The general structure of a Kuay clause nucleas is + S + P ± DO ± IO, as :

1. ɲaw hu:c
   ɲe walk
   (He walks.)

2. ɲaw takaw sɛ:ŋ
   he sit state fo going down.
   (He sits down.)

3. haj ca: do:j
   I eat rice
   (I eat rice.)

4. naw ʔa:n ta:ŋ ka:n
   he give money child
   (He gives a child some money.)

Basic clause types are determined by the types of slots occurring in the clause nucleus and by the main verb, So there are many Kuay clause types : bitransitive, transitive, intransitive, ambient, motion, quotative, possessor, existential, propulsion, equational, comparative, and superlative. These types differ from each other in the verb classes which they take and in some of the options of their nuclear slots.

3.1.1 Bitransitive clause

The normal bitransitive clause nucleus consists of subject, predicate, direct object and indirect object which can be recipients. The subject slot is filled by a noun phrase, the predicate slot by a bitransitive verb phrase (Sec. 2.6.4), the direct object slot is filled

by a noun phrase and the indirect object by a noun phrase or sometimes by a prepositional noun phrase : tiŋ + np/ ʔɑn + np. The Bitransitive clause nucleus has the formula :

$Bitr_1$: + S : np + P : Vp_{bi} + DO : np + IO : np/prep.np
(ʔɑ:n/tiŋ + np)

$Bitr_2$: + S : np + P : Vp_{bi} + IO : np + DO : np

1. haj ʔɑ:n ta:ŋ | ma:ŋ
   I gave money | you
   | tiŋ ma:ŋ
   | to you

   (I gave some money to you.)

2. haj khian cot ma:j ʔɑ:n naw
   I wrote letter to he

   (I wrote a letter to him.)

3. haj ʔɔh do:j ʔɑ:n ʔano?
   I scoop up rice to father

   (I scooped up some rice to (my) father.)

4. haj sòŋ cot ma:j ʔɑ:n ma:n
   I send letter to you

   (I sent a letter to you.)

5. naw tac haj nthruaj
   he sell I hen

   (He sells me a hen.)

When the main verb is ʔa:n 'give', it normally uses the optional preposition tiŋ.

It is to be noticed that this verb (Vp_{bi}) is normally followed by two general noun phrases or by one general noun phrase and one prepositional noun phrase.

3.1.2 Transitive clause

The transitive clause nucleus consists of subject, predicate and object slots, in that order. The predicate slot is filled by transitive verb phrase (Sec 2.6.4), and the subject and object slots by noun phrases.

The Transitive clause nucleus has the formula :

$$+ S : np + P : Vp_{tr} \pm O : np$$

1. haj ca: da:j
   I eat rice
   (I eat rice)

2. naw ɲa:t dwa?
   he drink water
   (He drinks some water.)

3. naw ca:
   he eat
   (He eats.)

4. haj khɯt tʌ? maːŋ
   I think to you
   (I miss you.)

5. haj mak maːŋ
   I love you
   (I love you.)

6. naw kʌːt jɛːŋ
   he have gold
   (He has gold.)

These verbs can take only one object slot.

3.1.3 Intransitive clause

The Intransitive clause consists essentially of a subject and predicate. The predicate slot is filled by an intransitive verb (Sec. 2.6.4), and the subject slot by a noun phrase.

The Intransitive clause nucleus has the formula :

+ S : np + P : vp_{intr}

1. ?acɔː kroh
   dog bark
   (A dog barks.)

2. kuaj kacaŋ
   man smile
   (A man smiles.)

3. naw ɲa:m
   he cry
   (He cries.)

4. naw wa:w
   he speak
   (He speaks.)

5. haj kacaŋ
   I laugh
   (I laugh.)

The Intransitive clause has one subtype, the Stative clause. The stative clause is different from the Intransitive only in that the predicate slot is filled by a verbal adjective (Sec. 2.6.4). This clause is verbal adjective centered. The verbs deseribe the status of the subject.

Its formula is : + S : np + P : verbal adj

1. naw thì:
   he tall
   (He is tall.)

2. naw thwap
   he short
   (He is short.)

3. naw kataw
   he hot
   (He is hot.)

4. ?aj ?ataŋ
   it bitter
   (It is bitter.)

5. plaj lah n ho:
   fruit papaya raw
   (Papaya is raw.)

6. hap lahual
   shirt loose
   (The shirt is loose.)

These verbs need no object slot.

3.1.4 Ambient clause

The ambient clause nucleus consists of subject and predicate. The predicate slot is filled by an ambient verb (Sec. 2.6.4). This clause is verb centened, describing natural phenomena, so the subject normally is a phenomenon.

The ambient clause nucleus has the formula :

± S : np + P : vp_{amb}

1. phrah ma:
   rain
   (It rains.)

2. kataw = ?aj kataw
   hot it hot
   (It's hot.) (It's hot.)

3. mpuah lɔh

sun-beam go out

(Sun shines.)

4. nthah paɲ

streaked lightening

(It's streaked lightening.)

5. sanian klom

thundering

(It's thundering.)

These verbs need no object slot.

The ambient clause structure differs from the Intransitive in that the Subject is optional and there is a different verb class.

3.1.5 Motion clause

The motion clause nucleus consists of subject, predicate and Direction. The predicate slot is filled by a motion verb (Sec. 2.6.4), the subject slot by a noun phrase and the Direction slot by a noun phrase : a noun of place, or prepositional noun phrase : $\left\{ \begin{matrix} t\wedge? \\ ?u: \end{matrix} \right\}$ + np.

The clause nucleus has the formula :

$$+ S : np + P \quad Vp_{mot} \quad \pm Dir : \left\{ \begin{matrix} np : n \text{ of } pl \\ prep\ np: \left\{ \begin{matrix} t\wedge? \\ ?u: \end{matrix} \right\} + np \end{matrix} \right\}$$

1. naw ci: saj

he go fields

(He goes to fields.)

2. naw ci: ʔu: khu:lɯat

he go prep-to name of province

(He goes to Khorat.)

3. nɛw lop duŋ

he return house

(He returns home.)

4. naw cəw ʔu: talà:t

he come prep.from market

(He comes from the market.)

5. naw hu:c ci:

he walk dir of going

(He walks away.)

6. naw cəw tʌ̂ʔ duŋ

he come prep. to house

(He come back to the house.)

This verb needs no object; but sometimes it needs a direction for the verb, being a movement.

The motion clause structure differs from the Transitive in that there is a different verb class and there is the optional Direction slot in its nucleus structure.

3.1.6 Quotative clause.

A quotative clause nucleus consists of subject, predicate, link, and quotation. The subject slot is filled by a noun phrase,

the predicate by a quotative verb followed by optional pa:j or pa:j kʌ? 'that' (Sec. 2.6.4) and then an obligatory Quotation.

The Quotative clause nucleus has the formula :

+ S : np + P : Vp quot. ± pa:j/pa:j kʌ? + Quotation : sen.

1. naw ntəj pa:j duŋ canap
   he tell that house beautiful
   (He says that a house is beautiful.)

2. naw diŋ pa:j mɑ:ŋ cəw
   he know that you come
   (He knows that you come.)

3. naw pa:j haj pi? ʔɔ:
   he say I not good
   (He says (that) I am not good.)

4. naw pa:j pa:j mɑ:ŋ nchi:l
   he say that you lazy
   (He says that you are lazy.)

5. naw khwt pa:j kʌ? mɑ:ŋ caʔɑ:p
   he think that you well
   (He thinks that you are well.)

There is no object slot for these verbs but it need a quotation slot.

3.1.7 Possessive clause.

A possessive clause nucleus consists of Subject, Predicate, Possessive linker, and Possessor. The predicate slot is filled by an optional possessive verb : kʌ:t (Sec. 2.6.4).

The possessive linker by linker $\left\{\begin{matrix} \text{haŋ} \\ \text{khaŋ} \end{matrix}\right\}$. Subject and Possessor by noun phrases.

The possessive clause nucleus formula :

$$+ \text{S} : \text{np} \pm \text{P} : \text{vp}_{\text{poss}} : \text{kʌ:t} + \text{LK} : \text{lk} \left\{\begin{matrix} \text{haŋ} \\ \text{khaŋ} \end{matrix}\right\} + \text{Poss} : \text{np}.$$

1. duŋ nɛ: kʌ:t khaŋ haj
   house this is lk I
   (This house is mine.)

2. duŋ nɛ: haŋ haj
   house this lk me
   (This house belongs to me.)

3. ʔacɔ: nɛ: kʌ:t haŋ ʔadɛ:ŋ
   dog this is lk Daeng
   (This dog is of Daeng.)

These verbs are followed by a possesor slot.

3.1.8 Existential clause

The Existential clause nucleua consists of

a. an obligatory main verb alot filled by kʌ:t 'have', an obligatory subject filled by a noun phrase, an optional verb kua 'stay', and

an optional Location filled by a noun of place or prepositional noun phrase : $\left\{\begin{matrix}tiŋ\\ ʔu:\end{matrix}\right\}$ + np

b. an obligatory subject filled by a noun phrase, an obligatory main verb : kua 'stay', and an obligatory Location : $\left\{\begin{matrix}tiŋ\\ ʔu:\end{matrix}\right\}$ + np.

The existential clause formula :

a. $\overline{+}$ L + P : MV kʌ:t + S : np ± P : V kua ± L : $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{n of pl}\\ \text{prep. np } \left\{\begin{matrix}tiŋ\\ ʔu:\end{matrix}\right\}\end{matrix}\right.$ + np $\Big\}$

1. kʌ:t do:j kua tiŋ tu:
   have rice stay in cupboard
   (There is some rice in the cupboard.)

2. kʌ:t nɑ: kua tiŋ ca:n
   have what stay in dish
   (What is in the dioh?)

3. kʌ:t kuaj tiŋ hɔŋ
   have man in room
   (There is a man in a room.)

4. ʔu: duŋ kʌ:t kuaj kua
   at house have man stay
   (At home, there is a man.)

5. kʌ:t kuaj kua
   have man stay
   (There is a man.)

b. + S : np + P : MV kua + L : $\left\{\begin{matrix} \text{n of pl} \\ \text{pre.np} \end{matrix}\right\}$ $\left\{\begin{matrix} \text{tiŋ} \\ \text{ʔu:} \end{matrix}\right\}$ + np

1. naw kua ʔu: duŋ
   he stay at house
   (He stays home.)

2. do:j kua tiŋ tu:
   rice stay in cupboard.
   (Rice are in a cupboard.)

3. naw kna tiŋ hɔŋ
   he stay in room
   (He stays in a room.)

4. buaŋ kua pɔ:ŋ to?
   spoon stay on table
   (The spoon is on a table.)

5. ʔacɔ: kua kadɔ:p to?
   dog stay below table
   (A dog is under the table.)

This clause is noun centered. kʌ:t in existential clause differs from kʌ:t in transitive clause in that kʌ:t in an existential clauses comes at the beginning of the clause with the meaning 'there is/have', while kʌ:t in a transitive clause is placed between the subject and the object meaning 'have,be'.

3.1.9 Propulsion clause.

The propulsion clause nucleus consists of Subject, predicate, object, directional, and destination. The obligatory subject slot is filled by a noun phrase, the obligatory Predicate slot by a propulsion verb phrase (Sec. 2.6.4), the optional object slot by a noun phrase, an obligatory directional filled by ci:, caw and an optional destination slot by a noun phrase or prepositional noun phrase.

The Propulsion clause nucleus has the formula :

+ S : np + P : vp pro. ± O : np + Dir : ci:/caw ± Des :
n of pl/ prep. np : ?u:/tʌ? + np.

1. naw ʔɛ: nthruaj ci: talà:t
   he bring hen des. of going market
   (He brings a hen to the market.)

2. naw caphwaj ci: wat
   he paddle des. of going temple
   (He paddles to the temple.)

3. naw chih rot ci: ʔu: mwaŋ
   he sit car des to town
   (He takes a car/bus to town.)

4. naw ʔɛ: tria? ci:
   he bring fuffalo des
   (He brings a buffalo away.)

5. naw ʔɛ: tria? caw duŋ
   he bring buffalo des. of coming house
   (He brings a buffalo to house.)

This verb is followed by an optional object, and an obligatory directional.

3.1.10 Equational clause

The equational clause nucleus consists of subject, predicate, object, in that order. The obligatory subject slot is filled by a noun phrase or a prepositional noun phrase : ʔu: + np, the optional predicate by equational verb phrase (Sec. 2.6.4) and the obligatory object by a noun phrase or a prepositional noun phrase : ʔu: + np.

When subject or object are both prepositional noun phrase, the verb can be deleted. The subject and object refer to the same thing. ($I_1 = I_2$)

The equational clause nucleus has the formula : + S : np/prep. np. (ʔu: + np) ± P : vp_{equ} + O : np/prep. np. (ʔu: + np).

1. haŋ nɛ: khɯ: nɑ:
   thing this is what
   (What is this?)

2. naw khɯ: kadaj
   he is who
   (Who is he?)

3. haj chamɯh kɑ:n

I name Kone

(My name is Kone.)

4. nɛ: khɯ: katɛ? samùt

this is pencil

(This is a pencil.)

5. haj ?a:ju chɯaw kamɑ:

I old 20 year

(I am twenty years old .)

6. ?u: nɛ: ?u: na:

at here at where

(Where is here?)

7. naw kʌ:t phujaj so?

he is village - head man

(He is a village head man.)

8. naw kʌ:t treːŋ - duŋ nɛ:

he is owner house this

(He is the owner of this house.)

9. naw kʌ:t mɛ̀? haj

she is mother I

(She is my mother.)

10. naw thì: bɯa me:t

he tall two metre

(He is tall two metres.)

These verbs need both preceding subject and following object. The equational clause differs from the possessor clause in that the equational clause follows the formula $I_1 = I_2$. while the possessor clause is $I_1 \neq I_2$.

3.1.11 Comparative clause

The comparative clause nucleus are of 2 subtypes.

a. an obligatory subject slot filled by a noun phrase, an obligatory predicate slot filled by an adjective phrase (verbal adjective), an obligatory comparative marker lʌh/mah 'more...than', or khɯ: (as..as, like), and an obligatory object slot filled by a noun phrase.

The comparative marker lʌh is used for positive comparison, mah is used for negative comparison, and khɯ: is used for both positive and negative comparisons.

b. an obligatory subject slot filled by a noun phrase, an obligatory predicate slot filled by the verb ?aju, and an obligatory comparative adverb by sam ndo: (same...as).

The comparative clause nucleus has the formula :

a. + S : np + P : adj. p + Com.mk lʌh/mah/khɯ: + O : np

1. naw canap khɯ: mɑ:ŋ
   she beautiful like you
   (She is as beautiful as you.)

2. naw thaw lʌh maːŋ

he old -er you

(He is older than you.)

3. naw pi? bɯːn phɯ̀ːt mah haj

he not can big -er I

(He isn't bigger than I)

These verbs are followed by an object. The object plays the same role as the subject.

b. + S : np + P : V : ?aju + Com.adv : Sam ndo :

1. moː naw ?aju sam ndoː

pl he age same

(They are the same age.)

2. moː haj ?aju pi? sam ndoː

pl I age not same

(We are not the same age.)

3.1.12 Superlative Clause

The superlative clause nucleus consists of subject, predicate, lʌh marker and object. The subject slot is filled by a noun phrase, the predicate by adjective phrase (verbal adjective), the marker by lʌh, and the object by noun phrase : muːn tiŋ + a noun of place.

lʌːh is used either in positive or negative clauses.

The Superlative clause nucleus has the formula :

+ S : np + P : adj.p + lʌh mk + O : np : mu:n + tiŋ + n of pl.

1. naw thì: lʌh mu:n tiŋ so?
   he tall -er anyone in village
   (He is tallest in the village.)

2. naw thwap lʌh mu:n tiŋ lò:k
   he fat -er anyone in world
   (He is fattest in the world.)

3. naw pi? thì: lʌh mu:n tiŋ so?
   he not tall -er anyone in village
   (He isn't tallest in the village.)

These verbs require the noun phrase mu:n tiŋ plus a noun of place.

3.2 Peripheral clause slots.

Peripheral clause slots are those slots which supply additional information to the basic clause nuclei (Sec. 3.1), so they do not enter into the defining formulas of the various clause types. Peripheral clause slots are here presented in terms of their function (at the clause level) and the structure of their fillers. They are temporal, location, causer, beneficiary, accompanying actor, accompanying recipient, instrument, adverbals and final particle.

3.2.1 Temporal slot

The temporal slot usually occurs prenuclear, but it can occur either prenuclear or postnuclear. When it is in a post-nuclear slot, if there is final particle, temporal slot will occur before the final particle. The temporal slot is used to indicate the time setting for the action or the duration of the action. Either a word or phrase can fill this slot, such as : ŋaj nɛ: 'today', ŋaj taba:j/ ŋajba:j 'yesterday', tʌ? calah 'tomorrow', phel calah 'morning', phel tabɯ: 'evening', in

1. ŋaj nɛ: haj ci: talà:t
   to-day I go market
   (Today I go to the market.)

2. haj ci: talà:t ŋaj nɛ:
   (I go to the market today.)

3. phel calah haj ju:l sɔh
   morning I get up
   (In the morning, I get up.)

4. phel tabɯ: haj sɔ:c phak
   evening I water vegetable
   (In the evening,I water vegetables.)

5. tʌ? calah haj tiŋ ci: saj
   tomorrow I will go fields
   (Tomorrow I will go to fields.)

6. naj nɛ: naw pi? jah ci: ʔəh
today he not want go PP
(Today he doesn't want to go.)

7. naw pi? jah ci: ŋaj nɛ: ʔəh
(He doesn't want to go today.)

A temporal slot can be added to many nuclear clause types but it rarely occurs in equational, comparative and super lative clauses.

3.2.2 Location slot

The location slot usually occurs post nuclear position and precedes the final particle slot, when it occurs with final particle. It can also occur prenuclear (normally found in possesion clause). When it co-occurs prenuclear with a temporal slot, it normally follows the temporal. I found no location slot occur with a temporal slot post nuclear. (Except : in motion clause,however it is obligatorily direction plus temporal) This slot is filled by a prepositional phrase, as : ʔu: duŋ 'at home', tiŋ tu: 'in a cupboard' etc... in

1. haj ca: do:j ʔu: duŋ
I eat rice at home
(I eat rice at home.)

2. kʌ:t do:j kua tiŋ tu:
be rice stay in cupboard
(There is some rice in a cupboard.)

3. ʔu: duŋ kʌ:t pi:p da:l

at home have kerosene-oil tin many

(At home there are many kerosene oil tins.)

4. ʔu: duŋ haj kʌ:t nthruaj

at home I have hen

(At my house there is a hen.)

5. naj nɛ: ʔu: duŋ haj ca: do:j

today at home I eat rice

(Today at home I eat rice.)

A location slot doesn't occur with motion clause (having direction), propulsion dause (having destination), possession clause and equational, superlative and comparative clauses. It also rarely occur with stative clauses.

3.2.3 Causer slot

The causer slot occurs prenuclear, filled by actor : np plus causer verb : wa: ʔa:n , ʔa:n as :

1. haj wa: ʔa:n ʔamɛ̀ʔ tam naw

I cause mother hit him

(I cause (his) mother to hit him.)

2. haj wa: ʔa:n naw kacaŋ

I cause he laugh

(I cause him to laugh.)

3. haj wɑ: ʔɑ:n naw tuaŋ
   I cause he afraid
   (I cause him to be afraid.)

4. haj ʔɑ:n naw ci:
   I let he go
   (I let him go.)

5. haj ʔɑ:n ʔano? tam naw
   I tell father hit him
   (I tell (his) father hit him)

This slot does not occur with equational, superlative, comparative and ambient clauses.

3.2.4 Accompanying actor กับ และ

The accompanying actor slot occurs post-nuclear, but before final particles. This slot is filled by na? + a noun phrase, as :

1. "amɛ̀? ʔɑ:n do:j ʔacɔ: na? haj
   mother give rice dog with I
   (Mother and I gave a dog some rice.)

2. haj ci: talà:t na? ʔamɛ̀? naŋ
   I go market with mother mk-too
   (I went to the market with (my) mother too.)

3. haj caw duŋ na? ʔamɛ̀?
   I came house with mother
   (I came home with (my) mother.)

Accompanying actor slot does not occur with ambient or equational clauses.

3.2.5 Accompanying Recipient

The accompanying recipient slot occurs post-nuclear, after the original recipient in the indirect object slot, filled by ± naŋ + noun phrase ∓ naŋ , as :

1. naw ʔa:n do:j ʔacɔ: ʔali:ʔ naŋ
   he give rice dog pig too
   (He gives some rice to a dog, and a pig.)

2. ʔamɛ̀ʔ ʔa:n ta:ŋ haj naŋ sɛ:m
   mother give money I too sister
   (Mother gives me and my sister some money.)

This slot occurs only with Bitransitive clause.

3.2.6 Beneficiary slot

The beneficiary slot occurs post-nuclear after a direct or indirect object. It rarely occurs in Kuay clauses, and it can be found only in Transitive clauses.

It filled by ʔa:n + noun phrase, as :

1. haj to:l num ʔa:n ma:ŋ
   I buy candy for you
   (I buy some candies for you.)

2. naw tà? pial dɔ:k chɔ:n ?a:n haj
she pick jasmin for me
(She picks jasmin for me.)

3. naw sade:t ?atria ? :n mɛ̀? phɯ̀:t
he pick mushroom for aunt
(He picks mushroom for (his) aunt.)

3.2.7 Instrumental slot

The instrumental slot normally occurs post-nuclear, after the direct or indirect object slot or after a verb when an object is deleted, filled by a noun phrase preceded by tiŋ 'with', as :

1. naw ca: do:j tiŋ təj
he eat rice with hand
(He eats rice with hand.)

2. naw tam tiŋ ?alɔ:ŋ
he hit by a piece of wood
(He hits (him) by a piece of wood.)

3. naw ca: tiŋ buaŋ
he eat with spoon
(He eats with spoon.)

4. naw ?ɔh do:j ?a:n haj tiŋ buaŋ
he scoop rice to me with spoon
(He scoops some rice to me with spoon.)

5. naw khian cot ma:j ʔa:n haj tiŋ cakɛh samùt
   he write letter to me by pencil
   (He writes a letter to me by a pencil.)

This slot does not occur with equational, intransitive, ambient, motion, quotative, possession, comparative, superlative, existential and propulsion clauses.

3.2.8 Adverbals

The adverbal slot usually occurs post-nuclear, before a final particle, and when it occurs with an instrumental slot it follows that instrumental. This slot is filled by adverbs such as,

1. lɛ:w 'already (past tense)'
2. krɔ: 'slowly', waj 'quickly' and bi? {'few' 'little'}

These adverbs may have reduplicative form as;

a. Complete reduplication which strengthens the meaning, in which the reduplicated (1 st) element usually has rising pitch and is longer than the root (2 nd) element, such as :

krɔ:ˊ	krɔ:	'very slowly'
waˊ:j	waj	'very quickly'
biˊ:?	bi?	'very few, little'

b. Complete reduplication which weakens the meaning : the first element in the reduplication is shortened, with no pitch change, as :

krɔ:	krɔ:	'somewhat slowly'
waj	waj	'somewhat quickly'
bi?	bi?	'somewhat little'

Examples :

1. ca: lɛ:w
   eat already
   (ate)

2. naw ca: do:j lɛ:w
   he eat rice already
   (He ate rice.)

3. naw hu:c krɔ:
   he walk slowly
   (He walks slowly.)

4. naw hu:c krɔ: krɔ:
   he walk somewhat slowly
   (He walks somewhat slowly.)

5. naw hu:c krɔ:→ krɔ:
   he walk slowly slowly
   (He walks very slowly.)

6. ?amɛ̀? tam naw tiŋ ?alɔ:ŋ khraŋ→ khraŋ
   mother hit him by piece of wood hard hard
   (Mother hits him very hard by a piece of wood.)

7. ?amɛ̀? pi? tam naw khra:ŋ khraŋ ?əh
mother not hit him hard hard FP-neg
(Mother doesn't hit him very hard.)

This construction occurs rarely in an equational clause.

3.2.9 Final particles

The final particle slot is usually the last post-nuclear position, filled by a small class of words, the final particles. They can function in either the final slot of a clause or the final slot of a sentence. It is very difficult to define the semantic function or meanings of these particles, however its meaning can include affirmation, negation, interrogative, Command and request. They are :

a. Affirmation : dʌ:, ?ɛh, ?e:ŋ, hʌ:j, lʌ:j
b. Negation : ?əh
c. Interrogative : the:, bɔ:/bɔ?, hʌ:j, mɛ:n the:, mɛ:n bɔ:/bɔ?;
mɛ:n hʌ:j
d. Command/ Request : dʌ:, mɛh, nə? bʌ̀ŋ, bʌ̀ŋ,wa?, nə?, nɯ:

These particles normally occur only one at a time, and are usually just a simple morpheme, never-theless I found one complex morpheme nə? bʌ̀ŋ, as :

Example :

1. ŋaj nɛ: ?aj sakɑ? lɛ:w dʌ:
today it cold already FP-affirmation
(Today, it was cold.)

2. duŋ mɑ:ŋ canap ʔɛh

house you beautiful FP-strengthen the meaning

(Your house is very beautiful.)

3. naw wɑ:w pa:j duŋ nɛ: canap ʔɛh

he say that house this beautiful FP

(He says that this house is very beautiful.)

4. t.iŋ ʔɛ: ranɔ: hʌ:j

will get now FP-indicate specific point of time

((I) want to get it now.)

5. naw pi? diŋ rɯaŋ lʌ:j

he not know stery FP-obsolutely

(He doesn't know anything.)

6. haj pi? jah ca: ʔəh

I not want eat FP-neg

(I don't want to eat.)

7. hɛw | the: / bɔ: / bɔʔ / hʌ:j

hungry FP-question

(Is he hungry?)

8. naw he:w | mɛ:n the:
mɛ:n bɔ:
mɛ:n bɔʔ
mɛ:n hʌ:j

he hungry FP-question for assurance

(Is he hungry, really?)

9. jah ʔa:n takaw sɛ:ŋ dʌ:

don't sit state of-going down FP-command, rather polite

(Don't sit down.)

10. wa:w thʌ:n mɛh

say again FP-command

(Say again.)

11. thwal mɛ: nəʔ bʌŋ

bet see FP - command + request sense

(Let (me) see.)

12. ntəj | bʌŋ - rather command
mɛh - rather request

tell FP

(Tell!)

13. ci: waʔ

go FP - command

(Go!)

14. thʷal ci: nə̃?

get go FP - request

(Please Give (me) the way.)

15. ca: ɯaj waj nɯ̃:

eat somewhat-quickly FP - request

(Eat quickly, please.)

16. takaw sɛ:ŋ nɯ̃:

sit down FP - request

(Sit down, please.)

3.3 Transitivity modifications

3.3.1 Reflexives Clause types containing more than one participant slot can sometimes have the same person filling many slots.

3.3.1.1 Subject : Object reflexives are formed by using an optional reflexive pronoun {haj} or noun (organ) plus obligatory reflexive marker ca?e:ŋ/?e:ŋ in the object slot or the undergoer slot, as :

1. haj che: haj | ca?e:ŋ / ?e:ŋ

I scold I Ref.mk

(I scold myself.)

2. naw tam ca?e:ŋ

he hit Ref.mk

(He hits himself.)

3. naw kajaŋ joh ca?e:ŋ

he laugh laugh at Ref.mk

(He laughs at himself.)

4. naw tah tanoh ca?e:ŋ

he slap mouth Ref.mk

(He slaps his own mouth.)

5. haj tam jɯ:ŋ ca?e:ŋ

I hit leg Ref.mk

(I hit my own leg.)

3.3.1.2 Subject : Indirect object reflexives are formed by using an optional reflexive pronoun {haj} plus obligatory reflexive marker ca?e:ŋ/?e:ŋ in the indirect object slot or Beneficiary slot, as :

1. haj to:l num ?ɑ:n haj ?e:ŋ

I buy candy for me Ref.mk

(I buy candy for myself.)

2. naw bɔ:j sata:ŋ ?ɑ:n naw ca?e:ŋ

he {find / get} money for him Ref.mk

(He gets some money for himself.)

3. naw to:l nchik so:t ?ɑ:n naw ca?e:ŋ

she buy silk for her Ref.mk

(She buys silk for herself.)

4. naw ?ɔh do:j ?ɑ:n ca?e:ŋ

he scoop up rice for Ref.mk

(He scoops up some rice for himself.)

3.3.1.3 Reflexivity may also have the same person as a subject in a main clause and as a subject or an actor in a Quatative subordinate clause, as :

1. ʔadɛ:ŋ diŋ pa:j naw toŋ ci:
   Daeng know that he must go
   (Daeng knows that he must go.)

2. naw pa:j kʌ: po:c sana:p
   she say I pull up young rice plant
   (She says, "I pull up young rice plant.")

3. haj ntəj pa:j haj ci: dʌ:
   I tell that I go FP
   (I say that I go.)

3.3.1.4 Reflexivity may also have the same person as a subject in a main clause, and as an object or an undergoer in a Quotative subordinate clause, as :

1. ʔadɛ:ŋ diŋ pa:j ʔamɛ̀? tiŋ tam naw
   Daeng know that mother will hit him
   (Daeng knows that (his) mother will hit him.)

2. naj diŋ pa:j ʔano? mak haj
   I know that father love me
   (I know that (my) father love me.)

3. naw ntəj pa:j maːŋ pi? mak naw
   he tell that you not love him
   (He tells that you don't love him.)

3.3.2 Reciprocals. Two participants in an action may be doing the action to each other.

3.3.2.1 Subject : Object reciprocals are formed by using additive marker : na? linking two subjects or using a plural form in subject position and particle ndo: 'each other' as, in post verb position.

1. dɛ:ŋ na? dam tam ndo:
   Daeng and Dam hit each other
   (Daeng and Dam hit each other.)

2. dɛ:ŋ bɯa na? dam tam ndo:
   Daeng two cl Dam hit each other
   (Two people Daeng and Dam hit each other.)

3. sɛ:m sa:j tam ndo:
   younger-sibling older-sibling hit each
   (Sisters/Brothers hit each other.)

4. mo: haj tam ndo:
   pl I hit each other
   (We hit each other.)

3.3.2.2 Subject : Indirect object reciprocals are formed by using plural subject in initial slot and ndo: 'each other' in final slot as {beneficiary / recipient}, as :

1. mo: haj to:l ma:l ʔa:n ndo:
   pl I buy thing for each other
   (We buy thing for each other.)

2. haj kat sɔ? ʔa:n ndo:

we cut hair for each other

(We had cut our hair.)

3. ʔano? ʔamɛ̀? to:l nchik so:t ʔa:n ndo:

father mother buy silk for each other

(Father and mother buy silk for each other.)

3.4 Neutralized transitivity

Neutralized transitivity focuses only the necessary information. The normal transitivity status of a clause (intransitive, bitransitive, quotative, etc.) is obscured, and the clause may look like a different transitivity type, often looking like an intransitive.

1. naw kamlaŋ tol

he -ing buy

(He is buying.) (Transitive)

2. naw lah ci:

he go out dir of going

(He goes out.) (Motion)

3. naw kamlaŋ ca:

he -ing eat

(He is eating.) (Transitive)

4. naw ntaj

he tell

(He tells.) (Quotative)

5. naw ca: lɛ:w

he eat already

(He ate.) (Transitive)

So it makes the form of each clause look the same but they are different in meaning and in deep structure.

1. naw kamlaŋ ca: Transitive Clause.

he -ing eat

(He is eating.)

naw kamlaŋ ʔɑ:n Bitransitive Clause.

he -ing give

(He is giving.)

naw kamlaŋ bik klʌʔ Intransitive Clause

he -ing sleep

(He is sleeping.)

2. naw ca: lɛ:w Transitive Clause

he eat already

(He ate.)

naw ʔɑ:n lɛ:w Bitransitive Clause

he give already

(He gave.)

naw bik klʌʔ lɛ:w Intransitive Clause

he sleep already

(He slept.)

From the examples, transitivity distinctions are neutralized by adding kam lan '-ing' or lɛ:w 'already' to the verb and omitting all nominal slots after the verb.

3.5 Deletions, weakenings

3.5.1 Deletions

The elements of a nuclear clause can be optionally deleted.

a. A subject can be deleted when it is the subject of the second clause in a compounded clause, as :

1. naw jah kʌ? ca: pi? jah wɑ: wia?
   he want only eat not want work
   (He wants to eat but doesn't want to work.)

2. naw hew teh pi? jah ca:
   he hungry but not want eat
   (He is hungry but doesn't want to eat.)

The subject of a main clause can be deleted when it is an imperative or request clause, as :

1. jah ʔɑ:n caw nɛ:
   don't come here
   (Don't come here.)

2. jah ʔɑ:n ci: dʌ:
   don't go FP-imperative
   (Don't go.)

3. wɑ:w thʌ:n mɛh

speak again FP-request

(Say again, please.)

The subject of a main clause can be optionally deleted when a clause is used in familiar speech and the subject is known, as :

1. canap ʔɛh

beautiful FP-strengthen meaning

((you) are very beautiful.)

2. sɔ:p bɯ:n the:

pass the exam can FP-Question

(Can (you) pass the exam?)

b. An Object can be deleted when it is already known, as :

1. naw ca: lɛ:w

hɜ eat already

(He eat (rice).)

2. naw to:l ʔɑ:n mɑ:ŋ

he buy for you

(He buys (something) for you.)

3.5.2 Weakenings

Elements of a clause can be weakened by pronominalization, by the use of generics, or by reduplication.

3.5.2.1 Pronominalization

3.5.2.1.1 The Subject of the clause is replaced by pronouns under the following conditions :

a. To mark sentence cohesion, as :

1. ?adɛ:ŋ ci: talà:t naw to:l nthrɛ̀:l
   Daeng go market he buy hen
   (Daeng goes to the market. He buys a hen.)

2. ?asaw ci: wɑ: ca: naw phʌ:? ?achʌ:l
   Saw aux make eat he meet tiger
   (Saw goes to find something to eat. He meets a tiger.)

b. As a generic substitute for an item that is already known, as :

1. naw kʌ:t kɑ:n phɯ̀:t
   he is child big
   (He is the biggest child.) -No need to mention his name.

2. naw ci: lɛ:w
   he go already
   (He went.)

3.5.2.1.2 Objects may be replaced by a pronoun under the followning conditions,

a. To mark sentence cohesion.

1. ?adɛ:ŋ tam sɛ:m , mɛ̀? kʌ? tam naw -Direct objec
   Daeng hit younger-sibling mother so hit him
   (Daeng hits (his) younger sibling, so his mother hits him.)

2. ʔadɛ:ŋ pi? kua duŋ haj phʌ:? naw ʔu: talà:t -Direct object
   Daeng not stay house I meet him at marker
   (Daeng doesn't stay home. I meet him at the market.)

3. ŋaj nɛ: haj tac nthruaj ʔɑ:n ʔadɛ:ŋ. tʌ? calah haj tiŋ tac
   today I sell hen to Daeng tomorrow I will sell
   nthruaj ʔɑ:n naw thʌ:n - Indirect object
   hen to him again
   (Today I sell a hen to Daeng. Tomorrow I will sell a hen to him again.)

b. As a generic substitute

1. haj ci: bɔ:j naw - Direct Obj.
   I aux-go find him
   (I go to see him.)

2. ʔadɛ:ŋ phʌ:? naw - Direct obj.
   Daeng meet him
   (Daeng meets him.)

3. haj sòŋ num ʔɑ:n naw - Indirect obj.
   I send candy to him
   (I {send / give} candies to him.)

3.5.2.2 Generics

Specific terms may be replaced by generic terms under the condition of avoiding mentioning the specific type of that thing, or when the specific type is already known, or when the specific type is irrelevant.

1. pial dɔ:k chɔ:n mpho:m → pial nɛ: mpho:m
   flower jasmin fragrant flower this fragrant
   (Jasmin is fragrant.) (This flower is fragrant.)

2. ?aka: sakaŋ nɛ: ?ɛ:m → ?aka: nɛ: ?ɛ:m
   fish catfish this delicious fish this delicious
   (This catfish is delicious.) (This fish is delicious.)

3. ?ɛ: triam cəw → ?ɛ: ma:l kəj cəw
   bring spade dir-come bring thing that come
   (Bring a spade here.) (Bring that thing here.)

3.5.2.3 Reduplication

Using a reduplicated verb or adverbal weakens the meaning, as :

1. naw ca: bi? bi?
   he eat somewhat little
   (He eats somewhat little.)

2. kuaj phɯ̀:t -- phɯ̀:t
   man somewhat big
   (A man is somewhat big.)

3.6 Negation

A clause can be negated by using : pi?, wi?, lɛh or jah ?a:n before main verb, and it sometimes also has a negative final '?ah' (Excepting with jah ?a:n.), as :

1. naw pi? ci: talà:t ?əh

   she not go market FP

   (She doesn't go to the market.)

2. naw pi? diŋ pa:j haj ci: duŋ ma:ŋ

   he not know that I go house you

   (He doesn't know that I go to your house.)

3. jah ?a:n ci: talà:t

   don't go market

   (Don't go to the market.)

3.7 Prominence

Elements in a clause are given emphasis by :

3.7.1 Topicalization

It is used when a thing or a participant is treated as the center of interest in the clause (or sentence). In the Kuay language, the participant which is the topic will be placed in the front position of the clause, as :

mpe:t mbɯa? ?ɛ: ci: ?əh ←mbɯa? ?ɛ: mpe:t ci: ?əl

knife don't must bring go FP don't must bring knife go FP

(A knife, you must not take away.) (You must not bring a knife away

3.7.2 Focus

Normal focus is on the Actor, but by passivization focus can be put on the *Undergoer*, as :

ʔacɔ:	kra:j	tam	←	kuaj	tam	ʔacɔ:
dog	is	hit		man	hit	dog
(A dog is hit.)				(A man hits a dog.)		

3.7.3 Other prominences

3.7.3.1 Reduplication, either in main verb or in adverbals, using the reduplication form which strangthens the meaning (Sec. 2.8), as :

1. naw cāna:p canap
   he beautiful beautiful
   (He is very beautiful.)
2. naw ca: bi:? bi?
   he eat little little
   (He eats very little.)

3.7.3.2 Repetition, in which the whole clause (except the subject) is repeated,

naw ca: do:j ʔɛ: ca: do:j ʔɛ:
he eat rice get eat rice get
(He eats and eats rice.)

Sometimes the final slot of the first clause can take rising pitch, as :

naw	ca:	do:j	?ɛ:	ca:	do:j	?ɛ:
he	eat	rice	get	eat	rice	get

(He eats and eatsrice.)

3.7.2.3 Special word. Using special verb (Sec. 2.9), as :

naw	ɲat	do:j	–	naw	ca:	do:j
he	eat	rice		he	eat	rice

(He eats rice.)

3.7.3.4 Using the emphasizer ha? , a marker which emphasizes some element or the whole statement. It is placed immediately after the emphasized element, as :

1. ma:ŋ ha? mprɔ:n → emphasiges ma:ŋ
   you mk run
   (You run.)

2. nɛ: haŋ haj ha? → emphasizes the whole clause
   this of I mk
   (This thing is mine.)

3.7.3.5 Using long phrases. These long phrases normally have comparative meaning, as :

1. naw mprɔ:n ci: jɑ:ŋ ʔasɛh lʌ:j
   he run dir-go like horse FP
   (He runs away as a horse.)

2. naw nchi:l jɑ:ŋ ʔacɛ:m re?
   he lazy like bird- singing myna
   (He is lazy as a singing myna.)

3.8 Transformation

Kuay transitive clauses can be transformed like this :

Transitive : Root / Act : haj, (I) P : tam, (hit) U : ʔacɔ: (dog) /

1. haj tam ʔacɔ: Actor focus (Active)
2. ʔacɔ: kra:j haj tam Undergoer focus (Passive)
3. ʔacɔ: haŋ kəj haŋ haj tam Unergoer focus - (Relative-cl)
4. ʔacɔ: haŋ haj tam kəj Undergoer focus (Relative - np)

Functors :

kra:j - passive marker

haŋ · marker used with demonstrative to show specific noun , and marker used with relative clause.

kəj · Demonstrative 'that'

Other clause types have their own batteries of transformations, which I will not go into here.

3.9 Compounding

Clauses can be compounded, in which two clauses may be formed by simple juxtaposition or being linked together by other compound markers. They can be divided into four types : equivalent, contrastive alternative and additive.

3.9.1 Equivalent compounding. The regular form is a positive clause followed by negative clause without any linking markers. Both of them have the same or similar meaning, as :

1. pho: naw ca: ɛ:w | naw kʌ? mprɔ:n ci: lʌ̃j
   when he eat already he then run des-go FP
   naw pi? bɯ:n hu:c ci: ?əh
   he not can walk des-go FP
   ((when he had eaten), he ran away; he didn't walk away)

2. naw bik klʌ? (naw) pi? bɯ:n ju:l
   he sleep not can get up
   (He sleeps; he doesn't get up.)

3. ?aj mo:j pi? diŋ rɯaŋ lʌ:j
   it mad not know story FP
   (He is mad; (he) doesn't know anything.)

3.9.2 Contrastive compounding. Its form is the first clause followed by the second clause with contrastive marker : teh , as :

1. naw cakhɑ:m teh naw kʌ:t kamlaŋ
   he thin mk he have power
   (He is thin but he is strong.)

2. ma:l nɛ: thalaj teh canap
   thing this expensive mk beautiful
   (This thing is expensive but it is beautiful.)

3. naw jah teh ca: teh naw pi? jah wɑ: wia?
   he like only eat mk he not like work
   (He likes to eat but he doesn't like to work.)

3.9.3 Alternative Compounding. It permits a choice from usually two clauses. They are combined by rɯh , diŋ.

1. naw ca: diŋ naw wɑ: wia?
   he eat mk he do work
   (He eats or he works.)

2. naw ca: diŋ naw pi? ca:
   he eat mk he not eat
   (He eats or he doesn't eat.)

3. naw ca: rɯh naw pi? ca:
   he eat mk he not eat
   (He eats or he doesn't eat.)

rɯh can replace diŋ in all cases, but diŋ can not always replace rɯh because their meanings are not the same, rɯh is used in situation in which the speaker either knows or does not know the decision of the others. diŋ is used only in situations which the speaker does not know the decision of the others.

One example where diŋ can not replace rɯh,

mɑ:ŋ	tiŋ	cɑ:	rɯh	mɑ:ŋ	pi?	cɑ:	kʌ?	bɯ:n
you	will	eat	or	you	not	eat	so	can

(You can eat or you can't eat, never mind.)

3.9.4 Additive Compounding. Two clauses are combined by :

a. Being juxtaposed

1. naw cɑ: ci: kɛ:l ci:
   he eat des.go play des
   (He eats and plays at the same moment.)

2. naw pachaj jah bik
   he fine want sleep
   (He is fine and wants to sleep.)

b. Adding additive markers : nəŋ...nəŋ, tiŋ...tiŋ, as :

1. naw ca: nəŋ kɛ:l nəŋ
   he eat mk play mk
   (He eats and plays.)

2. naw tiŋ mprɔ:n tiŋ hu:c
   he mk run mk walk
   (He runs and walks.)

3.10 Relative clause

The Relative clause is described as an embedded clause used to modify the head noun in a noun in a noun phrase.

1. ʔacɔ: haŋ mo: khanɯa ʔa:n haj kəj
   dog mk pl friend give I that
   (That dog which my friends gave.)

2. ʔacɔ: haŋ mo: khanɯa ʔa:n haj kəj canap
   do mk pl friend gave I that beautiful
   (That dog which my friend give is beautiful.)

'haŋ mo: khanɯa ʔa:n haj' is a relative clause used to modify the head noun ʔacɔ:. A relative clause is formed by marker haŋ plus a reduced clause from which the head noun of the matrix noun phrase has been deleted.

Chapter IV

Sentences

4.0 General statement

A sentence is a syntactic unit which is normally characterized by having one independent main clause, and may also have one or more subordinate clauses and temporal or location setting, and can be introduced by an initial particle. Sentences normally function as elements in a paragraph, but may also be embedded in many different types of sentences.

4.1 Structural types and functions

Sentences here may be divided into the following main structure types :

1. Simple Sentence
2. Compound Sentence
3. Complex Sentence

This division is based on criteria of the number of actions, the linkage types and the clause forms.

4.1.1 Simple sentence

The simple sentence is manifested by a single clause which shows one action. Each of the clause types described earlier, may be manifested without either grammatical dependence on another clause or having another clause depend on it. Its nuclear formula is :

+ M.Cl. : $cl_{indep.}$

1. naw takaw sɛ:ŋ
   he sit down
   (He sits down.)

2. naw kua ca?ɔ:p
   he stay well
   (He is well.)

3. naw lop caw duŋ
   he return come house
   (He comes back home.)

4. naw nchi:l ju:l
   he lazy get (up)
   (He is too lazy to get up.)

5. naw pi? kua duŋ
   he not stay house
   (He doesn't stay home.)

4.1.2 Compound Sentence

Compound Sentences are manifested by at least two independent clauses which normally have two actions and are joined by the optional compounding markers (Cl. 3.9) There are equivalent, contrastive, alternative, and additive compound sentences. Its nuclear formula is : + Cl_1 : $cl_{indep.}$ ± Compounding marker + Cl_2 : $cl_{indep.}$, as :

4.1.2.1 Equivalent : it means the same thing. The first clause and the second clause clarify each other, they coordinate without any

markers, as :

1. naw pi? pachaj naw hew
   he not full he hungry
   (He isn't full, he is hungry.)

2. naw takɔh naw kʌ:t ?aho:l
   he sick he have fever
   (He is sick, he has a fever.)

3. naw mprɔ:n naw pi? bɯ:n hu:c
   he run he not can walk
   (He runs, he doesn't walk.)

4.1.2.2 Contrastive : the clauses show an opposite situation. The clauses are linked by marker teh, as :

1. naw hew teh naw pi? jah ca:
   he hungry mk he not want eat
   (He is hungry but he doesn't want to eat.)

2. naw cakhɑ:m teh naw kʌ:t kamlaŋ
   he thin mk he have power
   (He is thin but he is strong.)

3. ?uh kasac teh haj pi? tuaŋ
   light extinguish mk I not fear
   (The light goes out, but I don't fear.)

4.1.2.3 Alternative : a choice which depends on a situation. Clauses are linked by the marker rɯh or diŋ, as :

1. naw tiŋ caw rɯh ma:ŋ tiŋ caw
   he will come mk you will come
   (He will come or you will come.)

2. naw jah ci: thiaw ci: mɛ: naŋ diŋ jah kua duŋ
   he want go wander go see movie mk want stay house
   (He may want to wander or see the movie or he may want to stay home.)

3. naw tiŋ ci: tɔ: tabah rɯh naw tiŋ ci: talà:t
   he will go fish mk he will go market
   (He will go fishing or he will go to the market.)

4.1.2.4 Additive : it combines the clauses by the marker naŋ or without any markers, being juxtaposed.

1. naw ca: do:j naw ŋa:t dɯa? nəŋ
   he eat rice he drink water mk
   (He eats rice and he drinks water, too.)

2. phrah ma: ?uh kasac naŋ
   rains light extinguish mk
   (It rained and the light went out, too.)

3. naw kʌ:t mɛ̀? haj kʌ:t mɛ̀? thaw ma:ŋ
   she is mother I is aunt you
   (She is my mother and is your aunt.)

It can be noticed that additive and equivalent can be juxtaposed sentences.

4.1.3 Complex Sentence

The complex sentence is manifested by at least two clauses : two actions, one of which is independent, being the major clause or main clause, and the other is dependent, being the minor clause or subordinate clause. They may be linked together by conjunctions. They are condition, reason and sequence complex sentences.

Its nuclear formula is :

+ M.Cl : $cl_{major\ indep.}$ + Subor Cl. : $cl_{minor.\ dep.}$

or

+ Subor : $cl_{minor.dep.}$ + M.Cl : $cl_{major\ indep.}$

1. khal naw caw haj tiŋ ci: - Condition
   if he come I will go
   (If he comes, I will go.)

   khal naw hew naw tiŋ ca:
   if he hungry he will eat
   (If he is hungry, he will eat.)

2. naw ci: duŋ phroh phrah ma: - Reason
   he go house because rain
   (He goes home because it rains.)

   phroh phrah ma: naw ci: duŋ
   because rain he go house
   (Because it rains he goes home.)

3. naw ŋa:t dwa? ɲuaŋ naw ca: do:j -Sequence
   he drink water before he eat rice
   (He {drinks / drank} water before he eats rice.)

   ɲuaŋ phrah ma: naw ci: duŋ
   before rain he go house
   (Before it rains he {goes / went} home.)

4.2 Periphery

Peripheral elements which may accompany and modify a sentence nucleus are :

4.2.1 Temporal (Time setting). It can occur before or after a sentence nucleus. In Kuay, temporal normally occurs before the sentence but it can occur after sentence, too. The formula for its placement is : ± T + Sen : nuc ∓ T , as :

1. ɲaj nɛ: naw ci: duŋ phroh kataw
   today he go house because hot
   (Today he goes home because it's hot.)

2. ɲaj taba:j naw ci: duŋ phroh phrah ma:
   yesterday he go house because rain
   (Yesterday he went home because it rained.)

3. phel calah naw bik kua duŋ
   in the morning he sleep stay house
   (In the morning he slept at home.)

4. naw bik kua duŋ phel clalh
   he sleep stay home in the morning
   (He slept at home in the morning.)

5. naw ci: duŋ phroh phrah ma: duh nɔ:
   he go house because rain a moment ago
   (He went home because it rained a moment ago.)

4.2.2 Location (Location setting). It can occur before or after a sentence nucleus. When it occurs with a temporal in prenuclear position, it is placed after the temporal.

Its formula is : ± T ± L + Sen ± L.

1. phrah ma: ?u: mɯaŋ
   rains in town
   (It rains in the town.)

2. ŋaj nɛ: ?u: mɯaŋ phrah ma:
   today in town rains
   (Today, in the town, it rains.)

3. ŋajba:j ?u: mɯaŋ ?aj kataw
   yesterday in town it hot
   (Yesterday, in the town, it was hot.)

4.2.3 Introductory particles. They are found in narrative text, being used to focus the event and participant, or change the main participant or start a new event. Some introductory particles are sanɛ:, nɛ:.

For example :

1. naw ntəj ʔacɛ:m pa:j ʔacɛ:m maj ci: duŋ ɲuaŋ ci: ,
   he tell bird that bird you go house before go

   ʔɑ:n mɛ̀? kʌ: wɑ: ca: cam ʔacɛ:m ʔaj kʌ? pal ci: .
   for mother I cook wait bird it then fly dir.go

   sanɛ: naw sɛ:ŋ ŋɑ:t dɯa? mpɔh - change event.
   Intro.Part.- he aux. -go down drink water well

   (He tells a bird to go home before him for his mother to cook it. The bird flies away. He go down (in the well) to drink water.)

2. ....mɛ̀? naw pa:j kʌ: doŋ cam maj ci: bɔ:j
   mother he said I still wait you aux.go find

   ca: , maj bɯn nɑ: cəw wɑ: ca: . nɛ: ʔasàw
   eat you get what come cook Intro.Part Sau

   pa:j haj pro:h ʔacɛ:m cəw ʔɑ:n mɑ:ŋ wah wɑ: ca:
   said I let bird come for you split cook

   ɲuaŋ lɛ:w mɑ:ŋ pi? bɯ̄:n wɑ̄:ca: cam . nɛ: mɛ̀?
   before already you not can cook wait mother

   naw pa:j na: maj ŋo: ʔɛh. .... - change participant
   he said why you foolish FP and focus new formation.

   (His mother said that she had been waiting for him to find something to eat, and asked what he got to eat.)

4.2.4 Preposed exclamation. It is used to open a sentence; showing emotion, self-conciousness of the speaker or being as a curse , as :

1. kachɯaŋ ci? ! naw pi? ci: mo: haj kʌ? ci:
   let' it be he not go we then go
   (Let' it be, if he doesn't go we go.)

2. kataw nih ! mo: haj mò:t ci: khɛŋ kanɔŋ ci?
   hot very we come in des outside go
   (It's hot ! we go inside together.)

3. sakɑ? nih ! nthʌ:l thabɯa nʌ?
   cold very close door FP
   (It's cold, Close the door, please.)

4. ʔɔ: nih ! naw cəw
   good very he come
   (It's good, he comes.)

5. ʔacɔ: ! maj pi? diŋ rɯaŋ lʌ:j
   dog you not know story FF
   (Dog, You don't know anything.)

4.3 Deletions

Elements in a sentence may be deleted under following conditions :

4.3.1 Deleting an independent clause. Normally the independent clause does not get deleted, but it can occur in the case of an Equivalent compounding sentence, because it talks about the same thing. So the

hearer can understand eventhough one clause is deleted, as :

1. naw mprɔ:n ci: pi? hu:c ci: ?əh —> naw mprɔ:n ci:
   he run des not walk des FP he run des
   (*He runs away, doesn't walk away.*) (*He runs away.*)

2. naw bik klʌ? pi? bɯ:n ju:l ?əh —> naw bik klʌ?
   he sleep not can get (up) FP he sleep
   (He sleeps, doesn't get up.) (He sleeps.)

4.3.2 Deleting a subordinate clause. It can be deleted when the speaker and the hearer know well the reason, cause, condition or action which relate to a main clause, or the main clause is a regular result of that reason, cause, or condition, as :

1. khal phrah ma: haj pi? ci: ?əh —>haj pi? ci: ?əh
   if rains I not go FP I not go FP
   (If it rains, I don't go.) (I don't go.)

2. mὲ? *tam haj phroh haj tam sɛ:m* —>mὲ:? *tam haj*
   mother hit me because I hit younger mother hit me
   (My mother hits me because I hit my- younger sibling.) (My mother hits me.)

4.4 Transformation

Sentences can be transformed. A Conditional Sentence can be transformed like this :

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Conditional Sentence :

Root : Condition : /?amɛ̀? pi? kua — Result : haj ci: kɛ:l/

(Mother doesn't stay.) (I go to play.)

It can be transformed as a full battery.

Formulas	Functions
1. Con. Re.	normal. - general, habit.
2. khal Con. Re.-tiŋ-....	normal. - future
3. Re. phroh Con.	slightly emph. Con.
4. Con. Re.-kʌ?-....	Emph. Re.
5. tʌ? Con. Re.-kʌ? tiŋ-....	Emph. Re - future
6. phroh Con. Re. -kʌ?-....	Emph. both Con. - Re.
7. tʌ? Con Re. lʌ:lʌ:	Emph. Re - certain.

Examples :

1. ?amɛ̀? pi? kua haj ci: kɛ:l
   mother not stay I go play
   (When mother doesn't stay (home), I go to play.)

2. khal ?amɛ̀? pi? kua haj tiŋ ci: kɛ:l
   if mother not stay I will go play
   (If my mother doesn't stay (home), I will go to play.)

3. haj ci: kɛ:l phroh ?amɛ̀? pi? kua
   I go play because mother not stay
   (I go to play because my mother doesn't stay (home).)

4. ?amɛ̀? pi? kua haj kʌ? ci: kɛ:l

mother not stay I so go play

(My mother doesn't stay (home) so I go to play.)

5. tʌ? ?amɛ̀? pi? kua haj kʌ? tiŋ ci: kɛ:l

though mother not stay I so will go play

(Though my mother doesn't stay (home) I will go to play.)

6. phroh ?amɛ̀? pi? kua haj kʌ? ci: kɛ:l

because mother not stay I so go play

(Because my mother doesn't stay home, so I go to play.)

7. tʌ? ?amɛ̀? pi? kua haj ci: kɛ:l lʌ: lʌ:

when mother not stay I go play really

(When my mother doesn't stay (home) I really go to play.)

Functors :-

khal - if

-tiŋ- - will (embedded in clause between S≠V.)

-kʌ?- - then, So (embedded in clause between S≠V.)

phroh - because

tʌ? - when, though

lʌ:lʌ: - really

4.5 Semantic structure

The Semantic structures of the sentence described here are propositions, sentence modalities and presuppositions.

4.5.1 Propositions. Propositions are classified according to the semantic relationships between the clauses, not according to their forms or their speech act types. They include one-action, covarying, conditional and deductive propositions.

4.5.1.1 One-action. These sentences contain no structural implication for other nuclear sentence-level slots. So the sentence is composed fo just a Statement.

Formula : One-action.

1. ʔadɛ:ŋ ci: duŋ
   Daeng go house
   (Daeng goes home.)

2. ɓaj phʌ:ʔ naw
   I meet him
   (I meet him.)

3. naw cɐw duŋ lɛ:w
   he come house already
   (He came home.)

4. ʔamɛ̀ʔ ʔa:n ta:ŋ ma:ŋ lɛ:w ɓɔ:
   mother give money you already FP
   (Did mother give you some money ?)

4.5.1.2 Covarying. This is a sliding-scale conditional sentence. The sentence is composed of a Condition Variable followed by a Result variable. These two clauses are linked by ....mah na:....mah kɐj.,

or hɛ:ŋ....hɛ:ŋ...., or hɛ:ŋ.... mah na:....mah kaj.

Formula : Conditional variable - Free variable, as :

1. naw he:w mah na: naw ca: mah kaj:
   he hungry he eat
   (The more he is hungry, the more he eats.)

2. niat mana:ŋ mah na: kʌ? kataw mah kaj.
   near sun so hot
   (The nearer the sun, the hotter it is.)

3. hɛ:ŋ (naw) mprɔ:n waj mah na: (naw) kʌ? ?et mah kaj
   he run quick he so tired
   (The more quickly he runs, the more he is tired.)

4. hɛ:ŋ ca: kʌ? hɛ:ŋ pachaj
   eat so fine
   (The more eat, the more be fine.)

5. hɛ:ŋ sakɔ? kuaj hɛ:ŋ lɛh da:l
   cold person die many
   (The colder it got, the more men died.)

4.5.1.3 Condition. This is a relationship of two actions, a conditioning action and a resulting action. These two clauses are joined together by { khal 'if' / wela: 'when' }, forming a conditional sentence.

Formula : Condition - Result.

1. khal naw he:w naw tiŋ ca:
   if he hungry he will eat
   (If he is hungry, he will eat.)

2. khal naw pi? he:w naw kʌ? pi? ca:
   if he not hungry he so not eat
   (If he isn't hungry, he doesn't eat.)

3. khal phrah ma: tiŋ pi? ci:
   if rains will not go
   (If it rains (I) will not go.)

4. khal phrah pi? ma: haj tiŋ ci:
   if rain not I will go
   (If it doesn't rain, I will go.)

5. khal kʌ:t rot haj kʌ? tiŋ ci:
   if have bus I so will go
   (If there are buses, I will go.)

6. We:la: naw he:w naw ca:
   when he hungry he eat
   (When he is hungry, he eats.)

7. we:la: naw pi? he:w na:w pi? ca:
   when he not hungry he not eat
   (When he is not hungry, he doesn't eat.)

8. naw pi? ca: weːla: naw kʌ:t ʔaho:l
   he not eat when he has fever
   (He doesn't eat when he has a fever.)

9. naw ʔi: phuŋ weːla naw pi? ca: doːj
   he hurt stomach when he not eat rice
   (He is stomach-ache, when he doesn't eat rice.)

4.5.1.4 Deductive. This is a sequence of clauses which composed of a General Grounds, a Specific grounds and a Conclusion, usually in that order.

Formula : General Grounds - Specific Grounds - Conclusion.

1. kuaj khlop na? tɔŋ lɛh, dɛ:ŋ kʌ:t kuaj kʌ? tɔŋ lɛh
   man every cl have to die Daeng is man so have to die
   (Every man has to die, Daeng is a man so he has to die.)

2. kuaj thaw pi? kʌ:t kamlaŋ, haj kʌ? kʌ:t kuaj thaw haj
   man old not have power I so be man old I
   kʌ? pi? kʌ:t kamlaŋ
   so not have power
   (An old person is not strong, I am an old man so I am not strong.)

3. kuaj khlop na? tɔŋ wɑ wia? , haj kʌ? kʌ:t kuaj
   man every cl have to work I so be man
   haj diŋ wɑ wia?
   I know work
   (Every person has to work, I am a person, so I can work.)

4. khlop do:ŋ phrah ma: ʔuh kasac ŋaj nɛ: phrah ma:
every times rains light extinguish today rains
ʔuh kasac lʌ:lʌ:
light extinguish really
(Everytimes when it rains the light goes out, today it is raining, so the light must really go out.)

5. wɛla: sakɔ? kuaj lɛh da:l ranɔ: sakɔ? hʌ:j kuaj
when cold man die many now cold already man
lɛh da:l lʌ:lʌ:
die many really
(When it is cold many men die. Now it is cold, so many men really are dying.)

4.5.2 Sentence modalities.

Sentence modalities are speech acts, psychological moods and reality status. They are pragmatic relationships between the speaker, hearer and the assumed real world.

4.5.2.1 Speech act types. There are three major kinds of speech acts : declarative, imperative and interrogative and there are at least three minor kinds of speech acts : social, self-expression and praise.

4.5.2.1.1 Declarative. This concerns information that the speaker gives to the hearer, or it gives sometimes a degree of assurance of a statement. It usually has an intanation pattern which is a level mid tone over the sentence with a slight fall on the last syllable.

1. naw wɑ wia?

   he work

   (He works.)

2. ?acɔ: kua kaduap to:?

   dog stay below table

   (A dog is under the table.)

3. ŋaj nɛ: kataw

   today hot

   (Today is hot.)

4. khal naw caw haj tiŋ ci: tiŋ naw

   if he come I will go with him

   (If he comes,I will go with him.)

5. khal dam mɔ̀:t jih naw tiŋ paŋ lamaŋ

   if Dum come in forest he will shoot deer

   (If Dum goes into the forest he will shoot a deer.)

4.5.2.1.2 Imperative. The imperative has degrees of compulsion and request. It is divided into two subtypes : a positive imperative and a negative imperative. Its intonation is marked by a rising or rise-falling pitch on the last syllable when it has final particle, or by a level pitch when it has no final particle.

a. Positive imperative : a sentence without subject slot and with an optional final particle : dʌ: , na?.....(Cf. 3.1.2.9 d) in the final slot, as :

1. takɑw sɛ:ŋ

   sit down

   (Sit down.)

2. caw nɛ:

   come here

   (Come here.)

3. takɑw sɛ:ŋ dʌ:

   sit down FP

   (Sit down.)

4. takɑw sɛ:ŋ na?

   sit dir FP

   (Sit down.) - rather be request

b. Negative imperative (prohibitive) : jah ʔɑ:n followed by a sentence without subject slot and with an optional final particle : dʌ: , na? , nɯ: , as :

1. jah ʔɑ:n takɑw sɛ:ŋ

   don't sit down

   (Don't sit down.)

2. jah ʔɑ:n ɲa:m

   don't cry

   (Don't cry.)

3. jah ʔɑ:n takɑw dʌ:

don't sit FP

(Don't sit down.)

4. jah ʔɑ:n ci: nə? / nɯ:

don't go FP

(Don't go.)

4.7.2.1.3 Interrogative. This is divided into two subypes : Yes/No Questions (or truth value questions) for asking about the assurance or reality of a statement , and Centent Questions for asking some information.

a. Yes/No questions.

The Yes/No question is, as the name indicates, a question which requires a simple "Yes' or 'No' answer. It is formed by a sentence plus question particle; the:, bɔ: or mɛ:n bɔ: . Its intonation has rise - falling or rising pitch on the final-syllable, as;

1. raw mɔh pa:j phrah ma: the:

he ask that rain FP

(He asked if it rains.)

2. naw mɔh pa:j phrah ma: bɔ:

he ask that rain FP

(He asksif it rained.)

3. naw mɔh pa:j phrah ma: mɛ:n bɔ:

   he ask that rain FP

   (He asks if it rains, is that right ?)

4. he:w the:

   hungry FP

   (Are you hungry ?)

5. he:w mɛ:n bɔ:

   hungry FP

   (You are hungry, right ?)

b. Content Questions

The content question is a question which requires some information. It is formed by a sentence in which some elements have their interrogative function shown by question words.

: daj 'who, whom' , na: 'where' , nɑ: 'what' , tʌʔ na: 'when' , ja:ŋ na: 'how' , ne? 'how many' , and mah na: ' {How many/ how much} how long'.

The intonation is marked by stress plus an intonation rise on the question word. , as :

1. daj cɑw

   who come

   (Who comes.)

2. cɑw tiŋ daj

   come with who

   (With whom did you come ?)

3. ci: na:

go where

(Where are you going ?)

4. ci: tʌ? na:

go when

(When did you go ?)

5. ci: ja:ŋ na:

go how

(How did you go ?)

6. ci: ne? na?

go how many cl-person

(How many persons went ?)

7. naw ci: du:l mah na:

he go long how much

(How long ago did he go ?)

8. lot bɯ:n mah na:

reduce can how many/how much

(How much can (you) reduce the price ?)

4.5.2.1.4 Social. It includes greeting and thanks, as :

1. greetings

ci: na:

go where

(Where are you going ?)

cɐw na:

come where

(Where have you come from ?)

ci: na: caw na:

go where come where

(Where are you going and where have you come from ?)

kua ca?ɔ:p the:

stay well FP

(Are you well ?)

ca?ɔ:p the:

well FP

(Are you well ?)

2. Thanks

khɔ:p | khun / caj | dʌ:

(Thanks !)

4.5.2.1.5 Self-Expression. This expresses understanding, shame, pain or anger. It takes rising pitch on the specific self-expression words.

1. ?a: ↗, cakhal lɛ:w

sw know already

(Yes, I knew.)

2. ?o:j ↗, haj ?asaŋ nih

sw I shame very

(I am very shamed.)

3. ʔo:j , ʔi: nih

sw is painful very

(I am very painful.)

4. hɯ: , haj calɔʔ lɛ:w dʌ:

sw I angry already FP

(I am angry , now.)

4.5.2.1.6 Praise. This sentence normally uses nih, lʌ:lʌ: , or nih lʌ: in the final slot.

1. mɑ:ŋ canap nih

you beautiful very

'You are very beautiful !'

2. mɑ:ŋ ram canap ɬʌ:lʌ:

you dance beautiful really

(You dance very beautifully !)

3. naw canap nih lʌ:

she beautiful very

(She is very beautiful.)

4.5.2.2 Psychological moods. These sentence elements represent the speaker's emotional involvement with his subject matter. There are many types as follow;

4.5.2.2.1 Pleasure. Degrees of pleasure, from pleased to displeased, as :

1. haj ʔəʔ we:la: naw caw

   I glad when he come

   (I am glad when he comes.)

2. haj kho:c mahɑ:m we:la: naw ci:

   I sad heart when he go

   (I am sad when he goes.)

3. haj caʔɑp mahɑ:m we:la: mɛ̀ʔ kua duŋ

   I well heart when mother stay house

   (I am happy when my mother stays home.)

4. haj piʔ caʔɑ:p mahɑ:m we:la: mɛ̀ʔ piʔ kua duŋ

   I not well heart when mother not stay house

   (I am not happy when my mother doesn't stay home.)

5. haj caʔɑ:p we:la: kɛ:l dɯaʔ tiŋ bɯaŋ

   I fun wnen play water in canal

   (I have fun when I swim in the canal.)

4.5.2.2.2 Surprise. This indicates whether or not the speaker expected the event he is describing.

1. haj piʔ khʌ:j khɯt lʌ:j pa:j naw tiŋ ci: tah haj

   I not Int.V think FP. that he will go from I

   (I had never thought that he would go away from me.)

2. haj piʔ khɯt lʌ:j pa:j naw tiŋ ci:

   I not think FP that he will go

   (I didn't think that he would go.)

3. haj khɯt pa:j naw tiŋ ci:
   I think that he will go
   (I think (expect) that he will go.)

4.5.2.2.3 Admiration. Degree of admiration, from pride to shame, as :

1. haj ʔəʔ pa:j mɑ:ŋ nthroŋ
   I proud that you diligent
   (I am proud that you are diligent.)

2. haj ʔasaŋ nih haj ʔala?
   I shame very I fall
   (I am very ashamed that I fell down.)

3. haj ʔəʔ pa:j mɑ:ŋ mak haj
   I proud that you love me
   (I am proud that you love me.)

4. haj ʔasaŋ haj sɔ:p pi? bɯ:n
   I- shame I pass the exam not can
   (I am ashamed that I can't pass the exam.)

4.5.2.2.4 Concern. Degrees from sympathy, pity to indifference, unconcern.

1. ʔaj nthi: jò? dɯal ʔaj kraj dɯa? kataw rùak
   it pityful it is water hot scald
   (It's a pity that it was scalded by the hot water.)

2. haj chɯ: chɯ: naw caw
   I to be indifferent he come
   (I don't care if he cames.)

3. haj ʔʌʔ naw caw
   I glade he come
   (I am glade he comes.)

4.5.2.3 Reality status. This give the relationship between the subject matter and the assumed real world. It may be factual, contrafactual, gnomic, or uncertain.

4.5.2.3.1 Factual. It shows normal state, real event. In conditional sentences factuality is normally implied by phro? 'because' , as :

1. phro? phrah ma: khlaŋ nthah paŋ
   because rain hard streaked lightening
   (Because it rains hard, there is streaked lightening.)

2. phro? haj piʔ nthroŋ haj kʌʔ sɔ:p piʔ bɯ:n
   because I not diligent I so pass the- not can
   exam
   (Because I'm not diligent, I can't pass the exam.)

3. phro? mprɔ:n wa:j waj naw kʌʔ ʔala?
   because run quick quick he so fall
   (Because (he) ran very quickly, he fell down.)

4. kana: ʔaj ratɛ:l phro? phrah ma:
   road it slippery because rain
   (The road is slippery because it rains.)

4.5.2.3.2 Contrafactual

It is a described event which is contrary to the reality. The following examples are all conditional sentences; I did not encounter contrafactuals of other sentence types.

1. khal phrah ?aj pi? ma: khlaŋ nthah ?aj kʌ? pi? paɲ
   if rain it not hard sky it so not streal
   lightening
   (If it hadn't rained hard, there would not have been stresked-lightening.)

2. khal ma:ŋ pi? mprɔ:n waj ma:ŋ kʌ? pi? ?ala?
   if you not run quick you so not fall
   (If you hadn't run quickly you would not have fallen down.)

3. khal phrah ?aj pi? ma: kana: ?aj kʌ? pi? ratɛ:l
   if rain it not road it so not slippery
   (If it hadn't rained the road would not have been slippery.)

4. khal phrah pi? ma: naw kʌ? tiŋ caw
   if rains not he so will come
   (If it hadn't rained he would have come.)

4.5.2.3.3 Gnomic. It is a normal situation, as :

1. khlop doŋ phrah ma: khlaŋ nthah paɲ
   every time rain hard lightning
   (Every time when it rains hard, here is lightning.)

2. khlɔp do:ŋ haj mprɔ:n waj haj ?ala?
   every time I run quick I fall
   (Everytime I run quickly, I fall down.)

3. khlop do:ŋ phrah ma: rot ?aj tʌ:t
   every time rain car it be traffic-jam
   (Everytime when it rains, it has traffic-jam.)

4.5.2.3.4 Uncertain. This shows an un-sure event , as :

1. phrah ma: khlaŋ nthah tiŋ paŋ
   rains hard sky well lighten
   (It rains hard, probably it will be streaked-lightening.)

2. haj nthroŋ mah na: haj kʌ? pi? diŋ pa:j haj
   I diligent how much I so not know that I
   tiŋ sɔ:p bɯ:n
   will pass the- exam can
   (Much more I-am diligent , I don't know if I can pass the exam.)

3. khal naw mprɔ:n waj ba:ŋ thi: naw pi? ?ala?
   if he run quick probably he not fall
   (If he runs quickly he probably doesn't fall down.)

4. khal phrah pi? ma: ba:ŋ thi: naw tiŋ caw
   if rain not probally he will come
   (If it doesn't rain he probably comes.)

4.5.3 Presupposition. Presupposition components here include sentence encyclopedia and rhetorical sentences.

4.5.3.1 Sentence encyclopedia is the expected knowledge needed to understand the sentence, such as cause and effect relationships in the context or in general , as :

1. proh naw ci: ci? ja:ŋ na: naw kʌ? tɔŋ lop caw
   let he go go! however he so have to return come
   (Let him go, whatever happens he has to return.)
   (Presupposed : he cannot stay away.)
2. naw ci: lɛ:w daw bɯ:n lʌ:j naw tɔŋ lop caw
   he go already guess can FP he have to return dir
   (He went, (I) can guess that he will have to return.)
   (Presupposed : he easily forgets his anger, and he knows his parents wait for him.)
3. pi? ntaj kʌ? diŋ naw ci: lɛ:w tɔŋ lop caw
   not tell so know he go already have to retun come
   ((You) don't tell, (I) know that he will have to come back.)
   (Presupposed : he doesn't go away for a long time without you.)

4.5.3.2 Rhetorical sentences take a form normally used with one speech - act and use it for a different speech act. It shows by a stress and dropping intonation on.

1. daj tiŋ diŋ — Surface = Interrogative
   who will know → deep = Declavative
   (Who knows ? = Nobody knows.)

2. nthʌ:l thabɯa bɯ:n the: = Interrogative
   close door can FP → Imperative
   (Can you close the door ? = Close the door !)

3. mo: haj ci: tiŋ ndo: = Declarative
   pl I go with together → Imperative
   (We are going together. = Go with me !)

4. pi? jah ci: ?ah = Negative
   not want go FP → Positive
   ((I) don't want to go. = I want to go.)

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