SAMRE GRAMMAR

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This dissertation is a description of Samre, a language in the Pearic branch of the Mon-Khmer (Austroasiatic) subfamily which is an endangered language. At the moment there are only few Samre speakers and most of them are over 55 years old. The objective of this study is to describe Samre grammar which includes phonology, morphology and syntax. The study fills a gap in the linguistic study of Pearic languages and provides a linguistic basis for the revitalization of this seriously endangered language if the native speakers wish. The data was gathered from the Samre speakers during field work at Ban Ma-muang and Ban Nonsi in Amphoe Bo-rai, Trat Province from October, 1998 to March, 1999 and rechecked again in March 2000. The tagmemic model is applied in analyzing the linguistic data (David Thomas, 1993).

From the study, although Samre is a Mon-Khmer language, the description reveals that Samre is heavily influenced by Thai. For example, half of the 3,000 basic vocabulary items used by the Samre speakers are Thai loan words, especially most of the grammatical words. The contrastive pitch or tone is used as primary distinctive feature while the breathy voice quality is optionally used as a secondary feature. There are only about twenty Samre speakers. The children learn Thai in school and speak only Thai. Among the Samre speakers, both Thai and Samre are used, but Thai is more frequent. Besides, their attitude towards their ethnic language is rather negative. The description of Samre and the sociolinguistic contexts, indicates that Samre is in the most serious stage of endangerment (Fishman, 1991), where reversing language shift seems to be hopeless. It may be assumed that in about twenty years if nothing is done, when the current speakers die, the Samre language in Thailand will be lost.

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วิทยานิพนธ์ฉบับนี้เป็นการศึกษาภาษาซัมเร ซึ่งเป็นภาษาที่จัดอยู่ในตระกูลออสโตรเอเชียติก สาขาเปียริก ในประเทศไทย ปัจจุบันผู้พูดภาษานี้มีจำนวนน้อย อีกทั้งผู้ที่ยังใช้ภาษาได้ส่วนใหญ่เป็นกลุ่มผู้สูงอายุที่มีอายุเกิน 55 ปีขึ้นไป ภาษาซัมเรจึงนับเป็นภาษาที่กำลังอยู่ในภาวะวิกฤต วัตถุประสงค์การวิจัยในครั้งนี้เพื่อศึกษาไวยากรณ์ภาษาซัมเร ทั้ง ระบบเสียง ระบบคำ และลักษณะโครงสร้างประโยค อันจะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อความรู้ภาษาในสาขาเปียริก ซึ่งยังไม่มีผู้ศึกษาวิจัยระบบเสียงและระบบไวยากรณ์ของภาษานี้ไว้อย่างพอเพียง และเป็นข้อมูลพื้นฐานในการฟื้นฟูสภาวะวิกฤตของภาษาซัมเร ถ้าเจ้าของภาษาต้องการรักษาภาษาของตนไว้ ข้อมูลในการวิเคราะห์รวบรวมจากผู้พูดภาษาซัมเร ซึ่งตั้งถิ่นฐานอยู่ที่บ้านมะม่วง และบ้านนนทรีย์ ต.นนทรีย์ อ.บ่อไร่ จ. ตราด การเก็บข้อมูลเริ่มตั้งแต่เดือนตุลาคม พ.ศ. 2541 ถึง เดือนมีนาคม พ.ศ. 2542 และตรวจสอบอีกครั้งหนึ่งในเดือน มีนาคม พ.ศ.2543 การวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลโดยใช้ทฤษฎีแทกมีมิค ซึ่งมีหลักว่าหน่วยย่อย ๆ ของภาษาประกอบขึ้นเป็นหน่วยที่ใหญ่กว่าเป็นลำดับขั้น เช่นลำดับขั้นทางไวยากรณ์ประกอบด้วยหน่วยที่เล็กที่สุดคือหน่วยเสียงซึ่งประกอบขึ้นเป็นหน่วยที่ใหญ่กว่าคือหน่วยคำ และประกอบเป็นหน่วยที่ใหญ่ขึ้น ได้แก่ วลีและอนุพากย์ จนกระทั่งประกอบขึ้นเป็นประโยค โดยวิเคราะห์ตามแนวทางการวิเคราะห์ของ David Thomas (1993)

ผลการศึกษาพบว่าภาษาซัมเรแม้จะมีลักษณะของภาษาในตระกูลมอญเขมร แต่ลักษณะการใช้ภาษาซัมเรในปัจจุบันแสดงให้เห็นถึงอิทธิพลของภาษาไทยอย่างชัดเจน เช่นคำศัพท์พื้นฐาน ครึ่งหนึ่งของข้อมูลประมาณ 3,000 คำเป็นคำยืมจากภาษาไทย โดยเฉพาะหมวดคำไวยากรณ์ส่วนใหญ่ยืมมาจากภาษาไทย มีการใช้หน่วยเสียงวรรณยุกต์เป็นลักษณะสำคัญในการแยกความหมายของคำ (ควบคู่ไปกับการใช้ลักษณะน้ำเสียง ซึ่งเป็นองค์ประกอบรอง และเกิดเป็นบางครั้ง) นอกจากนี้ยังพบว่าผู้พูดภาษาซัมเรได้มีอยู่เพียง 20 คน เด็ก ๆ เรียนภาษาไทยและใช้แต่ภาษาไทยเท่านั้น ในกลุ่มที่ยังพูดภาษาซัมเรได้ก็มักใช้ภาษาซัมเรสลับกับภาษาไทย แต่ส่วนใหญ่ใช้ภาษาไทยมากกว่า ทัศนคติต่อภาษาของตนเป็นไปในทางค่อนข้างลบ นับได้ว่าภาษาซัมเรเป็นภาษาที่อยู่ในภาวะวิกฤตขั้นสุดท้าย หากเทียบกับบันไดลำดับสถานภาพของภาษาต่าง ๆของ Fishman (1991) กล่าวคือสภาวะวิกฤตของภาษาในขั้นนี้แทบไม่มีโอกาสที่จะฟื้นฟูให้ภาษาคงอยู่ต่อไปได้ อีกประมาณ 20 ปีข้างหน้าภาษาซัมเรในประเทศไทยก็คงจะสูญหายไป

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ABBREVIATIONS

add	additive, additional
adj	adjective
adv	adverb
amb	ambient
AP	adverb phrase
app	appositive, appositional
approx	approximation
asp	aspect
bene	beneficiary
bi	bitransitive
caus	causative
cl	clause
class	classifier
com	comparative
cogn	cognitive
compl	complement
con	condition
conj	conjunction
cont	contained
cop	copula
Cp	Clause periphery
cpd	compounding, compound
cov	covarying
de	deductive
dem	demonstrative
des	descriptive
dest	destination
dir	direction
DO	direct object

el	element
emb	embedded
emp	emphatic
eq.	equational, equality
ex	example(s)
exist	existence
exclu	exclusive
foc	focus
fp.	final particle
H	head
imp	imperative
inclu	inclusive
instru	instrument
inten	intensifier
intr	intransitive
IO	indirect object
It	Item
jux	juxtaposed
Li	limitation
Lk	linkage
loc	locative
Mk	marker
mo	motion
Mod	modifier
Mv	main verb
N	noun
Neg	negative
nom	nominative
NP	nominal phrase
num	number, numeral
Num P	numeral phrase
O	object
orient	orientation

Num P	numeral phrase
O	object
orient	orientation
P	predicate
part.cont-q.	participant content question
pass	passive
po	polar
pos	positive
poss	possessive, possessor
Post Mod	Post Modifier
PP	prepositional phrase
pr	pronoun
Pr.Ev.	Prior Event
Pre Mod	Pre Modifier
prep	preposition
progres	progressive
prop	propulsion
Pur	purposeful
q.	question
Qt	quantity, quantitative
Qual	quality
Quo	Quotative
Q.W.	Question word
rec	recipient
refl	reflexive
Rel	relator, relative
Rel.cont-q.	relationship content question
RP	relational phrase
S	subject
Sent	sentence
Sou	source
SubC	subordinate clause
Sub Ev	sub Event
temp pp	prepsositional temporal phrase

V	verb
VP	verb phrase
V serial	verb serialization
∅	zero morpheme
<	replacing
→	alternating with become (s)
/	or
{ }	class
+	obligatory
±, ( )	optional
/...../	semantic root
:	is filled by
n	any number of times

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

1.1.1 Rationale

Linguistic studies on Samre, a dialect of the Pearic branch of Mon-Khmer languages family, are very rare. Most of the previous studies were not directly on the Samre language; one concerned with ethnology (Baradat, 1941), and a lexico-statistical study of the Pearic (Cabaton, 1905) are in French. One article in English is Headley's (1977) "A Pearic Vocabulary". He divides the Pearic languages into sub-branches. In this article, he collects about 900 Pearic vocabulary items together with the consonant and vowel system. " An English-Pearic Vocabulary" (Headley, 1978) is cross-indexed with "A Pearic Vocabulary" (1977).

The only linguistic study conducted specifically on Samre is by Theraphan (1984) who presents a rudimentary phonological analysis of the Samre, with a limited number of vocabulary items (the data collected from the Samre in Bo-rai District, Trat Province of Thailand). There is at present no complete study of Samre grammar.

Suwilai (1996) has reported finding Samre people in Sanamchaikhet, Chachoengsaw province. She met some of these people in 1993 but they had already lost their ethnic language. Another province where the Samre have been found is in Bo-rai District, Trat province (where Theraphan collected some words in 1984). Thus Samre is classified in the language death group among Suwilai's three categories of language endangerment in Thailand.

The first time I went to Bo-rai District Administration Office in August, 1998 to ask for information about the Samre, I was surprised that the Thai government

officers did not know anything about this group of people. They only know that there are "Chong of Trat" living at Ban Khlongsaeng, Tambon Dan Chumphon. However, I was informed by the head-master of Ban Ma-muang School that there was another group of people who are referred to as /thai dəəm/ 'original Thai' by some Thai officers at Bo-rai District Administration Office. The school janitor, who claimed himself to be "Samre", took me to visit his relatives. Many of them were invited to our first meeting. This initial survey shows that there are only about 20-30 people in Thailand who still speak the Samre language, as well as speaking Thai within their group. And their language abilities are not the same (see Research Methodology, Source of data).

The stages of language shift in endangered languages vary and can be classified helpfully classified according to Fishman's (1991) eight-stage Graded Intergenerational Disruption Scale (GIDS), a set of ordered priorities for helping to reverse language shift (RLS). The GIDS describes languages in eight stages of relative strength or weakness, with Stage 1 being the strongest and Stage 8, the weakest. The Samre language appears to be somewhere between the two weakest stages:

Stage 7: Older generation uses language enthusiastically but children are not learning it.

Stage 8: So few fluent speakers that community needs to re-establish language norms; requires outside expert (e.g. linguists).

Although an in-depth discussion of the sociolinguistic features of Samre language shift is beyond the scope of this study, it is safe to assert that Samre is among Thailand's most endangered languages.

Because of the small number of speakers and the restricted domains of their usage of the language, it is likely that this language will be lost very soon. Preserving an endangered language like Samre is a difficult task, however, the process can not be started without first recording and describing Samre language structures. Further studies can be done later for other forms of language development.

1.1.2 Objectives and Aims of the Study

The objectives of this study is an attempt to describe the Samre language in order to fill a gap in the linguistic study of the Pearic languages.

1.1.3 The Scope of the study and Methodological Framework

1.1.3.1 Scope of the study

The term "grammar" in the title of this study is used a general sense. It is seen as the entire system of structural relationships in a language, including the main linguistic fields – phonology, syntax and semantics. Thus, the study presents the phonological system of Samre and some basic syntactical characteristics of the language. In each level, semantic considerations are discussed together with the description of their surface forms. The descriptions beyond the sentence level--paragraphs and discourses --are not thoroughly described due to the limitation of time. However, the data include some stories, conversations and some connected sentences which are useful for specifying the grammatical features of the language.

1.1.3.2 The Methodological framework

The methodological framework of this study follows the tagmemic model – a method of linguistic analysis developed by Pike (1977), and used by the Summer Institute of Linguistics for training field linguists.

The general ontology of tagmemics may be summarized as follows. A language is seen as comprising three separate components – grammatical, phonological and referential -- each of which relates in terms of HIERARCHY (smallers units are themselves organized in larger encompassing ones). Each UNIT in a hierarchy has a function, a structural arrangement or form, and a meaning or general impact on the hearer.

Many scholars have developed the theories and methodology for their specific purposes so "tagmemics" may have various versions. However, the methodology used in this study is divided into two parts – the phonemics (Pike, 1976

and SIL 1977) is used for phonological analysis and Thomas's version of the tagmemic model (1993) is used for syntactical analysis.

(1) The phonological approach

The phonological approach adopted in this study follows Pike (1976) and the SIL (1977), which is referred to as "phonemics." Pike gives it a sub-title "A Technique for reducing Language to writing.' The principal analysis is to group phones into sets according to certain criteria: those phones that can occur in the same position in a specific word without changing the meaning are in the same group. Each of these sets is then labeled as a PHONEME, assigning it status as a unit within the phonological system.

Moreover, this approach sees the phonology as a hierarchy of ranks (see the Figure1 below). The phonological hierarchy consists of four ranks in descending order: intonation group, stress group, syllable, and phoneme. The units of each rank have a structure stated in terms of units of the rank below (except for the lowest, the phoneme) and function in structures of the rank above (except for the highest, the intonation group). An approximate idea of the phonological hierarchy is seen in the following diagram.

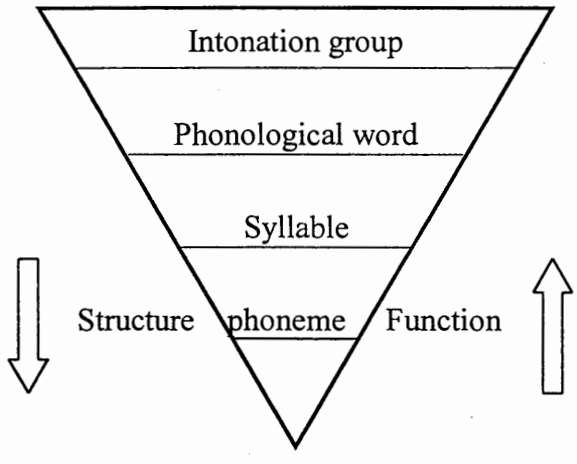

Figure 1: The Phonological Hierarchy (SIL, 1977:96)

(2) The syntactical approach

The syntactical approach adopted in this study is mainly following Thomas (1993) which he claims as "a basically tagmemic point of view: (1) structural

emphasis is placed on both classes and slots (functions), (2) language is conceived of as hierarchical in its organization and perception, (3) units are considered real, insofar as we can find them, not just imposed creations of the analyst, and (4) language is seen as a basically human (not mathematical) activity, with it attendant redundancies, shortcuts, and fuzzy borders" (Thomas,1993: ix). According to Thomas's scope, the basic grammatical unit consists of a **functional slot within a construction frame, and a class of substitutable items that can fill this slot (fillers)**. In my opinion, this is a simple but efficient model for use in describing any language, especially nonwritten languages.

The hierarchy of ranks (Figure 2) are set up as a universal minimum: morpheme, word, phrase, clause, sentence etc. However the description may theoretically start from any rank, or level, and work up or down from there. The clause is chosen as the entrance point into understanding the Samre grammar since it is a multi-level grammatical structure with various components of the clause belonging to different levels, either lower or higher levels. Various features of the clause, such as the structure (i.e. noun phrase, verb phrase, etc), the etic semantic structure (i.e. actor, action, recipient, beneficiary, etc.), and the grammatical semantic structure (i.e. actor, action, recipient, beneficiary, etc.), and the grammatical semantic structure (i.e. subject, predicate, object, etc.) provides an overview of a language. So, the basic understanding of clause, which is referred to as " most immediately useful rank" (Thomas, 1993: ix), can make the study of the lower rank and higher rank more significant and relevant. Besides, the clause itself is a minimum grammatical unit for actual communication

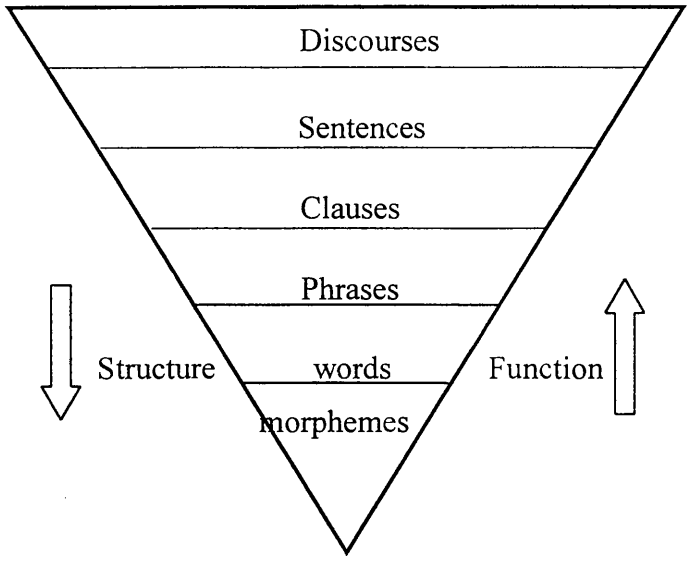

Figure 2 : The Grammatical Hierarchy

1.1.3.3 Format and presentation

Most chapters follow the sequence 1. General definition and its distinctive marks 2. Structure 3. Functions, 4. Semantics and pragmatics, 5. Transformations. Slot names are generally capitalized, class names not capitalized.

Structural formulas throughout this description take the form of ± Slot : filler. Subcripts indicate subclass.

1.1.4 Contribution

This study is expected to provide the following benefits:

1. To provide useful data for further historical and comparative studies in the Pearic branch of Mon-Khmer language family.

2. To provide basic information for further studies in the field of sociolinguistics in various aspects of the Samre language, such as language maintenance, language revitalization, language planning, language in contact, language development, or language change.

3. Since the Samre speakers have been involved in giving information on their language to me, this might motivate them to take steps toward saving their language.

1.2 Linguistic Overview

1.2.1 Language Affiliation

Samre has been classified in the Pearic branch which is in the Eastern Mon-Khmer sub-groub of the Austroasiatic language family. Other languages such as Pear, Chong, Angrak and Sa'och are in the same Pearic grouping with Samre (Thomas and Headley, 1970; Diffloth, 1980).

The Austroasiatic family includes over 100 languages spoken throughout South-east Asia, mainly in countries between China and Indonesia, with a few further west in northern India, the Nicobar Islands and Tankia Bay in the east.

Diffloth(1980) proposes the following classification of Austroasiatic languages below:

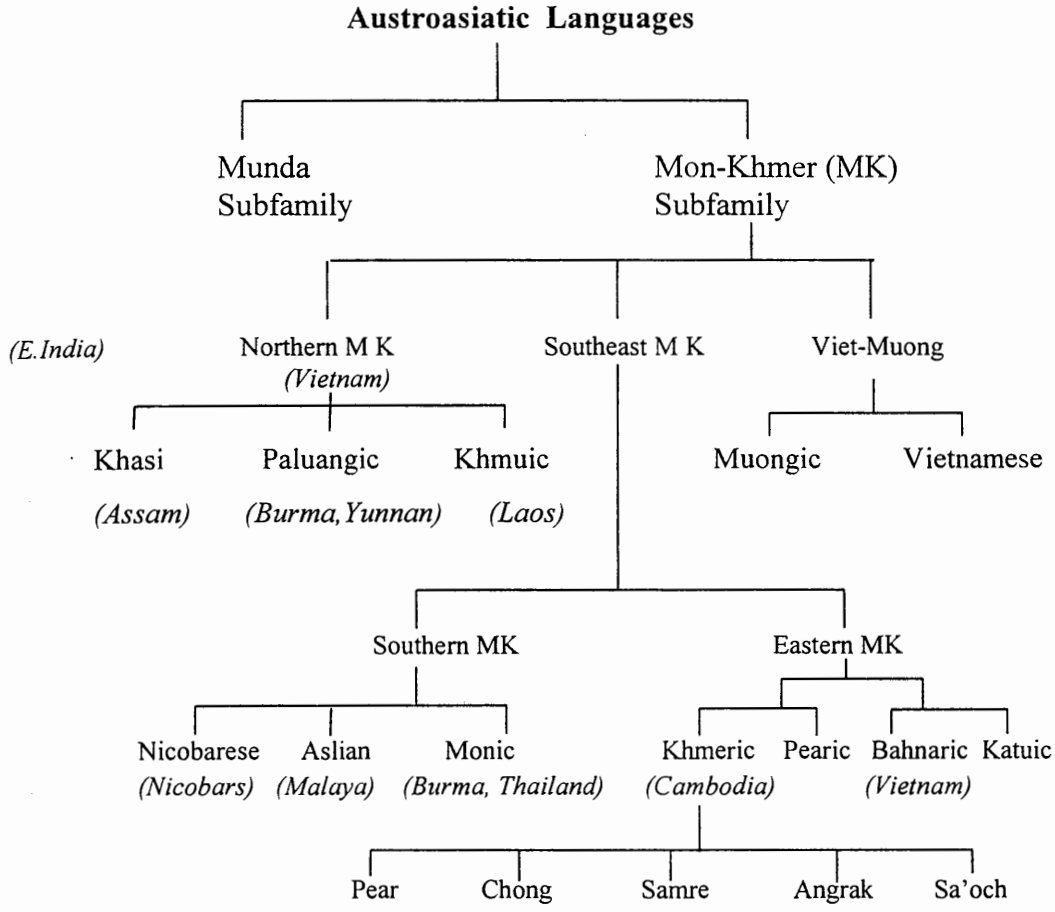

Figure 3: Austroasiatic Language Family (adapted from Diffloth 1980, cited in Matisoff 1991:194)

1.2.2 The Name of the Language

The Samre in Ban Ma-muang and Ban Nonsi, Trat Province, call themselves "Samre" [samɣee] in the same way as their parents called themselves and their language. They use this term to distinguish their language from other languages, such as Chong or Kasong, but they no longer know the meaning of the word.

The word "Samre" was sometimes used as a generic term equivalent to the 'Pear' group of the Khmer people. Baradat and Martini think that the word is derived from /sræ/, a Khmer word which means 'rice-field', plus nasal infix which refers to "people" (Parkin, 1991: 67). Baradat also suggests that the term refers to 'tattoo' in Khmer, claiming that this confusion has arisen from the similar word /samre/

'striped.' However, this word is cited by Thomas and Headley (1970) as a pejorative and collective term for the mountain tribes in general, including Pear, Pnoung and Stieng in Cambodia.

1.2.3 Published Sources

1.2.3.1 Theraphan's article (1984)

The only published paper specifically on Samre is Theraphan L. Thongkum's (1984) " The Samre Language".

The author "accidentally" found the people who spoke Samre while on a survey for a minority language map project in Thailand. She then collected 367 words from 2 informants at Ban Ma-muang, Tambon Dan Chumphon (now Tambon Nonsi), Bo-rai District, Trat Province. She had only two days to do this task (on the 3rd and the 4th of April, 1984).

On the basis of this limited data, the author summarized the phonology of the language as follow:

(1) Words and Syllable Structures

Most of the words are basic vocabulary items used in every day life and are monosyllabic words. Disyllabic words, are usually compound or complex words. The syllable can be divided into two structural types: (a) a major stressed syllable, and (b) a minor unstressed syllable, the second syllable of a disyllabic word. Most major syllables are the first syllable of a disyllabic complex words. The two syllables structures are shown below:

The major syllable structure	**The minor syllable structure**
C(C)V(V)(C)	CV(C)

From the data, 16 minor syllables are found:

CVC			CV			
səm	chəm	kəm	pə	tə	cə	kə
	cəŋ	kən		thə	chə	khə
			mə	rə	lə	sə

(2) Phonological System

Consonants: Samre has 21 consonant phonemes as in the Chart 1. All of them can occur as initial consonants. The initial consonants consist of :

The initial consonants					The initial clusters		
p	t	c	k	ʔ	ph	ph	ml
ph	th	ch	kh		pl	phl	nl
b	d				tr	thr	mp
m	n	ɲ	ŋ		cr	khr	mph
	s			h	kr	khl	nt
w	r	j			kl	sr	ŋk
	l						

Chart 1: Theraphan' s consonant system of Samre (1984 :119)

The final consonants are the stops / p, t, c, k/, the nasals /m, n, ɲ, ŋ/, the semi-vowels /w, j /, the liquid / r /and the glottal fricative /h/.

Vowels: Samre has nine short vowel qualities, nine long vowels, and two diphthongs as in the Chart 2 below:

Short vowels			Long vowels			Diphthongs
i	ɯ	u	ii	ɯɯ	uu	iə
e	ə	o	ee	əə	oo	uə
ɛ	a	ɔ	ɛɛ	aa	ɔɔ	

Chart 2 : Theraphan' s vowel system of Samre (1984 : 118)

Tones : According to Theraphan's analysis, four contrastive tones are found in Samre. Each of them has allotones which relates to the vowel length and the final consonants.

Tone 1 is a mid level. In any smooth syllable, the pitch pattern of this allotone starts at the middle of the pitch range, stays at that level and slightly falls down at the end [^{332}]. In a checked syllable with long vowel, the pitch pattern of this allotone starts at the middle of the pitch range, then glides up to a mid-high pitch range[^{34}]. This allotone never occurs in a checked syllable with short vowel.

Tone 2 is a mid-high-rising tone. In any smooth syllable, the pitch pattern starts at the mid-high pitch range, glides up to a high pitch range, then falls down to the mid-low pitch range [^{452}]. In a checked syllable with long vowel, the pitch pattern of this allotone starts at the mid-high pitch range, then glides down to the mid-low pitch range[^{42}]. In a checked syllable with short vowel, the starting point of the pitch pattern is almost the same, but the direction of the gliding is in reverse, that is, it glides up to the high pitch level [^{45}]. Moreover, in any syllable ending with the final [h], the pitch pattern [^{45}] occurs in free variation with [^{452}].

Tone 3 is a mid-low-falling tone. The pitch pattern starts at the mid-low pitch range, and falls down to the bottom of the pitch range. It occurs both in smooth and checked syllables(with long or short vowel) [^{21}]. But in the smooth syllable, it has been noted that the vowel quality is rather a breathy vowel. It is also noted that in a syllable ending with [h], the allotone [^{21}] fluctuates with [^{12}].

Tone 4 is a mid-high falling tone. In any smooth syllable, the pitch pattern starts at the middle of the pitch range, glides up to the mid-high pitch range, then falls down at the end to the mid-low pitch range. It is noted that this allotone has never occurred in any checked syllable or a syllable ending with the final [h].

Discussion : Theraphan's article provides a rough sketch of the Samre language in Thailand. It is the only linguistic document I found that allowed me to trace the Samre language over time. Also, I used her vocabulary items for my initial checking to distinguish Samre from Chong and Kasong (which are also the Pearic languages in Thailand). However, her data, leaves some points that need to be clarified.

I used the word lists recorded in Theraphan's article to check with seven persons who claimed they were Samre the first time I met them. I pronounced some words according to the list. A few words need to be adjusted as the Samre told me that they were Chong words.

1. 'child' /khaneew^{2}/ (Theraphan, 1984: 122) should be /khaniiw^{C}/*
2. 'fish' / miiw^{4}/ (Theraphan, 1984: 124) should be /miiɹ^{A}/
3. 'big' / tak^{2}/ (Theraphan, 1984: 127) should be /kic^{A}/

I also went to visit Theraphan's informants. One of them (Mr. Yim Rattanamun) cannot remember the language anymore because he has been an ordained monk for a long time since he has learnt Thai as well as Pali languages. The other informant -- Mr. On Moonlachoot -- (80 years old), went to Cambodia to teach the Thai language in Changwat Pailin for many years and now can remember only a few words. Although Mr. On pronounces the final /-w/ as in /miiw^{A}/, the other Samre people in his village pronounce it as /-ɹ/. However, this final sound seems to be flexible among the Pearic languages.

In Theraphan's word list (1984), the meanings of some words differ from my data, such as: /ʔuət^{2}/ *'grandmother'* (p.125) is 'great-grandmother' in my study and the word for grandmother is /ʔun^{C}/. Another word is /naan^{4}/ *'here'* (p.123) which means 'still' in my study.

Some words also differ between Theraphan's transcription and mine.

'blouse' /ʔɔɔ^{1}/ (Theraphan,1984:126) and my tn. is /ʔaw^{A}/

'hundred, niece' /chuu^{1}/ (Theraphan,1984:125) and my tn. is /chuh^{A}/ 'hundred' and /chuu^{A}/ 'niece'

'crow' /tɯɯr^{3}/ (Theraphan,1984:121) and my tn. is /tiɹ^{B}/

'know' /diŋ^{1}/ (Theraphan,1984:126) and my tn. is /diɲ^{A}/

'nine' /kasaaj^{3}/ (Theraphan,1984:120) and my tn. is /kasaaɹ^{A}/

* See Comparison of the two analyses in Chap.II-5.2.3.1.

The presyllable rə- which occurs in many words in Theraphan's record seems to be strange to the speakers in my study. When I pronounced the words according to Theraphan's list they preferred to change /rə-/ into /ka-/ as follow:

'cart'	/rətɛh^{3}/	(p.120)	should be	/katɛh^{A}/
'rake'	/rənah^{2}/	(p.121)	should be	/kanah^{A}/
'pestle'	/rəhii^{2}/	(p.126)	should be	/kahii^{C}/
'un-cooked rice'	/rəkhoo^{1}/	(p.121)	should be	/kakhoo^{A}/
'tiger'	/rənɔh^{2}/	(p.126)	should be	/kanɔh^{A}/
'a group of people'	/rəsɔɔŋ^{1}/	(p.122)	should be	/kasɔɔŋ^{A}/

The most obvious feature in Theraphan's description of the Samre is that the author referred to the suprasegmental distinctive features in the Samre language as "tone" though most of the Mon-Khmer languages seem to be "register" languages (Theraphan, 1988). However, she gave only a few data as examples and illustrations. In my study, I will discuss in detail about the suprasegmental phoneme in Samre (see Register complex in Samre in Sec.2.5.2.3).

In addition to a more detailed phonological description than Theraphan (1984), I also provide useful data on the syntax of the Samre language.

1.2.3.2 Headley's article (1985)

Robert K. Headley (1985) wrote "Proto-Pearic and the Classification of Pearic "in order to reconstruct the earliest possible stage of Pearic and to suggest a definitive classification of Pearic.

The data are from various sources: Baradat (1941), Huffman (1970-1971), Martin (1974a, 1974 b), Headley (1977, 1978), and others.

His presentation of Pearic phonology is divided into two sections: Contemporary Phonetic System and Historical Phonology.

Headley's Contemporary Phonetic System

The inventory of Pearic consonants*:

	Labial	dental	palatal	velar	Glottal
stops-vcl	p	t	c	k	ʔ
asp	ph	th	ch	kh	
vcd	(b)	(d)			
fricatives-vcl			s		h
vcd	v		y		
nasals	m	n	ñ	ŋ	
trill		r			
lateral		l			

Chart 3: Headley' s tentative phonetic consonant system of Pearic (1985 :432)

The inventory of Pearic vowels:

	front	central	back
high	i	ɨ	u
	e	ə	ô
mid			
	ɛ		ŏ
low	a		ɔ

Chart 4 : Headley 's tentative phonetic vowel system of Pearic (1985 :433)

All of vowels may cluster with the phoneme of length /:/ and in some dialects i.e. Chong in Chantaburi with /_/ (underline) a phoneme of register usually called the 'glottal tone'. The mid back rounded vowel /o/ has only been found long. The diphthongs /iə ie ɨə uə oa ao ea/ also occur.

Suprasegmental phoneme Headley claims that some kind of register phenomenon exists in Pearic, at least in some dialects, such as Huffman's Chong material.

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*The symbols used by Headley (1985) and my study should be adjusted, they are:/ v = w, y =j, ñ = ɲ, r = ɾ)

Unfortunately, there appears to be little consistency in its occurrence. However, he does not mention anything about "tone".

Headley's Historical Phonology Headley proposes the proto consonants of Pearic (which he has reconstructed from 410 cognate sets in 18 Pearic sources) as shown below:

	labial	dental	palatal	velar	glottal
stops-vcl	p	t	c	k	ʔ
(?)	P	T	C	K	
vcd	(b)	(d)	j	g	
fricatives-vcl		s	hy		h
vcd	v		y		
nasals-vcl	hm	hn		hŋ	
vcd	m	n	(ñ)	ŋ	
trill-vcl		hr			
vcd		r			
lateral-vcl		hl			
lateral		l			

Chart 5: Headley 's phonetic consonant system of Proto Pearic (1985: 435)

There are a great number of initial consonant clusters found in Mon-Khmer languages. Headley shows the tentative consonant clusters of Pearic ("Proto-Pearic and the Classification of Pearic" ,1985 : 432). The 47 consonant clusters,drawn from various Pearic dialects, are: /ck -, chk -,chm -,cn -, chŋ -, chn -, cr -, kd -, kl -, khl -, km -, khm -, kn -,khn -, khñ -, kr -, khr -, kns -,kv -, ky -, khy -, ml -, pl -, phl -, pn -, phn -, pŋ -,phŋ -, pr -, ps -, phs -, pt -, pht -, sk -, sm -, sn -, sŋ -, sr -,tr -, tm -, thm -, tŋ - , thŋ -, thk -, tp -, tv -, tr - /.

Proto-final consonants The following final consonants are reconstructed for Proto Pearic /*-c ,* -h ,*-k, *-l , *-m , *-ñ ,*-ŋ,* -n , *-p , *-r , *-s, * -t , *-v , *-y -*ʔ/. All of these except /*-l , *-r ,*-s,* -ʔ / are retained in all dialects.

Proto initial cluster Reconstructed words provide 35 of proto initial clusters, they are /*ck -, *cm -,*cŋ -,*cr -, *jr -, *kd -, *kl -, *km -, *gm -, *kn -, *gn -, *kr -, *gr -, *ks -, *kv -, *ky -,*gy -, *ml -, *pl -, *ck -, *bl -, *pn -, *bn -, *pŋ -, *br -, *ps -, *sk -, *sm -, *sn -, *sŋ -, *sr -, *tm -, *tŋ -, *tp -, *tr - /.

Headley's Classification of the Pearic Dialects. Headley uses various criteria in classifying the Pearic dialects: the phonological comparison among dialects, some unique lexemes and cognate percentages. His classification of Pearic is shown below.

1. NORTHEASTERN -- Pearic of Kompong Thom (PK)
2. SOUTHEASTERN
    - 2.1 Suoi of Kompong Speu (SU)
    - 2.2 Saoch of Veal Renh (PC, PS)
3. WESTERN
    - 3.1 Chong of Chantaburi (H)
    - 3.2 Chong Həəp (CH)
    - 3.3 Chong Lɔɔ (CL)
4. SOUTH CENTRAL
    - 4.1 Samre of Pursat (EP, SE, PM)
    - 4.2 Chong of Baradat (northeastern Trat Province) (TC)
    - 4.3 Chong of Trat (CI)
5. NORTH CENTRAL -- Somray of Battambang (SY, WP)

Discussion The article on "Proto-Pearic and the classification of Pearic" is valuable because of insufficient data on Pearic today. It is a synthesis of various rare sources of data (which include a number of dialects) from many scholars who have studies on Pearic people and languages. Some original materials are in French with the traditional transcription that had to be interpreted and adjusted to the IPA symbols.

This article provide linguists with an overview of Pearic phonology and its reconstructed phonology. Though some points have not been clearly identifed -- such as the initial cluster, the vowels and the register complex -- further studies may solve these problems.

The author claims that the historical phonology has been reconstructed from the 18 Pearic sources, perhaps representing the phonetic system of Proto-Pearic. The Chong dialects in Chantaburi and the Kasong (which are referred in his study as Chong Ban Dan Chumphon and may also be Baradat's Thai Chong) are included. However, the Samre in Trat are excluded. So the current description of Samre provides supportive data that will contribute to a more complete understanding of Pearic.

The classification among Pearic dialects may be a guide for in sub-grouping the Pearic languages as further data are collected.

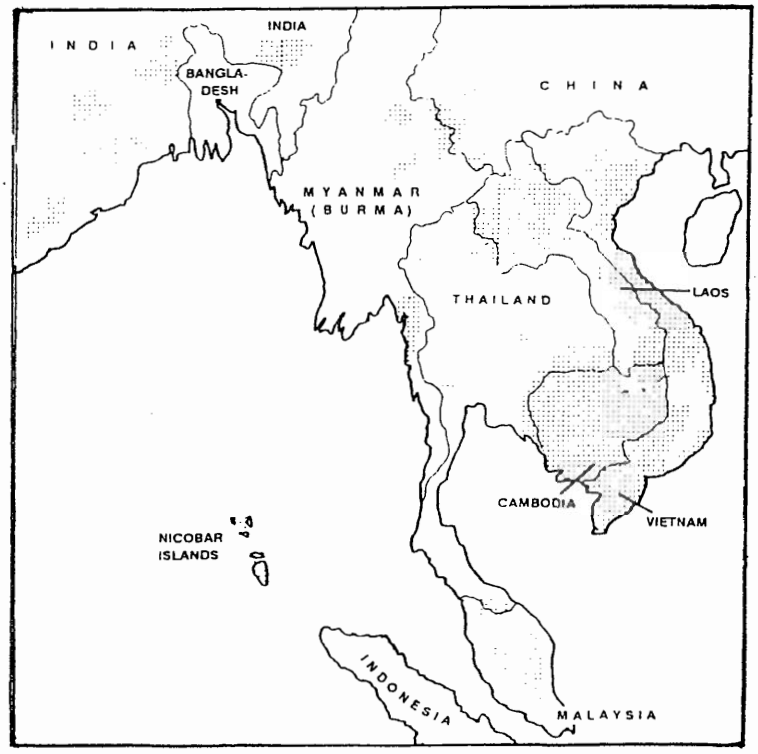
The affiliation among Pearic and other branches of Mon-Khmer languages are re-arranged in a smaller group which have closer relation than in Thomas and Headley's article (1970). In Headley (1987), branches that have closer relation with Pearic are Khmer, Banaric and Katuic. This is slightly different from Thomas and Headley's grouping which includes Khmer, Khasi, Katuic, Baharic, Mon, Palaungic, Khmuic, and Viet-Muong.

1.3 Ethnography

1.3.1 Historical Setting

According to the substratum theory (Smalley, 1994: 301-305), it is assumed that the Austroasiatic people had been a primitive group who are the oldest indigenes of south-east Asia. This is supported by the historical evidence of Old Mon and Old Khmer inscriptions. Furthermore, linguistic evidence for the antiquity of Austroasiatic languages shows that these languages are more diverse than the languages of other linguistic families in the area. Map 1 (Smalley, 1974:305) -- the geographic dispersion of Austroasiatic languages in relation to those of the other language families -- shows where present-day Austroasiatic languages are located across mainland Southeast Asia and in Bangladesh, as well as in India, including the Nicobar Islands. In the Map 1, the most solid concentration is in Vietnam and Cambodia, and some areas at the border of Thailand. Amphoe Bo-rai of Trat province, where the Samre live now, is

included in Smalley's map. However, there is no other evidence that clearly identifies the settlement of the Samre people in Thailand.



Map 1 : Dipersion of Austroasiatic languages (Smalley, 1974:305)

In earlier days, when Cambodia and Thailand were not separate countries, Samre people might have moved from place to place around the areas of their homeland to find a suitable location for their settlement. I was informed by Mrs. Yae Rattanamun, a Samre speaker in Ban Ma-muang, that her family used to travel to Changwat Pailin in Cambodia to visit cousins when she was a child. However she had not gone there for more than ten years. Other research also reveals that Samre people were found in Cambodia (i.e., [Cabaton, 1905] and [Baradat,1941]). But now the tracks of Samre in Cambodia have apparently been lost as a result of the civil war in the country (1975-1979).

The Samre speakers provided more information about their ancestor's settlement at Ban Ma-muang. In the earlier days, the parents of Mrs.Thong Chaiyamat, who were thought to be the former leaders of the Samre, located their house in the area near the mango trees. This is the reason why the Samre called their village /suək^{C}/ 'mango'. Later this family moved the house to another place nearby because of an epidemic which caused many deaths. The old site of their house has

now become a temple. Nowadays the village is called Ban Ma-muang (Mango Village) in Thai according to the old name in Samre. The Samre insist that their ancestors lived at Ban Ma-muang and Ban Nonsi for a long time. Ban Nonsi, the village nearby, also has its old name in Samre as /wɔɔ^{A} kaaj^{C}/ 'the outside field'. Recent descendents of Samre have settled there permanently.

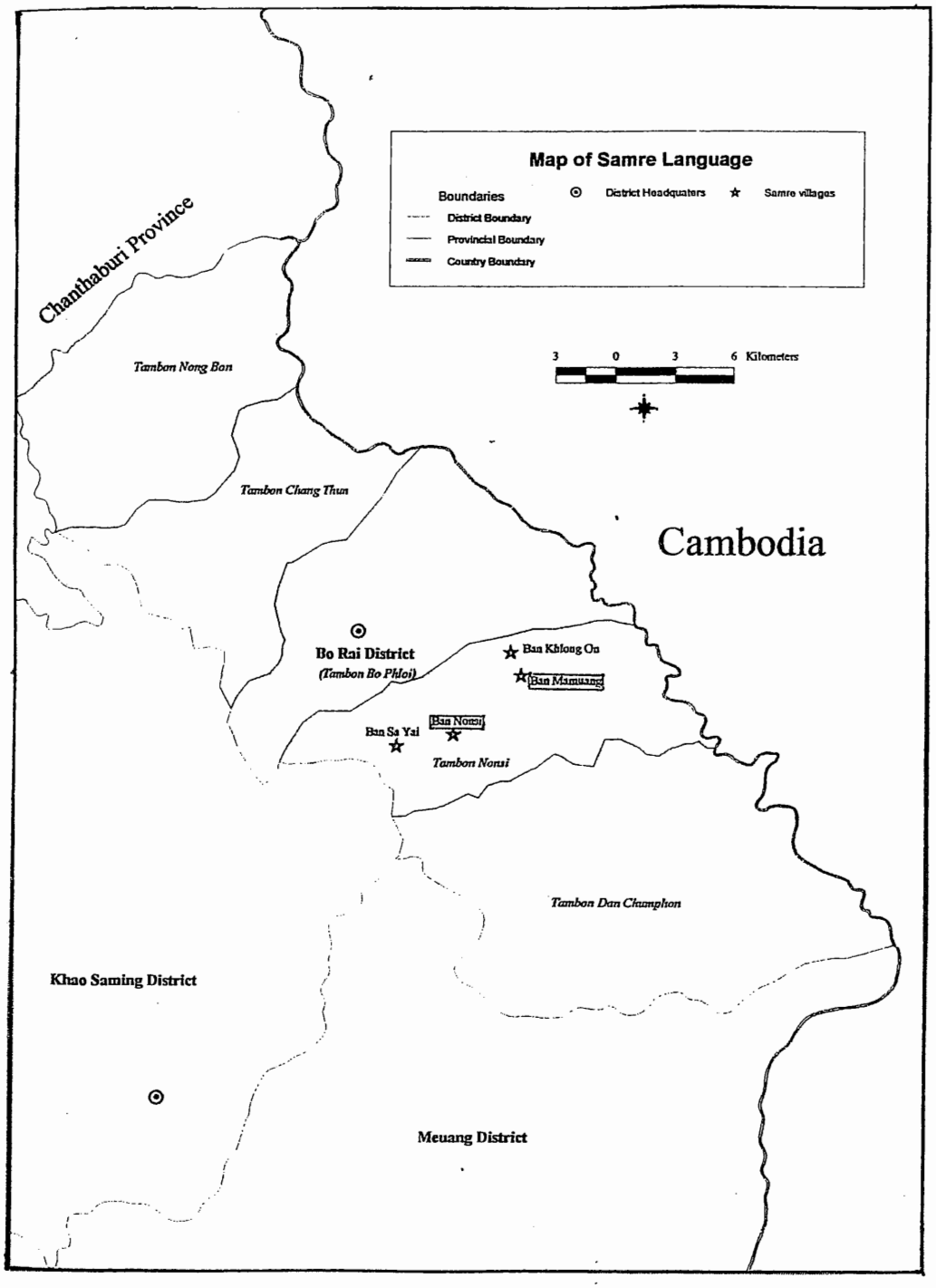
The Samre in Thailand know only that they have been living there since their parents were alive. Mrs. Saengcan Rattanamun said that as far as she knew, her ancestors had settled down in the high land area near the mountain and now her oldest brother owns the land.

1.3.2 Demography

Matisoff's investigation (1991: 213) shows that there are only 500 Chong speakers in Thailand. However, Matisoff does not mention whether there are any Samre in Thailand. Smalley classifies Samre in the same group as Chong, which is in the Pearic branch of the Mon-Khmer language family in Thailand and his estimation of this group (only the Chong) is 4,000 speakers in Thailand (Smalley, 1994: 364).

Theraphan (1984) states that there were about 7-8 families of Samre in Ban Ma-muang, Trat province at the time. Kunwadee (1996) also insists that some people who call their language as "Samre" still live there. When I visited Bo-rai District (in 1999), I found that there are a few Samre speakers living in Ban Ma-muang and some of them are also found in Ban Nonsi, which is another village of Tambon Nonsi, Bo-rai District. I was informed by the elderly Samre that when they were children there were nearly 100 families of them living together. They used their own language among their group. Most of their parents were inter-married. Later various people had come into the area after rubies were found in Bo-rai District. So the Samre have had extensive contact with other groups, especially the Thai people. Now there are about 50 Samre families but, unfortunately, not more than 20 persons are still able to speak Samre and most of them are rather old.

1.3.3 Geographical Location



Map 2 : Ban Ma-muang and Ban Nonsi in Bo-rai District, Trat Province of Thailand

1.3.4 Cultural Sketch

1.3.4.1 Livelihood The Samre in Trat mostly earn their living by collecting things from the forest nearby. Samrong is a valuable seed that they sell to merchants who go to buy it at their house though it is illegal. Some of them hunt for wild pigs, wild chickens, tigers. The men also weave a variety of bamboo traps for catching small animals, birds, and fish. The women have the responsibility of caring for children, pounding and winnowing rice, and meal preparation. A few of them have gardens in which they grow pineapples, mangoes, bananas, pepper, chili and other fruits and vegetables. Some work as labourers in someone else' s garden. Some are farmers. Most Samre are rather poor. Only a few of them have other occupations (eg. a teacher, a janitor).

(1) Appearance and Dress

Physically, the majority of Samre have a distinctive physical appearance, being darker skinned than the average Thai. They seem rather shorter than other local people. Their mouths are quite thick and their hair is mostly curly. In the present days, it is more difficult to distinguish them from others because they have been inter-married extensively. They dress like Thai people in the countryside.

(2) Religion and Belief

The Samre are animists. They believe in spirits, especially the spirits of their ancestors. They worship the spirits by providing food and drink. Every year each family holds a big worship ceremony for this kind of spirits during the period of the fourth to sixth lunar months in order to ask the ancestral spirits to protect their descendants and to make merit for their ancestors as well. This day is a meeting day among members and relatives of the family. Buddhism is also accepted by most of the people. There is a Buddhist temple in the village and there are monks who are Samre as well. Parents prefer their sons to be ordained as Buddhist monks and usually send them to learn the doctrine at Prathumkhongkha Temple in Bangkok because their cousins have been ordained there before.

Samre have no literacy for recording their culture and history, so many old traditions of the Samre now have been abandoned. The only ancient tradition among

them is Phii Mae Mot - a special kind of ghost ceremony. They believe that there are many kinds of spirits around them. Those spirits could dwell in anybody, such as "Phii Waay" (a ratten ghost) or "Sua Saming" (a tiger ghost). If a spirit dwells in anybody, he or she often gets a fever and bad luck. If that happens the victim should provide an oblation for the spirit then the spirit becomes his friend and wants to play with him sometimes. The Samre called this worship as playing Phii Mae Mot (played at night time only), while the Chong call it as Phii-Hing (play at night time) or Phii-Rong (play at day time) and this becomes a traditional ceremony among the Samre. The Samre people believe that if they treat the spirits well, they will get good things. Conversely, if they treat them badly they will be harmed.

The Samre hold the Phi Mae Mot ceremony during the second to third lunar months every year. Some groups may join together to hold the ceremony, otherwise they hold it separately. When the day arrives, the medium (always a woman) will be in the center of the open area with the different spirit offerings surrounding her. The singers sing a song for inviting a spirit to possess the medium. Men hit the drums simultaneously. The atmosphere is full of joy and cheerful. When the spirits have entered the medium, they will begin to display anything that is consistent with what they did before they died, such as going cutting the ratten, etc. When the possessing spirits leave the medium, the other spirits are invited back again and again.

Thus, since Samre vocabulary and language is intimately bound up in their religions practices, Samre language loss will also have a major impact on their world view and cultural heritage and beliefs.

1.4 Research Methodology

1.4.1 Research Site

The data on which this study is based were collected from the Samre language speakers in Ban Ma-muang and Ban Nonsi, Bo-rai District, Trat province of Thailand. This area was selected for the field work because they are the only two villages in Thailand where the language is still spoken.

1.4.2 Source of Data

There are now about twenty speakers who can speak the Samre language. From my impression, their proficiency in the Samre language varies depending on factors such as age, the frequency use (some of them told me that they had virtually abandoned the language for nearly 15-20 years), and their attitude toward preservation of the language. According to their language ability in the Samre, the speakers can be divided into three groups as below.

1.4.2.1 The first group is those who still can speak the language "fluently" (this means that they are able to remember most Samre vocabulary, to pronounce them with confidence, to communicate with others on various topics, to tell the stories or explain events without hesitation and without resorting to extensive borrowing from other languages). Their names of members in this group are as followings

Mrs. Saengcan Rattanamun, is 74 years old. Her original name was Ploydaeng Hanyaphat. She has 7 brothers and 3 sisters and she was the youngest among them. She was chosen to be the main informant. She was born at Ban Mamuang. Her education is Prathom 4. She can read and write in Thai but now her eyesight is not good enough for doing that. She is a bilingual of Samre and Thai. Her former husband was Samre but she divorced him and remarried with a Thai man who died many years ago. She earns her living by being an employee in someone else's garden or selling something and gets some money from her sons and daughters.

She has the best proficiency in the language among all of the speakers. Most of the other speakers cannot tell any stories. They say that there are no songs or stories in Samre, otherwise, they have forgotten them. However, she can talk in a long text form, such as telling a past event and she can also tell three stories in the Samre language (The story of ancient people, The rice bone, and "Mom, I'm hungry"). She can remember most of vocabulary items. Her pronunciation is good. Besides she can talk to other speakers on all topics.

Mrs Chamnan Pokklum, 66 years old, is Mrs Saengcan's niece. She was born at Ban Nonsi. She explained that after her family became ill because of an evil spirit, they died. After that she married her husband, who is Samre too, and moved to Ban Mamuang about ten years ago. She is rather talkative. She can tell a story in Samre (the story of the deer) but they are not complete. Some parts of the story are told in Thai instead. She said she remembered the way to tell stories from her grandmother who liked to tell children before they went to sleep. Sometimes she also told some stories to her children but they don't like to listen. Now she speaks Samre with her husband and sometimes when she meets someone who can speak the language she then speaks with that one. Her first daughter can understand the language but she can not speak.

Mrs. Khang In-on, 68 years old is a relative with Mrs. Seangcan. She lives at Ban Nonsi. She is rather talkative. Her husband had died and she stays home with her children. When she meets her relatives, she uses the Samre language but there are a lot of Thai words in her speech. Her house is not far from Mrs. Nuu, Mr. Cit and Mr. Non, so sometimes they can speak the Samre language to each other.

Mr. Cit (Cae) Pokklum, 76 years old. He was a classmate with Mrs. Saengcan when they were at the elementary school. His wife, who was Samre, died five years ago.

Mr. Sin Rattanamun, 70 years old, is Mrs. Saengcan's ex-husband's nephew. He graduated prathom 2. He is always invited to hit the drums in the traditional way when holding Phii Mae Mot ceremony among the group. His fluency in Samre is rather good.

Mrs. Un Rattanamun, Mr. Sin's wife, is a Chong woman. She is about 65 years old. She has been lived with her husband over ten years and now she can speaks Samre fluently. She always goes to join in Phii Mae mot ceremony together with her husband as a singer of the songs. Actually, most of them are the songs which are similar to the Chong's tradition that are used to invite spirits to dwell into someone's body while they perform the ceremony.

Thaan Cang, Head of the monks at Ma-muang Temple. He is about 70 years old. His ex-wife is Mrs. Saengcan's niece. Though he has ordained for many years, his fluency in the Samre language is quite good. Anyway, he speaks only with the Samre speakers.

Mrs. Nu Pokklum, 84 years old. She stays at home with her children. Her husband was Samre but he died twenty years ago.

1.4.2.2 The second group are those whose language ability is defined as "not fluent" (their language ability is less than the first group as they forget some words or the percentage of use of Thai loan words is greater than the first group)

Mr. Non Saengpha, 60 years old, the former head of Nonsi village. He is Mrs. Saengcan's relative. In former time his fluency in Samre was as good as in Thai. But now he forgets the language a lot because it's difficult to find someone to speak with. The others who can speak the language are very old and stay at home alone while his generation must go to work in the field. At night they stay separately. He would like to preserve the language though he knows it's rather hard to do so. When I went to Nonsi village to meet the Samre people there, he helped me to bring the others coming to his house. All of them try to speak but they say that they forget a lot. They speak Samre and then switch to speak Thai all the time.

Mr. Piak Pokklum, Mrs Chamnan's husband, is 69 years old. He is also a son of Mrs. Saengcan's sister. He can use Samre well with his wife but he doesn't like to speak much with others. He said that he felt shy. But when I try to communicate with him in his language he seemed to be more comfortable and spoke more. He knows a lot about the forest that he usually goes to stay there to find something for sell.

Mr Poo Hanyaphat (68 years old) is a son of Mrs Saengcan's brother. He is very shy to speak. He is Mr. Piak's cousin and their houses are not too far apart.

Mrs. Samaj Hanyaphat, 70 years olds, is the wife of Mrs.Saengcan's brother. Her house is on the mountain far away from the others. Since her husband,

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Mr. Jim. cannot remember to speak Samre, she seldom speaks the language when she comes down to the village and meets her group.

Mrs. Thong Chaiyamat, 68 years old, is a wife of Mrs. Saengcan's nephew. Her house is rather far away from other Samre people. She stays home taking care of her daughter's son and weaving bamboo baskets for sell.

Mr. On Moonlachoot, 80 years old. His house is alone without electricity. He is rather consevative but he is very old. His children cannot speak Samre and he cannot find someone to speak the language with.

Mr. Jim Pokklum is 83 years old. His condition is similar to Mr. On that his house is too far. He is the only one who can speak the language in his family. He cannot walk so far so he stays home alone during daytime.

Mr. Waep Pokklum, 76 years old. His house in Ban Nonsi and it is rather far from the other speakers. He seldom has chances to meet the others.

Mrs. Khemnoi Rattanamun, 58 years old, is Mrs. Saengcan's niece. She usually goes to her garden since she has borrowed money to buy it. Thus she rarely has chances to speak the language with others.

1.4.2.3 The third group are the speakers who may be referred to as "semi- speaker" (i.e., cannot use vocabulary and grammatical structures adequately enough to communicate). They use only some words or the common expressions, such as /ciiw^{A} nii^{C}/ 'Where (will) you go?'; /huəp^{A} klɔŋ^{A} hɯɯ^{A} naan^{A}/ 'Have you eaten rice yet?.

Mr. Kriangsak Rattanamun, 56 years old, is Mrs. Saengcan's nephew. He is the janitor at Ban Ma-maung school.

Mr. Noi Hanyaphat, 64 years old, is Mrs. Saengcan 's nephew. He is Mrs. Thong 's husband. He can remember only some words in Samre.

Mrs. Sriwiang Rattanamun, 65 years old, is also Mrs. Saengcan's niece. She always drinks a lot. She is not much interested in her own language.

1.4.3 Steps for the study

1. Studying documents and literature relevant to the Samre language.
2. The data were collected from the informants who belong to two groups :

a) The principal informants who provide mainly language data:

- can speak and understand the language well,
- have lived in the villages since birth and have never moved to other places;
- males and females, because the language is not differentiated by sex of the speakers;
- about 50-80 years old because the young cannot provide enough data about the language;
- education are not more than Prathom 4; and
- occupations are farmers, gardeners, employees, etc.

b) The second group of informants who provide the language data for comparison with the first group in order to observe whether there are some changes within the language:

- can speak and understand the language;
- birthplaces are at Ban Ma-muang or Ban Nonsi, Tanbon Nonsi , Bo-rai District;
- males and females because the language is not differentiated by sex of the speakers;
- about 30-50 years old ;
- education varies from Prathom 4 to a Bachelor degree; and
- occupations are farmers, gardeners, employees, teachers, and nurses, etc.

3. The informants were asked to provide vocabulary items according to various semantic fields, such as human body and function, plants, animals, huntings, etc. Moreover, phrases, clauses, sentences and some text materials (folktales, converstions, past events, etc.) which are commonly used in their every day life were included in this study.

4. The data corpus was collected on audio-tape, and was transcribed from the tape using phonetic alphabet together with their meaning in English

5. The data was analyzed and described. It was keyboarded and English glosses are provided. Then it was rechecked with Samre speakers for accuracy and clarification.

Initial data was collected and checked during my main informant's trip to Bangkok in order to teach the Samre language at Mahidol University, Salaya from October,1998 to March, 1999. I went to check the data with other Samre speakers in two villages, Ban Ma-muang and Ban Nonsi in March, 1999. Mrs. Saengcan had been brought to Bangkok again about a month in March 2000 for rechecking. Due to the limited time, the description presented here could not be considered an exhaustive one. More data would undoubtedly lead to discovering more structural patterns.

CHAPTER II

PHONOLOGY

2.1 Introduction

In the following chapter, the phonological system of Samre will be described according to Pike's phonological hierarchy (see Sec. 1.3.3.2). The four ranks are the intonation group, the phonological word (the stress group), the syllable, and the phoneme. The highest rank will be stated first and the others will be mentioned in order.

2. 2 The Intonation Group

2.2.1 General Definition

The intonation group is defined as the unit of the highest rank of the phonological hierarchy and therefore has no stable function. The structure of the intonation group is stated in terms of phonological words.

Phonetically, intonation is a linguistic unit of pitch at sentence level. Sometimes loudness, rhythm, and other qualities of voice are considered to be part of intonation.

2.2.2 Symbol used in describing the Intonation Group

The phonetic tramlines (the wavy line tracing the pitch movement above each sentence) is marked for representing intonation patterns. Levels of the lines may be change upwards and downwards. The higher level refers to rising intonation. On the other hand, the lower level refers to falling intonation.

2.2.3 The structure of the Intonation Group

Intonation is not phonemic in this language as it does not change the meaning of the whole sentences but it usually adds the speaker's attitude toward that sentence. Four patterns of intonation contours suggested here are slightly different in shape, usually at the end of the sentences.

(1) A final mid level or slightly falling intonation manifests a declarative statement, a content question with a final question word, or an imperative that expresses command especially with displeasure of annoyance.

1. ʔiŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} thiəw^{A} (statement)
   I will go travel
   'I'm going to travel.'

2. naa^{C} kachii^{C} poo^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} (content question)
   when you will go
   'When will you go?'

3. ciiw^{A} thiək^{B} khaneen^{A} ʔan^{A} (imperative)
   go sleep now this
   'Go to sleep now!'

(2) A falling intonation manifests a simple yes/no question.

4. poo^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} ɹoonɹiən^{C} bɔɔ^{C} (yes/no question)
   you will go school q.mk.
   'Are you going to the school?'

(3) A final high or high rising intonation manifests an imperative illocution that expresses invitation or persuasion.

5. huəp^{A} klɔŋ^{A} thə?^{A} (invitation)
eat rice fp.
'Eat rice, please.'

6. ciiw^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} saa^{A} thə?^{A} (persuasion)
go will together fp.
'Let's go together.'

(4) Level pausing intonation in a statement indicates that the speaker has not yet finished his statement.

7. ʔiɲ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} talaat^{A} ciiw^{A} tiiw^{B} .....
I will go market go buy
'I'm going to the market to buy.....'

The intonation in this language is assumed to be falling at the end of each sentence, except for invitation or persuasive utterances. Therefore, it is non-phonemic because it is not necessary to write any mark on a sentence in order to understand its meaning.

2.3 The Phonological Word (The Stress Group)

2.3.1 General Definition

The phonological word is defined as the rank whose units have a structure in terms of syllables and function in the intonation group. In the Samre language, words are marked by stress and the nuclear syllable may be strongly stressed in relation to the other syllables. So the phonological word may also be called the stress group in this language.

Phonetically, stress refers to the relative perceived prominence of a unit of spoken language. A stressed syllable is usually produced by an increase in articulatory force, increased rate of air flow, and greater muscular tension in the articulators. A sequence of syllables constituting a rhythm unit, containing one primary stress, is a stress group (Crystal, 1992: 369).

2.3.2 Symbols Used in Describing the Stress Groups

| S | is used to represent a syllable
syllable boundaries are marked by | . |
primary stress is marked by | ˈ |
secondary stress is marked by | ˘ |
unreleased sound is marked by | ˺ |
an unstressed syllable is unmarked

2.3.3 The Structure of the Stress Groups

Samre has three degrees of stress: primary stress, secondary stress and unstress. A primary stressed syllable is the syllable which has more volume, and greater length (usually on the vowel) than the weak stressed syllable. A secondary stressed syllable is a syllable which has more volume and more length than the unstressed syllable but less than the strong stressed syllable. An unstressed syllable is a syllable which has less volume and length than the weak stressed syllable. In other words we can say that it is a syllable which does not bear stress.

Samre normally has from one to two syllables. However, a little higher proportion of the words in Samre are disyllabic words. Trisyllabic words are rare. Each stress group has only one primary stressed syllable as nucleus and may have either an unstressed syllable or a secondary stressed syllable as periphery. Thus the stress group in Samre is predictable because each word has only one primary stress, either on the only syllable or on the last syllable of the word.

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2.3.3.1 Monosyllabic Words

In monosyllabic words (words with only one syllable and this syllable is meaningful), the structure of the stress group of this type is [ˈS], that is, the primary stress is on the peak of the syllable.

Examples:

/tii^{A}/	[ˈtii ^{332}]	'hand'
/tɔŋ^{A}/	[ˈtɔŋ ^{332}]	'house'
/paaŋ^{A}/	[ˈpaaŋ^{332}]	'flower'
/tuu^{B}/	[ˈtuu^{21}]	'escape'
/tuəŋ^{C}/	[ˈtuəŋ ^{451}]	'to be afraid of'

2.3.3.2 Disyllabic Words

In disyllabic words, the primary stress always occurs on the last syllable together with either a secondary stress or no stress occurring on the other syllable of the word.

(1) Sub-type A

The structure of the stress group in this type is [ˇS.ˈS], that is, the non- final syllable takes secondary stress and the last one takes primary stress.

Examples:

/saliəŋ^{B}/	[ˇsa.ˈliəŋ ^{21}]	' woman'
/kamaaŋ^{C}/	[ˇka.ˈmaaŋ^{451}]	'chin'
/chanɯn^{A}/	[ˇc^{h}a.ˈnɯn^{332}]	'wife'
/canlaaŋ^{B}/	[ˇcan.ˈlaaŋ^{21}]	'iguana'
/takɪooŋ^{C}/	[ˇta.ˈkɣooŋ^{451}]	'to squirm'

(2) Sub-type B

The structure of the stress group of this sub-type is [S.ˈS], that is, the non-final syllable takes no stress and the last one takes primary stress.

Examples:

/m̩luəŋ^{B}/	[m̩.ˈluəŋ^{21}]	'man'
/n̩taa^{A}/	[n̩.ˈtaa^{332}]	'spinach'

2.3.3.3 Trisyllabic words

From the data, there are only two trisyllabic words found in the language. They are the specific name of an insect and a tree, respectively. The structure of the trisyllabic word is [ˇS.ˇS.ˈS], that is, the non- final syllables take secondary stress and the last one takes primary stress.

Examples:

/sammawɛɛk^{C} /	[ˇsam.ˇma. ˈwɛɛk$^{˥344}$]	'a kind of insect'
/siilaman^{A}/	[ˇsii.ˇla. ˈman^{344}]	'a kind of tree'

Other trisyllabic words are rare and are loans from Thai, for example:

/sokkapɹok^{C} /	[ˇsok. ˇka. ˈpɣok$^{˥344}$]	'dirty'
/ʔantaɹaaj^{C}/	[ˇʔan.ˇta. ˈɣaaj^{344}]	'danger'
/sappadaa^{A} /	[ˇsap.ˇpa. ˈdaa^{344}]	'week'

2.3.4 Word-boundaries and Writing Stress Groups

The phonological word structure are always predictable from the position in a word and from the syllabic structure of the word. Primary stress, which functions as the nucleus syllable of the word, always occurs on a monosyllabic word and on the final syllable of a disyllabic word. Secondary stress or unstress, occurs on the syllable preceding the final syllable of the word.

The phonological word structures are predictable according to the rule stated above, therefore, it is non-phonemic. It is not necessary to write any stress mark on words in phonemic writing. Word boundaries are marked by / /.

Examples:

/paliiw^{C}/	'egg-plant'
/kahɔŋ^{C}/	'crispy'
/paliiw^{C}/ + /kahɔŋ^{C}/	'a crispy egg-plant'

There are two ways to look for the boundaries of words in Samre.

(1) The stress evidence

The primary stress always falls on the last syllable, so the word break will follow the primary stress syllable.

(2) The syllable structure

a) Every word must begin with a consonant.

b) There will be only one final consonant.

Examples:

1. / miɲ^{A} / ciiw^{A} / sɪɛɛ^{A} /
   mother go field
   'Mother goes to the field.'
2. /naa^{C} /maɪaaɪ^{C} / nah^{A} /
   likely pity adv
   'It's a pity!'

2.4 The Syllable

2.4.1 General Definition

The syllable rank is defined as the rank whose units function in the stress group and have their structure stated in terms of phonemes.

2.4.2 Symbols Used in Describing Syllable Structure

Symbols used in describing syllable structure are as follows ;

C_1 is used to represent a single initial consonant or the first consonant of a consonant cluster beginning the syllable

C_2 is used to represent a second member of a consonant cluster of the syllable

P is used to represent final plosive consonants i.e. /p, t, c, k, ʔ/

N is used to represent final continuant consonants i.e. /m,n,ɲ,ŋ,w,j,h,ɪ,l /

V is used to represent a pure short vowel of the syllable

VV is used to represent a long vowel or diphthong of the syllable,which is interpreted as two phonemes

^{A} is used to represent a mid level tone

^{B} is used to represent a mid-low tone

^{C} is used to represent a high falling tone

2.4.3 Syllable Structure

The structure of the syllable is described in terms of segments consisting of one or two vowels and a tone as nucleus and one to three consonants as periphery.

Depending on the different groups of final consonants, syllables can be grouped into three main types: smooth syllables, checked syllables and nasal syllables.

2.4.3.1 Smooth Syllables

A smooth syllable is a syllable ending with a long vowel or a continuant consonant It carries any of tone ^{A} or ^{B} or ^{C}. There are three sub-types:

(1) Sub-type A

The structure of the smooth syllable of this sub-type is

$$\underline{C_1}(\underline{C_2})\ \underline{V(V)}\ \underline{(N)}^{A\text{-}C}$$

The smooth syllable of this sub-type consists of C_1 in which any consonant phoneme can be occur. C_2 are often the liquids /l/ or /ɹ/ while the C_1(a stop or sometimes /s/) occurs in this position too. The Vowel may be a short vowel, a long vowel or a diphthong. N is one of the continuant final consonant sets.

Examples:

$\underline{C_1VN}^{A\text{-}C}$;

/$\underline{\text{lin}}^{A}$/ 'on, above'

/$\underline{\text{lin}}^{B}$/ 'play'

/$\underline{\text{koŋ}}^{C}$/ 'long'

$\underline{C_1C_2VN}^{A-C}$;

/$\underline{kɹiŋ}^{A}$/ 'drum'

/$\underline{sɹaŋ}^{B}$/ 'a pole'

/$\underline{sɹaŋ}^{C}$/ 'river bank'

$\underline{C_1VVN}^{A-C}$;

/$\underline{ŋuən}^{A}$/ 'a kind of grass'

/$\underline{suəŋ}^{B}$/ 'to smell'

/$\underline{suəŋ}^{C}$/ 'to tell, to reply'

$\underline{C_1C_2VVN}^{A-C}$;

/$\underline{kluəŋ}^{A}$/ 'bone'

/$\underline{kluəŋ}^{B}$/ 'husband'

/$\underline{kluəŋ}^{C}$/ 'a log'

(2) Sub-type B

The structure of the smooth syllable of this sub-type is

$\underline{C_1(C_2)VV}^{A-C}$

The component of this sub-type is very similar to the smooth syllable of sub-type A except that the final consonant is zero. In other words, this subtype refers to open syllable.

Example:

$\underline{C_1VV}^{A-C}$;

/$\underline{tii}^{A}$/ 'hand'

/$\underline{ɪee}^{B}$/ 'rattan'

/$\underline{ɪee}^{C}$/ 'in'

$\underline{C_1C_2VV}^{A-C}$;

/$\underline{pɹii}^{A}$/ 'forest'

/$\underline{sɹii}^{B}$/ 'banyan tree'

/$\underline{thɹaa}^{C}$/ 'guava'

$CV\underline{C_1}\underline{VV}^{A-C}$;

/ka<u>maa</u>^{A}/ 'rain'
/ka<u>pee</u>^{B}/ 'crocodile'
/la<u>lee</u>^{C}/ 'worm'

$CV\underline{C_1}\underline{C_2}\underline{VV}^{C}$;

/ta<u>kɪoo</u>^{C}/ 'shell'

(3) Sub-type C

This sub-type normally occurs as the minor syllable. It can occur or not occur and the pitch level is neutral. The structure of the smooth syllable of this sub-type is

<u>CV(N)</u>-

It consists of C which is almost always a stop, as in /<u>pa</u>thaw^{A}/ 'axe'; /<u>ta</u>loo^{C}/ 'skin'; / <u>ka</u>huəŋ^{A}/ 'iron', but /m/ have been found too as in /<u>ma</u>luəŋ^{B}/ 'son'. It should be noted here that there are many cases of fluctuation among the phonemes which occur in the initial position of this sub-type, such as:

/s/ ~ /th/ ~ /kh/	as in /<u>s</u>anii^{C}/ ~ /<u>th</u>anii^{C}/ ~ /<u>kh</u>anii^{C} /	'sun, day'
/s/ ~ /t/~ /k/	as in /<u>s</u>apaŋ^{C}/ ~ /<u>t</u>apaŋ^{C}/ ~ /<u>k</u>apaŋ^{C}/	'swamp'
/s/ ~ /t/~ /kh/	as in /<u>s</u>anɔɔ^{C}/ ~ /<u>t</u>anɔɔ^{C}/ ~ /<u>kh</u>anɔɔ^{C}/	'worm'
/s/~ /th/	as in /<u>s</u>anaɪ^{A}/ ~ /<u>th</u>anaɪ^{A}/	'to know each other.'
/s/ or /kh/	as in /<u>s</u>anaa^{A}/ ~ /<u>kh</u>anaa^{A}/	'friend'
/c/ ~ /ch/~ /s/	as in /<u>c</u>anaaj^{C}/ ~ /<u>ch</u>anaaj^{C}/ ~ /<u>s</u>anaaj^{C}/	'tusk'
/c/ ~ /ch/	as in /<u>c</u>amɔh^{B}/ ~ /<u>ch</u>amɔh^{B}/	'name'
/c/ or /s/	as in /<u>c</u>amkhɯn^{A}/ ~ /<u>s</u>amkhɯn^{A}/	'woman'
/l/or/k/	as in /<u>l</u>ahaaŋ^{C}/ ~ /<u>k</u>ahaaŋ^{C}/	'stiff'

V is a short, somewhat colourless vowel, usually [a] but often tending toward [ə]. N is most often a nasal either /m/, /n/ or /ŋ/ as in / sa<u>m</u>ɪɔɔŋ^{A} / 'a kind of fruit'; /ka<u>n</u>cɯɯɪ^{B}/ 'needle'; /ca<u>ŋ</u>han^{A}/ 'food', and sometimes /w/ has been found too (as in /ca<u>w</u>suut^{C}/ 'bear').

Example:

CVC$_1$VN^{A-C};

/katiŋ^{A}/ 'thin'

/laliŋ^{B}/ 'to turn up'

/sapaŋ^{C}/ 'swamp'

CVC$_1$VVN^{A-C};

/laʔeeŋ^{A}/ 'diligent'

/kamaaŋ^{B}/ 'chin'

/lahaaŋ^{C}/ 'stiff'

CVNC$_1$VN^{A-C};

/kantɔŋ^{A}/ 'rabbit'

/sampah^{B}/ 'to prostrate oneself'

/coŋhoŋ^{C}/ 'to sit with both legs folded down'

CVNC$_1$VVN$^{A, B}$;

/tamluəŋ^{A}/ 'calf (of the leg)'

/kantuəŋ^{B}/ 'bunch of bananas'

CVNC$_1$C$_2$VVN^{A};

/tɔŋkɪaan^{A}/ 'fire-place'

CVC$_1$C$_2$VN^{A};

/kathɪah^{A}/ 'nail'

CVC$_1$C$_2$VVN^{C};

/takɪiəŋ^{C}/ 'wing, elbow'

CVNC$_1$VVN^{B};

/kancɯɯɪ^{B}/ 'needle'

2.4.3.2 Checked Syllables

A checked syllable is a syllable ending with a plosive consonant. There are two sub-types according to their structure.

(1) Sub-type A

The structure of the checked syllable of this sub-type is

$\underline{C_1(C_2)\ VP^{A\text{-}C}}$

Examples:

$\underline{C_1VP^{A,B}}$;

/tɔk^A/ 'out'

/tɔk^B/ 'boat'

$\underline{C_1VVP}^{A\text{-}C}$;

/paat^A/ 'to lick'

/paat^B/ 'to slice'

/paat^C/ 'to walk pass'

$\underline{C_1\ C_2VP}^{A,B}$;

/sɪuk^A/ 'village'

/sɪɔk^B/ 'pig'

$\underline{C_1C_2VVP}^{A\text{-}C}$;

/kɪaap^A/ 'slough'

/sɪaap^B/ 'fishy smell'

/plaak^C/ 'to cleave'

CV$\underline{C_1C_2VVP}^{C}$;

/kapɪɔɔk^C/ 'parasite'

CV$\underline{C_1VP}^{A,B}$;

/khamɔk^A/ 'to cough'

/kamec^B/ 'sticky rice'

CV$\underline{C_1VVP}^{A\text{-}C}$;

/kawiək^A/ 'to embrace'

/samuək^B/ 'daughter-in-law'

/kanuək^C/ 'carrying pole'

(2) Sub-type B

The structure of the checked syllable of this sub-type is

CVP-

The component of this sub-type is similar to the smooth syllable of sub-type C, except that the final here is P (a plosive consonant) instead of N (a continuant consonant).

Examples:

CVPC$_1$VP^B ;

/sapmɔk^B/ 'a fever'

/sappɹap^B/ 'unreliable'

CVPC$_1$VVP^B ;

/tɯkŋuək^B/ 'to snore'

2.4.3.3 Nasal Syllables

Nasal syllable is the syllable whose structure consists of a syllabic nasal. The pitch level of this syllable is always neutral. Its structure is N̩$^{A, B}$

Examples:

/m̩pləəŋ^A/ 'gun'

/n̩cɯɯɹ^B/ 'needle'

/ŋ̩ɹut^B/ 'a bamboo fishtrap'

2.4.4 Syllable Function

The syllable functions in the stress group. There are two main classes of syllables in terms of their function in the stress group: a major syllable and a minor syllable.

2.4.4.1 Major Syllable.

A major syllable functions as the nucleus of a stress group. It takes the primary stress and always occupies the ultimate position or immediately precedes

a pause. The occurrence of the major syllable is obligatory. The structure of this class can be both the smooth syllables and the checked syllables.

Examples:

/chii^{A}/	[ˈchii^{332}]	'louse'
/niiɪ^{A}/	[ˈniiɣ^{332}]	'mat'
/khluum^{C}/	[ˈkʰluum^{451}]	'urine'
/laliəŋ^{B}/	[ˇla.ˈliəŋ^{21}]	'cat fish'
/kawiin^{C}/	[ˇka.ˈwiin^{451}]	'waist'
/salaaŋ^{C}/	[ˇsa.ˈlaaŋ^{451}]	'bad smell'

2.4.4.2 Minor Syllable

The minor syllable or presyllable functions as the periphery of a phonological word. It's occurrence is optional. If it does occur, it will take the weak stress or unstressed and will always occupy the initial position of the word, preceding the major syllable. The syllable structure of the minor syllable can be the smooth syllable of sub-type C, the checked syllable of sub-type B or the nasal syllable.

There are variations in the Samre word structure due to the collapse of the unstressed presyllable. In some words, the presyllable may be deleted either partially or entirely. Otherwise, they may be reduced into a syllabic nasal consonant or even become a monosyllabic word. Variations of pronunciation can occur in various speakers of the same dialect and even in the same speaker.

In a disyllabic word, the initial consonant and vowel of the presyllable may be dropped out causing a consonant sequence which becomes a cluster.

CVCCVC	⇒	CCVC	
camkhɯn^{A}	⇒	mkhɯn^{A}	'woman'
camɹiəŋ^{B}	⇒	mɹiəŋ^{B}	'to sing'

The speakers may insert a transition vowel between the cluster that makes a monosyllabic word become a disyllabic word. This is an easier way for sound production. Otherwise, the final consonant of a presyllable is pronounced as a syllabic nasal in any casual speech.

CCVC	⇒	CVCVC	~	NCVC
mkhɯn^{A}	⇒	makhɯn^{A}	~	m̥khɯn^{B}	'woman'
mɹiəŋ^{B}	⇒	maɹiəŋ^{B}	~	m̥ɹiəŋ^{B}	'to sing'

More examples of variations in pronouncing the presyllable are shown below:

/lakii^{C} / ~ /ŋ̍kii^{C}/	'skin (of coconut)'
/kadəəm^{A}/ ~ /n̥dəəm^{A}/	'to snatch away'
/kantɹak^{A}/ ~ /n̥tɹak^{A}/	'to draw (a gun)'
/kancɯɯɹ^{B}/ ~ /n̥cɯɯɹ^{B}/	'needle'
/tɔŋ̍kɹaan^{A}/ ~ /ŋ̍kɹaan^{A}/	'fire-place'

Also, in actual speech the presyllables are commonly dropped out as in:

/samaaŋ^{C}/ ~ / maaŋ^{C}/	'caper'
/kuŋwiək^{C}/ ~ /wiək^{C}/	'millipede'
/kasic^{A}/ ~ /sic^{A}/	'lazy'
/kasɛc^{A}/ ~ /sɛc^{A}/	'cold'

2.4.5 Syllable-boundaries and Marking Syllable -breaks

We can predict the syllable boundaries from the syllable structure and the phonological words. Thus, syllable breaks need not to be marked overtly in writing phonemic data.

Examples:

Phonemic writing	**Phonetic writing**	
/kasɯm^{C}/	[ˇka.ˈsɯm^{451}]	'human'
/paliiw^{C}/	[ˇpa.ˈliiw^{451}]	'egg- plant'
/mahaaŋ^{C}/	[ˇma.ˈhaaŋ^{451}]	'a big, square-shaped face'

2.5 The Phonemes

2.5.1 General Definition

A phoneme is defined as the rank whose units function in the syllable. It is the lowest rank of the phonological hierarchy which is capable of differentiating one word from another because it is the smallest unit of speech. It also has no stable structure because it is an actual sound unit of a given language so it varies with any particular dialect or individual person. However, the phonetic forms of the phonemes can be described.

2.5.2 Phoneme Classes

There are three major classes of phonemes in the Samre according to their function in the syllable : Consonants, Vowels and Tones.

2.5.2.1 The Consonants

A consonant functions as the nucleus of a nasal syllable and as a periphery in any other syllables. The consonants can be divided into two types according to their structure.

(1) The Types of Consonants

a) The Single Consonant

This type of the consonant consists of one single consonant phoneme. There are 21 consonant phonemes in Samre, they are: /p, ph, b, t, th, d, c, ch, k, kh, ʔ, m, n,ɲ, ŋ, s, h, l, ɹ, w, j /

b) The Consonant Sequences

This type consists of two consonant phonemes occurring in sequence. The first member of this type may be any voiceless plosive consonants, except for /ʔ/, or the alveolar fricative /s/ while the second member is a liquid, either /l/ or /ɹ/.

(2) The Classes of Consonants

The consonants can be divided into three main classes according to their function in different positions in the syllable: initial consonant, second member of a consonant cluster and final consonant.

a) Initial Consonant

Initial consonant is the consonant phoneme that occurs in the initial position of the syllable: /p, ph, b, t, th, d, c, ch, k, kh, ʔ, m, n, ɲ, ŋ, s, h, l, ɹ, w, j /

Examples:

p	/piək^{B}/	'laugh'
ph	/phah^{A}/	'tail'
b	/bəək^{B}/	'open'
t	/tuŋ^{A}/	'egg'
th	/thiim^{C}/	'trunk of tree'
d	/dɯk^{A}/	'thick'
c	/cɯt^{A}/	'angry'
ch	/chuək^{A}/	' to pound'
k	/kic^{A}/	'small'
kh	/khiin^{A}/	'child'
ʔ	/ʔiin^{A}/	'to have'
m	/mat^{B}/	'eye'
n	/naaŋ^{A}/	'old'
ŋ	/ŋaɹ^{A}/	'red'
s	/sɛc^{A}/	'cold'
h	/haam^{C}/	'blood'
l	/laap^{B}/	'to smear'
ɹ	/ɹiih^{C}/	'root'
w	/waa^{A}/	'monkey'
j	/jaam^{B}/	'cry'

b) Second Member of a Consonant Cluster

The second members of a consonant cluster is the consonant that occurs in the second position of the initial consonant cluster, following some consonants-- p, ph, t, th, c, k, kh, m, s /. They are / ɹ/ and / l/.

Examples:

pɹ	/pɹiiᴮ/	'forest'
tɹ	/tɹuəjᴬ/	'cow,ox'
cɹ	/cɹiəŋᴬ/	'ring'
kɹ	/kɹicᴬ/	'breast, chest'
phɹ	/ phɹiiᴬ/	'fruit'
thɹ	/thɹaaᶜ/	'guava'
khɹ	/khɹaaŋᴮ /	'alcohol'
mɹ	/mɹecᴮ/	'pepper'
sɹ	/sɹɔkᴮ/	'pig'
khl	/khlaaᶜ/	'leaf'
pl	/pliiwᴬ/	'fire'
kl	/klɔŋᴬ/	'rice'
phl	/phliimᶜ/	'land leech'

The other consonant of this class is /w/ in / kw- / and / khw- / , which is found in some Thai loan words, such as /kwaaŋᴮ/ 'wide'and /khwaaŋᴬ/ 'to obstruct'.

c) Final Consonant

The final consonant is the consonant that occurs in the final position of the syllable. There are thirteen of them : /-p, -t, -c, -k, -ʔ, -m, -n, -ɲ, -ŋ, -h, -ɹ, -w, -j /

(3) The Consonant Phoneme Inventory

Samre has 21 single consonant phonemes as shown in the following chart. All of them can occur as an initial consonant; only those preceded by a hyphen occur finally.

-p	-t	-c	-k	-ʔ
ph	th	ch	kh	
b	d			
-m	-n	-ɲ	-ŋ	
	s			-h
	l			
	-ɹ			
-w			-j	

Chart 6 : The Consonant Phoneme Inventory

(4) The Consonant Formational Statement

Consonant phoneme inventory in Samre is shown in Chart 6 above. This section will describe them and indicate their distribution, with examples.

/p/ is realized as [p] - a voiceless unaspirated bilabial plosive that occurs in the initial position of the syllable, e.g. /p̲aaŋ^{A}/ [ˈp̲aaŋ^{332}] 'flower.' Also, it is realized as [p˺] - a voiceless unaspirated and unreleased bilabial plosive that occurs in the final position, e.g. /chap̲^{A}/ [ˈc^{h}ap̲˺^{344}] 'to catch'.

/ph/ is realized as [p^{h}] - a voiceless aspirated bilabial plosive. It only occurs in the initial position of the syllable, e.g. /p̲hic^{A}/ [ˈp̲^{h}ic˺^{344}] 'to put out a fire'.

/b/ is realized as [b] - a voiced bilabial plosive. It only occurs in the initial position of the syllable, e.g. /b̲ɔɔk^{A}/ [ˈb̲ɔɔk˺^{334}] 'to peel'.

/t/ is realized as [t] - a voiceless unaspirated apico-alveolar plosive that occurs in the initial position of the syllable, e.g. /t̲ɔŋ^{A}/ [ˈt̲ɔŋ^{332}] 'house.' Also, it is realized as [t˺] - a voiceless unaspirated and unreleased apico-alveolar plosive that occurs in the final position,e.g. /piit̲^{A}/ [ˈpiit̲˺^{334}] 'knife'.

/th/ is realized as [t^{h}] - a voiceless aspirated apico-alveolar plosive. It only occurs in the initial position of the syllable, e.g./t̲hɯm^{A}/ [ˈt̲^{h}ɯm^{332}] 'to cook '.

/d/ is realized as [d] - a voiced apico-alveolar plosive. It only occurs in the initial position of the syllable, e.g. /d̲uuŋ^{A}/ [ˈd̲uuŋ^{332}] 'coconut'.

/c/ is realized as [c] - a voiceless unaspirated alveolar-prepalatal plosive that occurs in the initial position of the syllable, e.g. /c̲am^{A}/ [ˈc̲am^{332}]'to wait for'.

Also, it is realized as [c˺] - a voiceless unaspirated and unreleased alveolar-prepalatal plosive that occurs in the final position, e.g. /kic̲^{A}/ [ˈkic̲$^{˧˩˨}$] 'small, little.'

/ch/ is realized as [c^{h}]- a voiceless aspirated alveolar-prepalatal plosive.It only occurs in the initial position of the syllable, e.g. /c̲haaŋ^{C}/ [ˈc̲^{h}aaŋ^{451}] 'cool'.

/k/ is realized as [k] - a voiceless unaspirated dorso-velar plosive that occurs in the initial position of the syllable, e.g. /k̲uək^{A}/ [ˈk̲uək$^{˧˩˨}$] 'neck'.
Also, it is realized as [k˺] - a voiceless unaspirated and unreleased dorso-velar plosive that occurs in the final position, e.g.. /kuk̲^{A}/ [ˈkuk̲$^{˧˩˨}$] 'to steal'.

/kh/ is realized as [k^{h}]- a voiceless aspirated dorso-velar plosive. It only occurs in the initial position of the syllable, e.g. /k̲hɯn^{A}/ [ˈk̲^{h}ɯn^{332}] 'insect'.

/ʔ/ is realized as [ʔ] - a voiceless glottal stop. It may occur in initial and /or final positions of the syllable, e.g. /ʔ̲uək^{C}/ [ˈʔ̲uək$^{˧˩˨}$] 'to give'. It should be noted that the final [-ʔ] is very restricted and most of them are loan words from Thai but are differently pronounced, such as /pɔʔ̲^{A}/ 'father'; /mɛʔ̲^{A} / 'mother', while they are [ˈp^{h}ɔ̂] and [ˈmɛ̂] in Thai. Samre words for these meanings : /khuuŋ^{A}/ and /miŋ^{A}/ respectively. Some final particles, such as ; /siʔ̲^{B} /, /thəʔ̲^{B}/ are loan words from Thai.

/m/ is realized as [m] - a voiced bilabial nasal. It may occur in initial and /or final positions of the syllable, e.g. /m̲iŋ^{A}/ [ˈm̲iŋ^{332}] 'mother' ; / nɯm̲^{B}/ [ˈnɯm̲^{21}] 'year'.

/n/ is realized as [n] - a voiced apico-alveolar nasal. It may occur in initial and /or final positions of the syllable, e.g. /n̲aaŋ^{A}/ [ˈn̲aaŋ^{332}] 'old' ; /ʔan̲^{A}/ [ˈʔan̲^{332}] 'this'.

/ɲ/ is realized as [ɲ] - a voiced fronto-palatal nasal. It may occur in initial and /or final positions of the syllable, e.g. / ɲaaj^{C}/ [ˈɲaaj^{451}] 'to speak'; /meɲ̲^{A}/ [ˈmeɲ̲^{332}] 'beautiful'.

/ŋ/ is realized as [ŋ] - a voiced dorso-velar nasal. It may occur in initial and /or final positions of the syllable, e.g. /ŋ̲ɯm^{C}/ [ˈŋ̲ɯm^{451}] 'warm' ; / luəŋ̲^{A}/ [ˈluəŋ̲^{332}] 'banana'.

/s/ is realized as [s] - a voiceless lamino-alveolar fricative. It only occurs in the initial position of the syllable, e.g. /s̲aap^{C}/ [ˈs̲aap$^{˧˩˦}$] 'light, clear.' This phoneme may fluctuate with [t^{h}] - a voiceless aspirated apico- alveolar stop when followed by /ɹ/ and a short vowel as in [ˇkaˈs̲ɹah^{344}] or [ˇkaˈt̲^{h}ɹah^{344}] 'nail' ; [ˈs̲ɹaŋ^{21}] or [ˈt̲^{h}ɹaŋ^{21}] 'pole' ; [ˈs̲ɹuŋ^{21}] or [ˈt̲^{h}ɹuŋ^{21}] 'pen' (for pig).

/h/ is realized as [h] - a voiceless glottal fricative. It may occur in initial and /or final positions of the syllable, e.g. /h̲aam^{C}/ [ˈh̲aam^{451}] 'blood' ; /pih̲^{A}/ [ˈpih̲^{344}] 'disappear'.

/l/ is realized as [l] - a voiced apico-alveolar lateral. It only occurs in the initial position of the syllable, e.g. /l̲uəm^{B}/ [ˈl̲uəm^{21}] 'liver'.

/ɹ/ is realized as [ɹ] a voiced alveolar approximant or [ɣ] a voiced velar fricative or [ɯ̯] - a central semivowel. Although this phoneme has three allophones suggested here. The symbol which represents the phoneme is the most common among the three allophones. The allophone [ɹ] fluctuates with [ɣ] in all positions except for at the final position when it follows a low central unrounded vowel either /a/ or /aa/, where is realized as [ɯ̯] - as in /maa̲ɹ^{A} / [ˈmaaɯ̯^{332}] 'field' ; /tha̲ɹ^{A} / [ˈtʰaɯ̯^{332}] 'cloth'. Examples for other positions are /ɹ̲aaŋ^{B}/or [ˈɹ̲aaŋ^{21}] or [ˈɣ̲aaŋ^{21}] 'to carry (a dead body)'; /ti̲ɹ^{B}/ [ˈti̲ɹ^{22}] [ˈti̲ɣ^{22}] 'to crow'. It should be noted that the allophone [ɣ] is a harsh accent which is most pronounced in the older generation of the speakers whose language ability is better than the younger group. The [ɣ] seems to be closer to the original sound of Samre than the [ɹ] as I was informed that it is a unique sound of Samre. Even when the Samre people speak Thai*, their pronunciation seems to echo the mother tongue, such as in the Thai word [ʔàʔraj] 'what' which may be pronounced [ˇʔaˈɣ̲aj ^{451}] by the Samre speakers and their descendants who have been influenced by this sound even in those groups who are no longer able to speak the Samre language. On the other hand, the allophone [ɹ] is a tender accent which some of the speakers feel makes the language sound more beautiful. The younger generation tends to pronounce this one and some of them sometimes substitute this sound with a voiced alveolar trill [r] due to influence from the Standard Thai that they have learnt from school.

/w/ is realized as [w] - a voiced labio-velar approximant. It may occur in initial and /or final positions of the syllable, e.g./w̲aa^{A}/ [ˈw̲aa^{332}] 'monkey'; /saw̲^{A}/ [ˈsaw̲^{332}] ' to be left over.' The voiced labio-dental approximant [ʋ] is an allophone which may occur in free variation with [w] in the initial position, e.g [ˈw̲əj^{332}] or [ˈʋ̲əj^{332}] 'to beat.'

/j/ is realized as [j] - a voiced palatal approximant. It may occur in initial and /or final positions of the syllable, e.g. /jɔk^{A}/ [ˈjɔk^{344}] 'milk' ; /wəj^{A}/ [ˈwəj^{332}] 'to beat'.

(5) Consonant Contrast

Examples of single consonant contrast are shown belows:

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* There are five tones in the Central Thai, they are: a mid level which is unmarked, alow tone marked by ˋ , a falling tone marked by ˆ, the high tone marked by ˊ , and a rising tone marked by ˇ.

/p/-/ph/	/p̲uk^{A}/	'to be decayed'	/ph̲uk^{A}/	'to cover oneself'
/k/-/kh/	/k̲iin^{C}/	'short'	/kh̲iin^{C}/	'bottle gourd'
/k/-/ʔ/	/k̲un^{C}/	'tame'	/ʔ̲un^{C}/	'grand father, grand mother'
/t/-/d/	/d̲um^{A}/	'a bundle'	/t̲um^{A}/	'jar, swelling'
/b/-/d/	/b̲uut^{C}/	'turned sour'	/d̲uut^{C}/	'to suck'
/m/-/n/	/m̲iiɹ^{A}/	'fish'	/n̲iiɹ^{A}/	'mat'
/n/- /ŋ/	/n̲uəŋ^{B}/	'mountain'	/ŋ̲uəŋ^{B}/	'to be sad'
/ɲ/-/ŋ/	/ɲ̲aaj^{C}/	'to speak'	/ŋ̲aaj^{C}/	'easy'
/l/-/ɹ/	/l̲uuj^{A}/	'prey'	/ɹ̲uuj^{A}/	'alive'

Examples of final consonant contrast are shown belows:

/-p/ - /-t/ - /-c/ - /-k/

/kha**p̲**^{A}/ 'condensed'

/kha**t̲**^{A}/ 'bite'

/ki**c̲**^{A}/ 'small'

/khɯ**k̲**^{A}/ 'wake up'

/-m/ - /-n/ - /-ɲ/ - /-ŋ/

/ca**m̲**^{A}/ 'to wait for'

/ku**n̲**^{A}/ 'tame'

/ci**ɲ̲**^{A}/ 'out'

/ko**ŋ̲**^{A}/ 'long'

/-ʔ/- /-h/

/ti**ʔ̲**^{B} / 'to blame'

/ti**h̲**^{B} / 'those'

/-ɹ/-/w/

/ka**ɹ̲**^{A} / 'to be sharp'

/ka**w̲**^{A} / 'to place (a rice pot) on a fire-place'

/-w/ - /-j/

/ʔa**w̲**^{A} / 'day'

/ʔu**j̲**^{A}/ 'soft hair'

2.5.2.2 The Vowels

(1) The Structure of the vowels

According to their structure, the vowels in Samre are divided into three groups, they are: nine short vowels, nine long vowels, and three diphthongs;

a) Short vowels are all those vowels whose duration is relatively short. They are: /i, ɯ, u, e, ə, o, ɛ, a ,ɔ/.

Examples:

i	/ʔi̲c^{A}/	'excrement'
ɯ	/lɯ̲k^{A}/	'a turn (for time)'
u	/lu̲k^{A}/	'salt'
e	/ŋe̲c^{B}/	'fall'
ə	/thə̲ʔ^{A}/	'final particle'
o	/ko̲ŋ^{C}/	'shell'
ɛ	/kɛ̲h^{A}/	'pot'
a	/ŋa̲t^{A}/	'bitter'
ɔ	/thɔ̲k^{B}/	'dribble'

b) Long vowels are all those vowels whose duration is relatively long. They are: /ii,ɯɯ, uu, ee, əə, oo, ɛɛ, aa, ɔɔ/.

Examples:

ii	/pii̲t^{B}/	'knife'
ɯɯ	/lɯɯ̲^{A}/	'blunt'
uu	/muu̲t^{A}/	'younger-sibling'
ee	/tee̲c^{C}/	'just a moment'
əə	/kathəə̲^{A}/	'cone decorated by jack- fruit leaf'
oo	/khoo̲^{A}/	'trousers'
ɛɛ	/phlɛɛ̲^{A}/	'wound'
aa	/ŋaam^{C}/	'sweet'
ɔɔ	/cɔɔ̲^{C}/	'sour'

c) Diphthongs /iə, uə, ɯə/ are high vowels /i,ɯ,u/ gliding to[ə] 'schwa'.

Examples:

iə	/li̯ək^{A}/	'chicken'
uə	/tu̯ək^{A}/	'sell'
ɯə	/lɯ̯ək^{C}/	'choose'

(2) Vowel Classes

The vowels can be divided into two main classes according to their function in different types of syllables : vowels in smooth syllables and vowels in checked syllables.

a) Vowels in the Smooth Syllables

This class of vowels can be divided into two main sub-classes according to the structure of the syllables of this type which are the smooth syllable of sub-type A (with a final consonant) and the smooth syllable of sub-type B (in the open syllable).

Vowels in Smooth Syllables with a Final Consonant

This class of vowels functions as the nucleus of the smooth syllables, which end with a continuant consonant in both primary and secondary stressed syllables. In the primary stressed syllables, all three types of vowels function in this class: the short vowels, the long vowels and the diphthongs. In the secondary stressed syllable, only the short vowel functions in this class.

Examples:

/cɹa̯m^{A}/	[ˈcɣa̯m^{332}]	'to soak'
/di̯ŋ^{A}/	[ˈdi̯ŋ^{332}]	'know'
/ku̯ən^{C}/	[ˈku̯ən^{451}]	'rat'
/khɹaa̯ŋ^{B}/	[ˈkʰɣaa̯ŋ^{21}]	'alcohol'
/ha̯am^{C}/	[ˈha̯am^{451}]	'blood'
/kasɯ̯m^{A}/	[ˇka.ˈsɯ̯m^{332}]	'star'
/ca̯nlɔ̯ɔŋ^{A}/	[ˇca̯n.ˈlɔ̯ɔŋ^{332}]	'to be related by marriage'

Vowels in the open Smooth Syllables

This class of vowels functions as the nucleus of the smooth syllables without a final consonant in the primary stressed syllable. The long vowels function in this type of syllables: / ii, ee, ɛɛ, ɯɯ, əə, aa, uu, oo, ɔɔ / and the diphthongs are also found in the Thai loan words.

Examples:

/chi̲i̲^{A}/	[ˈc^{h}i̲i̲^{332}]	'louse'
/chu̲u̲^{A}/	[ˈc^{h}u̲u̲^{332}]	'niece'
/chɔ̲ɔ̲^{C}/	[ˈc^{h}ɔ̲ɔ̲^{451}]	'dog'
/phɯ̲ɯ̲^{C}/	[ˈp^{h}ɯ̲ɯ̲^{451}]	'to ask someone to do something'
/phe̲e̲^{C}/	[ˈp^{h}e̲e̲^{451}]	'three'
/kho̲o̲^{A}/	[ˈk^{h}o̲o̲^{332}]	'rice'
/la̲a̲^{B}/	[ˈla̲a̲^{21}]	'evening'
/hɛ̲ɛ̲^{A}/	[ˈhɛ̲ɛ̲^{332}]	'fish net'
/si̲ə̲^{C}/	[ˈsi̲ə̲^{451}]	'turn sour'
/phɯ̲ə̲^{C}/	[ˈp^{h}ɯ̲ə̲^{451}]	'for'
/cu̲ə̲^{C}/	[ˈcu̲ə̲^{451}]	'bad'

b) Vowels in the Checked Syllables

This class of vowels functions as the nucleus of the checked syllables in both primary and secondary stressed syllables. In the primary stressed syllables, all of the vowels function in this class. In the secondary stressed syllable, only the short vowel functions in this class.

Examples in primary stressed syllables:

/phu̲k^{A}/	[ˈp^{h}u̲k$^{˥344}$]	'to cover'
/thi̲ə̲k^{B}/	[ˈt^{h}i̲ə̲k$^{˨˩22}$]	'to sleep'
/ta̲a̲k^{C}/	[ˈta̲a̲k$^{˥342}$]	'water'
/bɔ̲ɔ̲k^{B}/	[ˈbɔ̲ɔ̲k$^{˨˩22}$]	'to peel'
/wi̲i̲t^{B}/	[ˈwi̲i̲t$^{˨˩22}$]	'green'

Examples in secondary stressed syllables:

/la̲ŋiət^{B}/	[ˇla̲.ˈŋiət$^{˥22}$]	'deep sleep'
/pu̲ŋliiw^{B}/	[ˇpu̲ŋ.ˈliiw$^{˥21}$]	'butterfly'
/tɯ̲kŋuək^{B}/	[ˇtɯ̲k.ˈŋuək$^{˥22}$]	'to snore'

(3) The Vowel Phoneme Inventory

Samre has nine short vowel qualities, nine long vowels, and 3 diphthongs as shown in the chart below:

Single Vowels	**Short vowels**			**Long vowels**		
	i	ɯ	u	ii	ɯɯ	uu
	e	ə	o	ee	əə	oo
	ɛ	a	ɔ	ɛɛ	aa	ɔɔ
Diphthongs		iə	uə	ɯə		

Chart 7 : The Vowel Phoneme Inventory

(4) The Vowel Formational Statements

In this section, the phonetic details of each vowel phoneme will be described according to the height of the tongue, the position of the tongue, the shape of the lips and the degree of length when the sound is pronounced.

The following vowel description is divided into two sections : single vowels and diphthongs.

High Vowels

/i / is realized as [i]- a high front unrounded short vowel as in /ti̲m^{A}/ [ˈti̲m^{332}] 'to soak a slip.'

/ii/ is realized as[ii] - a high front unrounded long vowel as in /tiim^{A}/ [ˈtiim^{332}] 'roof.'

/ɯ/ is realized as [ɯ]- a high central unrounded short vowel as in /lɯk^{B}/ [ˈlɯk$^{˥22}$] 'classifier for time'

/ɯɯ/ is realized as [ɯɯ] - a high central unrounded long vowel as in /lɯɯ^{A}/ [ˈlɯɯ^{332}] 'blunt.' Long /ɯɯ/ is very restricted, occurring only in open syllables or in some loan words from Thai, such as /khlɯɯn^{C}/ 'wave.'

/u/ is realized as [uu] - a high back rounded short vowel as in /luj^{C}/ [ˈluj^{451}] 'point'

/uu/ is realized as [uu] - a high back rounded long vowel as in /luuj^{C}/ [ˈluuj^{451}] 'earth worm'

Mid Vowels

/e/ is realized as [e] - a mid front unrounded short vowel as in / sɹeŋ^{A}/ [ˈsɹeŋ^{332}] 'a chop'

/ee/ is realized as [ee] - a mid front unrounded long vowel as in / sɹee^{A}/ [ˈsɹee^{332}] 'a swidden forest'

/ə/ is realized as [ə] - a mid central unrounded short vowel as in / thən^{C}/ [ˈtʰən^{451}] 'just'

/əə/ is realized as [əə] - a mid central unrounded long vowel as in / təəŋ^{A}/ [ˈtəəŋ^{332}] 'to throw'

/o/ is realized as [o] - a mid back rounded short vowel as in /poŋ^{C}/ [ˈpoŋ^{451}] 'to rock a cradle'

/oo/ is realized as [oo] - a mid back rounded long vowel as in / pooŋ^{C}/ [ˈpooŋ^{451}] 'distended, inflated'

Low Vowels

/ɛ/ is realized as [ɛ]-a low front unrounded short vowel as in /kɛ̲c^{A}/ [ˈkɛ̲c$^{˥344}$] 'broken'

/ɛɛ/ is realized as [ɛɛ] -a low front unrounded long vowel as in /kɛ̲ɛ̲ŋ^{A}/ [ˈkɛ̲ɛ̲ŋ^{332}] 'kick'

/a/ is realized as [a] - a low central unrounded short vowel as in /ʔa̲w^{A}/ [ˈʔa̲w^{332}] 'shirt'

/aa/ is realized as [aa] - a low central unrounded long vowel as in /ʔa̲a̲w^{A}/ [ˈʔa̲a̲w^{332}] 'day'

/ɔ / is realized as [ɔ] - a low back rounded short vowel as in /klɔ̲ŋ^{B}/ [ˈklɔ̲ŋ^{21}] 'to call out'

/ɔɔ/ is realized as [ɔɔ] - a low back rounded long vowel as in / klɔ̲ɔ̲ŋ^{B}/ [ˈklɔ̲ɔ̲ŋ^{21}] 'half-milled rice'

Diphthongs

/iə/ is realized as [iə]as in /khɹi̲ə̲ŋ^{C}/ [ˈk^{h}ɣi̲ə̲ŋ ^{451}] 'strips of spit bamboo'

/ɯə/ is realized as [ɯə]as in /khɹɯ̲ə̲ŋ^{C}/ [ˈk^{h}ɣɯ̲ə̲ŋ^{451}] 'apparatus,utensil,machine'

/uə/ is realized as [uə]as in /khu̲ə̲n^{C}/ [ˈk^{h}u̲ə̲n^{451}] 'rat'

It should be observed that many of vowels reflexe in Samre are diphthongs that in other Pearic languages are a single vowels. The examples below presents the comparison of the vowels among the three languages of Pearic in Thailand: the Chong at Ban Thungsaphan, Chantaburi (collected from Mrs. Jin Phanphaaj), Kasong at Ban klongsaeng, Danchumphon District of Trat (from Mrs. Sawaat Buangbua), and the Samre at Ban Ma-muang, Bo-rai district, Trat province (from Mrs. Saengcan Rattanamun). All of the informants had been invited to teach their languages to students at Mahidol University during the second semester of 1998/1999 academic year.

	Chong	Kasong	Samre
'banana'	lɔɔŋ^{R*}	lɔɔŋ^{R}	luəŋ^{A}
'night'	khlɛɛŋ^{R}	khlɛɛŋ^{R}	khliəŋ^{C}
'ivory '	phrɔɔk^{R}	phrɔɔk^{R}	phɹuək^{A}
'laugh'	pɛɛk^{R}	pɛɛk^{R}	piək^{B}
'chicken'	lɛɛk^{R}	lɛɛk^{R}	liək^{A}
'we (inclusive)'	hɛɛŋ^{R}	hɛɛŋ^{R}	hiəŋ^{A}
'cat'	mɛɛw^{R}	mɛɛw^{R}	miəw^{A}
'to burn'	pɔɔt^{R}	pɔɔh^{R}	puəh^{C}
'a kind of bird'	rɔɔk^{R}	rɔɔk^{R}	ɹuək^{A}
'fear'	tɔɔŋ^{R}	tɔɔŋ^{R}	tuəŋ^{C}

However the diphthong /ɯə/ is found only in /katɯəŋ^{C}/ 'hard palate' and in the Thai loan words, such as /khɹɯəŋ^{C}/ 'apparatus, utensil, machine'; /plɯəŋ^{A}/ 'waste'; /lɯək^{C}/ 'to choose'; /phɯə^{C}/ 'for', etc.

(5) The Vowel Contrast

Tongue Position Contrast

/i/ - /ɯ/- /u/

/chih^{A}/	'to dry in the sun'
/chɯh^{A}/	'old'
/chuh^{A}/	'to spit'

/ii/ - /ɯɯ/- /uu/

/phiim^{C}/	'heart'
/phɯɯn^{C}/	'floor, piece'
/phuun^{C}/	'four'

/e/ - /ə/- /o/

/ten^{C}/	'that'
/thən^{C}/	'just'
/thon^{C}/	'to tolerate'

* R is referred to a register complex

/ee/ - /əə /- /oo/

/ɪe̲e̲^{C}/	'in'
/ɪə̲ə̲^{C}/	'to revive'
/ɪo̲o̲^{C}/	'granary'

/ɛ/ - /a/- /ɔ/

/kɛ̲h^{A}/	'pot'
/ka̲h^{A}/	'to roast'
/kɔ̲h^{A}/	'to break'

/ɛɛ/ - /aa/- /ɔɔ/

/pɛ̲ɛ̲^{C}/	'raft'
/pa̲a̲^{A}/	'side'
/pɔ̲ɔ̲^{A}/	'to carry a child with cloth tied at one's side'

Tongue Height Contrast

/i/ - /e/- /ɛ/

/kasi̲c^{A}/	'lazy'
/kase̲c^{A}/	'frightened'
/kasɛ̲c^{A}/	'sand'

/i/ - /e/- /ɛ/

/ʔi̲in^{A}/	'to get, to have'
/ʔe̲en^{A}/	'reclining'
/ʔɛ̲ɛn^{A}/	'to be curved up'

/ɯ/ - /ə/- /a/

/thɯ̲m^{A}/	'to cook rice'
/thə̲n^{C}/	'just'
/ʔa̲n^{A}/	'this'

/ɯɯ/ - /əə/- /aa/

/phɯ̲ɯ̲^{C}/	'storm'
/ɪə̲ə̲^{C}/	'to revive'
/naa^{A}/	'at'

/u/ - /o/- /ɔ/

/kɹu̲ŋ^{A}/	'pen (for pig)'
/ko̲ŋ^{A}/	'long'
/kɔ̲ŋ^{A}/	'to carry on the shoulder'

/uu/ - /oo/- /ɔɔ/

/pu̲um^{A}/	'to ripen with heat'
/po̲om^{A}/	'to pester'
/hɔ̲ɔm^{A}/	'to pucker up'

Length Contrast

The length contrast may be seen in the following examples:

/i/ - /ii /	/ti̲m^{A}/	'to soak a slip'
	/ti̲im^{A}/	'roof'
/ɯ/ - /ɯɯ/	/lɯ̲k^{A}/	'classifier for time'
	/lɯ̲ɯ̲^{A}/	'blunt'
/u/ - /uu/	/lu̲j^{C}/	'point'
	/lu̲uj^{C}/	'earth worm'
/e/ - /ee/	/sɹe̲ɲ^{A}/	'a chop'
	/sɹe̲e^{A}/	'a cleared forest'
/ə/ - /əə/	/thə̲n^{C}/	'just'
	/tə̲əŋ^{C}/	'to throw'
/o/ - /oo/	/po̲ŋ^{C}/	'to rock a cradle'
	/po̲oŋ^{C}/	'distended, inflated'
/ɛ/ -ɛɛ/	/kɛ̲c^{A}/	'broken'
	/kɛ̲ɛŋ^{A}/	'kick'
/a/ - /aa/	/ʔa̲w^{A}/	'shirt'
	/ʔa̲aw^{A}/	'day'
/ɔ/ - /ɔɔ/	/klɔ̲ŋ^{B}/	'to call out'
	/klɔ̲ɔŋ^{B}/	'half-milled rice'

A number of words that can occur with either short or long vowels both in isolation and in connected speech have been found as shown in some of the examples below.

ɹi̲i̲h^{A} ~ ɹi̲h^{A}	'root'
ɹu̲u̲h^{A} ~ ɹu̲h^{A}	'high'
tu̲u̲h^{A} ~ tu̲h^{A}	'head'
ci̲i̲h^{C} ~ ci̲h^{C}	'deer'
pana̲a̲h^{C} ~ pana̲h^{C}	'stove with three legs'
tali̲i̲h^{C} ~ tali̲h^{C}	'swelling of lymph nodes in groin area'
kacha̲a̲h^{C} ~ kacha̲h^{C}	'veranda'
laŋi̲i̲h^{C} ~laŋi̲h^{C}	'scorched rice sticking to the bottom of the rice pot'

etc.

Moreover, the vowel length contrast in a pair of some Thai loan words are merged into the same form in Samre language, such as:

Thai speakers		**Samre speakers**
'to take out'	tha̲à̲j	tha̲a̲j^{C}
'to redeem'	thà̲j	tha̲a̲j^{C}

Diphthong Contrast

/iə/ - /ɯə/- /uə/

/khɹi̲ə̲ŋ^{C}/	'strips of split bamboo'
/khɹɯ̲ə̲ŋ^{C}/	'apparatus, utensil, machine'
/khu̲ə̲n^{C}/	'rat'

2.5.2.3. Register complex in Samre : a transition stage of having a primary contrastive tone and secondary non-contrastive voice quality)

Phonetically considered, there is a close correlation between pitch (tone) andvoice quality.

Ohala (1978 : 6)* gives a definition of pitch as follows :

> I use the term "pitch" and "fundamental frequency" (F_0) interchangeably. Both will be taken to mean the rate of vibration of the vocal cords during voice production. When quantified, the units are hertz (Hz). Some cases of tonal contrasts which linguists have described apparently include the distinctive use of other phonetic parameters besides pitch, for example, duration, voice quality, manner of tone offset, and vowel quality.

In the process of voice production, pitch and voice quality mostly occur in sequences that are hard to discriminate from each other at the surface level (phonetic forms). For language description, those significant features of the language are primarily considered in terms of phonemic analysis.

Generally phonation types, or register complex, are considered to be significant features in most Mon-Khmer languages which are known as "register languages." Many dialects of Chong in Chantaburi still have primary contrastive register complexes varying from three or four types together with phonetic pitch ranges (cf., Huffman,1985 and Suphanphaiboon, 1982). Theraphan L.Thongkum (1988:319) indicates that most of the Mon-Khmer languages have at least the breathy voice quality and the clear (normal, modal) voice contrast, as do Phalok, Wa, Chong, Mon, Bru, Kui, So, Nyah Kur, Thung Kabin Khmer, and so forth. These languages of Mon-Khmer are evidences for the conclusion that the register complex is a heritage feature which has been acquired from their proto-language in a former time.

According to phonemic analysis based on the data of 3,000 vocabulary items, the Samre language at present has become tonal, not a common feature among the Mon-Khmer proto-languages. But, how did tone come to exist in the language? One of the possibilities is that they received the tone from some tonal language. This is supported by the discussion on "The Areal Diffusability of Tones and the 'Southeast Asian Tonbund'" in Consonant Types & Tone in which Matisoff (1973:87) states:

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* John J. Ohala, "Production of Tone" in Tone A Linguistic Survey , 1978.

> "The only reasonable explanation, given our genetic framework, is to assume that the acquisition of true tone systems by these original atonal languages was activated or catalyzed by intimate cultural contact with languages which already had true tone systems: the areal diffusion hypothesis."

During the process of developing a tone system in its phonology, Samre might have used the breathy voice as phonological contrasting with the normal voice quality for a period of time as this kind of voice quality has been left in some words by some informants. Considering the linguistic ecological situation where they are found, the Samre people have lived in Thailand mixed together with the Thai people. Since the speakers of Samre have had contact with the Thai people, they have changed the feature of phonological contrasts. The result of this study shows that Samre in Thailand at present is a language which is in a transition stage of becoming a tonal language as it will be presented in the following sections.

Therefore, the supra-segmental features of Samre in this study can be referred as a "register complex" resulting from the mixing of the heritage feature (breathy voice quality), and the borrowed feature (pitch). Diffloth (1989) also notes about the Samre language that "In Samre pitch contrasts are more audible than phonation differences" He had found the Samre language at Ban Ma-muang as he had joined with Theraphan on a survey for a minority language map project in Thailand and they suggest four –way distinctions of pitch as an initial guess.

In this study, the two supra-segmental features, pitch and voice quality, are found in Samre; however, they have different status. Pitch is used as the principal component of contrasts (as the pitch itself may distinguish the lexical meanings of words), so hereafter it will be referred to as "tone" in this study. The breathy voice quality of the vowels still occurs in some situations (that will be further discussed below) but its role is secondary and non-contrastive.

(1) The structure of a primary contrastive tone in Samre

From the data, I can find three ways of the minimal pair contrasts (see the tone contrasts in 2.5.2.3 (5) below). So I suggest three contrastive tones in Samre: mid level tone (tone A), mid-low tone (tone B) and high falling tone (tone C). Each of them has allotones which relate to the vowel length and the final consonants.

T^A = a mid level tone
T^B = a mid-low tone
T^C = a high falling tone

My analysis is not in opposition to Theraphan's previous study (1984) as much as it is an extension of her analysis on the basis of significantly more data. Theraphan referred to the supra-segmental distinctive features in the Samre language as "tone" and she suggests four contrastive tones while my analysis reveals only three. A comparison of the two analyses of phonemic pitch range are presented in the Table 1 below.

TABLE 1: Comparison of two tone analyses

Thongkum's analysis(1984)	The result from this study
Tone 1 (a mid level tone)	Tone A (a mid level tone)
Tone 2 (a high falling tone)	Tone C (a high falling tone)
Tone 3 (a mid-low tone)	Tone B (a mid-low tone)
Tone 4 (a mid falling tone)	Tone C (a high falling tone)

From Table 1, we see that the tone 2 and 4 of Thongkum's analysis are merged into one (tone C) in this study. If we considered the phonetic pitch patterns of the tones in questions, tones 2 and 4 of Thongkum's analysis seem to have very similar shapes : in a smooth syllable tone 2 is [^{452}] and tone 4 is [^{342}].

A secondary non-contrastive voice quality in the Samre

The occurrence of breathy voice in Samre is optional and predictable. So the status of the breathy voice quality in this study is non-phonemic because it fluctuates with normal voice in any syllable structure except for checked syllables with short vowels, in which it does not occur. Some syllable structures are more commonly found with breathy voice, especially in smooth syllables of the mid-low tone, such as [ˈkɨɣ^{21}] 'malabar ironwood'; [ˈnɯm^{21}] 'year'; [ˈjaaw^{21}] 'scorpion'; [mɨ.ˈpɯɯ^{21}] 'to wear'; [ˈpuəh^{21}] 'a kind of insect.' In some groups of words, the initial clusters of a stop and the voiced alveolar approximant /ɹ / tend to preserve this voice quality, for example; [ˈpɣiɨ^{21}] 'forest'; [ˈsɣiɨ^{21}] 'banyan tree'; [ˈpɣaaj^{21}] 'thread; [ŋ.ˈɣɔɔp^{22}] 'a lid'; [ˈpɣiəŋ^{451}] 'shoulder'. Moreover, it is often noted in open syllable words of the tone C with the vowel /aa/, for example; [ˇka.ˈmaa^{451}] 'rain'; [ˇsa.ˈnaa^{451}] 'squirrel'; [ˇsaˈlaa^{451}] 'thorn'; [ˇlaˈwaa^{451}] 'a kind of banana.' Some of the Tone C group are loan words from Thai, such as [ˈpɔɔ^{451}] 'enough'; [ˈpɛɛŋ^{451}] 'expensive'; [ˈcaj^{451}] 'to return' : [ˈtaa^{451}] 'to challenge'; [ˈkɛɛp^{342}] 'narrow', which are pronounced differently from the original Thai manner by using the unaspirated initial stops instead of the aspirated stops and adding the breathy voice quality which can either occur or not.

I found that not all speakers produce the phonological contrasts in exactly the same way. People below 60 years old tends to lose the breathy voice quality, while the older generation(over 70 years) tends to retain it. The information in this study have been collected from the older generation. However, some of the older people also pronounce this feature inconsistently, even by the same person. For instance, Mrs. Saengchan Rattanamun pronounces the word /kamaaŋ^{C}/ 'chin' sometimes as [ˇka.ˈmaaŋ^{451}] and sometimes as [ˇka.ˈmaaŋ^{451}]. I have checked the case with the other Samre speakers, and they prefer to accept both ways of pronunciation, and some cannot differentiate the difference. So I consider that the voice quality in the Samre now is a secondary non- contrastive feature.

(2) The Tones Classes

A tone functions with a vowel as the nucleus in the syllables. There are three sub-classes of tones in Samre according to their function in the different types of syllables : tone in a smooth syllable, tone in a checked syllable and tone in a nasal syllable.

a) Tones in Smooth Syllables

Tones function in smooth syllables with either primary or secondary stress. All the classes of tones are in this syllable type.

Examples:

/ʔuɹ^{A}/	'potato'
/kiɲ^{C}/	'oily'
/laa^{B}/	'evening'
/satuŋ^{C}/	'gourd-like plant'
/thiim^{C}/	'tree'
/kandaaɹ^{A}/	'middle'

b) Tones in Checked Syllables

Tones function in the checked syllables, with either primary or secondary stress.

c) Tones in Checked Syllables with a Short Vowel

This sub-class of tones consists of Tone A and Tone B.

Examples:

/pɔk^{A}/	'to wrap'
/pɔk^{B}/	'to peck'

d) Tones in Checked Syllables with a Long Vowel

All classes of tones are in this sub-class.

Examples:

/paat^{A}/	'lick'
/paat^{B}/	'to slice'
/paat^{C}/	'to put (something) on one shoulder'

It should be noted here that the pitch level of the nasal syllable, which is an unstressed syllable, has no contrast as it is always neutral. It is, therefore, unmarked in this study.

Examples:

/m̩ɹaak^{B}/	'peafowl'
/n̩taa^{A}/	'spinach'
/m̩pɔŋ^{C}/	'vegetable'

(3) The Tone Chart

Level of pitch	Tone shapes (phonetics)	Tone symbols (phonemics)
High	451 342	T^{C}
Mid	344 334 332	T^{A}
Low	22 21	T^{B}

Chart 8: The tone chart

(4) The Tone Description

There are three phonemically distinctive tones in Samre and all of them have allotones which this study refers to as "tone" as shown in the Chart 8.

The chart 9 below shows the pitch range of tones in Samre as follows;

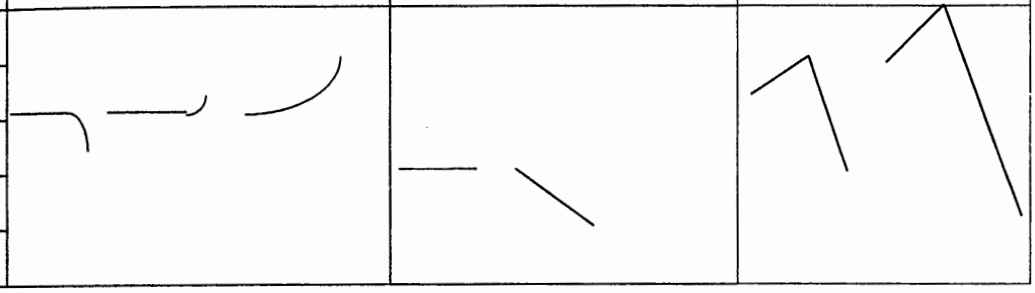
Tone Pitches	Tone A	Tone B	Tone C
High			
Mid-high			
Mid			
Mid-low			
Low			

Chart 9: Pitch ranges of tones in Samre

The phonetic pitch ranges of the tones and allotones are described by the attached numbers at the end of each word. The first number indicates the starting point of the tone and the last one indicates the ending point, which may be a level or a contour tone. The pitch range are from 1 to 5: 1 is a low pitch, 2 is mid-low, 3 is mid, 4 is mid-high, and 5 is high pitch.

Phonemic Tone A is a mid level tone. In any smooth syllable, the pitch pattern of this allotone starts at the middle of the pitch range, and stays at that level and slightly falls at the end [^{332}] as in /caŋ^{A}/ [ˈcaŋ^{332}] 'black';/chaa^{A}/ [ˈc^{h}aa^{332}] 'to eat (informal)'; /thaaŋ^{A}/ [ˈt^{h}aaŋ^{332}] 'to weave' In a checked syllable with long vowel and in a long vowel syllable ending with the final [-h], the pitch pattern of this allotone starts at the middle of the pitch range and stays at that level, then slightly glides up at the end of the pitch range [^{334}] as in /huuc^{A}/ [ˈhuuc$^{˥334}$] 'to be dead'; / tuuh^{A}/ [ˈtuuh^{334}] 'head'. In a checked syllable with short vowel and in a syllable ending with a short vowel and the final [-h],the pitch pattern of this allotone starts at the middle of the pitch range, then glides up to a mid-high pitch range [^{344}] as in /jɔk^{A}/ [ˈjɔk$^{˧344}$] 'milk' ; /chɯh^{A}/ [ˈc^{h}ɯh^{344}] 'old'.

PhonemicTone B is a mid-low tone. In a checked syllable (with long or short vowel) and in a short vowel syllable with the final [-h], the pitch patterns of this allotone starts at mid-low pitch and stays at that level [^{22}] as in /tɔk^{B}/ [ˈtɔk$^{\neg 22}$] 'ship' ; /wiit^{B}/ [wiit$^{\neg 22}$] 'green'; /lɔh^{B}/ [ˈlɔh^{22}] 'to climb down'. But in a smooth syllable, the pitch pattern starts at mid-low, and falls down to the bottom of the pitch range [^{21}] as in /suəŋ^{B}/ [ˈsuəŋ^{21}] 'to smell' ; /laa^{B}/ [ˈlaa^{21}] 'evening' ; /can^{B}/ [ˈcan^{21}] 'to step over.' As previously mentioned in Sec.2.5.2.3, the secondary non-contrastive voice quality may occur together with this tone. That is, some older generation of Samre sometimes pronounce some words with the mid-low tone together with a breathy voice quality, such as [ˈkɨɣ^{21}] malabar ironwood'; [ˈnum^{21}] 'year'; [ˈjaaw^{21}] 'scorpion'.

Phonemic Tone C is a high falling tone. In any smooth syllable, the pitch pattern starts at a mid-high pitch, glides up to high, then falls down to low [^{451}] as in /suəŋ^{C}/ [ˈsuəŋ^{451}] 'to tell' ; /chɔɔ^{C}/ [ˈc^{h}ɔɔ^{451}] 'dog' ; /luj^{C}/ [ˈluj^{451}] 'point'. In any checked syllable with long vowel and in a long vowel syllable ending with the final [-h], the pitch pattern starts at the middle of the pitch range, and glides up to a mid-high pitch, then falls down to mid-low [^{342}] as in /taak^{C}/ [ˈtaak$^{\neg 342}$] 'water, wet'; /ciih^{C}/ [ˈciih^{342}] 'deer'. It was noticed that this allotone never occurred in any checked syllable with a short vowel.

It was previously mentioned that a breathy voice quality may occur in open syllable words of the tone C with the vowel /aa/, for example; [ˇka.ˈmaa̤^{451}] 'rain'; [ˆsa.ˈnaa̤^{451}] 'squirrel'; [ˆsa.ˈlaa̤^{451}] 'thorn'; [ˆla.ˈwaa̤^{451}] 'a kind of banana.' Breathy voice also occurs in some loan words from Thai, such as [ˈpɔ̤ɔ^{451}] 'enough'; [ˈpɛ̤ŋ^{451}] 'expensive'; [ˈca̤j^{451}] 'to return': [ˈta̤a^{451}] 'to challenge'; [ˈkɛ̤p$^{\neg 342}$] 'narrow'.

(5) The Tone Contrasts

TABLE 2: Tonal contrasts in open syllables

Tone A	Tone B	Tone C
sanaa^{A} 'crossbow'	sanaa^{B} 'friend'	sanaa^{C} 'squirrel'
	ɹee^{B} 'rattan'	ɹee^{C} 'in'
tii^{A} 'hand,arm'	tii^{B} 'to lance'	
chii^{A} 'louse'		chii^{C} 'how many'

TABLE 3: Tonal contrasts in smooth syllables with a short vowel

Tone A	Tone B	Tone C
liŋ^{A} 'on, above'	liŋ^{B} 'play'	
	sɪaŋ^{B} 'a pole'	sɪaŋ^{C} 'river bank'
sanam^{A} 'medicine'		sanam^{C} 'to hear'

TABLE 4: Tonal contrasts in smooth syllables with a long vowel

Tone A	Tone B	Tone C
suəŋ^{A} 'to dance'	suəŋ^{B} 'to smell'	suəŋ^{C} 'to tell, to reply'
kluəŋ^{A} 'bone'	kluəŋ^{B} 'husband'	kluəŋ^{C} 'a log'
puun^{A} 'to scold'	puun^{B} 'to fill in, to carry something on one end of a pole'	
poom^{A} 'to pester'		poom^{C} 'to watch'
chiim^{A} 'to feed'		chiim^{C} 'bird'
khiin^{A} 'a child'		khiin^{C} 'bottle gourd'

TABLE 5: Tonal contrasts in checked syllables with a short vowel

Tone A	Tone B
tɔk^{A} 'out'	tɔk^{B} 'boat'
pɔk^{A} 'wrap'	pɔk^{B} 'to peck'
kɯp^{A} 'under'	kɯp^{B} 'body'

TABLE 6: Tonal contrasts in checked syllables with a long vowel

Tone A	Tone B	Tone C
puuc^{A} 'to put in'	kapuuc^{B} 'to over-turn'	puuc^{C} 'to scoop up water (v)', 'corn(n.)'
paat^{A} 'to lick'	paat^{B} 'to slice'	paat^{C} 'to walk pass'
	hiək^{B} 'torn'	hiək^{C} 'hurry'
	suək^{B} 'trace'	suək^{C} 'mango'
ɹuək^{A} 'a kind of bird'	ɹuək^{B} 'to hide'	
caap^{A} 'to wash (face)'		caap^{C} 'fishy smell'

TABLE 7: Tonal contrasts in a syllable ending with-h preceded by a short vowel

Tone A	Tone B
pɔh^{A} 'ashes'	pɔh^{B} 'dry out of water'
tih^{A} 'at'	tih^{B} 'there'

TABLE 8: Tonal contrasts in a syllable ending with-h preceded by a long vowel

Tone A	Tone C
ɹuuh^{A} 'high'	ɹiih^{C} 'root'

CHAPTER III

CLAUSE

3.1 Definition

Thomas (1993: 63) defines clause in two domains, "A **semantic clause** (also called a proposition or predication) describes participants interrelating in an action or state. It may be an action actually performed or an action just referred to. It is usually manifested by a structural clause. A **structural clause** consists of a Predicate (usually a verb phrase) plus noun phrases filling slots such as Subject, Object, Destination, Instrument, etc. A clause is a minimum sentence, just as a verb phrase is a minimum clause."

In other words, the structure of a clause consists of only one predicate or predicate-like unit among the constituent units of the string.

A clause is usually marked off by a pause before and after it. The varying length of the pauses signals the status of the clause in the sentence, i.e., signals the difference between sentence-medial breaks and sentence-final breaks.

3.2 Structure of clauses

Structural clause types usually correlate fairly closely with the semantic characteristics of the main verb (see Sec. 4.3) or the various nuclear nominal phrases (Sec. 4.2) in the Predicate. Clause nuclei in Samre generally follow an S-V-O order. It may be preceded or followed by clause periphery which is considered to be additional elements to the clause nucleus. They are Causer, Beneficiary, Instrument, Accompanying subject, Accompanying object, Time setting, Location setting, and Final particle. These additional elements supply more details to the clause nucleus.

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

Cl. = ± CP_1 : add el ± S : np + P : vp ± O : np ± CP_2 : add el

That is, an optional Clause $Periphery_1$ position filled by an additional element(s) (Sec.3.2.4), an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase, an optional Object position filled by a nominal phrase and an optional Clause $Periphery_2$ position filled by an additional element(s).

3.2.1 Basic clause types

Thomas (1993: 63) refers to Longacre's specific procedures for identifying and classifying clause types. If there are two or more of differences - i.e., in slots, fillers, order, obligatoriness, or transformation potential - between a pair of formulas they should be considered different types, and at least one of the differences, preferably both, should be in the nucleus.

According to the above procedures, basic clauses types in Samre may be divided as follows: transitive, intransitive, descriptive, bitransitive, motion, existence, equational, ambient, locative, propulsion, quotative, quantitative, and comparative.

Clause types are usually defined by their nuclei, and so a formula for a clause type is usually just a formula for the nucleus. The following are the clause types in Samre defined by separate formulas for each type.

3.2.1.1 Transitive Clause

The elements of the transitive clause are :

Cl.tr. = ± S: np + P : vp_{tr} + O : np

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec 4.2), an obligatory Predicate position filled by an active verb phrase (Sec. 4.3.1.1) with a

transitive verb(Sec. 5.3.10.1), and an obligatory Object position filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral Location, and Temporal are fairly common.

The semantic role of the Subject is Actor, of the Predicate is Action and of the Object is Undergoer.

The normal order of these elements is S-P-O.

1. tom^{C} khlaŋ^{A} chuək^{A} kanuət^{B}
   aunt Khang pound half-milled rice
   'Aunt Khang pounds half-milled rice.'

2. khuuŋ^{A} kep^{A} phɹii^{A} samɹɔɔŋ^{A} ɹee^{C} pɹii^{B}
   father collect fruit samrong in forest
   'Father goes to collect samrongs in the forest.'

3. tom^{C} can^{A} chaa^{A} maak^{C} kuəj^{C} kuəj^{C}
   aunt Can eat betel nut slow slow
   'Aunt Can chews betel rather slow.'

4. ʔiŋ^{A} diŋ^{A} chiim^{C}
   I chase bird
   'I chase a bird.'

3.2.1.2 Intransitive Clause

The elements of the intransitive clause are :

Cl. intr. = ± S : np + P : vp $_{intr}$

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 4.2) and an obligatory Predicate position filled by an active verb phrase, (Sec. 4.3.1.1) with an intransitive verb (Sec.5.3.10.2). Peripheral Temporal, Location are fairly common.

The semantic role of the Subject is Actor, of the Predicate is Action and of the Object is Action.

The normal order of the elements is S-P.

1. khaniiw^{C} jaam^{B} la?ii^{C} la?ɛɛ^{C}
   child cry sob
   'A child cries and sobs.'

2. tom^{C} theet^{C} cɔɔp^{B} piək^{B} hɛ?^{A} hɛ?^{A} talɔɔt^{C} weelaa^{B}
   aunt Thet like laugh (sound of her laugh) all time
   'Aunt Thet likes to laugh all the time.'

3. khiin^{A} thiək^{B} takɹooŋ^{A} pen^{A} pacam^{C}
   son sleep squirm be always
   'My son always squirms in his sleep.'

4. chɔɔ^{C} kluu^{B} tuk^{B} liəŋ^{B}
   dog howl every night
   'Dogs howl every night.'

3.2.1.3 Descriptive Clause

The elements of the descriptive clause are:

Cl. des. = + S : np + P : vp_{des}

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 4.2) and an obligatory Predicate position filled by a descriptive verb phrase (Sec. 4.3.1.2). The semantic role of the Subject is Statant, of the Predicate is State.

The descriptive clause differs from the intransitive clause in their verb classes which they take, in their transformational potential; that is, the descriptive clause cannot be transformed into imperative. Besides, the Subject of descriptive clause is obligatory while the Subject of the intransitive clause is optional.

The normal order of the elements is S- P.

1. saliəŋ^{B} ?an^{A} meɲ^{C} nah^{A}
   woman this beautiful adv.
   'This woman is very beautiful.'

2. nuəŋ^{B} luuk^{C} ten^{B} ɹuuh^{A} kaaɲ^{C} kaaɲ^{C}
   mountain class. that high adv.
   'That mountain is very high.'

3. siiw^{A} miiɹ^{A} ʔan^{A} pee^{C} nah^{A}
   curry fish this delicious adv.
   'This curry is very delicious.'

4. tom^{C} can^{A} laʔeeŋ^{A} mɛɛn^{B} mɛɛn^{B}
   aunt can diligent inten. inten.
   'Aunt Can is really diligent.'

3.2.1.4 Bitransitive Clause

The elements of the bitransitive clause are :

$$\text{Cl.bi} = \pm\ \text{S : np} + \text{P : vp}_{\text{bi.}}\ \overline{\pm\ \text{DO : np} + \text{IO : np}}\ + \text{DO : np}$$

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2), an obligatory Predicate position filled by an active verb phrase(Sec. 4.3.1.1) with a bitransitive verb (Sec.5.3.10.4), an obligatory Direct Object position, may either precede or follow the Indirect Object, filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory Indirect Object position filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral Temporal and Location have been observed.

The semantic role of the Subject is Actor, of the Predicate is Action and of the Direct Object is Undergoer and of the Indirect Object is Recipient.

1. nak^{B} ʔuək^{C} pɹak^{A} maluəŋ^{B} ten^{B}
   he give money man that
   'He gives some money to that man.'

2. sanaa^{B} ʔuək^{C} ʔiɲ^{A} chɔɔ^{C} muuj^{C}
   friend give I dog one
   'A friend gives me one dog.'

3.2.1.5 Motion Clause

The elements of the motion clause are :

Cl.mo. = ± S : np + P : $vp_{mo.}$ ± Sou : pp. loc. ± Dir : rel + Dest : pp.loc.

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2), an obligatory Predicate position filled by an active verb phrase (Sec.4.3.1.1) with a motion verb (Sec.5.3.10.5), an optional Source position filled by a prepositional locative phrase, an optional Direction position filled by a relator and an obligatory Destination slot filled by a prepositional locative phrase (Sec.4.4.2.1). Peripheral Temporal and accompanying subject are fairly common.

The semantic role of the Subject is Actor, of the Predicate is Action, of the Source is Source of action, of the Direction is Direction of action, and of the Destination is Destination of action.

The normal order of the elements is S- P- Sou –Dir-Dest.

1. ʔiŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} bɔɔɹai^{C} muuj^{C} ʔɯh^{A}
   I will go Bo-Rai for a while
   'I will go to Bo-Rai for a while.'

2. khiin^{A} saliəŋ^{B} nak^{B} thən^{C} tajip^{A} cak^{B} phatthajaa^{A}
   child female he just come from Pattaya
   'Her daughter has just come from Pattaya.'

3. ʔiŋ^{A} ciiw^{A} ɹooŋɹiən^{C} nɔɔŋ^{B} sanaa^{B}
   I go school with friend
   'I go to school with my friend.'

3.2.1.6 Existence Clause

The existence clause is mainly used to introduce a person or object into a discourse. The elements of the existence clause are :

Cl.exist. = + P : vp_{exist} + S : np ± Loc : pp.loc.

That is, an obligatory Predicate position filled by an existence verb (Sec.5.3.10.6) , an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2), and an optional Location position filled by a prepositional locative phrase (Sec.4.4.2.1).

The semantic role of the Subject is Statant, of the Predicate is State and of the Location is Location of Statant.

The normal order of the elements is P- S –Loc.

1. ʔiin^{A} kasɯm^{C} kaaŋ^{C} nak^{B} kɯɯɹ^{A} naa^{C} ʔan^{A}
   have human much class. be at here
   'There are many people here.'

2. ʔiin^{A} miiɹ^{A} kaaŋ^{C} ɹee^{C} sapaŋ^{C}
   have fish much in pond
   'There are many fish in the pond.'

3. ʔiin^{A} kasɯm^{C} kaaŋ^{C} kaaŋ^{C} tɔɔn^{A} laa^{B} laa^{B} naa^{C} wat^{B}
   have people much much when evening at temple
   'There are a lot of people at the temple in the evening.'

4. ʔiin^{A} sambuk^{A} chiim^{C} paliŋ^{A} thiim^{C} sɹii^{B}
   have nest bird on tree banyan
   'There is a nest on the banyan tree.'

3.2.1.7 Equational Clause

The elements of the Equational clause are :

$$\text{Cl.eq.} = \pm \text{It}_1 : \text{np} \pm \text{P} : \text{vp}_{\text{eq}} + \text{It}_2 : \text{np}$$

That is, an optional Item_1 position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2) an optional Predicate position filled by a copula verb phrase (Sec.4.3.1.3) and an obligatory Item_2 position filled by a nominal phrase.

The semantic role of the $Item_1$ is Statant, of the Predicate is State and of the $Item_2$ is Complement.

The normal order of the elements is It_1 - P -It_2.

1. tom^C sumaan^A pen^A khɹuu^B
   aunt Suman be teacher
   'Aunt Suman is a teacher.'

2. tom^C theet^C pen^A kasɯm^C sen^A ɹiit^C
   aunt Theet be human ticklish
   'Aunt Theet is a ticklish woman.'

3. kluəŋ^B khɔɔŋ^A tom^C jɛɛ^C camɔh^B caɹəən^A
   husband of aunt Jae name Caroen
   'Aunt Jae's husband's name is Caroen.'

The predicate of the equational clause in Samre is usually omitted. That is, normally, there is no linkage between the $Item_1$ and the $Item_2$ /pen^A/ 'be' that occurs in some of the above examples is suspected to be a loan word from the Central Thai /pen/ 'be'. If there is no predicate in the clause, a pause is required between the two Items. For example,

4. ʔaj^C naan^A ‖ khiin^A maluəŋ^B ʔiɲ^A pen^A ʔɔɔsɔɔ^A
   address Naan child son I be volunteer
   'Naan, my son, is a volunteer.'

3.2.1.8 Ambient Clause

The elements of the Ambient Clause are:

Cl. amb. = ± S : np + P : vp_{amb}

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2), an obligatory Predicate position filled by an ambient verb phrase which is used to describe a natural phenomenon, mostly concerned with the weather, the atmosphere or

the tide (see ambient verb Sec.5.3.10.8). Peripheral Temporal and Location are commonly found.

The semantic role of the Subject is Natural Phenomenon and of the Object is State.

The ambient clause differs from the descriptive clause in its subject which is optional and is a natural phenomenon.

The ambient clause differs from the intransitive clause in their verb classes, its subject which is a natural phenomenon and their transformation potential (the ambient clause cannot be transformed into imperative clause).

The normal order of the elements is S-P

1. kamaa^{C} kalak^{A} kaaŋ^{C}
   rain fall a lot
   'It rains a lot.'

2. kaat^{C} saap^{C} həəj^{C}
   nearly dawn fp.
   'It is nearly dawn.'

3. sɛc^{A} sɛc^{A} mɛɛn^{B} mɛɛn^{B} ʔaaw^{A} wan^{A}
   cold cold inten. inten. today
   'Today, it is rather cold, really.'

4. thɛh^{A} cak^{A}
   sky thunderbolt
   'There is a thunderbolt.'

3.2.1.9 Locative Clause

The elements of the locative clause are :

$$\text{Cl.loc.} = \pm \text{S : np} + \text{P : vp}_{\text{loc.}} + \text{Loc : pp.loc./np}$$

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a location verb (Sec.5.3.10.9), and an

obligatory Location position filled by a prepositional locative phrase (Sec.4.4.2.1) or a noun phrase.

The semantic role of the Subject is Statant, of the Predicate is State, and of the Location is Location of Statant.

This clause type differs from the intransitive clause in the verb classes which they take and an additional Location slot in the location clause. It differs from the existence clause in their verb classes and in their Location slots; that is, it is optional in the existence clause but obligatory in the location clause. Moreover, this clause type is different from other clause types in that location setting or Location slot is obligatory.

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

1. ʔiŋ^{A} kɯɯɪ^{A} sɪuk^{A} suək^{C}
   I stay village mango
   'I live at Ban Ma-muang.'

2. khiin^{A} saliəŋ^{B} kɯɯɪ^{A} tih^{B} phatthajaa^{A}
   child female stay at Pattaya
   'Her daughter lives in Pattaya.'

3. liək^{A} kɯɯɪ^{A} kɯp^{B} tɔŋ^{A}
   chicken stay under house
   'Chickens are under the house.'

3.2.1.10 Propulsion Clause

The elements of the propulsion clause are :

Cl.prop = ± S : np + P : $vp_{pro.}$ + O : np + Dir : rel + Dest : pp.loc.

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a active verb phrase (Sec.4.3.1.1) with a propulsion verb (Sec.5.3.10.10), an obligatory Object position filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory Direction position filled by a relator and an obligatory Destination position filled by a prepositional locative phrase (Sec.4.4.2.1).

The semantic role of the Subject is Actor, of the Predicate is Action and of the Object is Undergoer, of the Direction is Direction of action and of the Destination is Destination of action.

This clause type differs from the motion clause in having an Object slot, in its verb classes and in its obligatory Direction slot. It differs from the bitransitive clause in its verb classes and its absence of the Indirect Object Slot. It also differs from the transitive clause in its verbs classes and its additional Direction and Destination slots.

The normal order of the element is S-P-O-Dir-Dest

1. ʔiŋ^{A} cɯh^{B} ɹot^{B} ciiw^{A} sɹuk^{A} waaɹ^{B} kaaj^{C}
   I ride motorcycle go village filed out
   'I ride a motorcycle to Nonsi village.'

2. khuuŋ^{A} suun^{B} khiin^{A} ciiw^{A} ɹooŋɹiən^{C}
   father bring child go school
   'The father took his child to school.'

3. miŋ^{A} ʔuəɹ^{A} kapaaw^{A} ciiw^{A} sɹɛɛ^{A}
   mother lead buffalo go field
   'The mother leads a buffalo to the field.'

Words observed functioning as direction are /ciiw^{A}/ 'go', /jip^{A}/ 'come'. These words are generally verbs but in the destination clause they function as a preposition indicating destination.

3.2.1.11 Quotative Clause

The elements of the Quotative clause are :

$$\text{Cl. quo.} = \pm \text{S : np} + \text{P : vp}_{\text{quo}} \pm \text{O : np/Rp } (\pm \text{ Quo.MK:} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{lic}^{A} \\ \text{ʔam}^{C} \end{matrix} \right\} + \text{Quo : Cl.})$$

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a quotative verb phrase, an optional Object

position filled by a nominal phrase or a Relational phrase (Sec.4.4.2.5), an optional Quotative Marker position filled by /lic^{A}/ 'that' or /ʔam^{C}/ 'to', an obligatory Quotative position filled by a clause. Peripheral Temporal is fairly common.

The normal order of the elements is :

S- P-O-Quo MK - Quo

1. miŋ^{A} suəŋ^{C} (ʔiŋ^{A}) lic^{A} ‖ khuuŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} pɹii^{B}
   mother tell (I) Quo.MK father will go forest
   'My mother told me that my father will go to the forest.'

2. m̩luəŋ^{B} ten^{B} sɹii^{A} ‖ sɹuk^{A} suək^{C} kɯɯɹ^{A} tih^{A} nii^{C}
   man that ask village mango be at where
   'That man asked where Ban Ma-muang was.'

The predicate is obligatorily present, except in responding to an interrogative clause. The Subject and the Indirect Object may be deleted under the same condition. The quotation is never omitted.

Restrictions on the co-occurrence of the elements are:

1. The verb /lic^{A}/ 'to say' may occur after other quotative verbs. But, in that case, it functions as a linker between the introductory clause and quotation as in example 1 above.

2. A short pause is required before the quotation.

3.2.1.12 Quantitative Clause

The elements of the Quantitative clause are :

Cl. qt. = ± S : np + P : /lakaa^{C}/+Qt : num ± Unit : unit

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2), an optional Predicate position filled by zero or /lakaa^{C}/ 'cost', an obligatory Quantitative position filled by a numeral and an optional Unit position filled by a measure (Sec.5.3.6.4). The normal order of the elements is :

The normal order of the elements is : S- P- Qt- Unit

1. luəŋ^{A} muuj^{C} lalɛh^{A} ɹaaj^{B} baat^{B}
   banana one class. ten baht
   'A hand of banana costs 10 baht.'

2. manah^{B} muuj^{C} ɹaaj^{B} paaɹ^{C} baat^{B}
   pine apple one ten two baht
   'A pine apple costs twelve baht.'

From the data, the Quantitative clause in Samre takes no Predicate. No verb has been recorded to fill in this position. In terms of their structures the above examples should be classified as a phrase for they contain no verb, but since they are semantically understood that they imply the verb 'cost', I consider them as clauses.

However, the clauses may take a Thai loan word as a predicate and it is seldom used. The word is /lakhaa^{C}/ from Thai /raakhaa/ 'cost', for example,

3. cɔɔ^{C} suək^{C} ʔan^{A} lakhaa^{C} paaɹ^{C} see^{A} muuj^{C} kiloo^{A}
   sour mango this cost two ten one kilo
   'These mangoes cost twenty baht per kilo.'

The elements in the Quantitative position are obligatorily present while the others can be deleted if they have been referred to or mentioned previously.

3.2.1.13 Comparative Clause

There are two types of comparative clause in Samre.

(1) Comparison of Equality

The elements of Comparison of Equality are :

$$\text{Cl.com-eq.} = \pm \text{It}_1 : \text{np} + \text{P} : \text{vp}_{\text{des}} + \text{Eq.Mk} : \left\{ \begin{matrix} /\text{tiŋ}^{C}/ \\ /\text{mɯn}^{C}/ \end{matrix} \right\} + \text{It}_2 : \text{np}$$

That is, an obligatory Item$_1$ position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2), an obligatory predicate position filled by a descriptive verb phrase (Sec.4.3.1.2), an

obligatory Equality marker filled by /tiɲ^{C}/ 'equal' or /mɯn^{C}/ 'same' and an obligatory $Item_2$ position filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral Temporal has been observed.

The normal order of the elements is It_1 - P – Eq.Mk. - It_2.

1. nak^{B} lakii^{C} mɯn^{C} poo^{B}
   he thin same you
   'He is thin the same as you.'

2. nak^{B} huəp^{A} klɔŋ^{A} kaaɲ^{C} muuj^{C} nɔɔŋ^{B} chan^{C}
   he eat rice much same with I
   'He eats rice as much as I.'

3. chanɯn^{A} (nɔɔŋ^{B}) kluəŋ^{B} ɲaaj^{C} samɹee^{A} mɯn^{C} saa^{A}
   wife and husband speak Samre same too
   'Husband and wife speak the Samre language in the same way.'

The equality marker /mɯn^{C}/ may function as a clause Predicate if there is no other predicate in the clause. In that case, it is immediately followed by the $Item_2$ and its meaning is 'to look like'.

4. khiin^{A} mɯn^{C} khuuɲ^{A}
   child look like father
   'The son looks like his father.'

(2) Comparative Degree

The elements of the comparative degree are:

Cl.com-degree. = ± It_1 : np + P : vp_{des} + Com.Mk. : /kwaa^{B}/ + It_2 : np

That is, an obligatory $Item_1$ position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2), an obligatory predicate position filled by a descriptive verb phrase(Sec.4.3.1.2), an obligatory Comparative marker filled by a Thai loan /kwaa^{B}/ 'than' and an obligatory $Item_2$ position filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral Temporal has been observed.

The normal order of the elements is It_1 - P – ComMk. - It_2.

1. chanɯn^{A} cɯh^{A} kwaa^{B} kluəŋ^{B} phee^{C} nɯm^{B}
   wife old than husband three year
   'The wife is three years older than the husband.'

2. poo^{B} booɹ^{A} ɹeew^{B} kwaa^{B} ʔiŋ^{A}
   you run fast than I
   'You run faster than I.'

3. khliŋ^{A} huəp^{A} klɔŋ^{A} kaaŋ^{C} kwaa^{B} muut^{B}
   older-sibling eat rice much than younger-sibling
   'The older-sibling eats more rice than the younger sibling.'

If the Comparative Marker /kwaa^{B}/ is followed by a nominal phrase with a plural marker either /puək^{C}/ 'group' or /muu^{B}/ 'group' before the pronoun, the meaning of the whole clause changes into the comparison of superlative degree 'most of all', for example;

4. nak^{B} ɹuuh^{A} kwaa^{B} muu^{B} hiəŋ^{A}
   he tall most of all group we
   'He is the tallest among us.'

Thai loan words /tii^{C} sut^{A}/, /sut^{A} ləəj^{C}/ sometimes are used to express the superlative degree but rather rarely.

5. khiin^{A} tabɔɔŋ^{A} ʔiin^{A} tii^{C} sɹɛɛ^{A} kaaŋ^{C} tii^{C} sut^{A}
   son first have paddy-field much of all
   'Among all of my children, the first son has the most paddy fields.'

3.2.2 Structural complications

Embedding clauses

Clauses may contain embedded clauses. Obligatory embedding of clauses is required by some verbs of cognition or communication. The matrix (container) clause requires a contained clause in one of its slots.

CL_{cont} = +S : np + P: v_{cogn} +Lk : that + Compl:cl

1. ʔiŋ^{A} ɲaaj^{C} lic^{A} hiəŋ^{A} wiŋ^{B} həəj^{C}
   I say that we lost already
   'I said that we had already lost the way.'

2. chanɯn^{A} diŋ^{A} lic^{A} khiin^{A} huuc^{A} həəj^{C}
   wife know that child die already
   'The wife knows that the child has already died. '

3.2.3 Variant structures

3.2.3.1 Imperative

A clause -- except descriptive clause, existence clause, equational clause, ambient clause and location clause -- may be transformed into imperative.

The imperative clause functions primarily in the nucleus of imperative sentence; it may also function in the nucleus of social sentences, but is rarely used in a sentence periphery or in embedding. It is used only in direct speech to command somebody to do something or to forbid him to do something. Usually, the subject of an imperative clause is deleted. But the subject may be said if the speaker would like to emphasize it. However, only names and kinship terms can occur as the subject of an imperative clause.

The imperative clause is distinct from the statement clause on the basis of situational context and it usually has a final particle which expresses command or politeness.

The imperative clause is divided into two subtypes : positive imperative and negative imperative. It varies from mild imperative to strong command depending on the degree of force or stresses the whole clause takes.

(1) Positive imperative

A simple positive imperative form may be described as follows:

Cl.imp-pos. = ± S : name / kinship term + P : $vp_{imp.}$ ± O : np ± FP : fp

That is, an optional Subject position filled by name or kinship term, an obligatory Predicate position filled by an active verb phrase(Sec.4.3.1.1), an optional Object position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2), and an optional Final Particle position filled by a final particle (Sec.5.3.16).

1. ciŋ^{A} ciiw^{A}
   out go
   'Go out!'

2. ciiw^{A} jip^{A}
   go come
   'Come here! (please)'

3. ciiw^{A} lamuət^{B} jip^{A}
   go send for come
   'Go send for (him).'

The subject is normally left out in the imperative clause, except when the speaker wants to intensify or emphasize the subject. In this case, the subject is usually placed at the end of the clause and is always preceded by a short pause.

4. ʔuuc^{C} miiɹ^{A} jip^{A} tih^{A} tih^{B} || ʔaj^{C} piək^{B}
   take fish come at here address Piak
   'Bring the fish here, Piak.'

A variation from the normal order of the elements, P- O, occurs as: O- P to emphasize the object. A short pause is required before P.

5. sanam^{A} ʔan^{A} naʔ^{B} taaɹ^{C} ʔam^{C} mat^{A}
   medicine this emp. drink till used up
   'Drink all of this medicine.'

The omission of direct and indirect objects is the same as those in statement clauses previously discussed.

(2) Negative imperative

A simple negative imperative form may be described as follows:

Cl.imp-neg. = ± S : name / kinship term +Neg Imp.Mk : /maaj^{C}/ + P : $vp_{imp.}$
± O : np ± FP : fp

That is, optional Subject position filled by name or kinship term, an obligatory Negative Imperative Marker position filled by /maaj^{C}/ 'don't', an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase(Sec.4.3), an optional Object position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2), and an optional Final Particle position filled by a final particle (Sec.5.3.16). For examples;

1. maaj^{C} kɯɯɯ^{A}
   not sit
   'Don't sit'

2. maaj^{C} tɔɔ^{B} jaaŋ^{C} ken^{B}
   not do like that
   'Don't do it like that.'

3.2.3.2 Interrogative

A basic clause type may be transformed into an interrogative clause. The interrogative clause functions primarily in the nucleus of the interrogative sentences, but may also function in the nucleus of social sentences or self-expression sentences. It is used primarily in direct speech.

The interrogative clauses are mostly marked by distinctive question particles.

Structurally, interrogative clauses may be divided into polar or simple yes-no questions and participant content questions. These subtypes differ from one another in their word order, in their question words, and in their transformation potential.

In fact, interrogative clauses take similar constructions as those of the statement clause. That is, the nucleus are normally in the order of S- P- O. The difference lies in the clause type marker as there is an obligatory question marker in the interrogative clause, but not in the statement clause.

(1) Simple yes/no question

The simple yes/no question clause functions in contexts where the truth value of a sentence is under question. It is a question which requires a simple 'yes' or 'no' answer and is indicated by its name. It takes the same syntactic form as a statement, except that a question particle occurs in Clause Final position. The question particle also occurs immediately after the subject when the subject is in focus.

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

Cl. yes/no q. = +Cl + q.Mk : { bɔɔ^{C} / hɔɔ^{C} }

That is, an obligatory Clause position filled by any independent clause types (see Sec.3.2.1) plus an obligatory Polar Particle position filled by /bɔɔ^{C}/ or /hɔɔ^{C}/ which is interchangeable.

1. bɔɔp^{C} bɔɔ^{C}
   tired q.Mk.
   '(Are you) tired?'

2. phaa^{C} həəj^{A} bɔɔ^{C}
   full already q.Mk.
   '(Are you) already full?'

3. sɔɔn^{A} khiin^{A} ʔuək^{C} ɲaaj^{C} pasaa^{A} samɪee^{A} hɔɔ^{C}
   teach child give speak language Samre q.Mk
   'Do you teach the children to speak the Samre language?'

The Subject in the interrogative clause is normally deleted since the interlocutors know what they are talking about or what they are referring to.

Transformational potential is the same as in statement clauses.

(2) Participant Content Question

The participant content question clause functions in contexts where one or more of the participants in an action are unknown and under question. It is generally marked by question words such as /mii^{C}/ 'who, whom' /campii^{C}/ 'what', /muuj^{C} ʔii^{C}/ 'how much, how many', /nii^{C}/ 'where', /naa^{C} kachii^{C}/, /chii^{C}/ 'when'.

The elements of the participant content questions are :

Cl part. cont. q. = + Cl + Q.W : { mii^{C} / nii^{C} / etc. }

That is, an obligatory Clause position filled by any independent clause types (see Sec.3.2.1), and an obligatory Question Word position filled by /mii^{C}/ 'who', /nii^{C}/ 'where', etc.

The question words in Samre substitute the unknown elements according to their function in the clause. If the subject is unknown and we want to know who the subject is, the question word /mii^{C}/ 'who' will be placed in the Subject position. Or, if the object is unknown, the question word /mii^{C}/ 'whom' will then be placed in the Object position, instead. /cam^{B} pii^{C}/ 'what' also occur in Subject and Object position. /nii^{C}/ 'where' may occur in Location, Source, and Destination position and /chii^{C}/ 'when' may occur in Temporal position. Therefore, the normal order of the elements cannot be generally diagrammed.

1. nak^{B} tɔɔ^{B} campii^{C}
   he do what
   'What does he do?'

2. kachii^{C} khuuŋ^{A} kɹook^{B} cak^{B} thiək^{B}
   when father wake up sleep
   'When did father wake up?'

The question word is obligatorily present. The deletions of other elements are the same as those in the statement clauses.

Transformational potential is also the same as in statement clauses.

(3) Relationship Content Questions

The relationship content question clause functions in contexts where relationship between actions are unknown and under question. It is marked by question words, such as /tɔɔ^{B} pii^{C} / 'why', /jaaŋ^{C} pii^{C}/ 'how'.

The elements of the relationship content question are :

Cl rel. cont. q. = + Cl + Q.W : { tɔɔ^{B} pii^{C} / jaaŋ^{C} pii^{C} }

That is, an obligatory Clause position filled by any independent clause types (see Sec.3.2.1), and an obligatory Question Word position filled by /tɔɔ^{B} pii^{C}/ 'why', or /jaaŋ^{C} pii^{C} / 'how'.

1. nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} jaaŋ^{C} pii^{C}
   will go how
   'How will (you) go?'

2. tɔɔ^{B} pii^{C} miŋ^{A} naan^{A} koh^{A} jip^{A}
   why mother still not come
   'Why has mother still not come?'

Restrictions on the co-occurrence of the elements are

1. The question word /jaaŋ^{C} pii^{C}/ 'how' obligatorily occurs in the final position of the interrogative clause.

2. The question word /tɔɔ^{B} pii^{C} / 'why' may occur initially or finally in an interrogative clause. It has been observed that it occupies the initial position mostly when there is a negative particle /kɔh^{A}/ 'not' in the verb phrase of the clause.

1. tɔɔ^{B} pii^{C} nak^{B} koh^{A} ciiw^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} saa^{A}
   why he not go with too
   'Why doesn't he go together (with the others)?'

The question word is obligatorily present. The omission of other elements are the same as those in the statement clauses.

Transformational potential is also the same as that of the statement clauses.

3.2.3.3 Relative clause form

A clause may be transformed into a relative clause which functions in the phrase level as an adjective clause embedded in a nominal phrase (Sec.4.2).

A simple relative clause has the following nuclear form:

Cl rel = (+H: np) + Rel Mk : conj + emb Cl : cl

That is, an obligatory Relative Marker position filled by a conjunction (Sec.5.3.14), an obligatory embedded clause position filled by a clause (any independent clause types)

1. saliəŋ^{B} nak^{B} kamlaŋ^{A} ciiw^{A} jip^{A} tih^{A} tih^{B} pen^{A} mɔɔ^{B}
   woman rel.Mk progres. mk. go come at there be doctor
   'The woman who is walking there is a doctor.'

2. tɔk^{B} deɪ^{A} nak^{B} paaj^{C} pen^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A} mii^{C}
   boat rel.Mk. he row be belong who
   'Whom does the boat that he rows belong to?'

3.2.3.4 Deletion

Each element of each clause type can be deleted if it is obviously understood. It is normally restorable from the context if it is not actually present in the clause.

The Subject and the Object are also commonly left out when they have been mentioned or when the interlocutors know whom or what they are talking about.

1. nak^{B} huəp^{A} klɔŋ^{A} mat^{A} həəj^{C} ⇒ huəp^{A} mat^{A} həəj^{C}
   he eat rice all fp. eat all fp.
   '(He) has eaten all (the rice).'

The Predicate is obligatorily present, except in responding to an interrogative clause, either polar or content interrogative clauses.

2. A : mii^{C} thɯm^{A} klɔŋ^{A}
   who cook rice
   'Who cooks rice?'

B : miŋ^{A} ten^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C}
mother that emp.
'The Mother.'

3.2.4 Clause periphery

The predicate verb and the nouns that it normally expects are the nucleus of the clause; everything else in the clause is considered periphery (Thomas,1993: 71). Clause peripheral elements includes time and location settings, beneficiary, instrument, accompanying subject and accompanying object. They may, structurally, co-occur; but zero to two of them are more common within a single clause.

3.2.4.1 Time setting

An optional Temporal is filled by a word, a phrase or a clause. The Temporal position may occur either before or after the clause nucleus. After the clause nucleus, it occurs either before or after the final particles. It is used to indicate the time setting for the action and the duration of the action.

1. tɔɔn^{A} sak^{A} hiin^{A} kɔʔ^{B} kɯh^{A} huəp^{B} klɔŋ^{A}
when morning he conj. wake eat rice
'In the morning he woke up and ate rice.'

2. khuuŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} pɹii^{B} paaŋ^{B} sak^{A}
father will go forest tomorrow morning
'(My) father will go to the forest tomorrow morning.'

3. thən^{C} tɛɛ^{B} kəət^{C} jip^{A} ʔiŋ^{A} koh^{A} kəəj^{B} jaaj^{C} ciiw^{A} nii^{C}
since born come I not used to move go where
'Since I was born, (I) have never move anywhere.'

3.2.4.2 Location

Location is normally the periphery of the nuclear clause (except in location clause). The Location position usually occurs after the clause nucleus before the final particle but it may occur clause initial if it is emphasized. Location filled by a

prepositional locative phrase (Sec.4.4.2.1) or a place name (Sec.5.3.1.1) or a demonstrative (Sec.5.3.3).

1. nak^{B} cak^{A} mpləəŋ^{A} jip^{A} <u>thən^{C} kɪoom^{A}</u>
   he shoot gun come from Khmer
   'Someone fired (a gun) from Khmer.'

2. (ʔiŋ^{A}) kɯɯɯ^{A} <u>tih^{B}</u>
   (I) be there
   '(I) live there.'

3. ʔɔk^{A} ciiw^{A} <u>bɔɔɪaj^{C}</u>
   grand-mother go Bo-rai
   '(My) grandmother goes to Bo-rai.'

3.2.4.3 Beneficiary

Beneficiary slot can follow the nuclear clause only. It is marked by /ʔuək^{C}/ 'give' or /ʔam^{C}/ 'give' plus a noun phrase.

1. miŋ^{A} thɛc^{A} ʔaw^{A} <u>ʔam^{C}</u> chan^{C}
   mother cut shirt bene.Mk. I
   'My mother cut a shirt for me.'

2. buə^{A} tiiw^{B} nom^{B} <u>ʔuək^{C}</u> khiin^{A}
   Bua buy dessert bene.Mk. child
   'Bua buys some desserts for the child.'

3. tɛɛn^{A} kah^{A} miiɪ^{A} <u>ʔuək^{C}</u> miəw^{B}
   Taen roast fish bene.Mk. cat
   'Taen roasts a fish for the cat.'

The speaker can use either /ʔuək^{C}/ or /ʔam^{C}/ as a beneficiary marker with no difference at all.

3.2.4.4 Instrument

Instrument slot can occur only after the nuclear clause. It is marked by nɔɔŋ^{B}/ 'by, with' plus a noun phrase.

1. miɲ^{A} chap^{A} miiɹ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} tuəɹ^{C}
   mother catch fish instr.Mk. fishtrap
   'My mother catches fish with a fishtrap.'

2. saaw^{A} khiit^{B} suk^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} chaniit^{C}
   Saw comb hair instr.Mk. comb
   'Saw combs her hair with a comb.'

3. khuuɲ^{A} phlɔh^{A} duuŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} pathaw^{A}
   father split coconut instr.Mk. axe
   'Father splits the coconut with an axe.'

3.2.4.5 Accompanying subject

Accompanying subject occurs only after the clause nucleus. It is marked by nɔɔŋ^{B} 'with' plus a noun phrase.

1. tom^{C} can^{A} ciiw^{A} pɹii^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} jɔɔm^{A}
   aunt Can go forest with Yoom
   'Aunt Can went to the forest with Yoom.'

2. bɔɔn^{A} ciiw^{A} ɹooŋɹiən^{C} nɔɔŋ^{B} khliɲ^{A}
   Ball go school with elder- sister
   'Ball went to school with her elder-sister.

3.2.4.6 Accompanying object

Accompanying object occurs only after the clause nucleus; that is, after the Object slot. It is marked by /nɔɔŋ^{B}/ 'with, and' plus a noun phrase. This is identical with the form for additive complex nominal phrase (Sec.4.2).

1. ʔiɲ^{A} patah^{B} non^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} khiin^{A} nak^{B}
   I meet Non with child he
   'I met Non with his child.'

2. buə^{A} tiiw^{B} liək^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} kiɲ^{C}
Bua buy chicken with oil
'Bua bought some chicken and oil.

3.3 Functions of clauses

Clauses normally function as the main elements in sentences either independently or dependently or both (Sec.6.2.1, 6.2.1). And they may be embedded in clauses or phrases.

3.3.1 At noun phrase rank

Clauses, usually in relative clause forms, may function as noun phrases, noun qualifiers, or noun possessors.

1. maluəŋ^{B} nak^{B} kamlaŋ^{A} ciiw^{A} jip^{A} pen^{A} khɹuu^{B} NP
man rel.Mk. progres. walk come be teacher
'The man who is walking here is a teacher.'

2. tɔŋ^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A} tom^{C} jɛɛ^{C} nak^{B} kamlaŋ^{A} tiiw^{B} khɔɔŋ^{A}
house possess. Aunt Jae rel.Mk. progres. buy thing
kɯɯɹ^{A} patamuun^{A} wat^{B} Possessor in NP
be back temple
'The house of Aunt Jae who is buying thing is at the back of the temple.'

3.3.2 At clause rank

Clauses may also fill the contained (embedded) slot in container clauses.

1. ʔiɲ^{A} diɲ^{A} lic^{A} mɔɔ^{B} koh^{A} kɯɯɹ^{A} hɔɔ^{C}
I know that doctor not be fp.
'I know that the doctor is not in (now).'

3.3.3 At sentence rank

Clauses are the normal fillers of the major slots in sentences. Most clause types can fill both main clause and subordinate clause slots.

1. thɯŋ^{A} kac^{A} chɯh^{A} hɔɔj^{C} tɛɛ^{B} naan^{A} khɛɛŋɹɛɛŋ^{C}
   though you old already but still strong
   'Though you are old, you are still strong.'

2. tom^{C} can^{A} hɔɔm^{A} puŋ^{A} pɹɔʔ^{B} nak^{B} chaa^{A} tɛɛ^{A} m̥pɔŋ^{C} wiɔŋ^{C}
   aunt Can flatulent because rel.Mk eat only vegetable fresh
   'Aunt Can was flatulent, because she ate only fresh vegetable.'

3.4 Semantic elements

The semantic elements in a clause may be divided into nuclear relationships, transitivity modifications, non-nuclear participants and setting, and aspect modifications, in addition to the semantic prosodies and the presuppositions that we encounter at all ranks.

3.4.1 Nuclear relationships

The system for setting nuclear, or transitivity, relationships proposed in this study mainly follows Thomas's system (Thomas, 1993: 72) which is organized around what seems to be the focused element in each clause type--action, location, quotation, social function, item, quality, and quantity.

3.4.1.1 Action (verb centered)

The participants in these actions enter into various roles. (The roles are the end points of the relationships.) The nuclear roles in action clauses are as follows:

Actor (A) includes animate or inanimate performers of the action.

Undergoer (U) includes animate or inanimate participants who are acted upon.

Scope (Sc) is a general term covering things such as recipients, locations, directions (covering sources, paths, and destinations), listeners and possessors. Though Scope has semantically wide variety of functions, all of them could be considered to be filling a structurally single slot.

The clauses which are considered to be action clauses are the following:

Intransitive	NV
Transitive	VN
Bitransitive	NVNN

3.4.1.2 Location (location centered)

Locative	NVL
Motion	NVL(L)
Propulsion	NVNL(L)

3.4.1.3 Communication(quotation centered)

Quotative	NVQ

3.4.1.4 Existence(noun centered)

Existence	NEx

3.4.1.5 Description (adjective centered)

Ambient	Aj
Descriptive	NAj
Equational	N_1AjN_1
Comparative	NAjN

3.4.1.6 Quantity (numbered centered)

Quantitative	NQt

3.4.2 Transitivity modifications

The basic clause types each have their own inherent set of relations between participants, here called their transitivity relations. These transitivity relations may be modified in several ways, by addition (causative), or combining (reflexive, reciprocal). The Samre mark these with some particles as the markers.

3.4.2.1 Causative

Causative is an additional participant which may be added to the Actor function, sharing responsibility for the action.

Causer slot can occur only before the nucleus clause. Direct causer and indirect causer may be added to the nuclear clause by adding causers and causative verbs (Sec.5.3.10.14) before it. There may be one or more causers filled in the Causer slot.

1. miŋ^{A} kɯh^{A} chan^{C} ʔuək^{C} kɹook^{B} cak^{B} thiək^{B}
   mother make I caus. Mk. wake from sleep
   'My mother made me wake up.'

2. ʔaj^{C} cɛʔ^{A} tɔɔ^{B} ʔam^{C} ʔiŋ^{A} cɯt^{A}
   address Cae make caus. Mk I angry
   'Mr. Cae makes me angry.'

3. naa^{C} m̩sii^{C} khuuŋ^{A} padam^{A} ʔiŋ^{A} ciiw^{A} tiiw^{B} kakhoo^{A}
   yesterday father order I go buy rice
   'Yesterday, my father ordered me to buy rice.'

4. ʔiŋ^{A} tɔɔ^{B} ʔuək^{C} nak^{B} caŋ^{B} ʔic^{A} chɔɔ^{B}
   I make caus. Mk he step on excrement dog
   'I made him stepped on the dog's excrement.'

3.4.2.2 Reflexives

The actor may do the action to himself. That is, the undergoer suffers the action caused by himself. So the participant slots in this clause type have the same person filling more than one slot. The reflexive marker /nuən^{A}/ '(one) self' normally

follows the object slot. Its occurrence is obligatory. Moreover, /kɯp^{B}/ 'body' may be added to emphasize that the actor and undergoer are the same person. It occurs optionally before the object slot.

1. chan^{A} tɔɔ^{B} chaa^{A} tɔɔ^{B} mɔk^{B} kɯp^{B} nuən^{A} Actor, Beneficiary
   I do eat do eat body relf.Mk.
   'I earn my living by myself.'

2. khiin^{A} huuc^{A} ɹee^{C} ɲjuuɹ^{A} hiin^{A} huuc^{A} nuən^{A} Actor, Causer
   child die in cradle it die relf.Mk.
   'Our child died in the cradle, it died itself.'

3.4.2.3 Reciprocals

Two or more participants in an action may do the action to each other. The reciprocal markers are /saa^{A}/, /nɔɔŋ^{B} saa^{A}/ 'together'.

1. chanɯn^{A} kluəŋ^{B} pasuk^{A} saa^{A} Actor, Undergoer
   wife husband fight together
   'The wife and husband fought with each other.'

2. muut^{B} khliɲ^{A} patah^{B} saa^{A} Actor, Undergoer
   younger older siblings meet each other
   'The younger and older siblings meet each other.'

3.4.3 Non-nuclear participants and setting

Non-nuclear participants are participants who are present and involved in the action, but who are not required by the predicate. They are Instrument, Beneficiary, Accompanying Actor, and Accompanying Object (see examples in Clause periphery Sec.3.2.4)

The time and Location setting of a clause set the external time and place where the action took place. Time setting is different from the internal timing of the action which identifies on the general time (past, present, future). But specific time is generally manifested at the surface clause rank.

3.4.4 Modality modifications

Modality presents the Actor's viewpoint about the action. The clause nucleus describes what the Actor actually does, but his volition, obligation, necessity, or ability to do the action is the modality.

3.4.4.1 Volition

Volition includes a range from deliberate to involuntary action. Any animate participant in a clause may exercise volition, but it is most often the Actor.

1. ʔiŋ^{A} kamlaŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} lɯək^{C} phujaj^{B} sɹuk^{A}
   I progres. will go elect head village
   'I am going to elect the head of the village.' (strong volition)

2. ʔiŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} hɯɯ^{A} koh^{A} ciiw^{A} naan^{A} koh^{A} nɛɛ^{B}
   I will go or not go still not sure
   'I'm not quite sure that I will go or won't go (to elect the head of the village).'
   (reluctant volition)

3.4.4.2 Obligation and necessity

Obligation and necessity range from free will to compulsion. Obligation implies a moral compulsion, necessity a physical compulsion. These involve a relationship between a causer (often unstated) and the Actor and the action.

pɹɔʔ^{B} hiəŋ^{A} sɔɔŋ^{C} ʔiin^{A} pɹak^{A} kaaɲ^{C} kaaɲ^{C}
because we want have money many many

hiəŋ^{A} kɔʔ^{B} tɔɔŋ^{B} laʔeeŋ^{A} siʔ^{B}
we then must diligent fp.
'Because we want to have a lot of money, we must be diligent.' (necessity)

3.4.4.3 Ability

Ability ranges from ability to inability, and may be internally or externally conditioned.

1. ʔiŋ^{A} ɲaaj^{C} pasaa^{A} samɪee^{A} ʔiin^{A} muuj^{C} kic^{A} muuj^{C} kuuj^{C}
   I speak language Samre can one small one little
   'I can speak Samre language just a little.' (ability)

2. puək^{C} khiin^{A} koh^{A} khah^{A} ɲaaj^{C} pasaa^{A} samɪee^{A} hɔɔ^{C}
   group child not know speak language Samre fp.
   'The children can't speak Samre language.'(inability)

3.4.5 Semantic prosodies

In Samre, there are prosodies of focus, emphasis and negation.

3.4.5.1 Focus types

Focus, or subjectivalization, decides which of the participants in the action will be treated as the Subject of the action- the participant who is coordinated most closely with the Predicate.

(1) Actor focus (Active)

In the active focus type, the Subject is the performer of the action. Usually Samre is an actor-focus language. This indicated by position at the beginning of the clause.

1. taa^{A} nooj^{A} wəj^{B} kɪiŋ^{A} cəən^{A} khamuuc^{C} mot^{B}
   address Nooy hit drum invite ghost witch
   'Mr.Nooy hit a drum to invite the witch ghost.'

2. jaaj^{B} nuu^{A} tuən^{B} huəj^{A} kaaɲ^{C} ləəj^{C} nɔɔ^{A}
   address Nuu win lottery much fp.
   'Mrs.Nuu won the lottery for a large amount of money.'

(2) Undergoer focus (Passive)

A transitive clause in Samre can be passivized when the speaker wants to focus on the undergoer and the agent is normally deleted.

The object which is an undergoer is placed at the clause initial position followed by /tuən^{B}/ 'passive marker' while the optional Subject and Predicate

follow them respectively. The action is unavoidable and it is something that shouldn't have happened.

1. khaniiw^{C} tuən^{B} wəj^{B}
   child pass.Mk. hit
   'A child was hit.'

2. nɯm^{B} tuəj^{C} məɔ^{B} ʔɔəj^{C} tuən^{B} ɹot^{A} caɲ^{B} huuc^{A} həəj^{C}
   year last doctor Oil pass.Mk. car run over dead already
   'Last year Dr.Oil had been run over by a car, she died.'

3.4.5.2 Emphasis

Emphasis manifests contrast with another clause or manifests something unexpected. It may be emphasized on a participant or on the action. In Samre, emphasis is marked by shifting that element to the front position and there is a slight pause after that element.

1. kapaaw^{A} || miɲ^{A} ʔuəɹ^{A} ciiw^{A} sɹɛɛ^{A}
   buffalo mother lead (by hand) go field
   'That buffalo was led to the field by my mother.'(object emphasis)

2. tɔŋ^{A} ten^{B} || nak^{B} tuək^{A} ʔuək^{C} ʔiɲ^{A}
   house that he sell give I
   'That house was sold to me by him.' (object emphasis)

For the Predicate emphasis, the Predicate element changes its position from behind a subject to the position before the subject. Usually an intensifier is used to emphasize the Predicate by placing the Subject after the predicate.

3. thiək^{B} laŋiət^{B} həəj^{C} nɔɔ^{A} || khiin^{A} hiəŋ^{A}
   sleep asleep fp child we
   '(Our child) has been asleep already.' (action emphasis)

4. ciiw^{A} ɹəəw^{B} nah^{A} || m̩luəŋ^{B} ten^{B}
   walk fast very man that
   'That man walks very fast.' (action emphasis)

To emphasize the Predicate and the $Item_2$ of the equational clause, the order of the elements are P- Equ.mk. – It_2 || It_1.

5. ʔuən^{B} tiŋ^{C} taa^{A} nooj^{A} həəj^{C} || poo^{B}
   fat equal address Nooy already you
   'You are already as fat as Mr.Nooy.' (predicate emphasis)

3.4.5.3 Negation

A clause as a whole may be negated by placing /naak^{C}/ 'not' before the nuclear clause as follows:

1. naak^{C} kluəŋ^{B} nak^{B} naa^{A} pen^{B} kasɯm^{C} kuk^{A}
   not husband he emp. be person steal
   'It was not the husband who was the thief.'

2. naak^{C} siŋ^{B} khɔɔŋ^{A} jaaj^{B} baj^{A} thak^{A} tih^{B} thanon^{A}
   not foot poss.Mk address Bai torn off at road
   'It was not Mrs. Bai's foot that was torn off beside the road.

3.4.6 Presuppositions

Clausal encyclopedia comprises the things that the speaker assumes the hearer already knows about the relationship between certain participants and certain actions. Contextual information may have told us in a certain discourse such as the relationship of the previous noun and the substituted pronoun.

maluəŋ^{B} ten^{B} koŋ^{C} nɔɔŋ^{B} huuc^{A} ɹeew^{B} ɹeew^{B} ʔan^{A}
man that likely will die soon soon this
'That man is likely to die soon.'

The speakers and the hearers know who is the man that they are talking about. And they have some background knowledge that the man has a serious illness.

3.5 Transformation

Clauses can be transformed into various forms depending on the requirments of the context or the desire to emphasize various parts of the clause. Each clause type will have its own set of forms that it can take which is referred to as its paradigm. (A paradigm is a complete set of forms derivable from a clause root. A battery is a subset of a paradigm, whose forms are all mutually derivable from each other, i.e. they all contain the full clause root, with no deletions. The interrelations between paradigms may be compactly described in terms of battery trees (Thomas, 1993:81). The unchanging parts of the clause is the clause root; that is, the nuclear participants and actions and their roles.

For example, the clause root of an intransitive clause: /**nak**^{B} 'she' – Actor represented as S, **jaam**^{B} 'cry' – Action represented as V/ is provided and the intransitive battery consists of:

1. nak^{B} jaam^{B} / S V/ 'She cried'	1. Declarative active. Used in simple discourse.
2. nak^{B} kamlaŋ^{A} jaam^{B} / S asp V/ 'She is crying'	2. Declarative continual active.
3. nak^{B} naan^{A} jaam^{B} / S asp V/ 'She is still crying.'	3. Declarative emphatic active. Used to emphasize the Action.
4. nak^{B} sɔŋ^{C} jaam^{B} / S asp V/ 'She wants to cry'	4. Declarative active. Used to express the desire of the Actor.
5. nak^{B} koh^{A} jaam^{B} / S neg V/ 'She does not cry'	5. Negative active.

6. nak^{B} jaam^{B} bɔɔ^{C}
/ S V q.Mk./
'Does she cry?'

6. Simple yes/no question. Used to question the reality of the Action.

7. tɔɔ^{B} pii^{C} nak^{B} jaam^{B}
/QW S V/
'Why did she cry?'

7. Relationship Content Question. Used to ask for additional Information not given in clause root.

In addition to the regular battery forms there are various deformed clauses (battery adjuncts) formed by deletions or pronoun or question substitutions, such as:

8. mii^{C} jaam^{B}
/ QW V/
'Who cried'

8. Questioned Actor. Used to elicit the Actor.

9. nak^{B}
/ S /
'She'(cried)

9. Action deletion. Used as an elliptical form of a full answer of question 8.

10. jaam^{B}
/ V/
'Cry'

10. Subject deletion.

CHAPTER IV

PHRASES

4.1 General definition

Phrases are descriptive units, and may contain one or more morphemes. A noun standing by itself in a clause is a minimum noun phrase, or a verb by itself is a verb phrase.

Phrases normally function as components of clauses, and sometimes function at higher ranks.

Phrase structures usually contain a head (a main noun or a main verb) and may or may not contain modifiers. Noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, etc., are very different in their elements, relationships, and functions, so each will be discussed separately.

4.2 Nominal Phrases

Nominal phrases describe the participants (people, things) that are taking part in events (clauses).

Structurally, nominal phrases may be divided into noun phrase, pronoun phrase, numeral phrase. They differ from one another in their Head item, in their elements, and in their transformation potential.

Nominal phrases are marked by the noun or noun-like elements in their Head position.

4.2.1 Nominal phrase structures (Basic structures)

4.2.1.1 Noun phrases

Noun phrase is a construction type, defined by its internal constituency, not a slot filler class. Construction and filler class, however, do often go hand in hand. A structural noun phrase type is defined by the formula of its internal structure, but a semantic noun phrase type is defined by its internal semantic constituency.

A structural noun phrase generally requires the presence of a noun as its head.

Noun phrases tend to contain slots like head noun, quality, possessor, number, unit, demonstrative, definiteness. And these slots tend to be filled by classes such as nouns, adjectives, prepositional phrases, relative clauses, numbers, classifiers, demonstrative pronouns, and articles, plus morphemes like possession markers and class markers.

The elements of a noun phrase are :

$$NPn = +H : n \pm Qual_1 : V_{des1} \pm Qual_2 : \left\{ \begin{matrix} pp. \\ V_{des2} \\ rel.cl. \end{matrix} \right\} \pm Qt : num.p$$

$$\pm Poss: \left\{ \begin{matrix} (+poss.mk + np.) \\ np. \end{matrix} \right\} \pm Dem : dem$$

That is, an obligatory Head position filled by a noun, an optional $Quality_1$ position filled by a descriptive $verb_1$ which indicates an inherent physical quality (big, tall, short, heavy, color, etc.), an optional $Quality_2$ position filled by a prepositional phrase or a descriptive $verb_2$ which indicates a non-inherent quality (beautiful, clean, wet, etc) or a relative clause , an optional Quantity position filled by a numeral phrase, an optional Possessor position filled by a possessor marker- /khɔɔŋ^{A}/ 'belong to'- plus a nominal phrase or a nominal phrase, an optional Demonstrative position filled by a demonstrative.

The normal order of the noun phrase is :

H-Qual$_1$- Qual$_2$-Qt- Poss -Dem

1. chɔɔ^C
   dog
   'dog'

2. chɔɔ^C caŋ^A
   dog black
   ' black dog'

3. chɔɔ^C caŋ^A muuj^C
   dog black one
   'a black dog'

4. chɔɔ^C caŋ^A paaɪ^C muuɪ^C
   dog black two class.
   'two black dogs'

5. chɔɔ^C caŋ^A kɯp^B ʔuən^B paaɪ^C muuɪ^C
   dog black body fat two class.
   'two fat, black dogs'

6. chɔɔ^C caŋ^A paaɪ^C muuɪ^C khɔɔŋ^A poo^B
   dog black two class. poss. you
   'your two black dogs'

The Head noun must be in the first position and it is obligatorily present. It has been observed that there can be more than one modifier (either two of the quality$_1$ or the quality$_1$ occurs together with the quality$_2$) in a noun phrase and that each filler in the modifier position can occur together with the Head noun. The shortest element usually be put immediately after that Head noun.

The Quality$_1$ and Quality$_2$ slots may change their positions. Besides, they can be reduplicated.

7. kasɯm^{C} ʔuən^{B} ʔuən^{B} ʁaak^{C} ʁaak^{C}
human fat fat white white
'the human who is rather fat and whose skin is white'

It should be noted that the word order in some noun phrases can be changed and the order may be Qual-H or H-Qual. The first column should be the original word order of the Samre because this pattern is common in other Mon-Khmer languages. The second column are the derived order which have gotten influence from the Thai language These phrases can be reversed in order without any change in meaning. For example:

Column1			**Column 2**		**Thai**
khamɯn^{A}	tii^{A}	~	tii^{A}	khamɯn^{A}	(níw poôŋ)
Thumb	finger		finger	thumb	(finger thumb) 'thumb'
nat^{A}	sanam^{A}	~	sanam^{A}	nat^{A}	(jaa nát)
Inhale	medicine		Medicine	inhale	Medicine inhale 'snuff'
khah^{A}	luəŋ^{A}	~	luəŋ^{A}	khah^{A}	(kluâj pîŋ)
Roast	banana		Banana	roast	(banana roast) 'roasted banana '

4.2.1.2 Pronoun phrases

The pronoun phrase denotes that the Head of the nucleus is a pronoun.

The elements of a pronoun phrase are :

$$NPpr = \pm Qt_1 : \left\{ \begin{matrix} /muu^{B}/ \\ /puək^{C}/ \end{matrix} \right\} + H : pr \pm Qt_2 : \left\{ \begin{matrix} (num.+class.) \\ num. \end{matrix} \right\} \pm Dem : dem.$$

That is, an optional Quantity$_1$ position filled by /muu^{B}/ 'group' or /puək^{C}/ 'group', an obligatory Head position filled by a pronoun , an optional Quantity$_2$ position filled by a numeral , or a numeral plus classifier, and an optional Demonstrative position filled by a demonstrative.

The normal order of the elements is :

Qt_1-H- Qt_2-Dem

1. puək^{C} poo^{B} phee^{C} nak^{B} ten^{B} (puuɪ^{B} khɪaaŋ^{B} həəj^{C})
   group you three class. that (drunk alcohol already)
   'The three of you (had been drunk already.)'

2. muu^{B} jaŋ^{B} tuk^{B} nak^{B} (nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} ɪapcaaŋ^{C} chuuɪ^{A} manah^{B})
   group we(exclu.) every class will go hire plant pine apple
   'Every one of us (will go to be hired as workers for planting pine apples).'

The Head pronoun is obligatorily present, except when it has already been referred to or when the interlocutors know whom they are talking to or about, for example:

1. paaɪ^{C} nak^{B} ten^{B} (jip^{A} maan^{B})
   two class. that come at once
   '(You) two come here at once!'

4.2.1.3 Numeral phrases

The numeral phrase occurs in the Quantity position of a noun and pronoun phrase.

The elements of a pronoun phrase are :

$$\text{NPnum} = \pm \text{Approx} \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{ɪaaw}^{C} \\ \text{sɔk}^{B} \\ \text{khɛɛ}^{B} \end{matrix} \right\} + \text{H} : \text{num.} + \text{Class: class.} \pm \text{Dem}_1 : \text{dem}$$

$$\pm \text{Li} : \left\{ \text{ʔeeŋ}^{C} \right\} \quad + \text{Dem}_2 : \text{dem}$$

That is, an optional Approximation position filled by /ɪaaw^{C}/ 'about' or /sɔk^{B}/ 'about', /khɛɛ^{B}/ 'about' an obligatory Head position filled by a numeral plus classifier or unit an optional Demonstrative_1 position, which occurs in complementary distribution with Demonstrative_2, filled by a demonstrative, and an optional Limitation position filled by /muuj^{C}/ 'only' or /ʔeeŋ^{C}/ 'only'.

1. ʔiŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} tiiw^{B} tuŋ^{A} liək^{A} sɔk^{B} phee^{C} phuun^{C} muuɹ^{A}
   I will buy egg duck about three four class.
   'I will go to buy three or four duck eggs.'

2. tɔɔn^{A} ʔiin^{A} soŋkhɹaam^{C} naʔ^{B} ʔiŋ^{A} ʔaajuʔ^{A} ɹaaw^{C}
   when have war emp. I age about

   katuəŋ^{B} nɯm^{B} ten^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C}
   six year that only
   'When the war broke out, I was only out six years old.'

The Head is obligatory present, however it can be optional when it has been mentioned before. For instance,

3. **A:** ʔiin^{A} maluəŋ^{B} jip^{A} phɹam^{A} nak^{B} muuj^{C} ten^{B} bɔɔ^{C}
   have man come five class. only that q.Mk.
   'Are there only five men coming?'
   B: mɛɛn^{B} ɹaaw^{C} ɹaaw^{C} ten^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C}
   yes about about that only
   'Yes, about that.'

Restrictions on the co-occurrence of the elements are:

1. The Approximation position must always precede the Head position.
2. The Limitation position must always take the ultimate position in the phrase.
3. /muuj^{C}/ 'one' can occur in the numeral head position where it can occur together with the prefix /ta-/ 'only' as in example 4. And it can also occur in the limitation position where it means 'only' when another numeral occurs in the head position as in example 3.

4. poo^{B} chiim^{A} miəw^{B} tamuuj^{C} hɯɯ^{A}
   you feed cat only-one q.Mk
   'Have you fed only one cat?'

4.2.2 Variant structures

4.2.2.1 Deletions or pronominalized elements

When a participant is first introduced in a story he is usually described in more detail than just a noun, such as /khiin^{A} phujaj^{B} chəət^{C} naan^{A} kamlaŋ^{A} run^{C} pen^{A} malɔh^{A}/ 'a son of Mr. Cheet, who was the head of the village, was a teenager.' This whole long noun phrase will probably never be repeated again in the whole story, but will be reduced to just /nak^{B}/ 'he' or ∅ or /malɔh^{A} ten^{B}/ 'that man' or something similar. The listener knows the elements that have been deleted or pronominalized, and if necessary could reconstruct the original long noun phrase.

Nominal phrases in other positions apart from the Subject can be deleted too. The various possible deletions may be illustrated as follows.

Cl.bitr. 1. ʔɔk^{A} laaw^{B} nithaan^{A} ʔuək^{C} khaniiw^{C} tanee^{A}
Grandmother tell tale give children listen
'The grandmother told the children some tales.'

(S deleted) 2. laaw^{B} nithaan^{A} ʔuək^{C} khaniiw^{C} tanee^{A}
tell tale give children listen
'tells the children some tales.'

(IO deleted) 3. ʔɔk^{A} laaw^{B} nithaan^{A}
grandmother tell tale
'The grandmother tells the tales.'

(DO deleted) 4. ʔɔk^{A} laaw^{B} ʔuək^{C} khaniiw^{C} tanee^{A}
grandmother tell give children listen
'The grandmother tells the children.'

(S, IO deleted) 5. laaw^{B} nithaan^{A}
tell tale
'tells the tales.'

(S, DO deleted) 6. laaw^{B} ʔuək^{C} khaniiw^{C} tanee^{A}
tell give children listen
'tells the children.'

(DO, IO deleted) 7. ʔɔk^{A} laaw^{B}
grandmother tell
'grandmother tells '

4.2.2.2 Weakenings

Elements of a phrase may be weakened in order to avoid repeating the same word that the specific word might be already known, by using some general words, for examples:

1. thiim^{C} cɔɔ^{C} suək^{C} ʔan^{A} ɹuuh^{A} nah^{A} → thiim^{C} ʔan^{A} ɹuuh^{A} nah^{A}
tree sour mango this tall adv → tree this tall adv
'This mango tree is tall.' 'This tree is tall.'

2. siiw^{B} miiɹ^{A} laliəŋ^{B} pee^{C} bɔɔ^{C} → siiw^{B} pee^{C} bɔɔ^{C}
curry fish silurus delicious q.Mk → curry delicious q.Mk
'Is the cat-fish curry delicious?' 'Is the curry delicious?'

4.2.3 Nominal compoundings

When two or more elements are filling the same slot it is called compounding. Structural compounding consists of multiple participants filling a single role in a clause. It generally manifests semantic compounding and may have additive, or alternative relationship. There may or may not be a conjunction. The following are some examples.

4.2.3.1 Additive compounding nominal phrase

The additive compounding nominal phrase consists of two or more nominal phrase functioning as a single unit and linked with each other in an additive relationship.

The elements of the additive compounding nominal phrase are :

$$NPad = \pm Lk_1 : \left\{ \begin{matrix} than^{C} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} + It_1 : np \ (\pm Lk_2 : \left\{ \begin{matrix} than^{C} \\ nɔɔŋ^{B} \end{matrix} \right\} + It_2 : np)^{n}$$

That is, an optional Linkage$_1$ position filled by /thaŋ^C/ 'both', an obligatory Item$_1$ position filled by a nominal phrase, an optional Linkage$_2$ position filled by a /thaŋ^C/ 'both' or /nɔɔŋ^B/ 'and' , and an obligatory Item$_2$ position filled by a nominal phrase. Additional Items may also be added.

1. thaŋ^C khuuɲ^A thaŋ^C miɲ^A (koh^A kɯɯɪ^A tɔŋ^A)
   both father both mother (not be house)
   Lk_1 I_1 Lk_2 It_2
   'Both father and mother (are not at home.)'

2. khliɲ^A nɔɔŋ^B muut^A (ciiw^A tɔɔ^B kaaɪ^A)
   older-sibling and younger-sibling (go do work)
   'Older-sibling and younger-sibling (go to do work).'

3. chanɯn^A ‖ kluəŋ^B (pasuk^A saa^A)
   wife husband (fight together)
   'Husband and wife(fight each other).'

4. khiin^A khiin^A (ciiw^A nii^C)
   child child (go where)
   '(Where do) the children (go)?'

The normal order of these elements which is $Lk_1 - It_1 \ (Lk_2 - It_2)^n$ is interchangeable. That is, the Item$_2$ position can occur in the Item$_1$ position without changing the meaning. It should be noted that the reversing order in these noun phrases occurs due to the influence of the Thai language. In the examples below, the first column shows the original word order of the Samre and the second column shows the derived order that is the result of influence from the Thai language (the equivalent

phrase in Thai are shown in the parenthesis). Now the Samre speakers accept both patterns.

Column1		**Column 2**	**Thai**
1. chanɯn^{A} kluəŋ^{B}	~	kluəŋ^{B} chanɯn^{A}	(phuŏ miə)
Wife husband		Husband wife	(husband wife)
		'wife and husband'	
2 muut^{A} khliŋ^{A}	~	khliŋ^{A} muut^{A}	(phiî nɔ́ŋ)
Younger sibling older- sibling		older-sibling	younger-sibling
		'younger-sibling and older-sibling'	

Restrictions on the co-occurrence of the elements are:

a) /thaŋ ^{C}/ 'both' must always co-occur with /thaŋ^{C}/ 'both' but not vice versa.

b) /nɔɔŋ ^{B}/ 'both' cannot occur as Lk_1.

c) A pause is required after each item if there is no linker between them.

5. **A:** ʔiin^{A} mii^{C} naac^{B} ciiw^{A} kep^{A} ɹuəɹ^{A} tuəŋ^{A}
have who some go gather cucumber
'Among our group, who has gone to gather cucumber?'

B: jaaj^{B} sin^{A} ‖ jaaj^{B} ʔɯəŋ^{C} ‖ jaaj^{B} canɹəəm^{A}
address Sin address Auang address Chanraem

phee^{C} nak^{B} mat^{A} saa^{A}
three class. all together
'Three of us; Mrs. Sin, Mrs. Auang, Mrs. Chanraem all together.'

4.2.3.2 Appositional compounding nominal phrase

The appositional compounding nominal phrase consists of two or more nominal phrases functioning as a single unit, referring to the same person or persons, and linked together in an appositional relationship.

The elements of the appositional complex nominal phrase are:

NPap = + It_1 : np. + It_2 : np./ cl.

That is, an obligatory $Item_1$ position filled by a nominal phrase, and an obligatory $Item_2$ position filled by a nominal phrase or a clause. A pause is required between the Items for separating the constituents.

1. ʔaj^C piək^A || kluəŋ^B jaaj^B naan^A (ciiw^A kep^A samɹɔɔŋ^A)
   address Piak husband address Naan (go to gather samrong
   It_1 It_2
   'Mr. Piak, Mrs. Naan's husband (went to gather samrong).'

2. tom^C jim^C || khlɨŋ^A maluəŋ^B khɔɔŋ^A ʔiŋ^A
   uncle Yim older-sibling male poss.Mk I

   (kəəj^B buə^A pen^A look^B kuəj^C həəj^C)
   (used to ordained as monk long ago)
   'Uncle Yim, my brother (used to be ordained as a monk, a long time ago.)'

The normal order of the elements is : It_1 - It_2 is interchangeable, except when $Item_2$ is filled by a clause. In that case Item2 position usually follows $Item_1$ position.

3. mɔɔ^B ʔɔɔj^C || mɔɔ^B makhɯn^A nak^B naan^A saliəŋ^B
   doctor Oil doctor female rel.Mk still young

   kwaa^B muu^B tuən^B ɹot^A con^C huuc^A həəj^C
   than group pass.Mk car hit die fp.
   'Doctor Oil, a female doctor who is younger than the others, was hit by a car and she's already dead.'

4.2.3.3 Alternative compoundings

Alternative compounding permits a choice from among two or more nouns.

poo^B nɔɔŋ^B huəp^A siiw^B liək^A hɯɯ^A siiw^B miiɹ^A
you will eat curry chicken or curry fish
'Will you eat curry chicken or curry fish?'

4.2.3.4 Contrastive compoundings

Contrastive compounding pairs a noun with its negated opposite.

naak^{C} kluəŋ^{B} chanɯn^{A} naa^{A} (kuk^{A} thɔɔŋ^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A} ʔiŋ^{A})
not husband wife emp. (steal gold poss.Mk. I)
'Not the husband, but the wife (who stole my gold).'

4.2.4 Functions of noun phrases

Noun phrases (whether simple, complex or compound) function as units within other structures, most often in clauses, but sometimes in noun phrases or prepositional phrases, and sometimes at higher (sentence, paragraph, discourse) ranks.

4.2.4.1 At phrase rank

Noun phrase may occur within a noun phrase as a numbered set in the Quantifier slot, as a Possessor or Genitive slot.

1. ʔiin^{A} thiim^{C} suək^{C} paaɪ^{C} thiim^{C} patakaa^{C} wat^{B}
   have tree mango two tree in front of temple
   'There are two of mango trees in front of the temple.'

2. tɔŋ^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A} tom^{C} can^{A} kɯɯɪ^{A} kaat^{C} ʔaanaamaj^{A}
   house poss.Mk. aunt Can be near public health center
   'Aunt Can's house is near the Public Health Center.'

Noun phrase also occur after a preposition in Prepositional phrases.

3. hiəŋ^{A} ciiw^{A} tɔɔ^{B} bun^{A} naa^{C} wat^{B}
   we go make merit at temple
   'We go to make merit at the temple.'

4.2.4.2 At clause rank

Noun phrases normally function in clauses in the participant slots (Subject, Object, Indirect Object, etc.)

maluəŋ^{B} ten^{B} naa^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} pen^{A} khɹuu^{B} plaa^{B}
man that likely will be teacher new
'That man is likely to be the new teacher.'

4.2.4.3 At higher rank

At the sentence rank, noun phrases often function as vocatives, or as location or time settings, with or without a preposition.

mɯm^{B} tuəj^{C} taak^{C} phɹɯp^{B} canthabuun^{A} naa^{A}
last year water flood Chantaburi fp.
'Last year, there was a flood in Chantaburi.'

At the discourse rank, discourse titles are frequently noun phrases, such as:

nithaan^{A} ciih^{C}
story deer 'A story of the deer'
kluəŋ^{A} kanuət^{B}
bone rice ' A rice-bone'
kasɯm^{C} booɹaan^{C}
human ancient 'A story of the people in the previous days'

4.2.5 Semantic elements

The semantic elements that commonly go into surface noun phrases may be divided into basic content elements and semantic prosodies.

4.2.5.1 Semantic content

The semantic content of noun phrases may be roughly divided into Items, quantification, qualification, possession (genitives), and orientation.

4.2.5.2 Semantic prosodies

Prosodic (or suprasegmental) elements in a language are those that are not tied to a particular segment but are spread across several elements or are movable on top of several elements. The chief semantic prosody in noun phrases is that of

emphasis or highlighting. Any element in a phrase may be singled out for special emphasis. The devices for showing emphasis include stress, fronting, apposition, repetition, marking particles.

1. chɔɔ^{C} caŋ^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A} ʔiɲ^{A}
   dog black poss.Mk I
   'The black dog is mine.'

2. chɔɔ^{C} khɔɔŋ^{A} ʔiɲ^{A} sii^{A} caŋ^{A}
   dog poss.Mk. I colour black
   'My dog is black.'

4.2.5.3 Presupposed encyclopedia

The encyclopedia is the information that the speaker assumes the hearer knows already. This includes both referential equivalences and acceptable collocations, such as /khaniiw^{C}/ may be a baby or a child but not an adult; /kluəŋ^{B} khɔɔŋ^{A} jaaj^{B} jɛɛ^{C}/ 'Mrs.Jae's husband' or /taa^{A} caɪəən^{A}/ 'Mr. Caroen' can be used to refer to the same person (since all Samre already know this person).

4.2.6 Transformation

Language is a combination of form and meaning, so the forms may be presented in terms of their meaning, and meanings may be presented in terms of their forms.

A transformational paradigm maintains the same basic information but changes the form. These forms differ in their internal prominence, their external functions, and their nuances (Thomas, 1993:31).

The following is a noun phrase transformation, which is shown as an example. The other phrases can be transformed too.

Transformational battery of a noun phrase

A noun phrase the root of which / Item - chɔɔ^{C} 'dog'; Quality$_1$: descriptive verb caŋ^{A} 'black', Quality$_2$: pp - patakaa^{C} tɔŋ^{A} 'in front of the house' ; Quantity-

paaɪ^{C} muuɪ^{C} 'two of them' : Demonstrative - 'that' / can be transformed as follows.

1. chɔɔ^{C} caŋ^{A} paaɪ^{C} muuɪ^{C} patakaa^{C} tɔŋ^{A} ten^{B}
   dog black two class. infront of house that
   'those two black dogs in front of the house' (neutral)

2. chɔɔ^{C} paaɪ^{C} muuɪ^{C} patakaa^{C} tɔŋ^{A} sii^{A} caŋ^{A} ten^{B}
   dog two class. infront of house colour black that
   'those two black dogs in front of the house' (emphasis on black)

3. chɔɔ^{C} caŋ^{A} ten^{B} naʔ^{B} nak^{B} kɯɯɪ^{A} patakaa^{C} tɔŋ^{A} paaɪ^{C} muuɪ^{C}
   dog black that emp. rel.Mk. be infront of house two class.
   'those two black dogs in front of the house' (emphasis on black)

4. chɔɔ^{C} caŋ^{A} patakaa^{C} tɔŋ^{A} paaɪ^{C} muuɪ^{C} ten^{B}
   dog black infront of house two class. that
   'those two black dogs in front of the house' (emphasis on two)

5. paaɪ^{C} muuɪ^{C} ten^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C} chɔɔ^{C} caŋ^{A} patakaa^{C} tɔŋ^{A} ten^{B}
   two class. that only dog black infront of house that
   'only those two black dogs in front of the house' (specify and emphasize the number of dogs)

The surface transformational formulas for this battery are:

1. It, Qual.$_1$, Qt., Qual$_2$, Dem
2. It, Qt., Qual.$_2$, Qual$_1$, Dem
3. It, Qual$_1$, Dem, naʔ^{B} nak^{B} kɯɯɪ^{A}, Qual$_2$, Qt
4. It, Qual$_1$, Qual$_2$, Qt, Dem
5. Qt., ten^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C}, It, Qual$_1$, Qual$_2$, Dem

The functors are:

1. naʔ^{B} 'an emphatic word'- placed after the Demonstrative to give a strong emphasis on words preceding that Demonstrative.
2. nak^{B} 'relative marker' –functions as a connector for the embedding nominal clause modifies the head noun /chɔɔ^{C}/ 'dog' while /kɯɯɪ^{A}/ 'be'is its verb.

3. ten^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C} ‘ only that (amount)’- placed after the Quantity to limit and emphasize the number.

Restrictions on the co-occurrence of the elements are :

1. Numeral in the Quantity position will usually be followed by a classifier, except for /muuj^{C}/ ‘one’ which can occur with or without a classifier.
2. The Head noun must be in the first position.
3. The Demonstrative must be in the final position.

4.3 Verb phrases

Verb phrases, as semantic units, describe action or states. Surface constructions that we call verb phrases are most often manifestations of actions or states.

A semantic verb phrase consists of a main action, plus other elements that tell us more about the nature of the action; not the participants (noun phrases), nor the participants as they act (clause), but just action itself, though some elements of the semantic verb phrase may be in other structural positions, and noun phrase or clause semantic elements may appear in the structural verb phrase.

A structural verb phrase consists of the main verb plus the other elements that are structurally bound to it.

4.3.1 Basic structure of verb phrases

A structural verb phrase generally requires the presence of a verb or verb-like elements as its head and there may be other elements directly modifying it. The modifying elements mostly are not separated from the main verb.

Verb phrases contain slots like main verb, tense, general subject, aspect, phase, directedness, modality, activity type, negation and the like. These slots tend to be filled by classes such as verbs, auxiliaries, affixes, particles, adverbs, and the like.

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

VP = (± Neg : neg) * ± Pre Mod : modal / asp + MV : v ± Post Mod : adv./ modal /asp

That is, an optional Negation position filled by /koh^{A}/ 'not', an optional Pre Modifier position filled by a modal (Sec.5.3.8), an aspect (Sec.5.3.9), an obligatory Main verb position filled by a verb (Sec.5.3.10), and an optional Post Modifier position filled by an adverb (Sec.5.3.11), a modal , or an aspect.

Verb phrases in Samre can be divided into active verb phrase, descriptive verb phrase, and copula verb phrase. These phrases differ from one another in their main verb, their potential expansions, and the clause types in which they function.

4. 3.1.1 Active verb phrase

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

The elements of the active verb phrase are :

VP.ac. = (± Neg : koh^{A})± Pre Mod_4 : $modal_1$ ± Pre Mod_3 : asp_1 ± Pre Mod_2 :
asp_2 ± Pre Mod_1 : $modal_2$ + MV : v_{active} ± Post Mod_1 : adv
±Post Mod_2 : $modal_3$ ± Post Mod_3 :asp_3

That is, an optional Negation position filled by /koh^{A}/ 'not', an optional Pre $Modifier_4$ position filled by a $modal_1$ (Sec.5.3.8.1), an optional Pre $Modifier_3$ position filled by an $aspect_1$ (Sec.5.3.9.1), an optional Pre $Modifier_2$ position filled by an $aspect_2$ (Sec.5.3.9.2), an optional Pre $Modifier_1$ position filled by a $modal_2$ (Sec.5.3.8.2), an obligatory Main verb position filled by an active verb, and an optional Post $Modifier_1$ position filled by an adverb, an optional Post $Modifier_2$ position filled by a $modal_3$ (Sec.5.3.8.3), and an optional Post $Modifier_3$ position filled by an $aspect_3$ (Sec.5.3.9.3).

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* There may be negation of the main verb or negation of a modifier thus the position of the negative word is movable; that is, it can precede either the Pre Modifier (s) or the main verb.

There can be more than one pre-modifier and one post-modifier in the same verb phrase. In this dialect five slots of Pre Modifiers and three of the Post Modifiers have been found in a verb phrase string.

The normal order of the elements is Pre Mod – MV – Post Mod

1. (kac^{A}) naa^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} ʔuuc^{C} ciiw^{A} (muəŋ^{B} nɔɔ^{A})
   (S) modal$_1$ asp$_2$ MV (adv. fp.)
   (you) should will take go (together fp.)
   '(You) should take (it with you)!'

2. (chan^{C}) koh^{A} kəəj^{A} taŋ^{A} (kac^{A} ləəj^{C})
   (S) neg asp$_2$ MV (O fp.)
   I not used to see (you fp.)
   '(I) have not seen you before.'

/ta-/ is a prefix which may attach with a verb root and it usually occurs together with /thən^{C}/ -- an aspect$_2$ which implies 'past immediate' as in example 3.

3. (ʔiɲ^{A}) thən^{C} tataŋ^{A} (kac^{A}) khaneen^{A} ʔan^{A} ʔeeŋ^{C}
   (S) asp$_1$ MV (O) (time fp.)
   (I) just see (you) (at this moment fp.)
   '(I) have just seen (you) (as of this moment.)'

4. (kac^{A}) taaɹ^{C} khɹaaŋ^{B} ʔiin^{A} (tuk^{B}jaaŋ^{C} bɔɔ^{C})
   (S) MV (O) modal$_3$ (adv. q.Mk)
   (you) drink alcohol can (all thing q.Mk.)
   'Can (you) drink (all kinds of) alcohol?'

The aspect$_1$ and aspect$_2$ can occur together in a verb phrase to specific the phase of time of the action: for example;

5. (hiəŋ^{A}) kamlaŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} wat^{B} (khaneen^{A} ʔan^{A} nən^{C})
   (S) asp$_1$ asp$_2$ MV loc (time fp.)
   (we-inclu.) progres. will go temple (at this moment fp.)
   '(We) are going to the temple (right now).'

The aspect$_3$ /həəj^C/ 'completive aspect' usually occurs in complementary distribution with the aspect$_2$: /nɔɔŋ^B/ or the aspect$_1$ /kamlaŋ^A/ which imply 'progressive aspect.' And it can occur together with aspect$_2$.

/həəj^C/ to indicate 'completive aspect.' But in some sense, rarely occurring, the speaker may intend to mix two types of aspects /kɯəp^C/ and /həəj^C/ in order to express subjunctive mood.

6. (khuuŋ^A) kɯəp^C nɔɔŋ thiək^B həəj^C
   (S) asp$_1$ asp$_2$ MV asp$_2$
   (father) almost will sleep already
   '(Father) almost had been asleep already'

Some words in Samre can occur in different slots and their function change depending on which position they occur in. For example ciiw^A 'go' may occur as the main verb (as in example 7), and it may occur as a modifier to indicate direction (as in example 8) and it occurs as a member of the verb serialization (as in example 9).

7. (poo^B) nɔɔŋ^B ciiw^A (jaaŋ^C pii^C)
   (S) asp$_2$ MV (Q.W)
   (you) will go how
   'How will (you) go?'

8. (ʔiŋ^A) boɹ^A ciiw^A (naʔ^B ʔeeŋ^C)
   (S) MV dir (emp. fp.)
   (I) run go
   '(I will) run (there).'

9. (poo^B) ciiw^A ʔuuc^C jip^A (rəəw^B rəəw^B naa^A)
   (S) MV serial (adv. adv. fp.)
   (you) go take come quick quick
   'Take (it) back (very quickly)!'

10. (poo^B) koh^A naa^B nɔɔŋ^B klaa^B klap^A tɔŋ^A (nuən^A)
    (S.) neg modal$_1$ asp$_2$ modal$_2$ MV loc refl.Mk
    (you) not likely will dare return home by yourself
    '(You) are not likely dare to return home by yourself (I think).'

11. (ʔaj^{C} bɔɔn^{A}) kɯəp^{C} ʔuuc^{C} jip^{A} ʔiin^{A} həəj^{C}

(S) asp$_1$ MV modal$_3$ asp$_3$

(address. Ball) nearly take come can already

'(Ball) would have nearly taken (it) back .'

12. (ʔiŋ^{A}) kəəj^{B} ciiw^{A} həəj^{C}

(S) asp$_2$ MV asp$_3$

(I) used to go already

'(I) used to go (there).'

The Table 9 shows the position of the Pre-Modifier and Post-Modifier elements when occur together in a row.

TABLE 9: Co-occurrence of Pre Modifiers and Post Modifiers in an active verb phrase

+5	+4	+3	+2	+1	MV	-1	-2	-3
Neg	Modal$_1$	Asp$_1$	Asp$_2$	Modal$_2$	MV	Adv.	Modal$_3$	Asp$_3$.
	naa^{B}		nɔɔŋ^{B}		ciiw^{A}	ɹap^{B} caaŋ^{B}	ʔiin^{A}	
	naa^{B}		nɔɔŋ^{B}		tɔɔ^{B}		khah^{A}	həəj^{C}
koh^{A}			kəəj^{A}		ciiw^{A}	thiəw^{A}		
	khoŋ^{C}		kəəj^{A}		ciiw^{A}		kɔɔmaŋ^{A}	
		kamlaŋ^{A}			ciiw^{A}	ŋɔk^{A}		
		kɯəp^{C}			ʔuuc^{C}	jip^{A}	ʔiin^{A}	həəj^{C}
	khoŋ^{C}			sɔɔŋ^{C}	thiək^{B}	liŋ^{B}		
		kamlaŋ^{A}	nɔɔŋ^{B}		taap^{B}	jip^{A}		
		naan^{A}			tɔɔ^{B}		ʔiin^{A}	ɹɯəj^{B} ɹɯəj^{B}
		kamlaŋ^{A}		sɔɔŋ^{C}	chaa^{A}			
koh^{A}	naa^{B}		nɔɔŋ^{B}	klaa^{B}	ciiw^{A}	nuən^{A}		

Remarks on the Table 9:

1. There can be 3 types of Pre Modifiers, they are negation, modal, and aspect, and 3 types of Post Modifiers: adverb, modal and aspect. The maximum items are 4 in the Pre Modifier position (as in example 10.) and 3 in the Post Modifier position (as in example 11.).
2. The negation word- /koh^{A}/ 'not'- can change its position so that it can precede any Pre-verb modifier or precede the main verb.
3. The minimum item in both Pre Modifier and Post Modifier position is one (as in example 12).

4.3.1.2 Descriptive verb phrase

The descriptive verb phrase functions in the Predicate position of the descriptive clauses.

The elements of the descriptive verb phrase are :

VP.des. = ± Neg : /koh^{A}/ ± Pre Mod$_3$:modal ± Pre Mod$_2$:asp$_1$ ± Pre Mod$_1$:asp$_2$ + MV : v$_{des.}$ ± Post Mod$_1$: asp$_3$ ± Post Mod$_2$: emp ± Post Mod$_3$: inten

That is, an optional Negation position filled by /koh^{A}/ 'not', an optional Pre Modifier$_3$ position filled by a modal$_1$ or modal$_2$, an optional Pre Modifier$_2$ position filled by an aspect$_1$, an optional Pre Modifier$_1$ position filled by an aspect$_2$, an obligatory Predicate position filled by a descriptive verb (Sec.5.3.10.3), and a Post Modifier$_1$ position filled by an aspect$_3$, an optional Post Modifier$_2$ position filled by an emphatic word, and an optional Post Modifier$_3$ position filled by an intensifier.

The descriptive verb phrase differs from the active verb phrase in the number of Pre Modifier and Post Modifier it takes. That is the modals can occur only in one slot in the Pre Modifier position and never occur in the Post Modifier position. In addition, the adverb slots have never found in the string. In the Post Modifier positions, an emphatic and an intensifier usually occur in this verb phrase.

The normal order of the elements is: Pre Mod. – MV – Post Mod

1.	(tuəj^{C} naa^{A})	(puək^{C}	hiəŋ^{A})	kəəj^{B} ʔɔt^{A} con^{A} naʔ^{B} nəj^{C}	
	(time)	(S.)	asp$_2$	v.	adv

(in former time) (we-inclu.) used to poor verymuch
'(In former time, (we) used to be very very poor.'

2. (thən^{C} tɛɛ^{B} kɯɯɹ^{A} tih^{B} kɹuŋtheep^{C} naa^{A})
pp.temp. stay at Krungthep fp.
(jaaj^{B} can^{A}) ʔuən^{B} mɛɛn^{B} mɛɛn^{B} (naa^{A})
(subj.) v. inten inten. (fp.)
(address Can) fat real real
'(Since Mrs.Chan has been staying in Bangkok), (she) is really fat.'

3. (chanɯn^{A} plaa^{B} ʔaj^{C} mak^{A}) naan^{A} koh^{A} chɯh^{A} (hɔɔ^{C})
(S) asp$_1$ neg v. (fp)
(wife new address. Mak) still not old
'(Mr.Mak's new wife) is still not old.'

4. (hiəŋ^{A}) kamlaŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ɹuəj^{C} (wəəj^{A})
(S) asp$_1$ asp$_2$ v. (fp)
(we) progres will rich
'(We) are going to be rich.'

5. (hiəŋ^{A}) naa^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} ɹuəj^{C} (wəəj^{A})
(S) modal$_1$ asp$_2$ v. (fp)
(we) likely will rich
'(We) are likely to be rich.'

Remark:

The position of the negation word /koh^{A}/ can change in the same way as its occurrence in the active verb phrase.

4.3.1.3 Copula verb phrase

The copula verb phrase functions in the predicate position of equational clauses.

The elements of the copula verb phrase are :

VPcop = ± Neg : koh^{A} ± Pre Mod$_3$:modal ± Pre Mod$_2$:asp$_1$ ± Pre Mod$_1$:asp$_2$
+ MV : v$_{cop}$ ± Post Mod$_1$: asp$_3$

That is, an optional Negation position filled by /koh^{A}/ 'not', an optional Pre Modifier$_3$ position filled by a modal$_1$ or modal$_2$, an optional Pre Modifier$_2$ position filled by an aspect$_1$, an optional Pre Modifier$_1$ position filled by an aspect$_2$, an obligatory Main verb position filled by /pen^{A}/ 'to be',and an optional Post Modifier$_1$ position filled by an aspect$_3$.

The copula verb phrase differs from the active verb phrase and other verb phrases in the number of Pre Modifier and Post Modifier it takes.

1. (maluəŋ^{B} ʔan^{A}) kamlaŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} pen^{A} (khɹuu^{B})
   (It$_1$) asp$_1$ asp$_2$ v It$_2$
   (man this) progress. will be teacher
   '(This man) is going to be a teacher.'

2. (maluəŋ^{B} ten^{B}) kəəj^{B} pen^{A} (khɹuu^{B}) kuəj^{C} həəj^{C}
   (It$_1$) asp$_2$ v (It$_2$ adv.) asp$_3$
   (man that) used to be teacher (a long time) ago
   '(That man) used to be a teacher (long time ago).'

3. miŋ^{A} koh^{A} kəəj^{B} pen^{A} (khɹuu^{B} hɔɔ^{C})
   (It$_1$) neg asp$_2$ v (It$_2$ fp.)
   (mother) not used to be (teacher)
   '(Mother) has never been a teacher.'

4. (maluəŋ^{B} ten^{B}) naa^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} pen^{A} (khɹuu^{B}) ʔiin^{A}
   (It$_1$) modal$_1$ asp$_2$ v (It$_2$) asp$_3$
   (man) that likely will be teacher able
   '(That man) is likely to have an ability to be a teacher.'

4.3.2 Compounding

Verbs or verb phrases may be compounded together to fill a single structural slot in a clause. Semantically this compounding may be contrastive, alternative, additive or equivalent.

Equivalent compounding is the use of synonyms or near-synonyms may be compounded, or sometimes there may be identical repetition. In Samre the second item of near-synonyms is sometimes an empty or near-empty morph, often rhyming.

saŋaat^{B} saŋəəj^{A}	' to be bored'	(near-synonyms)
ka?eeŋ^{A} ka?eeŋ^{A}	'diligent (inten.)'	(repetition)

Addition compounding is sometimes called verb serialization. Two verbs that are in a close-knit sequence are put together in a slot, such as:

ciiw^{A} ŋɔk^{B}	' to visit'
ciiw^{A} thiəw^{A}	' to travel'
ciiw^{A} thuəc^{A}	' to see'
ciiw^{A} taap^{B}	' to send for'
ciiw^{A} suun^{B}	'to send'

4.3.3 Functions of verb phrases

4.3.3.1 At clause rank

A verb phrase is the normal filler of the Predicate position in a clause.

1. khɪaa^{A} ?an^{A} ciiw^{A} nii^{C}
   way this go where
   'Where does this way go?'

2. ?iŋ^{A} pen^{A} lom^{C} ŋec^{B} ləəj^{C}
   I be faint fall fp.
   'I was faint (so that I) fell down.'

4.3.3.2 At higher ranks

Verb phrases occur not infrequently in nominalized form as the title for a discourse.

ləək^{B} tɔŋ^{A}	'Building a house'
dah^{A} sɪɛɛ^{A}	'Rice Farming'

4.3.4 Semantic elements

The semantic and pragmatic elements in a verb phrase may be divided into normal content elements, content elements from other ranks, semantic prosodies, and presupposed encyclopedia.

4.3.4.1 Semantic content

The normal semantic content of verb phrases may be roughly divided into actions (usually main verbs), modals, aspects, directions, manner.

Actions are elements such as /ciiw^{A}/ 'go' /boɹ^{A}/ 'run' /chaa^{A}/ 'eat' /thiək^{B}/ 'sleep' etc. These notions form the core of a verb phrase.

Activity types may be divided into actions, states, and processes.

Aspect tells us about the internal timing of the action, such as /kamlaŋ^{A} ciiw^{A}/ 'be going' (continuative); /tɔɔ^{B} ɹuəc^{B}/ 'have done already'(terminative), etc.

Direction indicates motion toward or away from a center of attention, such as /taaŋ^{C} jip^{A}/ 'pull back', /ɹun^{C} ciiw^{A}/ 'push away', etc.

Modal talks about the Subject's relationship to the action, such as /ʔiin^{A}/ 'can' (ability), /tɔɔŋ^{B}/ 'must' (necessity), etc.

4.3.4.2 Semantic prosodies

Emphasis is naturally (unmarked) on the main verb, but it may be shifted to any other element in the phrase.

ʔiŋ^{A}	ciiw^{A}	ʔiin^{A}		' I can go'
poo^{B}	koh^{A}	tɔɔŋ^{B}	ciiw^{A}	'You must not go.'
poo^{B}	tɔɔŋ^{B}	ciiw^{A}		'You must go'

4.3.4.3 Presupposed encyclopedia

Presupposed (usually unstated) knowledge about a verb phrase would include structural, contextual, cultural, and universal knowledge. The speaker assumes that his listener knows things like this. Some groups of verbs have similar meanings, but the native speakers have ability to use them in appropriate contexts.

kɔŋ^{A}	'to carry something (with one shoulder) '
piiw^{A}	'to carry something by the two hands '
pɔɔ^{A}	'to carry (a child) by one's side '

4.4 Minor phrases

Other phrase types occur, usually filling slots in noun phrases or verb phrases. Indeed, it can be taken as a general principle that almost any slot that can be filled by a single morpheme can also be filled by expansions of that morpheme. Particles and conjunctions are exceptions to this rule.

4.4.1 Adverb Phrase

Adverb phrase functions in the Manner position of clauses.

The elements of the adverb phrase are :

AP = ± Pre Mod : adv.Mk +H : adv. ± Post Mod$_1$: emp
± Post Mod$_2$: inten

That is, an optional Pre Modifier position filled by an adverb marker, an obligatory Head position filled by an adverb, and an optional Post Modifier$_1$ position filled by an emphatic word and an optional ± Post Modifier$_2$ position filled by an intensifier.

1. (naa^{C} masii^{C} ʔiin^{A} kasɯm^{C} jip^{A} tih^{B} wat^{B}) <u>kaaŋ^{C} kuəɹ^{C}</u> (ləəj^{C})
adv. (fp.)
(yesterday) have people come at temple many many (fp.)
'(Yesterday, there were such a lot of people coming to the temple.'

2. (thit^{A} jim^{C} sɯk^{A}) <u>kuəj^{C} kuk^{A}</u> (həəj^{C})
adv. (fp.)
(address. Yim leave the monk-hood) long very ago
'(Mr. Yim had left the monk-hood) very long time ago.'

3. (ʔaj^{C} buə^{A} boɹ^{A}) jaaŋ^{C} chiəw^{B} (ləəj^{C})
adv.Mk adv. (fp.)
(address. Bua run) quickly
'(Mr. Bua runs) quickly.'

4.4.2 Prepositional Phrase

The prepositional phrase also called relator-axis phrases consist of a preposition and a noun phrase. It functions in the Relator position and sometimes in the Object position of clauses, and in the Possessor and Modifier position of noun phrases.

Prepositional phrases are marked by the presence of a preposition at the initial position of the phrase.

The general structure of a prepositional phrase may be diagrammed as :

PP = ± Rel : prep. + H : np

That is, an optional Relator position filled by a preposition, and an obligatory Head position filled by a nominal phrase.

Structurally, prepositional phrases may be divided into two types according to the prepositions that fill in the Relator position.

4.4.2.1 Prepositional locative phrase

The prepositional locative phrase functions in the Locative position of clauses. Sometimes, it also functions as a place modifier in the nominal phrase.

The structure of a prepositional locative phrase can be diagrammed as:

$PP._{loc.}$ = ± Rel : $prep._{loc.}$ + H : np.

That is, an obligatory Relator position filled by a prepositional location, and obligatory Head position filled by a nominal phrase indicating destination or source, or a nominal phrase.

1. ɹee^{C} tɔŋ^{A} kɯt^{A} laŋ^{C} ten^{B} (ʔiin^{A} kasɯm^{C} kɯɯɹ^{A} tamuuj^{C})
   pp.loc np v_{des1}. class. that (existence-clause)
   in house big class. that (have human be only one)
   'In that big house (there is only one person).'

2. (ʔiɲ^{A} paak^{B} ɹot^{A}) naa^{C} talaat^{B} bɔɔraj^{C} (ciiw^{A} sɛɛntuŋ^{C})
   (subj. v. vehicle) pp.loc. np. (dir. place)
   (I get on (bus) at market Bo-rai (go Saentung)
   '(I get on a bus) at Bo-rai Market (to go to Saentung).'

3. hiəŋ^{A} ciiw^{A} ɲaaj^{C} pasaa^{A} samɹee^{A} tih^{B} tɔŋ^{A} tom^{C} non^{A}
   (S v. serial adv) pp.loc np
   we go speak language Samre at house uncle Non
   'We go to speak the Samre language at the house of Uncle Non.'

4.4.2.2 Prepositional temporal phrase

The prepositional temporal phrase functions in the Temporal position of clauses.

The structure of a prepositional temporal phrase can be diagrammed as:

$PP._{temp.} = \pm$ Rel. : $pp._{temp.}$ + H : np.

That is, an optional Relator position filled by a temporal preposition, and obligatory Head position filled by a nominal phrase indicating time.

1. thən^{C} dəəm^{A} (tɔŋ^{A} kɯɯɹ^{A} sɹuk^{A} nii^{C})
   pp.temp. np. (S v. np. q.Mk)
   from the beginning (house be village where)
   'Since the beginning (where had the house been located?)'

2. (khaniiw^{C} klap^{A} cak^{B} ɹooŋriən^{C}) ɹaaw^{C} phee^{C} phuun^{C} mooŋ^{A}
   (S v. pp.loc np.) pp.temp. np.
   (children return from school) about three four o'clock
   '(Children return from school) about three or four o'clock.'

Temporal phrase is commonly used without any preposition as in example 3 and 4.

3. (khiin^{A} saliəŋ^{B} naʔ^{B}) sak^{A} (kɔʔ^{B} jip ^{A}) laa^{B} laa^{B} (kɔʔ^{B} jip^{A})
   (S emp.) np. (then . v) np. (then. v.)
   (child female emp.) morning then come evening evening then come
   '(The daughter) comes many times a day, even in the morning and in the evening.'

4. paaŋ^{B} (ʔiɲ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} pɹii^{B} naa ^{A})
   np. (S modal$_1$ v place. fp.)
   tomorrow (I will go forest fp.)
   'Tomorrow (I will go to the forest).'

4.4.2.3 Benefactive phrase

The benefactive phrase functions in the Relator Slot which filled by a benefactive marker and a noun or a pronoun to show recipient of the verb.

The structure of a benefactive phrase can be diagrammed as:

$PP._{bene.} = + Rel : pp._{bene.} + H : np.$

That is, an obligatory Relator position filled by a benefactive marker preposition, and obligatory Head position filled by a nominal phrase. time.

1. (miɲ^{A} thɛc^{A} ʔaw^{A}) ʔuək^{C} chan^{C}
   (S V DO) bene.Mk. IO
   (mother cut shirt) for me
   '(Mother cut a shirt) for me.'

2. (tom^{C} thɔɔt^{B} tuŋ^{A} liək^{A}) ʔuək^{C} hiəŋ^{A}
   (S V DO) bene.Mk IO
   (aunt fry egg chicken) for us
   '(Aunt fried chicken eggs) for us.'

4.4.2.4 Possessive phrase

The possessive phrase functions in the Relator Slot which filled by a possessive marker and a noun or a pronoun to show possession relationship.

The structure of a possessive phrase can be diagrammed as:

$PP._{poss.} = + Rel. : pp._{poss.} + H : np.$

That is, an obligatory Relator position filled by a possessive marker preposition, and obligatory Head position filled by a nominal phrase.

1. (miŋ^{A} dak^{A} ʔaw^{A}) khɔɔŋ^{C} chan^{C}
   (S V DO) poss.Mk. IO
   (mother wear shirt) of mine
   '(Mother wears a shirt) of mine.'

2. (tom^{C} tiiw^{B} tuŋ^{A} liək^{A}) khɔɔŋ^{A} hiəŋ^{A}
   (S V DO) poss.Mk IO
   (aunt buy egg chicken) of us
   '(Aunt bought chicken eggs) of us.'

4.4.2.5 Relational phrase

The relational phrase functions in the Relator Slot which filled by a relative marker and a noun or a pronoun to show some relationship between the participants, such as instrumental relationship, etc.

The structure of a relational phrase can be diagrammed as:

$RP = + Rel. : pp._{rel.} + H : np.$

That is, an obligatory Relator position filled by a relational marker preposition, and obligatory Head position filled by a nominal phrase.

1. (miŋ^{A} thɛc^{A} ʔaw^{A}) nɔɔŋ^{B} takɪaj^{C}
   (S V DO) rel.Mk instru
   (mother cut shirt) with scissors
   '(Mother cut a shirt) with scissors.'

2. (tom^{C} kɯɯɹ^{A} palɨŋ^{A} tɔŋ^{A}) nɔɔŋ^{B} ʔɔk^{A}

(S V pp n) rel.Mk identical-place relationship

(aunt live on house) with grandmother

'(Aunt lives on the house) with our grandmother.'

CHAPTER V

Word Formations

5.1 Definition

The word level is the level next below the phrase level in the hierarchy. Words are used for a unit which is written with a space before and after it. They usually represents a useful compromise between phonetic and syntactic factors.

Morphemes are the smallest meaningful forms in a language. They are the basic building blocks of grammar. Each of them has a meaning and cannot be further split apart. Structurally, morphemes may be classified according to syllable or word types. Morphemes sometimes have significant internal structuring, notably, free morpheme (a simple word) or bound morpheme (an affix).

5.2 Word Types

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

5.2.1 Simple words

A simple word may consist of one or more syllables.

Simple nouns with one syllable: for example,

pɹii^{B}	'forest'	taak^{C}	'water'
thiim^{C}	'tree'	chii^{A}	'lice'
liək^{A}	'chicken'	kiɲ^{C}	'oil'

Simple nouns with two syllables

takaaŋ^{A}	'moon'	kajaaŋ^{A}	'turtle'
paniim^{C}	'mouth'	tawaaɹ^{B}	'door'
kanuət^{B}	'rice'	katuk^{A}	'back'

5.2.2 Affixation

An affix is pheripheral bound morpheme. The affixation found in Samre is not very productive. The prefix and infix are found in Samre.

5.2.2.1 Prefix

1. Prefix /pa-/ 'side' can be added in front of a preposition to form an adverb of place, for examples:

paliŋ^{A}	'above'
pataa^{A}	'beneath'
patakaa^{C}	'in front of'
patamun^{A}	'behind'
patiəŋ^{A}	'left-hand side'
patiiw^{A}	'right-hand side'
paɹee^{C}	'inside'
pakaaj^{C}	'outside'

2. Prefix /ta-/ can be added to the numeral /muuj^{C}/ which means 'only';

tamuuj^{C} 'only one'

or it can be added to a verb which means 'just', for example;

(ʔiŋ^{A} thən^{C}) taciiw^{A} '(I've) just go'

3. Prefix /sam-/ is a 'nominalized prefix added in front of a verb to form a noun.' Only these examples are found;

V		⇒	N	
bɔɔk^{B}	'to peel'	⇒	sambɔɔk^{B}	'a peel'
puk^{A}	'to be rotten'	⇒	sampuk^{A}	'a rotten wood'

4. Prefix /ma-/ 'human' is added in front of an adjective to form a noun (only two words are found).

Adj		⇒	N	
kluəŋ^{B}	'male'(for animal)	⇒	maluəŋ^{B}	'wife'
khɯn^{A}	'female'(for animal)	⇒	makhɯn^{A}	'husband'

5. Prefix /m̩-/ is a syllabic nasal which is added in front of an adjective to form a noun. The only one word found in the data is:

Adj		⇒	N	
buɪ^{B}	'drunken'	⇒	m̩buɪ^{B}	'poison'

5.2.2.2 Infix

the nasal infix /-aN-/ is added to a verb to form a noun

V		⇒	N	
khiit^{B}	'to comb'	⇒	chaniit^{C}	'a comb'
pɯk^{A}	'to blow'	⇒	phanɯk^{A}	'a fan'
kəəj^{A}	'to prop'	⇒	khanəəj^{A}	'a pillow'
boh^{A}	'to sweep'	⇒	kanoh^{A}	'a broom'
ɹah^{A}	'to rake'	⇒	kanah^{A}	'a rake'

Note : The order of insertion the nasal infix is:

1. The infix /- an -/ is added in the medial position of the word.
2. A voiced initial consonant becomes voiceless stop then a voiceless unaspirated initial stop changes to a voiceless aspirated stop.
3. /kh/ may fluctuates with /ch/ in the initial position of words.

5.2.3 Compounding

Compounding is the intermediate state of two or more free (such as /chaa^{A}/ 'eat'; /chɔɔ^{C}/ 'dog') or bound morphemes (such as /pa-/ 'side'; /sam-/

nominalized prefix') joining together to form a larger free morpheme. The meaning of the new free morpheme can easily be perceived from the meaning of each morpheme. Nouns and verbs are most commonly compounded.

5.2.3.1 Compound nouns

A compound noun consists of one or two simple nouns functioning as a single unit filled in the Head noun slot of a noun phrase (Sec.4.2). Forms of compound nouns are:

(1) N-N

1.	chanɯn^{A}	thiim^{C}	
	wife	trunk of the tree	'a major wife'
2.	paŋiɹ^{C}	lum^{C}	
	cheek	hole	'dimpled cheek'
3.	kluəŋ^{A}	kajaaŋ^{A}	
	bone	turtle	'collar bone'
4.	ʔic^{A}	ɹuəj^{C}	
	excrement	fly	'black spot'
5.	sanam^{A}	pɹii^{B}	
	medicine	forest	'herbal medicine'

(2) N-V

1.	kasɯm^{C}	klaa^{B}	
	human	brave	'a brave man'
2.	taak^{C}	klɔɔ^{A}	
	water	dip	'sauce'
3.	sɹuk^{A}	kəət^{A}	
	village	born	'hometown'

(3) N- Adj

1.	khanii^{C}	tɹɔŋ^{A}	
	sun	straight	'noon'
2.	kanuət^{B}	sadiit^{C}	
	paddy	light	'quick-maturing paddy'

(4) Generic N- Specific N

1. thiim^{C} luəŋ^{A}
   tree banana 'banana tree'
2. thiim^{C} sɹii^{B}
   tree banyan 'banyan tree'
3. khanii^{C} baaj^{A}
   sun not straight the head 'afternoon'

5.2.3.2 Compound Verbs

Two or more morphemes which are syntactically inseparable and function together as a simple verb are regarded as 'compound verbs.'

(1) V-V

1. thiək^{B} laŋiət^{B}
   sleep asleep 'as sleep'
2. saniək^{B} liŋ^{B}
   tease play 'to kid'
3. ciiw^{A} thiəw^{A}
   go travel 'travel'
4. kɹook^{B} thaaɹ^{A}
   rise stand 'to stand up'
5. piək^{B} jim^{C}
   laugh smile 'to laugh'

(2) V-N

1. kat^{B} tuuh^{A}
   hurt head 'to have a headache'
2. tɔɔ^{B} pleeŋ^{C}
   do song 'to sing a song'
3. cuuɹ^{A} khamuuc^{C}
   enter ghost 'to dwell in a medium'
4. chuuɹ^{A} phuut^{C}
   grow small-pox 'to vaccinate'

5.2.4 Reduplication

Reduplication is used to specialize or intensify the meaning of the base with a tendency to suggest plurality or emphasis. Samre reduplication may be described under three main categories: repetitive reduplication, euphonic alternation of rhyme syllable, semantic reduplication of synonyms.

5.2.4.1 Repetitive Reduplication

In Samre, a reduplication of free words are used for plurality or intensification:

ŋaɪ^{A}	ŋaɪ^{A}	
red	red	'very red'
thuu^{C}	thuu^{C}	
hot	hot	'very hot'
kuəj^{C}	kuəj^{C}	
slow	slow	'very slow'
ɹəəw^{B}	ɹəəw^{B}	
quick	quick	'very quick'
laʔeeŋ^{A}	laʔeeŋ^{A}	
diligent	diligent	'very diligent'
kaaɲ^{C}	kaaɲ^{C}	
much	much	'very much'

5.2.4.2 Euphonic Alternation of Rhyme Syllable

Euphonic alternation of rhyme syllable is a pair of bound morphemes which each part of them may not have a clear meaning itself so they have to go together as one word, for examples:

1. pii^{A} thoo^{C} ʔiŋ^{A} thiək^{B} takɹooŋ^{A} <u>kampɹah^{A} kampɹɛɛŋ^{C}</u>
   last night I sleep squirm

   sec^{A} sɛc^{A} thuu^{C} thuu^{C} nɔɔŋ^{B} koh^{A} sabaaj^{A}
   cold cold hot hot will not well
   'Last night I slept (fitfully) <u>tossing and turning</u> with chills and fever.'

2. ʔiɲ^{A} puŋ^{A} siə^{C} kaʔok^{A} kaʔuəɹ^{A} sɔɔŋ^{C} thaaj^{C}
   I diarrhea need excrete

   sɔɔŋ^{C} cuuc^{C} naa^{A}
   need vomit fp.
   '(I've) got diarrhea, and feel queasy, I needed to excrete and vomit.'

3. ʔiɲ^{A} saŋaat^{B} saŋəəj^{A} temthii^{A} koh^{A} sɔɔŋ^{C} soncaj^{A}
   I bore almost not need interested

   nak^{B} həəj^{C}
   him fp.
   'I really worn out that I can't be interested in his problem any- more.'

4. tuəj^{C} ʔiɲ^{A} kəəj^{B} ɹuəj^{C} naa^{A} ʔiɲ^{A} koh^{A}
   in the past I used to rich fp. I not
   ɲaaj^{C} labuʔ^{B} laban^{A} koo^{A}
   speak fp.
   'I am not exaggerating that in the past I used to be rich.'

5. ʔaj^{C} bɔɔn^{A} maaj^{C} chaa^{A} kamam^{B} kamoo^{B} naa^{A}
   address Ball not eat fp.

   chaa^{A} ʔam^{C} dii^{A} dii^{A} khɹee^{C} nak^{B} wəəj^{A}
   eat give good good shy he fp.
   'Ball! Don't eat gluttonously; eat properly. (You should be) shameful.'

6. ʔiin^{A} thiim^{C} suək^{C} paaɹ^{C} thiim^{C} kɯɯɹ^{A} patakaa^{C}
   have tree mango two trunk stay in front of

   wat^{B} kɯɯɹ^{A} kasɔɔk^{C} kasɛɛk^{C} ten^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C}
   temple stay that fp.
   'There is a narrow space between the two mango trees that standing in front of the temple.'

7. maaj^{C} ɲaaj^{C} salə?^{A} sala?^{A} naa^{A} ɲaaj^{C} mɛɛn^{B} mɛɛn^{B} naa^{A}
not speak fp. speak real real fp.
'Don't speak ignorantly, speak sensibly (only what you can prove).'

8. jaaj^{B} jɛɛ^{C} cɔɔp^{B} ciiw^{A} kacuk^{B} kacuj^{A} ciiw^{A} tih^{B} ciiw^{A}
address Jae like go go there go

ʔan^{A} ɹɯəj^{B} ɹɯəj^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C}
here regularly fp.
'Mrs. Jae is a busybody flitting here and there (all the time).'

9. jaaj^{B} naa^{A} taaɹ^{C} khɹaaŋ^{B} nak^{B} kɔʔ^{B} ɲaaj^{C} kalam^{C} kalɔɔj^{C}
address Naa drink alcohol she then speak

ŋan^{C} ʔeeŋ^{C}
that fp.
'Mrs. Naa drank alcohol then she spoke meaningless and nonsense like that.'

5.2.4.3 Semantic reduplication of synonyms

Semantic reduplication repeats the meaning of a morpheme but not its form. This is used to add emphasis. Though each word of a pair has similar meaning and each can stand alone, the co-existing of synonyms reveal more specific meaning than only one word. The examples are:

saniək^{C} liŋ^{B}
tease play 'to tease'

wəj^{B} dɔm^{A}
hit strike 'to strike'

pec^{A} kɔh^{A}
shatter break 'to break into pieces'

cah^{A} ɹuuc^{B}
hoe up weed 'to clear away'

nɛh^{A} taŋ^{A}
look see 'to look'

pɔh^{B} jah^{A}
dry arid 'arid'

Each expression consists of two words which coincide semantically. Some pairs of these can be reversed in order, such as;

kɔh^{A}	pec^{A}	
break	shatter	'to break into pieces'
taŋ^{A}	nɛh^{A}	
see	look	'to look'

5.2.4.4 Onomatopoeia

Many onomatopoeia words are reduplicated. But some are just single words, and others may be repeated two or three times. Those onomatopoeia words are individual sound symbolism.

kəək^{A} kəəŋ^{A} kəək^{C}	'sound of a hen'
ŋoop^{B} ŋoop^{B}	'sound of a frog'
kɯm^{C} kɯm^{C}	'sound of gnashing one's teeth when he was angry'
khiət^{B} khiət^{B}	'sound of gnashing one's teeth when he was very angry'
hɛʔ^{A} hɛʔ^{A}	'sound of one's laughing'
ŋooŋ^{C} ŋooŋ^{C}	'sound of a dog's barking'
ŋeek^{A} ŋeek^{A}	'sound of horse'
phluk^{A}	'sound of thing when falling down to strike the earth'

5.3 Functions and classes

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

Words may be divided according to their function into the following classes: noun, pronoun, demonstrative, preposition, numeral, classifier, negation, modal, aspect, verb, adverb, emphatic, intensifier, conjunction, question word, and final particle.

5.3.1 Noun

A noun functions in the Head position of a noun phrase (Sec.4.2). Nouns may indicate persons, animals, plants, objects, location, time, personal names. Nouns may be simple or compound or reduplicated. Nouns are an open class, and may be divided by their occurrence potential into the following subclasses: proper noun, common noun and time word.

5.3.1.1 Proper noun

The proper noun subclass consists of names functioning in the Head position of a noun phrase (Sec.4.2) and as vocatives. Its members are:

can^{A}	'Mrs. Can'
non^{A}	'Mr. Non'
sɹuk^{A} suək^{C}	'Ban Ma-muang'

5.3.1.2 Common Noun

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

(1) Human Noun

It consists of kinship terms (and nouns that semantically imply human) functioning in the Head position of a noun phrase (Sec.4.2) and as vocatives. Some members are:

ʔun^{C}	'grandfather or grandmother'	tom^{C}	'uncle, aunt' (older)
ʔɔk^{A}	'grandmother' (mother's mother)	khiin^{A}	'son or daughter'
makhɯn^{A}	'woman'	maluəŋ^{B}	'man'
khuuŋ^{A}	'father'	chuu^{A}	'nephew, niece'
miŋ^{A}	'mother'	khliŋ^{A}	'older brother or sister'
khaniiw^{C}	'child'	muut^{A}	'younger sibling'
khiin^{A} chamuək^{B}	'son-in-law	sanaa^{B}	'friend'
khiin^{A} poh^{A}	'stepson'	kasɯm^{C}	'person'
miŋ^{A} poh^{A}	'stepmother'	khuuŋ^{A} poh^{A}	'stepfather'
ʔuət^{C}	'great-grandfather,great-grandmother'		

The Thai kinship terms which are borrowed into the Samre language are:

pɔʔ^{A}	'father'
mɛʔ^{A}	'mother'
taa^{C}	'grandfather' (mother's father)
ʔaa^{A}	'father's younger sister or brother'
naa^{C}	'mother's younger sibling'
jaat^{B}	'cousin'

(2) Non-human noun

Non-human nouns may be animate and non-animate. Some members are:

Animate		**Non-animate**	
chɔɔ^{C}	'dog'	takaaŋ^{A}	'moon'
chiim^{C}	'bird'	tuŋ^{A}	'egg'
khuən^{C}	'rat'	kɛh^{A}	'pot'
miiɹ^{A}	'fish'	tɔŋ^{A}	'house'
kiət^{B}	'cockroach'	klɔŋ^{A}	'rice'

5.3.1.3 Time Word

A time word normally functions in the clause Temporal Slot. It is obvious that there are some expressions of time concerned with the position of the sun which we can observe in a day time, such as:

khanii^{C} ciŋ^{A}	'in the early morning (the sun is out)'
khanii^{C} ɹuuh^{A}	'in the late morning (the sun is high)'
khanii^{C} trɔŋ^{A}	'at noon (the sun is straight on one's head)'
khanii^{C} baaj^{A}	'in the afternoon(the sun move down)'
khanii^{C} laa^{B}	'in the evening (the sun is disappearing)'
khanii^{C} kalak^{A} pɹii^{B}	'in the late evening (the sun sets at the forest)'

paaŋ^{B}	'tomorrow'	ʔaaw^{A} wan^{A}	'today'
tuuh^{A} sak^{A}	'morning'	piithoo^{C}	'last night'

Some time words such as /nɯm^{B}/ 'year', /kaaŋ^{A}/ 'month' follow numerals when counted in contrast to common nouns which precede a numeral.

paaɪ^{C}	nɯm^{B}		chɔɔ^{C}	paaɪ^{C}	muuɪ^{A}
two	year		dog	two	class.
'two years'			'two dogs'		

Besides, there are Thai loan words or partly Thai (the underlined part) and Samre words used to indicate time, such as:

samaj^{A}	tuəj^{C}	'in the previous days'
wan^{A}	can^{A}	'Monday'
tɔɔn^{A}	sak^{A}	'in the morning'

5.3.2 Pronoun

A pronoun is normally used in referring to the interlocutors or substituting a noun already mentioned in a conversation. A pronoun functions in the Head position of a pronoun phrase, as a choice class in the possessive phrase and as the Relator in Relative clause. It is a closed class. Pronouns may be personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns and relative pronouns.

5.3.2.1. Personal pronoun

first person singular

ʔiŋ^{A} 'I' used by both male and female to friend or to the younger

chan^{C} 'I' used by both sexes to friend or to the older (more polite form than /ʔiŋ^{A}/)

first person dual (usage is the same as in the first person singular.)

hiəŋ^{A} 'we (inclusive)' used by both male and female to any person

jaŋ^{B} 'we (exclusive)' used by both male and female to any person

For example:

miɲ^{A} : ʔiɲ^{A} ciiw^{A} thiəw^{A} kaaɪ^{A} wat^{B} naa^{C} masii^{C}
mother : I go travel work temple yesterday
puək^{C} hiəŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} bɔɔ^{C}
group we (inclusive) will go q.Mk.
'I went to see the Temple festival yesterday, (but) will we go (today)?'

mii^{A} : thaa^{B} miɲ^{A} saŋaat^{B} həəj^{C} kɔʔ^{B} koh^{A} tɔɔŋ^{B}
Mii : if mother bore fp. then not must
ciiw^{A} puək^{C} jaŋ^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} nuən^{A}
go group we(exclusive) will go relf.Mk.
'If the mother is bored, you do not have to go; we (exclusive) will go ourselves.'

We (inclusive) in the first sentence includes the mother(who is the speaker) and the addressee, they are Mii (the son) and Saaw (the daughter). We (exclusive) in the second sentence refers to Mii and Saaw (both of them are included in a group as the speaker), but not the mother (the person being addressed).

first person plural (usage is the same as in the first person singular.)

/muu^{B}/ 'group' or /puək^{C}/ 'group' are plural markers which are borrowed from the Thai language. When they are placed immediately before those first person singular personal pronouns, the meanings become plural (more than two persons).

muu^{B} hiəŋ^{A} 'group of us (inclusive)' used by both male and female to any person

muu^{B} jaŋ^{B} 'group of us (exclusive)' used by both male and female to any person

puək^{C} hiəŋ^{A} 'group of us (inclusive)' used by both male and female to any person

puək^{C} jaŋ^{B} 'group of us (exclusive)' used by both male and female to any person

Second person singular

1. poo^{B} 'you' used by both sexes to friend, or to children
2. kac^{A} 'you' used by both sexes to friend, or to the older (more polite form than poo^{B})

These second person singular pronouns may be made plural by adding puək^{C}/ 'group', /muu^{B}/ 'group' in front of them.

puək^{C} poo^{B} 'you' used by both sexes to friend, or to children
puək^{C} kac^{A} 'you'used by both sexes to friend, or to the older
muu^{B} poo^{B} 'you'used by both sexes to friend, or to children
muu^{B} kac^{A} 'you'used by both sexes to friend, or to the older

The reciprocal use of the First person pronouns and the Second person pronouns.

1. ʔiŋ^{A} 'I' poo^{B} 'you'
2. chan^{C} 'I' kac^{A} 'you'

Third person both singular and plural

1. hiin^{A} 'it' used to refer to a younger person of both sexes or an animal
2. nak^{B} 'he' used to refer to an older person of both sexes (more polite form than /hiin^{A}/). It should be noted that this word can be used as a classifier for person as well. And sometimes it also used as a relative marker (see Sec. 5.3.2.3).

Sometimes /puək^{C}/ precedes /hiin^{A}/, /nak^{B}/ to make them plural. Those two third person pronouns are used with both sexes.

5.3.2.2 Demonstrative pronoun

Demonstrative pronouns can occur in a single filler of the Head slot of a noun phrase. They are /ʔan^{A}/ 'this', /kii^{C}/ 'that (for person)', /ten^{B}/ 'that (for thing)', for examples:

1. ʔan^{A} campii^{C}
   this what
   ' What (is) this?'

2. ʔan^{A} mphaa^{A}
this trionyx
'This (is a) trionyx.'

3. ten^{B} tɔŋ^{A} ʔiɲ^{A}
that house I
'That (is) my house.'

4. cɛʔ^{A} : taa^{A} hoŋ^{A} deɹ^{A} haap^{B} thaɹ^{A} poom^{A} kapaaw^{A} naʔ^{B}
address Hong who naked cloth watch buffalo emp.
'Mr. Hong, who was naked, was watching buffaloes.'

can^{A} : ʔɔɔ^{A} kii^{C} naʔ^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C} ʔiɲ^{A} cam^{A} ʔiin^{A} həəj^{C}
yes he emp. fp. I remember can fp.
'Oh! yes, I can remember him now.'

5.3.2.3 Relative pronoun

Relative pronouns function as pronoun and as relator in Relative clauses (Sec.3.2.3.3). The members in this subclass are very limited.

deɹ^{A} 'which, that' used with both human and non-human nouns
nak^{B} 'who, whom' used with human nouns or animate nouns.

Example:

1. ʔiɲ^{A} kamlaŋ^{A} tɔɔ^{B} kasaaŋ^{A} miiɹ^{A} deɹ^{A} khemnɔɔj^{C} ʔuək^{C} jip^{A}
I progres do scale fish rel.Mk. Khemnoj give come
'I am scraping scales of the fish that Khemnoj gave me.'

2. siiw^{B} deɹ^{A} miɲ^{A} tɔɔ^{B} pee^{C} nah^{A}
curry rel.Mk mother do dilicious very
'The curry that the mother cooked was very dilicious.'

3. saliəŋ^{B} ten^{B} nak^{B} jip^{A} cak^{B} nii^{C}
woman that rel.Mk. come from where
'Where does that woman come from?'

5.3.3 Demonstrative

A demonstrative functions in the Demonstrative position of a noun or pronoun phrase. It can also function in a Location position of peripheral clause elements. It is a close class consisting of only three words.

1. ʔan^{A} 'this'
2. ten^{B} 'that'
3. tih^{B} 'those'

No 1. is used when the speaker and the listener are close to the subject. Nos.2 and 3 are used when the subject is far from the speaker, but No.3 is used to show the farther distance.

Examples:

1. ʔaw^{A} ʔan^{A} miŋ^{A} thən^{C} taʔuək^{C} ʔiŋ^{A}
   shirt this mother just give I
   'The mother has just given to me this shirt.'

2. ʔɔk^{A} kɯɯɪ^{A} naa^{C} tɔŋ^{A} ten^{B}
   grand-mother sit at house that
   'Grand-mother stays at that house.'

3. tom^{C} ciiw^{A} taam^{A} khɪaa^{A} tih^{B}
   aunt go along way those
   'My aunt goes along that way (far away).'

5.3.4 Preposition

A preposition functions in the Relator position of a Relational phrase. According to the functional restrictions, there are 5 subtypes of preposition word class.

5.3.4.1 This subclass functions as Relator of the Prepositional locative phrase (Sec.4.2.3.3).

kaat^{C}	'near'	sanaaj^{C}	'far'
patakaa^{C}	'in front of'	patamuun^{C}	'at the back of'
tɔŋ^{A} daaɹ^{A}	'in the middle of'	pataa^{A}	'under'
paliɲ^{A}	'on'	patiəŋ^{A}	'left-hand side'
paɹee^{C}	'in'	cap^{B}	'close to, beside'
tih^{A}	'at'	naa^{C}	'at'

Some prepositions of this subclass are Thai loan words, such as:

khaaŋ^{A}	'side'	lawaaŋ^{C}	'between'

Example:

1. mii^{C} kɯɯɹ^{A} paɹee^{C} tɔŋ^{A}
   who stay inside house
   'Who is inside the house?'

2. nak^{B} jip^{A} cak^{B} sɹɛɛ^{A}
   he come from field
   'He came from the field.'

5.3.4.2 This subclass functions as Relator of Prepositional temporal phrase (Sec.4.4.2.2).

sadiəŋ^{C}	'after'	thən^{C}	'from'

Example:

khaniiw^{C} klap^{A} jip^{A} sadiəŋ^{C} ləək^{C} ɹiən^{C} həəj^{C}
child return come after finish learn fp.
'The child returns (home) after he has finished class.'

Some prepositions of this subclass are Thai loan words, such as:

kataŋ^{B}	'until'	ɹaaw^{C}	'about'

5.3.4.3 This subclass functions as Relator of the benefactive phrase (Sec.4.4.2.3) and it has three members.

ʔam^{C} 'for' ʔuək^{C} 'for'

A Thai loan word is used in this subclass that is :

phɯə^{C} 'for'

Example:

1. miɲ^{A} tɔɔ^{C} nom^{B} ʔam^{C} tuək^{A} tih^{A} talaat^{B}
   mother make sweet for sell at market
   'The mother makes sweets to sell at the market.'

2. miɲ^{A} tiiw^{B} khɔɔŋ^{A} ʔuək^{C} khiin^{A} kaaɲ^{C} jaaŋ^{C}
   mother buy thing for child many thing
   'Mother buys many things for the child.'

5.3.4.4 This subclass functions as Relator of the possessive phrase (Sec.4.4.2.4). It has only one member in this subclass and it is a Thai loan word.

khɔɔŋ^{A} 'of'

Example:

ʔaj^{C} ʔan^{A} khiin^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A} mii^{C}
address this child of whom
'Who is this child's parent?'

5.3.4.5 This subclass functions as Relator of the relational phrase (Sec.4.4.2.5). Its member is:

nɔɔŋ^{B} 'and, with'

Examples:

1. khliɲ^{A} liɲ^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} muut^{A} patakaa^{C} tɔŋ^{A}
   older-sibling play with younger-sibling in front of house
   'An older-sibling plays with a younger-sibling in front of the house.'

2. miŋ^{A} pɔɔ^{A} khaniiw^{C} ciiw^{A} thuəc^{A} mɔɔ^{B}
mother carry child go see doctor
'The mother carried the child to see the doctor.'

5.3.5 Numeral

Numerals function as Head in the Quantity position of a noun or pronoun phrase (Sec.4.2). The numeral word class is divided into the following subclasses: approximations, numerals and limitations.

5.3.5.1 Approximation

Approximations function in the Pre-Numeral position in the Numeral phrase. They cannot follow a number. This subclass has only three words and all of them are Thai loan words, they are:

ɹaaw^{C}	'about'	sɔk^{B}	'only'
thaŋ^{C}	'all'	kɯəp^{C}	'almost'

Examples:

ʔiŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} tiiw^{B} kakhoo^{A} sɔk^{B} muuj^{C} kiloo^{A}
I will buy rice only one kilogram
'I will buy only one kilogram of rice.'

5.3.5.2 Numeral

Numerals function as Head in the Quantity position of a noun or pronoun phrase (Sec.4.2). They usually occur immediately before a classifier, except for muuj ^{C} which can occur at the end of the clause without a classifier. They may be cardinal or ordinal numerals. Cardinal numerals in Samre are:

muuj^{C}	'one'	paaɹ^{C}	'two'
phee^{C}	'three'	phuun^{C}	'four'
phɹam ^{A}	'five'	katuəŋ^{B}	'six'
kanuuɹ^{B}	'seven'	katii^{A}	'eight'
kasaaɹ^{B}	'nine'	ɹaaj^{B}	'ten'

Examples:

1. nak^{B} ʔuək^{C} ʔiɲ^{A} chɔɔ^{C} paaɪ^{C} muuɪ^{A}
   he give me dog two class.
   'He gives me two dogs'

2. nak^{B} ʔuək^{C} ʔiɲ^{A} chɔɔ^{C} muuj^{C}
   he give me dog one
   'He gives me a dog.'

The numbers more than ten to nineteen are the combination of ten and one to nine.

ɪaaj^{B} muuj^{C} 'eleven'
ɪaaj^{B} paaɪ^{C} 'twelve'
ɪaaj^{B} phɪam^{A} 'fifteen'(usually pronounced as [ɣaaj^{B} tam^{B}]

The group of numbers which end with –ty are the combination of two to nine plus /-see^{A}/* 'ten'.

paaɪ^{C} - see^{A} 'twenty'
phee^{C} - see^{A} 'thirty'
muuj^{C} chuuh^{A} 'one-hundred'

There are some numbers which are the same as those in Standard Thai dialect, for example:

muuj^{C} pan^{A} 'a thousand'
muuj^{C} mɯɯn^{A} 'ten thousand'
muuj^{C} sɛɛn^{A} 'one-hundred thousand'
muuj^{C} laan^{C} 'a million'

Apart from numbers, this subclass includes the following words:

kaaɲ^{C} 'many'
muuj^{C} kic^{A} 'little'
muuj^{C} kic^{A} muuj^{C} kuuj^{C} 'a little bit'

*/-see/ '-ty' is a "suffix-like loan feature" because it is not an inherent feature of Samre affixation and it never found standing alone; it must attach to any numerals except for /muuj^{C}/ 'one' and /ɪaaj^{B}/ 'ten.'

Examples:

1. ʔiin^{A} kasɯm^{C} kaaŋ^{C} nak^{B} patakaa^{C} tɔŋ^{A}
   have people many class. in front of house
   'There are many people in front of the house.'

2. ʔiŋ^{A} ʔiin^{A} pɹak^{A} muuj^{C} kic^{A} muuj^{C} kuuj^{C}
   I have money a little bit
   'I have a little bit of money.'

And a Thai loan word tuk^{B} 'every' is also used by the Samre speakers. Besides, the ordinal numerals can be formed by placing the word / tii^{C}/ 'in order', which is borrowed from the Thai language, in front of the cardinal ones. For instance,

tii^{C} muuj^{C} 'first'
tii^{C} paaɹ^{C} 'second'

5.3.5.3 Limitation

Limitations indicate a maximum of the quantities occurring after the numerals. They are:

matih^{B} 'half'
kwaa^{B} 'over'

Examples:

1. ɹaaw^{C} matih^{B} liəŋ^{B} ʔaj^{C} lit^{A} ʔiin^{A} klap^{A} tɔŋ^{A}
   about half night address Lit then return house
   'About half of the night (was over) when Lit returned home.'

It should be noted that / kwaa^{B}/ is a Thai loan word.

5.3.6 Classifier

Classifiers function in the Quantity position of a noun or pronoun phrase (Sec.4.2). They are used to identify the shape and the size of nouns concerned when a number is present. Countable nouns are classifiable, uncountable nouns are

unclassifiable. But not all countable nouns have to be associated with a classifier even when a number is used.

There are four types of classifiers : specific classifiers, collective classifier, self-classifiers, and measures.

5.3.6.1 Specific classifier

A specific classifier is either a set of words or a set of nouns which are used temporarily as a classifier whose function is to classify the head nouns:

Classifiers		**Use with**	
mɔk^{B}	' a word'	ɲaaj^{C}	'speech'
muuɪ^{C}	'a unit'	phɪii^{A}	'fruits'
nak^{B}	'a body of men'	kasɯm^{C}	'human'
m̩ʔɔk^{A}	'a parcel'	m̩boɪ^{A}	'lime'
muuɪ^{A}	'a body of animals'	chɔɔ^{C}	'dog'
m̩pɔŋ^{C}	'shoot'	thiɲ^{C}	'bamboo shoot'

Examples are:

1. m̩boɪ^{A} paaɪ^{C} m̩ʔɔk^{A}
   lime two parcel
   'two parcels of lime'

2. phɪii^{A} thɪaa^{C} phɪam^{A} muuɪ^{C}
   fruit guava five class.
   'five guavas'

3. chɔɔ^{C} phuun^{C} muuɪ^{A}
   dog four class.
   'four dogs'

4. thiɲ^{C} phee^{C} m̩pɔŋ^{C}
   bamboo-shoot three class.
   'three bamboo-shoots'

5. khaniiw^{C} phee^{C} nak^{B} ciiw^{C} phiɲ^{C} miiɹ^{A}
   child three class. go to fish fish
   'The three children go fishing'

6. poo^{B} sɹii^{A} muuj^{C} mɔk^{B} ʔiɲ^{A} kɔʔ^{B} tɔɔp^{C} ciiw^{C} muuj^{A} mɔk^{B}
   you ask one word I then answer go one word
   'You ask me one word I then answer one word.'

Some classifiers are borrowed from the Thai language, such as:

laŋ^{C}	tɔŋ^{A}	'house'
lem^{B}	tiən^{B}	'candle'
lam^{A}	tɔk^{B}	'boat'
chɔɔ^{B}	paaŋ^{A}	'bundle'

5.3.6.2 Collective Classifier

puək^{C}	'group'	muu^{B}	'group'
kadap^{A}	'lump of rice'	katuəŋ^{B}	'bunch of banana'

Examples:

katuəŋ^{B} luəŋ^{A} ʔan^{A} ʔiin^{A} kaaɲ^{C} lalɛh^{A}
bunch banana this have many class.
'This bundle of banana has a lot of groups.'

5.3.6.3 Self-Classifier

Self-classifiers are a set of nouns used to classify themselves. These include nouns such as:

paaŋ^{A}	'flower'	tuŋ^{A}	'egg'
mat^{B}	'eye'	kalɔŋ^{C}	'tube'
thiim^{C}	'tree'		

Examples are :

1. paaŋ^{A} thiim^{C} buə^{A} paaɹ^{C} paaŋ^{A}
   flower tree Bua two class.
   'two of Bua flowers'

2. klɔŋ^{A} kalɔŋ^{C} katuəŋ^{B} kalɔŋ^{C}
   rice tube six class.
   'six of glutinous-rice tubes'

5.3.6.4 Measures are used to indicate the size, weight, length, height and depth of an object.

muuj^{C} hat^{A} 'a unit of length which equals an estimated distance straight from end of one's finger to his elbow'

muuj^{C} thaak^{A} 'a unit of length which equals an estimated distance from end of one's thumb to his middle finger'

muuj^{C} kiək^{A} 'a unit of length which equals an estimated distance from end of one's thumb to his index finger'

katɛh^{A} 'wagon' (equals 100 tin) used with rice.

lɯk^{B} 'time' used with any actions

Examples are:

1. kakhoo^{A} ɹaaj^{B} phɹam^{A} kiloo^{A} pen^{A} muuj^{C} thaŋ^{C}
   rice ten five kilograms equal one bucket
   'Fifteen kilograms of rice equals one bucket (of rice).'

2. sɹuk^{A} suək^{C} tɔɔ^{B} sɹɛɛ^{A} muuj^{C} nɯm^{B} muuj^{C} lɯk^{B} naʔ^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C}
   village mango do paddle-field one year one time emp. fp.
   'There is farming once a year in Ban Ma-muang.'

Some of units for measurement are the same as in the Thai language, such as:

muuj^{C} ɹaj^{B} 'measurement of land equals 1600 sqm.'

thaŋ^{C} 'bucket' (equals 15 kilograms) used with rice

muuj^{C} tiip^{C} 'tin'(equals 20 litres) used with rice

5.3.7 Negation

The negation word class functions as Pre Modifier of the verb phrase (Sec. 4.3) of statement and imperative clauses. There are only two members :

koh^{A}	'not' (used in the statement clause type)
koh^{A} koh^{A}	'not have' (used in the statement clause type)
naak^{C}	'not' (used to show contrastive relationship of the participants or actions in phrases or clauses)
maaj^{C}	'not' (used in the imperative clause type). This is a Thai loan word.

1. saliəŋ^{A} ten^{B} ʔiin^{A} kluəŋ^{B} həəj^{C} tɛɛ^{B} koh^{A} koh^{A} khiin^{A}
   woman that have husband fp but not have child
   'That woman has a husband but does not have a child.'

2. pluu^{A} ʔan^{A} naak^{C} siŋ^{B} jaaj^{B} baj^{A} naa^{A}
   leg this not foot address Bai fp.
   'This leg is not Mrs.Bai's (leg).'

5.3.8 Modal

A modal functions in the Pre-verb position and Post-verb position of an active verb phrase, a descriptive verb phrase and a copula verb phrase. This class of words shows the attitude of the speaker about the action. There are three subclasses of modals according to their distribution.

5.3.8.1 Modal$_1$

Modal$_1$ function in the Pre-verb position of an active verb phrase, a descriptive verb phrase and a copula verb phrase. This subclass implies the speaker's attitude about obligation, necessity, uncertainty, possibility. All of these words are Thai loan words (some may be a mixture of Samre and Thai words) and their function are the same as in the Thai language. They are:

khoŋ^{C}	'may'	naa^{B}	'likely to'
khuən^{C}	'should'	tɔɔŋ^{B}	'must'
nɛh^{A} muɯn^{C}	'seem'		

poo^{B} koh^{A} khuən^{C} kasic^{B} hɔɔ^{C}
you not ought to lazy fp.
'You should not be lazy.'

5.3.8.2 Modal$_2$

Modal$_2$ function in the Pre-verb position of an active verb phrase, a descriptive verb phrase and a copula verb phrase. This subclass implies the speaker's attitude about desire, attempt, brave; they are:

sɔɔŋ^C	'need'	saŋəət^B	'want'

Thai words are also borrowed into the Samre language, they are:

klaa^B	'dare'	haan^A	'dare'

ʔiɲ^A ŋkaap^B sɔɔŋ^C thiək^B həəj^C
I yawn need sleep fp.
'I have yawned and need to sleep now.'

5.3.8.3 Modal$_3$

Modal$_3$ function in the Post-verb position of an active verb phrase, a descriptive verb phrase and a copula verb phrase. This subclass implies the speaker's attitude about ability or uncertainty; they are:

khah^A	'having ability'	(ability)
ʔiin^A	'can'	(ability)
kamaŋ^A	'might'	(uncertain)

It should be noted that /kamaŋ^A/ is the Thai loan word. Though /ʔiin^A/ is not exactly the Thai loan word, it is also used in the same way as the word /daâj/ 'can' in Thai language.

1. poo^B chaa^A siiw^B canlaaŋ^B ʔiin^A bɔɔ^C
   you eat curry iguana can q.Mk.
   'Can you eat the iguana curry?'

2. mii^C khah^A laaw^B nithaan^A pasaa^A samɹee^A naac^B
   who can tell story language Samre some
   'Can someone tell stories in Same language?'

5.3.9 Aspect

An aspect functions in the Pre-verb position and the Post-verb position of an active verb phrase, a descriptive verb phrase and a copula verb phrase. This class of words indicates about the internal timing of the action (at that time). There are three subclasses of aspects according to their distribution.

5.3.9.1 Aspect$_1$

Aspect$_1$ function in the Pre-verb position of an active verb phrase, a descriptive verb phrase and a copula verb phrase. They specify whether the action is continuative, inceptive, durative, inactive; they are:

thən^C 'just' (inceptive aspect)
naan^A 'still' (durative aspect)

kanuət^B poo^B naan^A koh^A piŋ^A
rice you still not ripe
'Your rice is still not ripe.'

The Thai loan words used in this subclass are:

kamlaŋ^A 'to be in the action of' (continuative aspect)
kɯəp^C 'inactive aspect'

5.3.9.2 Aspect$_2$

Aspect$_2$ function in the Pre-verb position of an active verb phrase, a descriptive verb phrase and a copula verb phrase. They specify whether the action is prospective , volitive, or customary; they are:

nɔɔŋ^B 'will' (volitive aspect)
kəəj^B 'used to' (customary aspect)

It should be noted that kəəj^B is a Thai loan word.

1. ʔiŋ^A nɔɔŋ^B ciiw^A tiiw^B khɔɔŋ^A
I will go buy thing
'I will go to buy thing.'

2. poo^{B} kəəj^{B} ciiw^{A} suən^{A} sat^{A} bɔɔ^{C}
you used to go garden animal q.Mk.
'Have you ever been to the zoo?'

5.3.9.3 Aspect$_3$

Aspect$_3$ function in the Post-verb position of an active verb phrase, a descriptive verb phrase, and a copula verb phrase. They specify whether the action is repetitive, terminative or completive; they are:

ɹuəc^{B}	'finish' (terminative aspect)
həəj^{C}	'already' (completive aspect)
ɹuəc^{B} həəj^{C}	'finish already' (completive aspect)
thən^{C} ta-ɹuəc^{B} həəj^{C}	'just have finished' (immediate completive aspect)
ɹɯəj^{B} ɹɯəj^{B}	'so on' (repetitive aspect) (a Thai loan word)

kanuət^{B} poo^{B} thɯm^{A} ɹuəc^{B} həəj^{C}
rice you cook finish fp.
'Your rice has been cooked already.'

5.3.10 Verbs

Verbs are independent grammatical terms referring to a class as 'doing' or 'acting' words. They function in the verb Head position of an active verb phrase (Sec.4.3.1.1), a descriptive verb phrase (Sec.4.3.1.2), and an copula verb phrase (Sec.4.3.1.3).

There are subclasses of the verb class according to their occurrence in the Predicate position in each particular clause type previously discussed (Sec.3.2.1), they are:

5.3.10.1 Transitives

The transitive verb class functions as Nucleus of the active verb phrase in the transitive clause (Sec.3.2.1.1).

Examples:

chaa^{A}	'to eat or drink'	tɔɔ^{B}	'to do or work'
khat^{A}	'to bite'	taaɪ^{C}	'to drink'
wəj^{B}	'to hit'	taŋ^{A}	'to see'

5.3.10.2 Intransitives

The transitive verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the transitive clause (Sec.3.2.1.2). Some examples are:

jaam^{B}	'to cry'	thiək^{A}	'to sleep'
thaaɪ^{A}	'to stand'	luj^{A}	'to swim'
kɯɯɪ^{A}	'to sit'	piək^{B}	'to laugh'

5.3.10.3 Descriptives

The descriptive verb class functions as Nucleus of the descriptive verb phrase (Sec.4.3.1.2). It also functions as choice class as adverb in Post Modifier$_1$ position of the active verb phrase (Sec.4.3.1.1). There are two subclasses:

(1) Subclass 1

(V des$_1$) are the verbs that indicate inherent physical quality, they are for examples:

katiɲ^{C}	'thin(thing)'	dɯk^{A}	'thick'
ŋaɪ^{C}	'heavy'	wiit^{B}	'green'
ɲɛn^{C}	'kinky'	kɯt^{A}	'big'
kiin^{C}	'short'	khɯn^{A}	'female(used with animal)'

(2) Subclass 2

(V des$_2$) are the verbs that indicate non-inherent physical quality, some examples are:

meɲ^{C}	'beautiful'	chɯh^{A}	'old'
pee^{C}	'delicious'	chiin^{C}	'well-done cooking'
kasic^{A}	'lazy'	taak^{C}	'wet'
thuu^{C}	'hot'	laʔeeŋ^{A}	'diligent'

5.3.10.4 Bitransitives

The bitransitive verb class functions as Nucleus of the Predicate slot in a bitransitive clause (Sec.3.2.1.4). Some examples are:

ʔuuc^{C}	'to take'	thɛc^{A}	'to cut'
ʔuək^{C}	'to give'	tuək^{A}	'to sell'
tiiw^{B}	'to buy'		

5.3.10.5 Motion

The motion verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the motion clause (Sec.3.2.1.5). Some examples are:

ciiw^{A}	'to go, to walk'	jip^{A}	'to come'
klap^{A}	'to return'	boɪ^{A}	'to run'
lɔh^{B}	'to climb'	sawaak^{B}	'to walk'

5.3.10.6 Existence

The existence verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the existence clause (Sec.3.2.1.6). There is only one existence verb :

ʔiin^{A}	'to have, to exist'

5.3.10.7 Equational

The equational verb class functions as Nucleus of the copula verb phrase in the equational clause (Sec.3.2.1.7). All of these verb class are borrowed from Thai. Its members are:

kəət^{A}	'to be'
pen^{A}	'to be'
klaaj^{A} pen^{A}	'become'

5.3.10.8 Ambients

The ambient verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the ambient clause (Sec.3.2.1.8). Some examples are:

sɛc^{A}	'cold'	thuu^{C}	'hot'
saap^{C}	'light'	laac^{B}	'to thunder'

5.3.10.9 Location

The location verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the location clause (Sec.3.2.1.9). There is only one existence verb :

kɯɯɹ^{A}	'live'

5.3.10.10 Propulsion

The propulsion verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the propulsion clause (Sec.3.2.1.10). Some members are:

suun^{B}	'to send'	cɯh^{B}	'to ride'
ʔuuc^{C}	'to take'	pɔɔ^{A}	'to carry'

5.3.10.11 Quotatives

The quotative verb class functions as the main verb slot of Quotative clauses (Sec.3.2.1.11). Examples are :

sɹii^{A}	'to ask'	padam^{A}	'to order'
suəŋ^{C}	'to tell'	ɲaaj^{C}	'to speak'

5.3.10.12 Quantitatives

The quantitative verb class functions as Nucleus of the verb phrase in the quantitative clause (Sec.3.2.1.12). There is only one quantitative verb which is the Thai loan word:

lakhaa^{C}	'cost'

5.3.10.13 Comparative

Normally, the comparative verb class functions in the Predicate position in a comparative clause (Sec.3.2.1.13) the comparison of equality and the superlative degree can be filled by any verb phrases (Sec.4.3). However, it is found that /tiɲ^{C}/, /mɯn^{C}/ which functions as an equality marker can also function as a verb filled in the

Predicate position of the equality clause, provided that there is no other verb in the clause. For instance:

khiin^{A} mɯn^{C} khuuŋ^{A}
child look like father
'The son is look like his father.'

5.3.10.14 Causative

The causative verb class functions as Predicate of the causer position in a causative clause (Sec.3.4.2.1). Some causative verbs which frequently occur are:

tɔɔ^{B} 'to make' padam^{A} 'to order'

A causative word in Thai is used in the Samre too, that is /pen^{A} het^{C}/ 'to cause.'

khiin^{A} saliəŋ^{B} tɔɔ^{B} ʔam^{C} miŋ^{A} cɯt^{A}
child daughter make caus. Mk. mother angry
'The daughter makes her mother angry.'

5.3.11 Adverb

An adverb functions in the Head position of the adverb phrase (Sec.4.4.1) or in the Post Modifier$_1$ position in the active verb phrase (Sec.4.3.1.1).

Some of them are adverbs of manner such as:

kuəj^{C} 'slowly' ɹeew^{B} 'quickly'
ʔuwah^{A} 'greedily ' jaaŋ^{C} ken^{B} 'like that'

Some of them indicate repetition of action, such as:

plaa^{B} 'again'
pen^{A} pacam^{C} 'always' (a Thai loan word)

Some of them are similitive expression such as:

mɯn^{C} saa^{A} 'the same' muəŋ^{B} saa^{A} 'together'

Some of them are quantitative such as:

kaaŋ^{C}	'much, many'	kaaŋ^{C} kuəɹ^{C}	'a lot'
nah^{A}	'very'	nah^{A} nəj^{C}	'very much'
muuj^{C} lɯk^{A}	'one time'	muuj^{C} kic^{A}	'little'
muuj^{C} kic^{A} muuj^{C} kuuj^{C}	'very little'		
tuk^{B} jaaŋ^{C}	'all' (a Thai loan)	jəʔ^{A} jɛʔ^{A}	'a lot' (a Thai loan)

Some of them indicate something about phase of the action such as:

muuj^{C} ʔɯh^{A} 'for a moment'
muuj^{C} plɛɛt^{C} 'in a second'

In the Thai Language /jaàŋ/ is placed before a modifier to describe manner of the action. The Samre language has borrowed this pattern as in

ciiw^{A} jaaŋ^{C} hiək^{C}	'walk hurriedly'
kep^{A} jaaŋ^{C} dii^{A}	'keep (something) well'

Example:

ʔəə^{A}	ɲaaj^{C}	jaaŋ^{C}	ken^{B}	kɔʔ^{B}	ʔiin^{A}	mɯn^{C}	saa^{A}
Em	speak	like	that	then	can	same	together

'Em, speaking like that is O.K. too.'

5.3.12 Emphatic

An emphatic word functions in the Post Modifier$_1$ position of the adverb phrase (Sec.4.4.1) or in the Post Modifier$_2$ position of the descriptive verb phrase (Sec.4.3.1.2). Most of this class are borrowed from Thai, such as:

ʔeeŋ^{C}	'emphasized marker'
naʔ^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C}	'emphasized marker'

Examples:

A :	mii^{C}	thɯm^{A}	siiw^{B}	ʔan^{A}
	who	cook	curry	this

'Who makes this curry?'

B : ʔiŋ^{A} ʔeeŋ^{C}
I emp.
'I (do).'

5.3.13 Intensifiers

Intensifiers function in the Post Modifier$_2$ position of the adverb phrase (Sec.4.4.1) or in the Post Modifier$_3$ position of the descriptive verb phrase (Sec.4.3.1.2). They are used to show high degree or to emphasize something. They are manifested by intensifier words and an extra stress. It members are:

mɛɛn^{B}	'real'
mɛɛn^{B} mɛɛn^{B}	'indeed'
mɛɛn^{B} tɛɛn^{C}	'really indeed'

Example:

nak^{B} ɹuəj^{C} mɛɛn^{B} mɛɛn^{B} leej^{C} nɔɔ^{A}
he rich really indeed fp.
'He is rich, indeed.'

Besides those previously mentioned, descriptive verbs or adverbs are reduplicated to show intensification. If the duration of the the reduplicated word is longer than the first word (usually with a falling pitch), the meaning is to intensify something, for examples;

kuəj^{C}	kuəj^{C}	
slow	slow	'very slow'
ŋaɹ^{A}	ŋaɹ^{A}	
red	red	'very red'

5.3.14 Conjunction

Conjunctions function in the Linkage position of an additive compounding nominal phrase (Sec.4.2.3.1) and verb phrase (Sec.4.3). Also, they may be the linkage

in sentences (Sec.6.2.1). According to their functions, conjunctions may be subdivided into two subclasses: phrase connective words and sentence connective words.

5.3.14.1 Phrase conjunction word subclass comprises the following members:

nɔɔŋ^{B} 'and' hɯɯ^{A} 'or'

Thai connectors are also borrowed into the Samre language, such as:

thaŋ^{C} ....thaŋ^{C} 'both...and' thaŋ^{C} ..nɔɔŋ^{B} 'both...and'

5.3.14.2 Sentence conjunction word subclass comprises the following members:

ʔiin^{A} 'so' ʔam^{C} 'then'
ɹuəc^{B} 'perfectly'

etc.

1. puəh^{A} puəm^{C} ʔam^{C} jɔh^{A} dii^{A} kɔʔ^{B} ʔuuc^{C} thɯm^{A} siiw^{B}
   roast meat then yellow well then take cook curry
   'Roast the meat until it becomes yellow then take it to cook a curry.'

2. tɔɔ^{B} kaaɹ^{A} ɹuəc^{B} ʔiin^{A} klap^{A} tɔŋ^{A} ʔiin^{A}
   do work finish then return house can
   'If you have finished the work then you can return home.'

The Samre speakers also use a lot of Thai conjunctions in their speech, such as:

tɛɛ^{B}	'but'	thaa^{B}	'if'
ləəj^{C}	'so'	pɹɔʔ^{B}	'because'
lɛɛw^{C}	'then'	ʔaw^{A} con^{A}	'until'
pɔɔ^{A} dii^{A}	'as well as'	kɔʔ^{B}	'then'

/kɔʔ^{B}/ is a Thai loan word which has been actively used either alone and together with the other connectors. Though the sound of this word in the two languages is a little different, its usage is the same.

ɹuəc^{B}	kɔʔ^{B}	'after-then'
pɔɔ^{A}	kɔʔ^{B}	'and....then'
həəj^{C}	kɔʔ^{B}	'after-then' as'

Examples

1. poo^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} kɯɯɹ^{A} hɯɯ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A}
   you will stay or will go
   'Will you stay or go?'

2. nak^{B} lic^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} jip^{A} tɛɛ^{B} koh^{A} jip^{A}
   he say will come but not come
   'He said that he would have come but he didn't.'

3. nak^{B} huəp^{A} klɔŋ^{A} ɹuəc^{B} kɔʔ^{B} ciiw^{A} ləəj^{C}
   he eat rice finish then go fp.
   'After he has eaten rice, he goes (somewhere).'

5.3.15 Question words

Question words function on clause level as markers of Participant Content Questions (see examples in Sec.3.2.3.2.). They are :

mii^{C}	'who'	campii^{C}	'what'
nii^{C}	'where'	naa^{C} kachii^{C}	'when'
jaaŋ^{C} pii^{C}	'how'	tɔɔ^{B} pii^{C}	'why'
ʔaj^{C} nii^{C}	'which'	muuj^{C} ʔii^{C}, chii	'how much'

5.3.16 Final Particles

The non-obligatory final particles occur clause final. Final particles serve various semantic functions as noted below. Two final particles may co-occur but three are rare. Final particles form a small class which includes the following:

bɔɔ^{C}	'yes/no question particle' (may be equivalent to the word in Thai as / rɯɯ́ /)
hɔɔ^{C}	a) 'yes/no question particle' (in actual speech it may become /hɔh^{B}/)
	b) responding sentence occurring with a negation word /koh^{A}/ (may be equivalent to the word in Thai as / rɔ̀ɔk/)
koo^{A}	'affirmative emphatic particle' (may be equivalent to the word in Thai as / dɔ̀ɔk /)
nən^{C}	'affirmative emphatic particle'(may be equivalent to the word in Thai as /ʔeeŋ/)
həəj^{C}	'affirmative particle'(may be equivalent to the word in Thai as /lɛ́ɛ́w/ 'already')
hɯɯ^{A} naan^{A}	'interrogative particle'(may be equivalent to the word in Thai as / rúɯ jaŋ / 'not yet')
duu^{A} / duʔ^{A}	'imperative particle implied persuasive or a mild command' (may be equivalent to the word in Thai as /thə̀ʔ/)

Example:

1. khaniiw^{C} ɲaaj^{C} tɛɛ^{B} siəm^{C} <u>koo^{A}</u>
   children speak only Thai fp.
   'The children speak only the Thai language.'

2. nak^{B} sɔɔŋ^{C} huəp^{A} kɔʔ^{B} huəp^{A} ciiw^{A} <u>duu^{A}</u>
   he need eat then eat go fp.
   'He needs to eat so let him eat (it).'

3. ʔaj^{C} bɔɔn^{A} chuu^{A} kamnəət^{B} chan^{C} <u>nən^{C}</u>
   address Ball niece by birth I fp.
   'Ball is my niece by birth.'

The Thai final particles have been found in the Samre language, such as:

ʔeeŋ^{C}	'affirmative particle'
siʔ^{B}	'imperative particle implies persuasive or a mild command'
thəʔ^{B}	'imperative particle implies persuasive or a mild command'
ləəj^{C}	'affirmative particle'
lɛʔ^{B}	'affirmative particle'
laaw^{B}	'content question particle'
wəəj^{A}	'affirmative or interrogative emphatic particle'
naa^{A}	'affirmative emphatic particle'
nɔʔ^{B} / nɔɔ^{A}	'affirmative particle'

It should be noted that the particle below is similar to The Northern Thai word.

mɛɛn^{C} bɔɔ^{C}	'interrogative particle asking for opinion from the listeners, with the expectation that they will agree'

Note : həəj^{C} or ləəj^{C} may co-occur with nɔʔ ^{B} in an affirmative clause, for example:

Examples:

1. ʔəə^{A} nak^{B} ʔuuc^{C} ciiw^{A} nak^{B} kɔʔ^{B} tuək^{A} mat^{A} <u>həəj^{C} nɔɔ^{A}</u>
   Oh she take go she then sell all fp. fp.
   'Oh! She took (it) away and sold it all.'
2. tɔɔ^{B} pii^{C} koh^{A} ciiw^{A} muəŋ^{B} <u>laaw^{B}</u>
   why not go with fp.
   'Why don't (you) go with (us)?'
3. ʔiŋ^{A} tuən^{B} huəj^{A} <u>wəəj^{A}</u>
   I pass. Mk. lottery fp.
   'I won a lottery.'
4. mii^{C} diŋ^{A} <u>wəəj^{A}</u>
   who know fp.
   'Who can know?' (interrogative as declarative)

CHAPTER VI

SENTENCES

6.1 Definition

A semantic sentence (or a sentential proposition) presents a minimum speech act, composed of one or more predications (semantic clauses).

A structural sentence consists of at least one main clause, with or without subordinate clauses, with a distinct illocutionary force (mood).

In other words a sentence is any string of units consisting of at least one major clause and one or more optional minor clauses.

6.2 Structure of sentences

The surface structure of a sentence is composed of a nuclear form, with or without peripheral slots, and with stress, and completeness characteristics.

6.2.1 Nuclear form types

A sentence nucleus is composed of clauses, either a single clause or clauses joined in various ways. They may be simple, juxtaposed or conjunctive-linked. And the component clauses may be independent clause forms or various dependent clause forms.

6.2.1.1 Simple form

A simple form consists of just a single simple clause and manifests a simple statement sentence or reduced sentences of other types.

Sent = Cl

1. miŋ^{A} kamlaŋ^{A} huəp^{A} klɔŋ^{A}
   mother progress eat rice
   'Mother is eating rice.'

2. khiin^{A} ʔəəj^{A} tɔɔpii^{A} samɯk^{A} pɛc^{A} kaaŋ^{C} nah^{A} hɯɯ^{A}
   child (vocative) why sweat break out much q.Mk.
   'Son, why does your sweat break out so much?'

6.2.1.2 Juxtaposed form

A juxtaposed form consists of two or more clauses simply put side by side without a connector. The second clause modifies the first clause. It may manifest introduction, temporal sequence, covarying conditional and purposeful sentence types (Sec.6.4.1.6) and compounding types (Sec.6.2.2).

Sent = Cl_1 || Cl_2 $^{n.}$

1. tom^{C} can^{A} koh^{A} sabaaj^{A} || nak^{B} kat^{B} puŋ^{A} puəŋ^{B}
   aunt Can not well she pain stomach flatulent
   'Aunt Can was not well; she was flatulent.'

2. nak^{B} koh^{A} ciiw^{A} sattahiip^{B} || nak^{B} ciiw^{A} phattaya^{A}
   he not go Sattahiip he go Pattaya
   'He did not go to Sattahiip, he went to Pattaya.'

3. miŋ^{A} wəj^{B} khiin^{A} || nak^{B} dɯɯ^{B} nah^{A}
   mother hit child he stubborn very
   'Mother hit her child, he is very stubborn.'

6.2.1.3 Conjunction-linked form

A conjunction-linked form is made up of two or more clauses linked by a single conjunction or coordinated conjunctions. There are not many conjunctions in the language since most clauses are semantically linked without any conjunction. However, some conjunctions are found: /thaa^{B} / 'if', /hɯɯ^{A}/ 'or', /kɔ̀ʔ^{B}/ 'then',etc.

Sent = 1. Conj + Cl_1 || Cl_2
2. Cl_1 + Conj + Cl_2
3. $Conj_1$ + Cl_1+ $Conj_2$+ Cl_2

1. sadiəŋ^{C} chiim^{A} chiim^{C} khuuɲ^{A} kɔʔ^{B} ciiw^{A} phiɲ^{A} miiɹ^{A}
   after feed bird father then go to fish fish
   'After my father had fed the birds, he went to go fishing.'

2 ʔaaw^{A} wan^{A} kluəŋ^{B} nɛh^{A} khiin^{A} tɔɔn^{A} chanɯn^{A} ciiw^{A}
   today husband look after child when wife go
   tɔɔ^{B} kaaɹ^{A}
   do work
   'Today the husband looks after his child when the wife goes to work.'

3. pɹɔʔ^{B} hiəŋ^{A} con^{A} hiəŋ^{A} kɔʔ^{B} ciiw^{A} ɹapcaaŋ^{B}
   because we poor we then go serve for hire
   'Because we are poor, we goes to serve (someone) for hire.'

6.2.1.4 Appositive embedding

An appositive embedding form is a noun phrase used in giving more information about a subject or an object. It normally occurs only in one position.

Sent = Cl : S + app emb – P – DO / IO

1. ʔaj^{C} lit^{A} || khiin^{A} maluəŋ^{B} ʔiɲ^{A} || jip^{A} cak^{B} khuəŋ^{A} sii^{A}
   address Lit child male I come from Klong Sanoo
   'Mr. Lit , my son, came from Ban Klong Sanoo.'

2. ʔaj^{C} ʔan^{A} || chuu^{A} kamnəət^{B} chan^{C} || camɔh^{B} bɔɔn^{A}
   address this niece inborn I name Ball
   'This (one), my inborn niece, is "Ball".'

6.2.1.5 Relative embedding

A subordinate clause, relating the subject or object of the main clause to some previously mentioned action, may be attached to the main clause by embedding. The embedded clause marked by /deɹ^{A}/ or /nak^{B}/ or zero.

1. saliəŋ^{B} chɯh^{A} deɾ^{A} kamlaŋ^{A} ciiw^{A} jip^{A} camɔh^{B} jaaj^{B} jɛɛ^{C}
   woman old who progress walk come name address Jae
   'The old woman who is walking here is Mrs. Jae.'

2. maluəŋ^{B} ten^{B} nak^{B} cɔk^{B} makaw^{C} kaɾet^{A} pen^{A} tahaan^{A}
   man that who smoke tobacco cigarette is soldier
   'That man who is smoking a cigarette is a soldier.'

6.2.2 Complexities and compounding

Sentences may be compounded together to fill a single structural slot in a paragraph. Structural compounding usually manifests semantic compounding. In the Samre language, chaining of sentences may be subordination or coordination.

6.2.2.1 Subordination

Structural subordination usually has a nuclear with the form of an independent clause, plus a subordinate clause with a form that cannot stand by itself. Subordination tends to be marked by conjunctions (/thaa^{B}/ 'if', /con^{A}/ 'so', /pɾɔʔ^{B}/ 'because') and the subordinating conjunction sometimes is inseparable from the subordinate clause, staying with it when the main clause is deleted.

1. kasɯm^{C} tuən^{B} khamuuc^{C} lɔɔ^{B} ləəj^{C} tuəŋ^{C} con^{A} koh^{A}
   man pass.Mk. ghost deceive then fear until not
   sabaaj^{A} ləəj^{C}
   well fp.
   'A man was deceived by ghosts so he was sick.'

2. thaa^{B} ʔiŋ^{A} koh^{A} chuək^{A} kanuət^{B} ʔiŋ^{A} kɔʔ^{B} koh^{A} ʔiin^{A}
   if I not pound rice I then not have
   campii^{C} huəp^{A}
   what eat
   'If I don't pound paddy, I don't have anything to eat.'

6.2.2.2 Coordination

In coordination both clauses have independent forms. Coordination is generally marked by juxtaposition or by conjunctions (/nɔɔŋ^{B}/ 'and ', /tɛɛ^{B}/ 'but').

1. patakaa^{C} tɔŋ^{A} miɲ^{A} chuək^{A} kanuət^{B} khuuɲ^{A} ciit^{B} m̥phiit^{C}
   Sent$_1$ Sent$_2$
   in front of house mother pound rice father point bamboo strips
   'In front of the house, my mother pounds rice and my father points bamboo strips.'
   (juxtaposition)

2. miɲ^{A} cɔɔp^{B} siiw^{B} liək tɛɛ^{B} khuuɲ^{A} cɔɔp^{B} siiw^{B} miiɾ^{A}
   mother like curry chicken but father like curry fish
   'My mother likes a chicken curry but my father likes a fish curry.'
   (conjunction- tɛɛ^{B})

6.2.3 Peripheral slots

A sentence periphery may include such things as sentential adverbials, vocatives, exclamations, initial particles, final particles, mood-marking particles, and preposed topic. Time and Location setting are often found as an optional element in a sentence periphery. In a one-clause sentence there is, of course, no contrast between clause and sentence periphery.

6.2.3.1 Adverbials

Adverbials occur in various positions. They are words or phrases or clauses, usually with the structure of prepositional phrases. They include items such as /pen^{A} pacam^{A}/ 'regularly', /pen^{A} thammadaa^{A}/ 'naturally' etc.

1. miɲ^{A} chaa^{A} maak^{C} pen^{A} pacam^{A}
   mother eat areca nut regularly
   'Mother eats areca betel regularly.'

2. kasɯm^{C} tuk^{B} nak^{B} tɔɔŋ^{B} huuc^{A} pen^{A} thammadaa^{A}
   human all class must die naturally
   'Naturally, all men must die.'

6.2.3.2 Vocatives

Semantically vocatives function in a paragraph-level, but often manifest on a sentence level. Vocatives occur either before or after a clause or independently. When before a clause, vocatives are separated by juncture from the clause and have separate intonation pattern. When after a clause juncture may be elided and the vocative may occur within the clause intonation pattern.

Vocatives are either personal names, kinship terms, or a kinship term followed by the personal name.

1. mɛʔ^{A} pɔʔ^{A} ciiw^{A} nii^{C} (Kinship term)
   mother father go where
   'Mother, where did my father go?'

2. ciiw^{A} siə^{C} ʔaaj^{C} wɛɛp^{C} (Name)
   go fp address Waep
   'Go away, Waep!'

3. ciiw^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ʔɔk^{A} bɔɔ^{C} bɔɔn^{A} ciiw^{A} kep^{A} ɹuəɹ^{A} tuəŋ^{A}
   go with grandmother q.Mk Ball go gather cucumber
   '(Will) you go with your grandmother, Ball, in order to gather cucumbers?'

6.2.3.3 Exclamations

Exclamations are used when the speaker wants to curse anybody or to show his emotion. They usually precede the clause but may occur independently. Exclamations include the followings:

1. thoo^{B} - is said when speaker feels pity for someone as in
   thoo^{B} maɹaaɹ^{C} nah^{A}
   Oh pity much
   'Oh! it's such a pity.'

2. mɛɛ^{B} - is said when speaker feels pity for someone as in
   mɛɛ^{B} poo^{B} nɔɔ^{A} huuc^{A} thaŋ^{C} ɹuuj^{A}
   Hmm you emp. die still live
   'Hmm! ...you would have died though you are still alive.'

3. həj^{C} - is said when speaker feels displeased or annoyed as in

   həj^{C} koh^{A} liŋ^{B} həəj^{C}

   Hey! not play already

   'Hey! stop playing (I don't want to play with you.)

4. mɯt^{A} - is said when speaker feels pity for someone (this word is borrowed from the Trat Thai)

   mɯt^{A} sanɔh^{A} nah^{A}

   Oh pity much

   'Oh! it's a great pity'

All of the above exclamations used by the Samre speakers are similar to those in the Thai language.

6.2.3.4 Final Particles

An optional Final particle slot is filled by a final particle. Final particles can function both in the final slot of the clause or the sentence where there is no contrast between clause and sentence final particles. There are a lot of final particles in Samre (Sec.5.3.16). These final particles have no concrete meaning by themselves. They manifest sentence illocution i.e., declarative, negative, or interrogative. There may be more than one final particle in a sentence. It is difficult to find a single unifying semantic factor among the various final particles. The meaning include affirmation, negation and interrogation. The co-occurrence of two final particles is common to find, but three is rare.

1. **can^{A}** : kluəŋ^{B} nak^{B} ɹuəj^{A} bɔɔ^{C}

   husband she rich q.Mk.

   'Is her husband rich?'

   khaŋ^{A} : ʔɯɯ^{T} kɔʔ^{B} pɔɔ^{A} pɔɔ^{A} chaa^{A} lɛʔ^{B} pɔɔ^{A} chaa^{A}

   Em. then sufficient eat fp sufficient eat.

   pɔɔ^{A} huəp^{A} ten^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C}

   sufficient eat only fp

   'Em…(he has some money) only sufficient to spend.'

2. chiim^{A} klɔŋ^{A} kɔʔ^{B} pii^{C} kaaɲ klɔŋ^{A} koo^{A} koo^{A}
feed rice then waste much rice for nothing
'Feeding rice to him is wasting.'

6.2.4 Prosodic morphemes affecting the sentence

Prosodic features affecting the sentence include general intonation contours, and stress placement.

6.2.4.1 General Intonation Contours

Intonation is not phonemic in the Samre language, which is becoming a tonal language. It does not change the meaning of the whole sentence but it usually adds the speaker's attitude toward that sentence. Four patterns of intonation contours suggested here are slightly different in shape, usually at the end of the sentences (see Sec.2.2).

6.2.4.2 Stress placement

Stress placement in Samre generally lies on the last syllable or on the penultimate syllable when there is a final particle.

1. tɛɛn^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} naaɹathiwaat^{C}
Taen will go Narathiwat
'Taen will go to Narathiwat.'

2. kɯɯɹ^{A} paliɲ^{A} niiɹ^{A} siʔ^{B}
sit on mat fp.
'Sit on the mat!'

However, there may be a main sentence stress which can be shifted around clauses, often marking a sentence topic in contrast with the topic of another sentence.

1. thaa^{B} nak^{B} jip^{A} poo^{B} kɔʔ^{B} tɔɔŋ^{B} jip^{A} muəŋ^{B}
if he come you then must come with
'If he comes you must come with him.'

2. thaa^{B} nak^{B} jip^{A} poo^{B} kɔʔ^{B} tɔɔŋ^{B} jip^{A} muəŋ^{B}
   if he come you then must come with
   'If he comes you must come with him.'

3. thaa^{B} nak^{B} jip^{A} poo^{B} kɔʔ^{B} tɔɔŋ^{B} jip^{A} muəŋ^{B}
   if he come you then must come with
   'If he comes you must come with him.'

From the above examples, if the speaker wants to emphasize a word in a sentence, he can produce it with increasing articulatory force or rate of air flow, etc. (as shown by the underlined words). This is a sentence stress. Thus, the tone of that word will be either raised or lengthened and it will be tense. This factor emphasizes the importance of each word in a sentence.

6.2.5 Grammatical completeness

A sentence may be full, elliptical, or incomplete. Ellipsis (marked by ∅) in a sentence may involve the deletion of certain elements subject, verb, object, conjunction, the former condition or cause. Elements tend to be deleted under the circumstance that they are obviously understood and already known from the context or from general knowledge as shown in examples1-2.

1. tuh^{A} sak^{A} kɔʔ^{B} chap^{A} kapaaw^{A} ciiw^{A} cuəɪ^{A} sɪɛɛ^{A}
   morning then catch buffalo go lead field
   'In the morning, ∅ leads the buffalo to go to the field.'
   (subject deleted)

2. cɛʔ^{A} : jaaj^{B} naa^{A} ʔɔt^{A} khɪaaŋ^{B} həəj^{C} bɔɔ^{C}
   address Naa stop alcohol already q.Mk
   'Has Mrs. Naa stopped drinking alcohol yet?'

   can^{A} : hɯɯ^{A} ∅$_1$ ʔɔt^{A} ∅$_2$ ʔiin^{A} bɔɔ^{C} khaneen^{A} ʔan^{A}
   Hm stop can q.Mk now this

   ∅$_3$ naan^{A} taaɪ^{C} ∅$_4$ ɪɯəj^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C} ∅$_5$ taŋ^{A}
   still drink regularly fp. see

saa^{A} naa^{C} masii^{C} ∅$_6$ patah^{B} saa^{A} naan^{A} puuɪ^{B}
together yesterday meet together still drunken

'Hm! Can (she) stop (drinking alcohol)? Now (she) always drinks (it). Yesterday (she and I) met together, (she) was still drunken.'

Note that ∅$_1$ is subject deletion, ∅$_2$ is predicate deletion .
∅$_3$ is subject deletion, ∅$_4$ is object deletion.
∅$_5$ and ∅$_6$ are subject deletion.

Incompleteness (marked here by....) is usually a result of a sudden breaking off in mid utterance by a pause to think or an interruption or by a pause intended to leave the hearer to form his own conclusion as shown in example 3.

3. kɔɔj^{B} nɛh^{A} thaa^{B} poo^{B} koh^{A} tɔk^{B} kɔɔŋ^{A} pat^{A} khaneen^{A} ʔan^{A}
wait watch if you not take bracelet off now this

miɲ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} .....
mother will
'We'll see if you would have not taken the bracelet off right now, I'll...'

The mother was very angry with the daughter. She would do something to her daughter if the daughter would not have taken the bracelet off immediately. She would not tell what she would do to the daughter. She paused and left it to the listener to guess what is proper for the speaker to do to the daughter she was angry with.

6.3 Functions of sentences

6.3.1 At lower rank

At the clause rank, sentences normally fill the Complement slot in quotative or similar clause.

nak^{B} sɹii^{A} ciiw^{A} thən^{C} nii^{C}
she ask come from where
'She asked, "Where did (you) come from?"'

6.3.2 At sentence rank

Sentences may recursively embed in sentence-rank slot.

1. thɔɔŋ^{A} pat^{A} jap^{A} jɔɔj^{B} koh^{A} ʔiin^{A} hɔɔ^{C}
   gold disappear all not have fp.
   (Sent $_1$) (Sent $_2$)
   'All my gold disappeared so that I did not have any.'

2. tom^{C} can^{A} klap^{A} jip^{A} cak^{B} kɹuŋthep^{C} ʔuən^{B} muəŋ^{B} ɹaak^{C} muəŋ^{B}
   aunt Can return come from Bangkok fat too white too
   (Sent$_1$) (Sent$_2$)
   'After Aunt Can had returned from Bangkok, she was fat and white too.'

6.3.3 At paragraph and discourse rank

Sentences normally function as fillers of slots in paragraphs. (Paragraph and discourse are among the least explored areas of linguistic analysis. It should be pointed out that the boundaries between paragraphs may not always be sharp. We may assumed that the sentence is the minimum unit, the discourse the maximum unit, and paragraphs intermediate units of purposeful connected speech).

A thorough analysis of paragraph and discourse levels has not been made in this study because it is beyond the scope of the study. However, some of the data in this level is also given since it is the highest rank of the grammatical hierarchy (see Appendix B).

6.4 Semantic elements

The semantic components in sentences include a propositional nucleus, with or without compounding and setting, and with speech act and mood and reality values. Semantic prosodies run through a sentence and presuppositions undergird it.

6.4.1 Propositional Content (Locution)

The nuclei of sentences are generally classifiable under seven main types: one-action, introduction, sequence, covarying, conditional, purposeful, and deductive (Thomas, 1993:93). These sentences have been classified according to the semantic or pragmatic relationships between the clause, not according to their forms or their speech act types.

6.4.1.1 One action sentence

A simple sentence is a one clause sentence. It can be manifested by any clause type. It usually has its own grammatical independence, that is, without having either another clause depending on it or it depending on another clause. The statement can be affirmative, negative, interrogative or imperative. The sole element in the nucleus of a simple statement is :

One action Sent : Statement

1. miŋ^{A} thɔɔt^{B} luəŋ^{A} (Transitive)
   mother fry banana
   'Mother fries bananas.'

2. khiin^{A} thiək^{B} (Intransitive)
   child sleep
   'The child sleeps.'

3. ʔiŋ^{A} pen^{A} kasɯm^{C} samɹee^{A} (Equational)
   I be human Samre
   'I'm a Samre person.'

4. ciiw^{A} maan^{B} duu^{A} (Mild imperative)
   go here fp.
   'Come here!'

5. huəp^{A} klɔŋ^{A} həəj^{C} bɔɔ^{C} (Simple yes / no)
   eat rice already q.Mk
   'Have (you) eaten rice already?'

6. jip^{A} thən^{C} nii^{C} (Participant content question)
   come from where
   'Where did (you) come from?'

6.4.1.2 Introduction sentence

In its simplest form the introduction sentence seems to be most commonly found at the beginning of the paragraph or discourse. It is composed of Introduction and Predication or Description.

$$\text{Sent.}_{\text{intro}} = \text{Introduction} - \left\{ \begin{matrix} \text{Predication} \\ \text{Description} \end{matrix} \right\}$$

The introduction sentence consists of at least two clauses. The first one mainly used to introduce persons or objects into a discourse is filled by an existence clause (Sec.3.2.1.6). Then there is statement about them in the second clause filled by a clause.

No linker is used between two clauses and the order is Introduction-Predication.

Example:

tɔɔn^{A} ten^{B} ʔiin^{A} soŋkɹaam^{C} naa^{A} ʔiin^{A} soŋkɹaam^{C} kɔʔ^{B}
when that have war fp. have war then

nak^{B} cak^{A} m̥pləəŋ^{A} jip^{A} thən^{C} kɹoom^{A} lɛʔ^{B}
he shoot gun come from Cambodia fp.

'At that time (in the past), during a war, the bombs were shot from Cambodia.'

6.4.1.3 Temporal Sequence sentence

Temporal sequence sentences are composed of two or more clauses which have temporal linkage without logical or causative relationships.

The elements of the temporal sequence sentence are :

Sent. temp. seq.: Prior Event – Subsequent Event^{n}

That is, a Prior Event plus one or more Subsequent Events; each of these positions is filled by a clause, usually with a sentence conjunction (see Sec.5.3.14.2). The linkers signify the completion of the previous action and its temporal relation to the following action.

The normal order of these elements is : **Pr. Ev - Sub. Ev.**

1. kasɯm^{C} kuk^{A} tuu^{B} ciiw^{A} tuəj^{C} həəj^{C} tamɹuət^{C} ʔiin jip^{A}
   human thief escape go before already police then come
   klee^{A} tih^{B} ʔan^{A}
   reach at here
   'The thief was gone before the policeman arrived.'

2. pɔɔ^{A} huum^{A} taak^{C} ruəc^{B} nak^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} tɔɔ^{B} kaaɹ^{A} plaa^{B}
   when take a bathe already he will go do work again
   'After he has taken a bathe he will go to work again.'

3. thɯm^{A} klɔŋ^{A} lɛɛw^{C} kɔʔ^{B} thɔɔt^{B} miiɹ^{A} muəŋ^{B}
   cook rice then fry fish too
   'Cook rice (first), then fry the fish (later).'

4. jaaj^{B} thɔɔŋ^{A} loom^{C} khaniiw^{C} ʔaw^{A} con^{A} hiin^{A} thiək^{B} laŋiət^{B}
   address Thong lull child until it sleep deep
   'Mrs.Thong has lulled the child until he sleeps deeply.'

5. ʔiŋ^{A} cuəj^{B} miŋ^{A} book^{B} thaɹ^{A} ruəc^{B} ʔiin^{A} ciiw^{A} liŋ^{B}
   I help mother wash clothes finish then go play

nɔɔŋ^{B} nak^{B}
with he
'I helped mother to wash clothes, then later I went to play with him.'

The subsequent Event sometimes precedes the Prior Event. In this case sadiəŋ^{C} _ ɹuəc^{B} 'when _ already' is the linker between the two events.

6. ʔaj^{C} mii^{A} ciiw^{A} thuəc^{A} jaaj^{B} saaw^{A} sadiəŋ^{C} huəp^{A}
address Mii go see address Saaw after eat

klɔŋ^{A} ɹuəc^{B} həəj^{C}
rice finish already
'After he had eaten rice already, Mr. Mii went to meet Miss. Saaw.'

6.4.1.4 Covarying sentence

The covarying sentence is used to describe two or more events whose intensities or action vary together.

The elements of the covarying sentence are :

Sent. cov : Free Variable - Conditioned Variable

That is, a free variable plus a conditioned variable; each of these positions is normally filled by a clause. Each clause contains the preverb /jiŋ^{C}/ 'the more'. If both clauses have the same subject, it is only named in the first clause. And if the subject is obviously understood, it will be deleted in both clauses. It is noticable that this pattern of sentence is similar to Thai, so the underlined words are Thai loan words.

The normal order of these elements is Free variable-Conditioned variable.

1. jiŋ^{C} hiək^{B} jiŋ^{C} kuəj^{C}
the more hurry the more slow
'The more (I) hurry, the slower I am.'

2. jiŋ^{C} taŋ^{A} jiŋ^{C} saŋəət^{B}
the more (I) see, the more (I) want
'The more (I) see (it), the more I want (it).'

6.4.1.5 Conditional Sentence

A conditional sentence is generally an involuntary relationship where one event triggers another event. A conditional sentence contains a condition or cause action and a result action. Clauses may be linked by having a conjunction before a conditioned clause and after a subject of an independent clause. The dependent (conditioned) clause may be introduced by zero, /thaa^{B}/ 'if', or /pɪɔʔ^{B}/ 'because'. The independent clause may be introduced by zero, /ʔiin^{A}/ 'so that', /ləəj^{C}/ 'thus, then'.

The elements of the conditional clause are :

Sent. con : Condition - Result

The normal order of the conditional sentence elements is Condition-Result, but it can also be in the order of Result- Condition. When Result precedes Condition, the result clause is introduced by zero ∅ .

1. thaa^{B} nak^{B} koh^{A} wiŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} khɪaa^{A} naac^{B}
   if he not lost go way other

   nak^{B} naa^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} jip^{A} klee^{A} kuəj^{C} kuk^{A} həəj^{C}
   he should will come reach long long already
   'If he has not lost the way he should have come long ago.'

2. pɪɔʔ^{B} khaniiw^{C} ʔan^{A} tuən^{B} chɔɔ^{C} khat^{A} khɪuu^{B} kɯt^{A}
   because child this pass. dog bite teacher head

   ʔiin^{A} suun^{B} nak^{B} ciiw^{A} thuəc^{A} mɔɔ^{B}
   so bring he go see doctor
   'Because this child was bitten by a dog, the master of the school sent him to see a doctor.'

3. koh^{A} chaa^{A} sanam^{A} tom^{C} kɔʔ^{B} koh^{A} pih^{A}
   not eat medicine aunt then not recover
   '(If you) don't take the medicine then you won't recover.'

4. nak^{B} koh^{A} sabaaj^{A} ʔiin^{A} nak^{B} ciiw^{A} thuəc^{A} mɔɔ^{B}
   he not well so he go see doctor
   'He was sick so he went to see a doctor.'

6.4.1.6 Purposeful sentence

A purposeful sentence is characterized by a purposeful sequence of actions. The purposeful clause is usually the increasing of the situation in the cause clause. The elements of the purposeful sentence are :

Sent. pur : Previous State (Cause) – Correcting Event (Result) – Expected State (Purpose)

That is, a cause clause is followed by a result clause which is followed by a purposeful clause.

It should be noted that the word /ʔuək^{C}/ 'give', /ʔam^{C}/ 'give', /ciiw^{A}/ 'go', /jip^{A}/ 'come', /ʔiin^{A}/ 'get' always occurs in the purposeful clause and it implies the meaning of 'in order to'. Besides, the cause may be omitted. Also, the subject which has been referred to in the previous clause is usually deleted in the following clauses.

1. nak^{B} ciiw^{A} maaɹ^{A} ciiw^{A} cuuc^{C} satuu^{B}
   he go field go clip off grass
   'He went to the field to clip the grass off.'

2. tɔɔ^{B} kaaɹ^{A} kaʔeeŋ^{A} kaʔeeŋ^{A} siʔ^{B} ʔiin^{A} pɹak^{A} kaaɲ^{C} kaaɲ^{C}
   do work diligent diligent fp. get money much much
   'Work diligently in order to get a lot of money.'

3. ʔiɲ^{A} ciiw^{A} pɹii^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} jɔɔm^{A} ciiw^{A} kep^{A} phɹii^{A} lakoo^{C}
   I go forest with Yoam go gather fruit Lakoo
   'I went to the forest with Yoam to gather the Lakoo's fruits.'

4. khaniiw^{C} maɹaaɹ^{C} plaa^{B} tɔɔŋ^{B} ʔuuc^{C} dak^{A} ɹee^{C} tawɔɔ^{C} ɹɔɔn^{B}
   child born new must take put in basket hover

ʔam^{C} hiin^{A} thiək^{B} lamiəŋ^{A} dii^{A}
give it sleep silent well
'A new born child must be put in a basket to hover around so that it will sleep well.'

6.4.1.7 Deductive sentence

The elements of the deductive sentence are :

Sent. de. : General Grounds(Major Premise)- Specific Grounds(Minor Premise) – Deduction(Conclusion)

That is, general grounds plus specific grounds plus deduction; each of these positions is normally filled by a clause.

The markers of the relationship between the specific ground and deduction clause are /khoŋ^{C}/ 'may be' and /naa^{B}/ 'should be'. Sometimes /kɔɔ^{B} maŋ^{A}/ 'problaby' /nɛɛ^{B} nɔɔn^{C}/ 'certainly' is placed in the final position of the deduction clause.

1. ʔaj^{C} nɔɔj^{C} puuɹ^{B} khɹaaŋ^{B} talɔɔt^{B} weelaa^{B} puək^{C} hiəŋ^{A}
address Noj drunk alcohol all time group we

diŋ^{A} lic^{A} thaa^{B} nak^{B} ciiw^{A} ɹaan^{C}kaa^{C} nak^{B} khoŋ^{C}
know that if he go shop he probably

ciiw^{A} tiiw^{B} khɹaaŋ^{B} nɛɛ^{B} nɔɔn^{C}
go buy alcohol certainly
'Mr.Noj has been drunk all the time, all of us know for sure that if he goes to the shop he is probably going to buy some alcohol .'

2. kasɯm^{C} samree^{A} thaaŋ^{A} tawɔɔ^{C} keeŋ^{A} tuk^{B} nak^{B} lɛʔ^{B}
people Samre weave basket good all person fp.

nak^{B} kɔʔ^{B} pen^{A} chɯə^{C} samree^{A} koo^{A} nak^{B}
he then be race Samre fp. he

khoŋ^{C} thaaŋ^{A} keeŋ^{A} mɯn^{C} saa^{A}
then weave good same fp.

'All of the Samre people can weave baskets well. He is a Samre so he should weave well too.'

6.4.2 Semantic compounding

There may be compounding (contrastive, equivalent, alternative, additive) in any nuclear slot. These internal compoundings are the same types that occur at the lower ranks. These compounding relations will probably manifested by conjunctive surface forms or juxtaposed forms. .

1. khuuɲ^{A} kɯɯɪ^{A} tɔŋ^{A} hɯɯ^{A} ciiw^{A} tɔɔ^{B} kaaɪ^{A}
   father stay home or go do work
   'Is father at home or gone to work?'(Alternative cpd. in Event)

2. kac^{A} ɲaaj^{C} nuən^{A} koo^{A} chan^{C} koh^{A} ʔiin^{A} ɲaaj^{C} hɔɔ^{C}
   you speak yourself fp I not get speak fp
   'You speak yourself only, I can not speak (the language).'
   (Contrastive cpd.Event)

3. miɲ^{A} ciiw^{A} tuək^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A} ʔiɲ^{A} kɔʔ^{B} ciiw^{A} muəŋ^{B}
   mother go sell thing I then go also
   'Mother went to sell things (and) I will go too.'
   (Additive cpd. in Event)

An external compounding sentence may be composed of two or more full propositions acting together to fill a semantic slot, usually in a paragraph. They may be both independent clauses or one is an independent clause and the other is a subordinate clause. A compounding sentence may take or not take any conjunction. They may have contrastive, alternative, additive, or equivalent relationship.

....thaa^{B} patah^{B} taam^{A} khɪaa^{A} taam^{A} cuəŋ^{A} ciiw^{A} ʔuuc^{C} naʔ^{B} ...
if meet along way along way go take emp.

ciiw^{A} ʔuuc^{C} liŋ^{A} tɔŋ^{A} koh^{A} ʔuuc^{C} hɔɔ^{C}
go take on house not take fp
'If (I) meet (other's thing) along the way I will take (it), I won't go to take (it) from the other's house.'

(Contrastive cpd. In Condition)

The following are some examples of sentences in a paragraph which are semantically linked without any conjunction.

1. kasɯm^{C} taaɪ^{C} kɪaaŋ^{B} puuɪ^{B} ∅ ciiw^{A} thiək^{B} liət^{C} thanon^{A}
human drink alcohol drunk (he) go sleep beside road

2. ∅ liət^{C} thanon^{A} ∅ tuən^{B} ɹot^{A} caŋ^{B} caŋ^{B}
(he sleep) beside road (he) pass.Mk car ran over ran over

pluu^{B} thak^{A} muuj^{C} nuut^{B}
leg torn off one side

3. ∅ thak^{A} ciiw^{A} muuj^{C} khaaŋ^{A}
(his leg) torn off go one side

4. ∅ thak^{A} ciiw^{A} muuj^{C} khaaŋ^{A}
(his leg) torn off go one side

∅ ciiw^{A} cap^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} thɪaŋ^{B} kaloo^{C} naʔ^{B}
(it) go catch with pole kilo emp.

"A man drank alcohol until he was drunk. He went to sleep beside the road. His leg was run over by a car. It was torn off and stuck to a kilometer pole of the road……"

6.4.3 Peripheral Elements

6.4.3.1 Time Setting

The time setting of a sentence may be indicated by the following:

Punctiliar : It indicates one point of time either past, present or future. Such time setting are:

ʔaaw^{A} wan^{A}	'today'	naa^{C} masii^{C}	'yesterday'
paaŋ^{B}	'tomorrow'	mooj^{B}	'the day after tomorrow'
nɯm^{B} tuəj^{C}	'last year'	pii^{A} thoo^{C}	'last night'

Linear: It indicates one period of time, usually marked by a phrase or a clause.

samaj^{A} tuəj^{C}	'in the old days'
ɹaaw^{C} phee^{C} phuun^{C} nɯm^{B} həəj^{C}	'about three to four years ago'
tɔɔn^{A} miɲ^{A} ciiw^{A} sɹɛɛ^{A}	'when the mother has gone to the field'

From (ablative): It indicates the starting point of time.

thən^{C}	'since'

To (dative): It indicates the finishing or ending time.

kataŋ^{B}	'until'

Repetitive iterative: It indicates the repeated time.

tuk^{B} liəŋ^{B}	'every night'
tuk^{B} ʔaaw^{A}	'every day'

Time setting words can either precede or follow the nucleus. Time settings which are phrases or clauses usually occur after the nucleus. However, they can occur at the beginning of sentences in order to emphasize time.

1. nak^{B} jip^{A} cam^{A} tih^{B} ʔan^{A} <u>kataŋ^{B} khanii^{C} baaj^{A}</u>
   he come wait at here until sun afternoon
   'He waited here until afternoon.'

2. <u>pii^{A} thoo^{C}</u> ʔiɲ^{A} phoo^{A} taŋ^{A} pasii^{A} kɯt^{A}
   last night I dream see snake big
   'Last night I dreamed about a big snake.'

6.4.3.2 Location Setting

The location of a sentence may be indicated by place name,or a word or a prepositional locative phrase (Sec.4.4.2.1) The word or phrase shows general, internal, external or proximity location.

General :	tuk^{B} tii^{C}	'everywhere'
Internal :	ɹee^{C}	'in'
	paɹee^{C}	'inside'
External :	kaaj^{C}	'out'
	pakaaj^{C}	'outside'
Proximity :	taa^{A}	'under'
	liŋ^{A}	'on'
	khaaŋ^{A}	'side'
	patakaa^{C}	'in front of'
	kaat^{C}	'near'

1. khiin^{A} saliəŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} tɔɔ^{B} kaaɹ^{A} tih^{B} kɹuŋtheep^{C}
   child woman go do work at Bangkok
   'The daughter went to work at Bangkok.'

2. kasɯm^{C} taaɹ^{C} kɹaaŋ^{B} puuɹ^{B} ciiw^{A} thiək^{B} liət^{C} thanon^{A}
   man drink alcohol drunk go lie along road
   'A drunken man went to lie along the road.'

6.4.4. Sentence Modalities

Sentence modalities (or pragmatics) includes speech acts (illocutionary force, or grammatical mood), psychological moods, and reality status.

6.4.4.1 Speech acts

The speech acts give the Speaker-Hearer communication situation. The major illocutions are declarative, interrogative, imperative; the minor illocutions are social and self expression. These illocutions are usually marked by a final particle.

(1) Declarative illocution

A declarative illocution is a statement whose assurance may vary from certain to uncertain, regarding the sentential relation as a whole. Sources of knowledge may be general, first-hand, or second-hand knowledge.

certain : ʔiŋ^{A} taŋ^{A} jaaj^{B} baj^{A} tuən^{B} ɹot^{A} caŋ^{B} pluu^{B} thak^{A}
I see address Bai pass.Mk car step on leg separate

muuj^{C} nuut^{B}
one class.
'I saw that Mrs.Bai was run over by a car and one of her legs was broken.'

very certain : thaa^{B} poo^{B} wəj^{B} ʔiŋ^{A} ʔiŋ^{A} kɔʔ^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} wəj^{B} poo^{B}
if you hit I I then will hit you

klap^{A} mun^{B} mɛɛn^{B} mɛɛn^{B}
in return real real
'If you hit me, I will hit you in return for sure.'

uncertain : thaa^{B} ʔiŋ^{A} tuən^{B} khamuuc^{C} lɔɔ^{B} khoŋ^{C} koh^{A} sabaaj^{A}
if I pass.Mk ghost scare probably not well
'If I was scared by a ghost, I probably got sick.'

(2) Imperative illocution

An imperative illocution is a statement of desired action, whose force may vary from a mild wish to a strong command. It is manifested by a final particle.

1. nɛh^{A} chɔɔ^{C} ʔiŋ^{A} muəŋ^{B}
   see dog I also
   'Be aware of dog for me, please.' (request)

2. kɯɯɹ^{A} siʔ^{B}
   sit par.
   'Sit down!' (command)

3. ciiw^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} saa^{A} thə?^{B}
   go together fp.
   'Go together, please.' (persuasion)

4. jut^{A} jaam^{B} siə^{A}
   stop cry fp.
   'Stop crying!' (displeased and angry)

(3) Interrogative illocution

Interrogative illocutions may be divided broadly into yes/no questions and content (or-wh) questions.

Yes/no questions (truth value questions) ask about the truth of the sentences which may presume the answer in various degrees. They are manifested by question final particles /hɔɔ^{C}/, /bɔɔ^{C}/.

1. pee^{C} bɔɔ^{C}
   delicious q.Mk
   'Is it delicious?'

The answer of this question may be /pee^{C}/ 'delicious (yes)' or /koh^{A} pee^{C}/ 'not delicious (no)'.

2. poo^{B} kamlaŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A} tɔɔ^{B} kaaɹ^{A} hɯɯ^{A} hɔɔ^{C}
   you progres. will go do work q.Mk
   'You are going to work, aren't you?'

The question implied that the speaker expected the answer of 'yes'.

Content questions ask for information that is missing from a phrase, clause or sentence. They are manifested by question words, such as /mii^{C}/ 'who', /campii^{C}/ 'what', /naa^{C} kachii^{C}/ 'when', /nii^{C}/ 'where' etc., and the question markers are filled in the position of the missing information in the clause.

1. mii^{C} pen^{A} khuuŋ^{A} miŋ^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A} ʔaj^{C} ʔan^{A}
   who be father mother of address. this
   'Who is the parent of this (child).'
   (asking for Actor)

2. jip^{C} thən^{C} nii^{C}
   come from where
   'Where (do you) come from?'
   (Asking for Location)

3. kac^{A} huəp^{A} campii^{C}
   you eat what
   'What are you eating?'
   (Asking for Goal)

(4) Social illocution

A social illocution establishes, maintains or terminates a communication relationship between the interlocutors; without conveying any information. It includes greetings, responses, conversation maintainers, farewells, etc.

Greetings: there is no particular phrase used in greeting. Samre people normally greet by asking the question 'Where are you going?' or 'Where did you go?' without desiring to know the answer. They are only a form of greeting.

1. ciiw^{A} nii^{C}
   go where
   'Where (do you) go?'

Responses to the above greeting such as:

ciiw^{A} thiəw^{A}
go travel
'Just go around!'

2. jip^{A} thən^{C} nii^{C}
   come from where
   'Where (do you) come from?'

Responses to the above greeting such as:

sɹuk^{A} suək^{C}
village Mango
'Ban Ma-muang'

Besides those mentioned above, people also greet each other according to the situation. For example, when someone comes to see you while you are eating, you greet him by inviting him to eat with you. It is only a social illocution.

3. huəp^{A} klɔŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} saa^{A}
eat rice together
'Let's eat together.'

4. chaa^{A} maak^{C} tuəj^{C}
eat areca before
'Let's eat areca together,'

Farewells: when two persons are departing, they say:

1. ciiw^{A} həəj^{C} naa^{A}
go already fp.
'I'm leaving.'

2. patah^{B} saa^{A} plaa^{B}
meet together again
'(Hope to) meet (you) again.'

3. laa^{B} tuəj^{C} naa^{A}
bye before fp.
'Bye'

(5) Self - expression illocution

A self-expression illocution is an expression of the speaker's feelings, pain, understanding, tired, surprise, etc. It is marked by words which cannot be given meanings in particular.

Examples are:

1. mɛɛ^{B} 'to show one's pity on something '
2. ʔoʔ^{A} 'when surprised'
3. ʔee^{A} 'when annoyed'
4. hej^{C} 'when annoyed'
5. ʔooj^{A} 'when hurt'
6. hɯɯ^{B} ʔɯʔ^{A} 'to refuse'
7. ʔɔɔ^{A} 'to show understanding '

For instance

1. ʔooj^{A} kat^{B} nah^{A}
   Ouch pain very
   'Ouch! That really hurt (me).'

2. hɯɯ^{B} ʔɯʔ^{A} koh^{A} mɛɛn^{B} hɔɔ^{C}
   Oh oh not correct fp.
   'Oh no, that's not correct!'

6.4.4.2 Mood

The psychological moods reflecting the attitude or evaluation of the Speaker (or occasionally of the Hearer or others) to what is being talked about, may vary along several parameters such as pleasure to displeasure, surprised to expected, evaluation (pride to shame), hope to despair, concerned to unconcerned, and the like. These moods may be manifested in various ways, by verbs, by particles, exclamations, full clauses, etc.

(1) Pleasure- displeasure

The degree of pleasure range from pleasing to displeasing.

1. dii^{A} caj^{A} nah^{A} khiin^{A} jip^{A} ŋɔk^{B} kaaŋ^{C} nak^{B} (very pleased)
   glad very children come visit many class.
   '(I'm) very glad that the children come to visit me.'

2. chan^{C} koh^{A} cɔɔp^{B} lɘɘj^{C} kuk^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A} nak^{B} naʔ^{B} (displeased)
   I not like fp. steal thing he fp.
   'I didn't like anyone who steals the other's things.'

(2) Surprise- expected

The degree of surprise ranges from unexpected to expected.

1. ʔiɲ^{A} koh^{A} kit^{A} poo^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} klap^{A} cak^{B} kɹuŋthep^{C} hɘɘj^{C}
   I not think you will return from Bangkok fp.
   ' I don't think that you had already returned from Bangkok.'
   (unexpected)

2. plɛɛk^{C} muun^{C} saa^{A} naʔ^{B} ɹɔɔp^{C} ɹɔɔp^{C} kɯp^{B} nam^{C} ka-tiih^{A} wiiɹ^{A}
   surprise emp. around around body hear sound loud
   'It was surprising because there was a loud sound around us (though it was in the dark forest.)
   (unexpected)

3. mii^{C} mii^{C} diɲ^{A} lic^{A} jaaj^{B} nuu^{A} cɔɔp^{B} pliim^{C}
   who who know that address Nuu like scold
   ' Everybody knows that Mrs. Nuu likes to scold .'
   (expected)

(3) Evaluation(pride-shame)

The degree of admiration ranges from pride to shame.

1. khɹɛɛ^{C} nak^{B} ɲaaj^{C} kɹan^{B} kɹan^{B} (shame)
   shame he speak discontinuously
   '(I am ashamed) that I speak discontinuously.'

2. tuɘj^{C} ʔiɲ^{A} kɘɘj^{B} ɹuɘj^{C} naa^{A} ʔiin^{A} pɹak^{A} ʔiin^{A} thɔɔŋ^{A}
   in the past I used to rich fp. have money have gold
   'In the past I used to be rich, having money and gold.'
   (pride)

(4) Hope-despair

The degree of hope ranges from hope to despair.

1. ʔiŋ^{A} waŋ^{A} sɔŋ^{C} ʔiin^{A} tɔŋ^{A} kɯp^{B} nuən^{A}
   I hope need have house myself
   'I hope to have a house for myself.'
   (hope)

2. ʔiŋ^{A} koh^{A} kəəj^{B} kit^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} klap^{A} ciiw^{A} kɯɯɪ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B}
   I not think used to will return go live with

   kluəŋ^{B} naaŋ^{A} hɔɔ^{C}
   husband old fp.
   'I never think to return to live with the ex-husband (again).'
   (hopeless)

(5) Concerned - not concerned

The degrees of concern are from concerned to unconcerned.

1. maɪaaɪ^{C} nah^{A} mɔɔ^{B} ʔɔɔj^{C} huuc^{A} naan^{A} saliəŋ^{B}
   pity very doctor Oil die still young
   'I feel great pity – Doctor Oil died when she was still young.'
   (concerned)

2. nak^{B} jip^{A} hɯɯ^{A} koh^{A} jip^{A} kɔʔ^{B} caaŋ^{B} chan^{C} koh^{A} cam^{A} hɔɔ^{C}
   he come or not come then whatever I not wait fp.
   'Whether he comes or not, I will not wait for him.'
   (unconcerned)

6.4.4.3 Reality status

The reality status of a sentence gives the relationship between the subject matter and the assumed real world. Thus a sentence may be factual (the normal state), contrafactual, or uncertain.

(1) Factual

1. thaa^{B} kamaa^{C} kalak^{A} taak^{C} nɔɔŋ^{B} phɹɯp^{B}
   if rain fall water will flood
   'If it rains, it will flood.'

2. tom^{C} theet^{C} ʔaaju^{A} katii^{A}-see^{A} həəj^{C} kɔ^{B} wiɲ^{B} wiɲ^{B}
   aunt Theet age eighty already then lose one's

   woɹ^{C} woɹ^{C} ʔeeŋ^{C}
   memory forgetful fp.
   'Aunt Theet is eighty years old, so her memory is fading.'

(2) Contrafactual

1. thaa^{B} nak^{B} koh^{A} chaa^{A} sanam^{A} nak^{B} khoŋ^{C} huuc^{A} həəj^{C}
   if he not eat medicine he probably die fp.
   'If he had not eaten medicine, he would have died already.'

2. thaa^{B} ʔiɲ^{A} koh^{A} ciiw^{A} taam^{A} katiəŋ^{C} ʔiɲ^{A} khoŋ^{C}
   if I not go along water route I probably

   naan^{A} wiɲ^{B} ɹee^{C} pɹii^{B}
   still lose in forest
   'If I had not gone along the water route, I would have lost (the way)in the forest.'

(3) Uncertain

1. thaa^{B} pasii^{A} khat^{A} kɔ^{B} ʔaat^{C} nɔɔŋ^{B} huuc^{A}
   if snake bite then may will die
   'If (someone) is bitten by a snake (he) may die.'

2. thaa^{B} ʔiɲ^{A} tuən^{B} kasɯm^{C} kuk^{A} pɹak^{A} mat^{A} ʔiɲ^{A} khoŋ^{C}
   if I pass.Mk. human steal money all I probably

   baa^{B} baa^{B} bəʔ^{A} bəʔ^{A}
   mad mad fool fool
   'If all my money was stolen, I would probably be mad.'

6.4.5 Semantic Prosodies

The semantic prosodies in sentences include time movement, information flow, assertion structure, topicalization, reference structure, and cohesion.

6.4.5.1 Time Movement

The actions in a sentence may stand in various temporal relationships with each other ranging from simultaneous to overlapping or to separated succession. And these actions may be either linear or punctiliar.

1. chuək^{A} luk^{A} ŋɹəəm^{A} (T$_{1}$) ʔuuc^{C} m̩tih^{B} (T$_{1a}$) ʔuuc^{C} katoo^{A}
   pound ingredients take chili take galanga

(T$_{1b}$) ʔuuc^{C} huə^{A} hɔɔm^{A} (T$_{1c}$) katim^{A} (T$_{1d}$) luk^{A} (T$_{1e}$) chuək^{A} ʔam^{C}
take onion garlic salt pound for

laʔit^{A} pɔɔ^{A} luk^{A} kɹɯəŋ^{B} laʔit^{A} pɔɔ^{A} luk^{A} kɹɯəŋ^{B} laʔit^{A} kɔʔ^{B} ʔuuc^{C}
delicate then ingredients delicate then ingredients delicate then take

kapih^{A} dak^{A} (T$_{2}$) ʔuuc^{C} kapih^{A} dak^{A} ɹuəc^{B} kɔʔ^{B} ʔuəŋ^{C} jaaŋ^{C} ten^{B} lɛʔ^{B} (T$_{3}$)
Kapi put take Kapi put and then place like that fp.

'To pound ingredients, take chili, take galanga, take onion, garlic, salt…pound them until they are soft. When the ingredients are soft, mix Kapi with the ingredients. After mixing Kapi with the ingredients, leave them like that.'

Note that T$_{1a, b, c....}$ are used when actions occur at the same time. T$_{1}$, T$_{2}$ or T$_{3}$…..are used when actions occur at the different time or in sequence. According to the above example, T$_{1a}$, T$_{1b}$, T$_{1c}$, T$_{1d}$ and T$_{1e}$ occurred nearly at the same time, and so did T$_{2}$ and T$_{3}$. The word /pɔɔ^{A} kɔʔ^{B}/ 'then' and /ɹuəc^{B} kɔʔ^{B}/ 'and then' separated time movement into T$_{1}$, T$_{2}$ and T$_{3}$ but there are relationships among them, i.e. they occur consecutively and the actions are linear.

2. kasɯm^{C} tuk^{B} nak^{B} tɔɔŋ^{B} huuc^{A} ($\underline{T}_{1a}$) khɹuu^{B} kɯt^{A} kɔʔ^{B} pen^{A}
human every class. must die teacher big then be

kasɯm^{C} muuj^{C} nak^{B} ($\underline{T}_{1}$) kɔʔ^{B} tɔɔŋ^{B} huuc^{A} mɯn saa^{A} ($\underline{T}_{1}$)
human one class. then must die same
'All men are mortal, The Master teacher is a man so he too must be mortal.'
(T_1 is in a specific time which is punctiliar. T_{1a} is a general statement.)

6.4.5.2 Information Flow

A sentence is a mixture of new information and old information. The rules regarding the presence and deletion of old information, and the introduction of new information are:

1. In all forms, subjects or objects which are old information are usually deleted or replaced by pronouns if it is already known and the context is clear.

ɹuəŋ^{C} ʔɔk^{A} taa^{A} paaɹ^{C} nak^{B} chanɯn^{A} kluəŋ^{B} ʔaʔ^{B} naa^{A}
story grandmother grandfather two class wife husband fp.

tɔŋ^{A} nak^{B} ɹuəj^{C} ∅ tɔɔ^{B} maaɹ^{A} tɔɔ^{B} sɹɛɛ^{A} chuək^{A} kanuət^{B} naʔ^{B}
house he rich do field do paddy field pound paddy par

kuum^{A} kuum^{A} kakhoo^{A} pat^{A}
winnow winnow rice throw away

'The story is about a pair of wife and husband, old woman and old man, their family is rich. They do the paddy field, pound paddy, winnow it and throw the rice away …'

∅ = subject deleted (ʔɔk^{A} taa^{A})

2. New information may be introduced by mentioning the name of the participant.

taa^{A} mak^{A} ʔiin^{A} chanɯn^{A} plaa^{B} həəj^{C}
address Mak have wife new fp
'Mr. Mak has a new wife.'

6.4.5.3 Assertion Structure

The asserted (foregrounded) clauses are the main clauses of the sentence. One or more clauses in a sentence may be asserted.

1. pɹɔʔ^{B} thuun^{A} koh^{A} sabaaj^{A} nak^{B} ciiw^{A} thuəc^{A} mɔɔ^{B}
   because Thoon not well he go see doctor

   ɹaksaa^{A} ʔam^{C} pih^{A}
   cure for recover
   'Because Thoon got sick, he went to see the doctor in order to be cured.'

2. thaa^{B} mii^{C} kɯp^{B} thuu^{C} cat^{A} lɛɛw^{C} kɯp^{B} ɲaɹ^{C} tɔɔŋ^{B} ciiw^{A}
   if one body hot very then body shake must go

   ʔam^{C} mɔɔ^{B} nɛh^{A} haam^{C} ʔaat^{C} pen^{A} maliə^{C}
   for doctor look after blood may be Malaria
   'If anyone is ill and his body is very hot and shaking, he must go to see a doctor to check the blood because he may be sick with malaria.'

6.4.5.4 Topicalization

Topicalization determines which of the participants in a clause should be treated as the center of interest. It is basically manifested by mentioning the topic noun at the beginning of the sentence.

1. jaaj^{B} naa^{A} ʔɔt^{A} kɹaaɲ^{B} həəj^{C} bɔɔ^{C}
   address Naa stop alcohol fp. q.Mk
   'Has Mrs.Naa stopped drinking alcohol yet?' (subject focus)

2. khaniiw^{C} phee^{C} nak^{B} ciiw^{A} phiɲ^{A} miiɹ^{A}
   children three class. go to fish fish
   'Three children went fishing.' (subject focus)

3. muut^{A} khliŋ^{A} tuən^{B} khamuuc^{B} lɔɔ^{B} ləəj^{C} tuu^{B} ciiw^{A}
   younger older-sibling pass.Mk ghost deceive then escape go
   'The younger and older siblings were deceived by ghosts and ran away.' (object focus)

However, it is not necessarily the subject, nor even a nuclear participant, that is topicalized. The other elements of a clause can manifest the topicalization by their initial position of the clause.

4. paɹee^{C} sapaŋ^{C} ʔan^{A} ʔiin^{A} miiɹ^{A} kaaɲ^{C} kaaɲ^{C}
in swamp this have fish many many
'In this swamp, there are many fish.'(location focus)

6.4.5.5 Reference structure

The participants in a sentence may be referred to in various ways. Usually pronouns are used to refer back to nouns as shown in the example 1.

1. saaw^{A} ciiw^{A} kɯɯɯɹ^{A} sattahiip^{C} kaaɲ^{C} nɯm^{B} nak^{B} klap^{A} jip^{A}
Saaw go live Sattahiip many years she return come

ŋok^{B} tom^{C} suman^{A} kaaŋ^{A} tuəj^{C}
visit aunt Suman month last
'Saaw who has gone to live in Sattahiip for many years, (she) came to visit Aunt Suman last month.'

In the first clause, Saaw is new information indicates the subject 1. In the second clause, the pronoun /nak^{B}/ is used to refer to Saaw which now becomes old information.

However, if using a pronoun would make the sentence ambiguous, it is necessary to repeat the noun instead of using the pronoun.

Sometimes classifiers are also used to refer back to nouns as in the example 2 below.

2. tɔŋ^{A} ten^{B} pen^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A} khiin^{A} malɔh^{A} laŋ^{A} ʔan^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A}
house that be poss.Mk. child son class. this poss.Mk.

khiin^{A} saliəŋ^{B}
child daughter
'That house is my son's house, this one is my daughter's(house).'

In the first clause, /tɔŋ^{A}/ 'house' is new information but in the second clause the classifier /laŋ^{A}/ is used to refer to /tɔŋ^{A}/'house' which now becomes old information.

6.4.5.6 Cohesion marking

Cohesion are elements that show the internal unity of a sentence or its boundaries. Factors that help to bind a sentence together as a unified whole include: sentence boundary markers (time or location setting, final intonation, final particles, pause), internal linkage (participant continuity, similarity of lexical field, conjunctions, total intonation contour).

1. nak^{B} huum^{A} taak^{C} tɛɛŋ^{A} kɯp^{B} ɹuəc^{B} kɔʔ^{B} ciiw^{A} tɔɔ^{B} kaaɹ^{A}
   he take a bathe dress body finish then go do work
   'He takes a bathe, dresses himself and then goes to work.'
   (Conjunction)

2. ʔiin^{A} liək^{A} kaaŋ^{C} kɯp^{A} tɔŋ^{A} non^{A}
   have chicken many under house Non
   'There are many chicken under Non's house.'
   (Location)

3. samaj^{A} tuəj^{C} tɔɔn^{A} pen^{A} khaniiw^{C} naan^{A} koh^{A} ʔiin^{A} khɹaa^{A}
   in the old days when be child still not have way

   ʔiin^{A} thanon^{A} ləəj^{C}
   have road fp.
   'In the old days when I was a child, there were not any ways nor roads.'
   (Time)

4. chaa^{A} siə^{A}
   eat fp.
   'Eat'
   (Final particle)

5. miŋ^{A} ciiw^{A} talaat^{B} || tiiw^{B} kakhoo^{A} || puəm^{C} sɪɔk^{B}
   mother go market buy rice meat pig
   'Mother went to the market to buy rice and pork.'
   (Pause marked here by ||)

6.4.6 Presupposition

Presupposition components include sentence encyclopedia and contraexpectancies, rhetorical sentences, among others.

6.4.6.1 Sentential Encyclopedia

Sentence encyclopedia would include expected knowledge such as cause and effect relationships in the context or in general, culturally known and universally known. This information is usually not marked or stated in a sentence. The speaker expects the hearer to already know.

1. ʔuəj^{C} ciiw^{A} thuəc^{A} tom^{C} carəən^{A} ʔam^{C} ɪaksaa^{A} khɪɔʔ^{B}
   Auaj go see uncle Caroen for cure luck
   'Auaj went to see Uncle Caroen for improving his luck.'

To understand this sentence, the hearer must have in his encyclopedia the following information:

a) Samre people generally go to see Uncle Caroen when they are sick. (cultural)
b) Uncle Caroen can cure sick people by using herbs and the traditional method. (universal and cutural)
c) and (b) are presuppositions that the speaker expects the hearer to know.

6.4.6.2 Contraexpectancies

Unexpected events or contraexpectancies generally marked in Samre with tɛɛ^{B} 'but'.

1. mak^{A} ŋkɔɔ^{B} tɛɛ^{B} laʔeeŋ^{A}
   Mak foolish but diligent
   'Mak is foolish but he is diligent.'

2. khiin^{A} saliəŋ^{B} ʔiɲ^{A} ɲaaj^{C} samɹee^{A} koh ʔiin^{A} tɛɛ^{B} tanee^{A}
   child woman I speak Samre not can but listen

   diɲ^{A} ɹɯəŋ^{B}
   knowstory
   'My daughter can not speak the Samre language, but she can understand it.'

6.4.6.3 Rhetorical Sentences

Sentences whose speech act form is different from the speech act meaning. The sentence below is in the interrogative form but the speaker doesn't really want to ask a question, so it just implies declarative meaning.

mii^{C} diɲ^{A} wəəj^{A}
who know fp.
'Who can know?' (interrogative as declarative)

6.5 Transformational paradigms

Sentences, like clauses and noun phrases, may take sets of transformations. Following is a sample of the forms manifesting the Samre conditional root /Condition: khiin^{A} 'child'; huuc^{A} 'die'; həəj^{C} 'already' -Result: poo^{B} 'you'; ʔuuc^{C} 'take'; hiin ^{A}' it'; ciiw ^{A} 'go'; pat^{A} 'throw'/.

1. thaa^{B} khiin^{A} huuc^{A} həəj^{C} poo^{B} kɔʔ^{B} ʔuuc^{C} hiin^{A} ciiw^{A} pat^{A}
   if child die already you then take it go throw
   'If the child has died you should take it to throw away.'

2. pɹɔʔ^{B} khiin^{A} huuc^{A} həəj^{C} poo^{B} kɔʔ^{B} tɔɔŋ^{B} ʔuuc^{C} hiin^{A}
   because child die already you then must take it

   ciiw ^{A} pat ^{A}
   go throw
   'Because the child has died, you must take it to throw away.'

3. poo^{B} tɔɔŋ^{B} ʔuuc^{C} khiin^{A} ciiw^{A} pat^{A} pɹɔʔ^{B} hiin^{A} huuc^{A} həəj^{C}
   you must take child go throw because it die already
   'You must take the child to throw away because it has died already.'

4. khiin^{A} huuc^{A} həəj^{C} poo^{B} ʔuuc^{C} hiin^{A} ciiw^{A} pat^{A} thəʔ^{A}
   child die already you take it go throw fp.
   'The child has died, so you take it to throw away please.'

Formulas and functions :

1. if – Cond-then- Res	Uncertain
2. Cond-Res	Condition
3. because – Cond –Res	Normal
4. Res – because – Cond	Backgrounded
5. Cond – so- Res	Both C& R asserted

Functional elements:

thaa^{B}	' if' - Uncertain condition
kɔʔ^{B}	' then'- Result marker
pɹɔʔ^{B}	' because' - Known condition
∅	'so' - Result marker when both C and R are asserted

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Samre : a linguistic description

A linguistic description of Samre can be summarized below:

7.1.1 Phonology

7.1.1.1 Phonological word and Syllable structures

The word and syllable structures in Samre are rather conservative. In general, the phonological word consist of one or two syllables. The disyllable word consists of a presyllable and a major syllable. The stress is always on the main syllable which is the last syllable of the word. The presyllable always gets the reduced stress and transition vowel (see examples in Sec.2.3).

The collapse or reduction of presyllables, which is common in Mon-Khmer languages, also exist in Samre. There are variations in the Samre word structure due to the collapse of the unstressed presyllable (as mentioned previously in Sec.2.4.4.2), such as /laphaa^{A}/ ~ / m̩phaa^{A}/ 'snapping turtle'; /lamuəɹ^{B}/ ~ /muəɹ^{B}/ 'to retch', etc.

7.1.1.2 The Phonemes

There are three major classes of phonemes in the Samre language according to their function in the syllable: consonants, vowels and tones (see Sec.2).

The consonant inventory of Samre reflects a simplified version of the general Mon-Khmer consonantal system. There are 21 consonants in the Samre, they are /p, ph, b, t, th, d, c, ch, k, kh, ʔ, m, n, ɲ, ŋ, s, h, l, ɹ, w, j /. All of them can occur initially in a word.

The number of initial clusters in Samre seems to be fewer in comparison with Headley's tentative consonant cluster as mentioned in Sec.1.1.2.3. According to

the data, they are only 13 consonant clusters found in the Samre, they are /pɹ -, tɹ-, cɹ-, kɹ-, phɹ-, thɹ-, khɹ-, mɹ-, sɹ-, khl-, pl-, kl-, phl-/.

There are 13 final consonants in Samre. They are /-p, -t, -c, -k, -ʔ, -m, -n , -ɲ, -ŋ, -h, -r, -w, -j /. In comparison with Headley's proto final consonants (see Sec. 1.2.3.2) only the final /-s/ and /-l/ are not retained in Samre language. Most of the typical final sounds of Mon-Khmer languages which are different from Thai's final consonants, such as /-c, -ɲ, -h, -r/, are retained in this language as shown below.

kic^{A}	'small'
thaaɲ^{B}	'weave'
chuh^{A}	'to spit'
miiɹ^{A}	'fish'

The vowel phoneme inventory of Samre, composed of nine short vowels /i, ɯ, u, e, ə , o, ɛ, a, ɔ/, nine long vowels /ii, ɯɯ, uu, ee, əə , oo, ɛɛ, aa, ɔɔ/, and three diphthongs /iə, ɯə, uə/. This is similar to Headley's sound inventory of Pearic. (as shown in Sec.1.2.3.2).

As earlier discussed in Sec.2.5.2.3 that the Mon-Khmer languages are mostly register languages. However, at present some of languages in this language stock are becoming tonal languages. The classical example is the tones in Vietnamese (Haudricourt, 1954). A clear example of such a case is tonogenesis in Khmu Dialects of SEA (Suwilai, 1999). Suwilai concludes that Khmu demonstrates clearly different stages of tonogenesis. Her findings shows the primitive stages of voicing contrast in Eastern dialects that are changed to two register or two tone contrast in Western dialects. It confirms Haudricourt's hypothesis and adds register contrast as another step before becoming tone.

There are also various stages of development for the register complex for Pearic languages. Many dialects of Chong in Chantaburi still have contrastive registers (Huffman, 1985) and Martin (1974,1975). The Samre, which is in a transition stage of becoming a tonal language, has two supra-segmental features -- pitch and voice quality-- with different status. Pitch or "tone" is used as the principal component of contrasts. There are three contrastive tones. They are a mid level tone

(T ^{A}), a mid-low tone (T ^{B}), and a high falling tone (T ^{C}). Moreover, the breathy voice quality of the vowels may occur as the secondary non-contrastive role (its occurrence is optional and vary with each individual). The other language, which is also a Mon-Khmer language in Thailand, that reveals similar situation to Samre is the So (Thavung) language (Suwilai, 1996: 173). The suprasegmental phonemes of the So (Thavung) language are also described as register complex-- including voice quality, pitch, voicing of initial consonant, vowel height, vowel gliding and tension—that affects the whole syllable. The main features are voice quality and pitch which cluster and working together as contrastive features in this language.

7.1.2 Words

7.1.2.1 Word types

Word types in Samre may be free or bound morphemes. The free morphemes can be simple (/khaniiw^{C}/ 'child'; /taak^{C}/ 'water') or compound words (/ʔic^{A}/ 'excrement' +/ɹuəj^{C}/ 'fly' then becomes 'black spot'). The bound morphemes are prefixes and infixes. Only five prefixes have been found in Samre, they are **pa**-'side' as in /paliŋ^{A}/ 'above'; **ta**- 'only, just' as in /tamuuj^{C}/ 'only one'; **sam**- 'nominalization' as in /sambɔɔk^{B}/ 'a peel'; **ma**- 'human' as in /maluəŋ^{B}/ 'wife'; **m̥**- 'nominalization' as in /m̥puɹ^{B}/ 'poison'. The /-aN-/ is the only infix found in this language as in /chaniit^{C}/ 'a comb'; /phanuk^{A}/ 'a fan', etc. Reduplication of words or synonyms are also found to show plurality or intensification, such as /laʔeeŋ^{A} laʔeeŋ^{A}/ 'very diligent'; /kaaɲ^{C} kaaɲ^{C}/ 'very much'.

7.1.2.2 Word Classes

Word classes in Samre are divided into noun, pronoun, demonstrative, preposition, numeral, classifier, negation, modal, aspect, verb, adverb, emphatic, intensifiers, conjunction, question words, and final particle.

7.1.3 Phrases

Phrases are divided into two major types, nominal phrases and verb phrases. Other minor types are adverbial phrases and prepositional phrases.

7.1.4 Clauses

Basic clause types in Samre are divided into transitive, intransitive, descriptive, bitransitive, motion, existence, equational, ambient, locative, propulsion, quotative, quantitative and comparative. Clause peripheral elements includes time and location settings, beneficiary, instrument, accompanying subject and accompanying object.

7.1.5 Sentences

A sentence in Samre may be composed of clauses, either a single clause or clauses joined in various ways. They may be simple, juxtaposed, or conjunctive-linked. The major sentence illocutions are declarative, interrogative and imperative.

As indicated in my findings with respect to tonal distinctive feature, the impact of language contact over the years between the Samre and Central Thai is clearly observable. The shifting linguistic features of Samre support the sociolinguistic factors discussed briefly below in concluding that the Samre language is, indeed, seriously endangered.

7.2 Samre: an endangered language

7.2.1 Sociolinguistic factors related to the decreasing of Samre language

In Bo-rai District, the Samre language is a small language surrounded by various groups of people, such as Thais, Kasong (in Dan Chumphon District), and some Khmer people. Thai is the most influential language in the community. The Samre, naturally, are very shy and most of them do not want to be discriminated against by others so they hide their ethnic identity. All Samre now get Thai citizenship and they prefer to claim Thai origin. As their ethnic language may mark them as different from others, they avoid using it.

The Samre people are found only in the two villages, where they are far from each other. Besides, most of them live separately without any center among

them. The speakers are few in number. The degree of their Samre speaking abilities are not uniform(as previous discussed in Sec.1.4.2). The elder generation of Samre speakers are bilingual in Central Thai and Samre, having learnt Thai from the school when they were young. When their parents were still alive, they spoke Samre at home with their parents so they can speak the language. But their parents died many years ago and now their children have not learnt the language so they have nobody in the family to speak with. The children refuse to learn their mother tongue for the reasons that the Samre language does not have the writing system and it is shameful to speak. They ask their parent not to speak the language so their parents do not want to speak with the children. Some of the Samre parents say that they were advised by the former Thai teachers not to speak the language with the children otherwise they could not learn to speak and read Thai well.

In collecting data from the Samre people, most of them seemed to be wondered why I was interested in their language. I explained to them that I was going to do linguistic analysis for the Samre language. They might take some advantage from my study if any of the speakers would like to preserve the language. But their reactions showed that they did not care if their language survived or not. It was rather difficult to elicit the linguistic data from the Samre speakers because most of them had forgotten a lot of vocabulary items, folktales, songs, etc. Trying to motivate them to speak the language, I had called for them to meet the others at one's house. Some could not join us because they had to go to work, though most of the elders came to the meetings. At first they were shy to speak but when I greeted and talked to them in the Samre language they seemed to be more comfortable to speak. My main informant tried to initiate the conversation. Most of them could communicate only with short messages which were commonly used. A few of them could tell longer stories; however, they often switched to speak Thai. I had to remind them to speak their ethnic language. Sometimes, they needed time to recall some words that were seldom used, such as /miiɾ^{A} kapɔɔt^{B}/ 'glove fish' and some of them said that they did not want to think hard about what they had already forgotten.

Now, there is usually only one or two persons in each family who can still speak the language. These people speak Samre among their groups often at homes

and they speak a Trat Thai with the other ethnic groups. However, most of the Samre speak Thai more than their own ethnic language. This contributes to the minority group's assimilation to the Thai way of living and speaking and their fluency in their mother tongue has been steadily decreasing.

7.2.2 Linguistic impacts from the dominant language

The descriptive study of the language reveals that it has been havily influenced by Standard Thai which is the official language and Trat Thai which is the regional language of the area. The influences are found lexically, phonologically, and syntactically.

7.2.2.1 Samre vocabulary items

Many endangered languages of Mon-Khmer in Thailand have obviously found use for a lot of Thai loan words, such as the So (Thavung) language (Suwilai, 1996 :164). In the Samre language, about half of the 3000 words I have collected are Thai loan words. They are both content words and grammatical words. The grammatical words are mainly Thai loans (see Sec.6.2.2.3). Some of the time words (days of the week, months in a year), place names, people names, pronouns, kinship terms, numerals, and classifiers are borrowed from Thai.

The Thai loan words are great in number and in a wide ranges of all semantic fields. Many loan words are related to high technology (utensils and equipments), political terms, religion (Buddhism), education, travelling, modern housing or dressing styles, Thai food, trees and flowers in Thai names, etc.

time word	baaj^{A}	'afternoon'
place name	bɔɔ^{B} ɹai^{C}	'Bo-rai'
pronoun	chan^{C}	'I' (first person singular)
kinship term	naa^{C}	'the mother's younger sister'
numeral	mɯɯn^{A}	'ten thousand'
classifier	laŋ^{A}	'a classifier (for houses)'

etc.

Some of the verbs, such as equational verbs /-kəət^{A}/ 'to be'; /pen^{A}/ 'to be'; /klaaj^{A} pen^{A}/ 'become'or a quantitative verb /lakhaa^{C}/ 'cost',etc. are Thai loan words. Other Thai loan verbs are /duut^{C}/ 'suck'; /thɔɔt^{B}/ 'fry'; /hiw^{C}/ 'hungry'; /sa?^{A}/ 'wash (hair); /ŋom^{C}/ 'grope in water'; /khajap^{A}/ 'adjust'; /phut^{A}/ 'rise up'; /thɔɔj^{A}/ 'walking backward'; /kɹiit^{C}/ 'use pointed end of knife cut open on surface'; /sɔɔj^{A}/ 'cut in thin small pieces'; /khiə^{B}/ 'remove'; /luup^{B}/ 'stroke'; /siəp^{B}/ ' to thread', etc.

1. nak^{B} duut^{C} taak^{C} ?aw^{A} con^{A} mat^{A} kɛɛw^{B}
   he suck water until empty glass
   'He sucks the water until it's empty.'

2. miŋ^{A} sa?^{A} suk^{A} ?uək^{C} khiin^{A}
   mother wash hair give child
   'The mother washes the child's hair.'

Some modifiers for quality are also borrowed from Thai, such as /dɯɯ^{B}/ 'stubborn'; /plɯəŋ^{A}/ 'waste'; /son^{A}/ 'naughty'; /jaap^{B}/ 'rude'; /ŋum^{C}/ 'curved down'; /bii^{C}/ 'crooked twisted; /haam^{A}/ 'almost ripe'; /kɛɛn^{A}/ 'dwarf'; /chalaat^{B}/ 'clever ; /kooŋ^{C}/ 'cunning', etc.

1. phɹii^{A} khanaɹ^{A} thən^{C} tapiŋ^{A} haam^{A} haam^{A}
   fruit jack-fruit just ripe almost ripe
   'The jack-fruit has been almost ripe.'

2. taa^{A} nin^{A} ciw^{A} kɔ?^{B} katuk^{A} ŋum^{C} ŋan^{C} ?eeŋ^{C}
   address Nin go then back curved down like that fp.
   'Mr. Nin usually walks with his back curved down.'

There are some words which are borrowed from Trat dialect of Thai language, such as /japjɔɔj^{B}/ 'do bad thing', /mɯt^{A}/ 'feel a pity.'

The use of Thai loan words among the Samre speakers of different age groups are different. The older generation tend to use Samre words more than Thai words, but this may not be true to all people. The following are examples of Samre and Thai words that are used by the Samre speakers interchangeably.

English Gloss	Samre	Thai
'father'	khuuɲ^{A}	pɔʔ^{A}
'mother'	miɲ^{A}	mɛʔ^{A}
'beautiful'	meɲ^{C}	suəj^{A}
'to lull to sleep'	loom^{C}	klɔɔm^{B}
'rub'	duh^{A}	thuu^{A}
'a round'	lɯk^{A}	khɹaŋ^{C}
'ear (of paddy)'	katuəŋ^{B}	ɹuəŋ^{B}

etc.

Some Thai loan words are pronounced differently by the Samre speakers. The final sounds of these Thai loan words are changed according to the Samre final consonant system.

English Gloss	Thai		Samre
'plank, board'	kradaan	⇒	kataaɹ^{A}
'paper'	kradaàt	⇒	kadah^{A}
'vane'	kaŋhăn	⇒	taŋhaɹ^{C}
'to speak sarcastically'	prachót	⇒	pacɔh^{A}
'pan'	kathá?	⇒	katah^{B}
'to get sprained'	khlét	⇒	khlec^{B}

etc.

A presyllable is added to some monosyllabic Thai loan words to become a disyllabic word which is the typical Mon-Khmer phonological word structure.

English Gloss	Thai		Samre
'to grab with the mouth'	ŋáp	⇒	taŋap^{A}
'flying lemur'	baàŋ	⇒	kabaaŋ^{A}

etc.

The first syllable of Thai loan disyllabic words are pronounced as a syllabic nasal in Samre.

English Gloss	Thai		Samre
'to talk in one's sleep'	laməə	⇒	m̥məə^{A}
'a kind of flower'	lamciə̀k	⇒	m̥ciək^{A}
'pomalo'	sôm?oo	⇒	m̥?oo^{A}
'lymph'	námlɯ̌ə̌ŋ	⇒	m̥liəŋ^{B}

It is noticeable that some of the vowels in the Thai loan words are differently pronounced when are used in Samre.

English Gloss	Thai		Samre
'to be starved'	?ɔ̀t	⇒	?ɔ̱t^{A}
'to be unconcious'	salɔ̀p	⇒	salɔ̱p^{A}
'practice'	fɯ́kfɔ̃n	⇒	fa̱kfon^{A}
'buffalo flea'	lɯ̱ə̀p	⇒	lu̱əp^{C}
'move with fluctuating wave-like motion'	kapɯ̱ə̂m	⇒	kapə̱ə̱m^{B}

etc.

7.2.2.2 Phonological change

(1) Word and Syllable Structures

Though there are a few of trisyllabic words found in Samre, most of them are borrowed from Thai, such as /sokkapɹok^{C}/ 'dirty'; /?antaɹaaj^{C}/ 'danger'; /sappadaa^{A}/ 'week.' These trisyllabic words also cause a new patterns of word structures in the Samre language.

(2) Consonants

As mentioned earlier that there are 21 consonants in Samre and all of them can occur initially, however, the initial f- are also found only in the Thai loan words as in /faat^{C}/ 'to hit (rice)', /fɔɔŋ^{A}/ 'foam', /faam^{C}/ 'spongy,'etc.

From the 13 consonant clusters found in the Samre language mentioned above, only three of them that are different from Thai, they are: **sɹ-** as in /sɹɔk^{B}/ 'pig', /sɹuk^{A}/ 'village'; **cɹ-** as in /cɹam^{A}/ 'to soak', /cɹiəŋ^{A}/ 'ring'; **mɹ-** as in /mɹec^{B}/ 'pepper',

mɹiəŋ^{B}/ 'to sing' (the sound -ɹ- functions as the second member of the above cluster, except the mɹ- , may be dropped out as in /sɹuk^{A}/ ~ /suk^{A}/ 'village', /cɹam^{A}/ ~ /cam^{A}/ 'to soak'). The other consonant clusters in the Samre tends to be similar to Thai. They are composed of a stop plus a liquid: /pl-, pɹ-, phl-, phɹ-, tɹ-, kl-,kɹ-,khl-, khɹ-/, as in /p̲ɹii^{B}/ 'forest'; /t̲ɹuəj^{A}/ 'cow,ox'; /k̲ɹic^{A}/ 'breast, chest'; /ph̲ɹii^{A}/ 'fruit'; /kh̲ɹaaŋ^{B}/ 'alcohol'; /kh̲laa^{C} 'leaf'; /p̲liiw^{A}/ 'fire'; /k̲lɔŋ^{A}/ 'rice'; and /ph̲liim^{C}/ 'land leech'.

Besides, kw-, and khw- are found in some Thai loan words as in /k̲waaŋ^{B}/ 'wide'; /kh̲waaŋ^{A}/ 'to obstruct'. Mrs.Saengcan informed that when she had started learning the Thai language at school, she could not clearly pronounce the cluster /kw-/ and she substituted it by / pɹ-/ as in / k̲hw̲aaj/ 'buffalo' ⇒ /p̲ɹaaj^{A}/ by her pronunciation.

Though there are 13 final consonant in the Samre language, the final -ʔ are found mostly in Thai loan words and they are rare, such as /tiʔ^{A}/ 'to blame', /pɔʔ^{B}/ 'father', /mɛʔ^{A}/ 'mother', /ləʔ^{A}/ 'dirty', /thəʔ^{A}/ 'final particle'.

(3) Vowels

The vowel systems of Samre language and Central Thai are almost exactly the same. It is noticeable that the diphthongs /iə/ and /uə/ are more common used in the language than Chong and Kasong (see examples in Sec.2.5.2.2). However the diphthong /ɯə/ is restrictedly found as in /katɯ̲əŋ^{C}/ 'hard palate' and in the Thai loan words, such as /khɹɯ̲əŋ^{C}/ 'apparatus, utensil, machine'; /plɯ̲əŋ^{A}/ 'waste', etc.

(4) Suprasegmental features

Due to the similarity of tones in Samre and Thai languages, the tone in Samre is likely to be borrowed from Thai. The tones in both languages have their distribution in the syllable structures that are divided into the smooth syllables and the checked syllables. However, the Samre language also has the nasal syllable but its tone is always neutral. Besides, the pitch pattern of Tone B in Samre is similar to the falling tone of the Central Thai while the pitch pattern of Tone C is like the high falling tone. The allotones of Tone A in Samre have their pitch patterns as mid-level and rising. Though the pitch ranges of these allotones are not exactly the same as the level tone and the rising tone of Central Thai, their pitch patterns are not much different.

There are some words that are pronounced by Samre speakers with a pitch range which cannot be grouped in the sound system of Samre now. However, this pitch is assumed to be the fall-rising tone of the Central Thai that has been borrowed as well (in this study it is marked by ^{T}). The words with this pitch are few in number and some of them are Thai loan words (the underlined words), such as:

'a king of frog'	kuup^{C} bɔɔŋ^{T}
'Hibiscus subdariffa'	cɔɔ^{C} m̥puu^{T}
'to fib'	tɔɔlɛɛ^{T}
'slanted leg'	pluu^{B} pee^{T}
'boa'	pasii^{A} laam^{T}

7.2.2.3 Syntactical change

In the earlier days, prefixes and infixes are common in Mon-Khmer languages. But in Samre the affixation are not productive anymore.

Generally, there is a difference among Samre word order and Thai word order in some phrases. Due to the impact of the Thai language, Samre speakers may reverse the sequences of word order. For examples, the ordinary sequences in a noun phrases of Samre should be /chanɯn^{A} kluəŋ^{B}/ 'wife and husband' or /khah^{A} luəŋ^{A}/ 'a roasted banana', etc. However, the speakers of Samre now also accept the reverse order which is more similar to the Thai language as in /kluəŋ^{B} chanɯn^{A}/ and /luəŋ^{A} khah^{A}/ (which correspond to Thai /phŭə miə/ and /kluâj pi᷄ŋ/ respectively).

A great number of grammatical words used in Samre are Thai loan words. Some of them may not be exactly the same structures, however their functions are not different in the two languages.

The prepositions are /khaaŋ^{A}/ 'side'; /lawaaŋ^{B}/ 'between'; /ɹaaw^{C}/ 'about'; /cak^{B}/ 'from' ; /phɯə^{C}/ 'for'; /khɔɔŋ^{A}/ 'belong to' ; /kataŋ^{B}/ 'until'.

1. nak^{B} jip^{A} cak^{B} sɹɛɛ^{A}
   he come from field
   'He came from the field.'

2. khiin^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A} ii^{C} jaam^{B}
   child belong to who cry
   'Whose child cries?'

There are conjuctions that are borrowed from Thai, such as /thaŋ^{C}/ 'both'; ɪɛɛ^{B}/ 'but'; /ləəj^{C}/ 'so'; /lɛɛw^{C}/ 'then' ; /thaa^{B}/ 'if'; /pɹɔʔ^{B}/ 'because' ; /ʔaw^{A} con^{A}/ 'until'; /kɔʔ^{B}/ 'then'; /hɯɯ^{A}/ 'or'.

1. pɹɔʔ^{B} khiin^{A} huuc^{B} nak^{B} ləəj^{C} ŋec^{B}
   because child die she then fainted
   'Because her child died, she fainted.'

2. khiin^{A} saliəŋ^{B} hɯɯ^{A} khiin^{A} maluəŋ^{B} huuc^{A} laaw^{B}
   child daughter or child son die fp.
   'Who died, her daughter or her son?'

Modals that are Thai loan words are /khoŋ^{C}/ 'may'; /naa^{B}/ 'likely to'; /khuən^{C}/ 'ought to'; /tɔɔŋ^{B}/ 'must' ; /klaa^{B}/ 'dare'; /haan^{A}/ 'dare'; /kamaŋ^{A}/ 'might'.

poo^{B} khuən^{C} ciiw^{A} thuəc^{A} mɔɔ^{B} thəʔ^{A}
you ought go see doctor fp.
'You ought to go to see the doctor.'

Aspects that are Thai loan words are /kɯəp^{C}/ 'inactive aspect'; /kəəj^{B}/ 'used to'; /kamlaŋ^{A}/ 'to be in the action of'; /ɹɯəj^{B} ɹɯəj^{B}/ 'so on'.

ʔiɲ^{A} kɯəp^{C} tuən^{B} ɹot^{A} con^{C} naa^{A}
I almost pass.mk. car hit fp.
'I had almost been hit by a car.'

Final particles that are Thai loan words are /ʔəəŋ^{A}/ ; /siʔ^{B}/ ; /thəʔ^{B}/ ; /ləəj^{C}/ ; /lɛʔ^{B}/ ; /naa^{A}/ ; /nɔɔ^{A}/ .

1. maaj^{B} jaam^{B} siʔ^{B}
   not cry fp.
   'Don't cry!'

2. ʔiŋ^{A} koh^{A} ɹuəj^{C} naa^{A} ŋan^{C} ŋan^{C} ʔeeŋ^{C}
I not rich fp. so so fp.
'I'm not rich, just so so.'

The Thai word /jaàŋ/ 'the way to modify manner of an action' is looks the Thai language as below:

ciiw^{A} jaaŋ^{C} hiək^{B} ' go hurriedly'
boɹ^{A} jaaŋ^{C} chiəw^{B} 'run quickly'

7.3 Recommendations for further research

1. Compile Samre dictionaries as data base for further researches, such as historical and comparative studies.

2. Collect more data, such as folktales, plays, games etc . in the Samre language for the discourse analysis and they will be reserved as written documents.

3. Study the Samre language in the domain of Socolinguistics, such as code switching between Thai and Samre language, context of use, their attitudes toward the language, etc.

4. Conduct instrumental study for the suprasegmental features of the Samre language as supportive evidence for tonal development in this language.

5. Study Pearic languages in Cambodia as well as in Thailand since all of them are endangered languages (Matisoff, 1991), both synchronic and diachronic studies.

7.4 Conclusion

The description of Samre, both the linguistic and the sociolinguistic contexts, indicates that the situation of Samre language can be classified as stage 8 – the most seriously weak stage – in Fishman's (1991) scale, where reversing language shift seems the most hopeless. The Samre language has undergoned various changes -- a great number of loan words as well as phonology and modified syntax – as a result of Thai

influence. Moreover, the very few number of Samre speakers are steadily decreasing and their ages are over fifties. They seldom use their language and some of them have totally shifted to use the Thai language. Moreover, the children have not learnt to speak their mother tongue. Most of the people are not likely to take further steps for their language preservation.

At the present stage of my studies, I feel that language shift in Samre is so extreme and the motivation of Samre speakers to preserve the language is so lacking that the language is not likely to survive. Thus it may be assumed that in about twenty years, when the current speakers have died, the Samre language in Thailand and its inherent world view will be lost. However, the linguistic data of Samre has been recorded and analyzed. It is useful for Mon-Khmer studies as well as for the study of the characteristic of endangered languages in Thailand and in SEA. It is also the basis for revitalization of the language if there is an attempt in the future.

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APPENDIX A

VOCABULARY ITEMS OF THE SAMRE LANGUAGE

The Samre vocabulary items are grouped according to semantic fields below.

1. Geographical features, natural phenomena, and relationship with human beings
    - 1.1 Weather phenomena
    - 1.2 Topographical phenomena geological
    - 1.3 Water
    - 1.4 Soil and minerals
    - 1.5 Fire

2. Flora, flora parts and relationship with human beings
    - 2.1 Plants
    - 2.2 Flora parts
    - 2.3 Bamboos
    - 2.4 Flowers
    - 2.5 Fruits
    - 2.6 Vegetables
    - 2.7 Rice
    - 2.8 Grass and weed
    - 2.9 Verbs associated with plants
    - 2.10 Miscellaneous and plant products

3. Fauna, fauna parts, actions and relationship with human beings
    - 3.1 Domestic and wild animals
    - 3.2 Fowls
    - 3.3 Spiders and insects
    - 3.4 Snakes and crawling animals
    - 3.5 Fish and amphibians

3.6 Miscellaneous

4. Agriculture, hunting, gathering, fishing and tool etc
    - 4.1 Agriculture
    - 4.2 Hunting and traps
    - 4.3 Fishing

5. Houses, utensils and useful articles
    - 5.1 Building construction
    - 5.2 Parts of the houses
    - 5.3 Furniture, furnishing
    - 5.4 Kitchen utensils
    - 5.5 Household Necessities
    - 5.6 Tools
    - 5.7 Stationery

6. Food
    - 6.1 General food
    - 6.2 Various kinds of food
    - 6.3 Ingredients, condiments
    - 6.4 Sweet and dessert
    - 6.5 Beverage
    - 6.6 Food preparation and cooking terms

7. Cloths and ornament
    - 7.1 Clothes and accessories
    - 7.2 Ornaments
    - 7.3 Fabrics, clothes-making, wearing

8. Human body and function
    - 8.1 Head and face
    - 8.2 Body
    - 8.3 Limbs
    - 8.4 Buttock

8.5 General body

9. Life cycle, drug and sickness
   - 9.1 Life cycle
   - 9.2 Diseases
   - 9.3 Symtoms
   - 9.4 Treatment medications

10. Religion, beliefs and ritual ceremony
   - 10.1 Religion
   - 10.2 Beliefs in supernatural
   - 10.3 Ritual ceremonies
   - 10.4 Social custom

11. People, kinship, and society
   - 11.1 People and nationality
   - 11.2 Society
   - 11.3 Pronoun and address terms
   - 11.4 Kinship terms
   - 11.5 Occupations

12. Music and entertainment
13. Language and communication
14. Economic
15. Travelling and transportation
16. Characteristics and behaviour
17. Head and face actions
18. Mouth action
19. Hand action
20. Body action
21. Leg and foot action
22. General action and behaviour

23. Characteristic, quality, shape and size
    - 23.1 Colour
    - 23.2 Shape and size
    - 23.3 Measure
    - 23.4 Number and quantity
    - 23.5 Quality

24. Mental images, wanting, sensation

25. Expression for time

26. Grammatical words
    - 26.1 Demonstratives
    - 26.2 Classifiers
    - 26.3 Comparative
    - 26.4 Negative
    - 26.5 Prepositions and conjunctions
    - 26.6 Pre-verbs and Post-verbs
    - 26.7 Question
    - 26.8 Exclamative initial and final particles
    - 26.9 Useful words and expressions

27. Onomatopoeia

1. Geographical features, natural phenomena, and relationship with human beings

1.1 Weather phenomena

ʔaakaat^{A}	air
ʔic^{A} juuɹ^{B}	cloud
ŋaw^{C}	shadow
chaniit^{C} pɛɛ^{C}	very dark
chih^{A} kamaa^{C}	have rain bath
chɯn^{C}	damp
chɯp^{A}	dark
juuɹ^{B}	sky
kaaŋ^{A} chaniit^{C}	period of waning moon
kamaa^{C}	rain
kamaa^{C} jut^{A}	stop raining
kamaa^{C} saa^{A}	subside(rain)
kamaa^{C} kɛɛw^{B}	hail
kamah^{B} chaa^{A} taak^{C}	rainbow
kasɯm^{A}	star
kasɯm^{A} khiin^{A} liək^{A}	stars of chicken
kasɯm^{A} pacam^{A} muəŋ^{C}	evening star
kasɯm^{A} pacuəɹ^{A}	stars of plough
kasɯm^{A} kapee^{B}	stars of crocodile
kasɯm^{C} nɯə^{T}	North star
kasɯm^{C} ɹuŋ^{C}	Morning star
khaaŋ^{B} khɯn^{B}	period of waxing moon
khajaaɹ^{C}	wind
khamuuc^{C} phuŋ^{B} khuəŋ^{A}	shooting star
khamuuc^{C} phuŋ^{A} pliiw^{A}	shooting star

khɯm^{C}	cloudy
kɯɯ^{A} lan^{A}	thunder
lop^{B} thuu^{C}	shelter
mɔɔk^{C}	fog
phɯɯ^{C}	storm
pɹɔɔj^{A} pɹɔɔj^{A}	showering
sɛɛŋ^{A} thuu^{C}	sunlight
saap^{C} plɛɛt^{C}	flash
sanii^{C}	sun
sanii^{C} klɯk^{A} takaaŋ^{A}	lunar eclipse
taak^{C} lamuut^{C}	dew
takaaŋ^{A} kalak^{A}	moon sets
takaaŋ^{A} klɯk^{A} sanii^{C}	solar eclipse
takaaŋ^{A} puəŋ^{B}	full moon
takaaŋ^{A} soŋ^{A} klot^{A}	have halo
takaaŋ^{A}	moon
thɛʔ^{A} cak^{A}	lightning(as striking)
thɛh^{A} laac^{B}	lightning

1.2 Topographical phenomena geological

chuuj^{C} nuəŋ^{B}	mountain crest
chɹaŋ^{C}	steep
heew^{A} lɯŋ^{A}	chasm
hup^{A} nuəŋ^{B}	valley
kuək^{A} nuəŋ^{B}	hillside
nuəŋ^{B}	mountain
nuəŋ^{B} coot^{B}	high mountain
nuəŋ^{B} khuəŋ^{A} ʔuuɹ^{A}	Khlong on mountain
nuəŋ^{B} khuəŋ^{A} saŋaap^{B}	Khlong Sangaap mountain

nuəŋ^{B} lalɯh^{B}	collapsed hill
nuəŋ^{B} pajuuɹ^{A}	red soil mountain
nuəŋ^{B} pɔɔŋ^{B} sii^{A}	Khlong Plongsii mountain
nuəŋ^{B} samiŋ^{A}	Sa-ming mountain
nuəŋ^{B} samɔɔ^{A}	slope
nuəj^{B} kuuj^{A}	mountain
panɯm^{C}	anthill
san^{A} nuəŋ^{B}	ridge
siɲ^{B} nuəŋ^{B}	foot of mountain
tamnaan^{A} nuəŋ^{B}	plain of the hill
tham^{B}	cave
tii^{C} ɹaap^{B}	lain at foot of hill

1.3 Water

com^{C}	sink
com^{C} taak^{C}	sink
cuəɹ^{A}	flow
cuəɹ^{A} jaaŋ^{C} ɹɛɛŋ^{C}	cascade violently
cuəɹ^{A} ɹɯəj^{B} ɹɯəj^{B}	flow
fɔɔŋ^{A}	foam
kɛɛm^{A} taak^{C}	beach
kaak^{A} taak^{C}	to carry water
kalak^{A} taak^{C}	fall in river
kasɛɛ^{A} taak^{C}	tide
katiəŋ^{C}	brook water
khaaŋ^{A} taak^{C}	water's edge
khlɯɯn^{B}	wave
khuəŋ^{A}	canal
khuəŋ^{A} pɔɔŋsii^{A}	Ploongsii canal

khuəŋ^{A} sanoo^{A}	Sanoo canal
khɪaa^{A} taak^{C}	gully
lahəəj^{A}	evaporate
luuj^{C} taak^{C}	swim
lɔɔj^{B}	float
mat^{B} taak^{C}	water source
miŋ^{A} taak^{C}	river
muc^{A} taak^{C}	dive
ɳduuŋ^{A}	pound
paak^{C} khuəŋ^{A}	mouth of river
phɪɔɔŋ^{B}	decreased
puuɪ^{B} khlɯɯn^{B}	to be seasick
pɔh^{B} kɪaŋ^{A}	very dry
ɪɔɔŋ^{B} taak^{C}	waterway
saac^{B} taak^{C}	bail water out
sapaŋ^{C}	swamp
suu^{B} taak^{C}	go over the water
taak^{C}	Splash (adj)
taak^{C}	water(n)
taak^{C} ŋɯm^{C}	warm water
taak^{C} chaaŋ^{C}	cold water
taak^{C} cuəɪ^{A} jɛɛk^{C}	fork in waterway
taak^{C} kachɔɔk^{C}	move
taak^{C} kadaaŋ^{B}	hard water
taak^{C} kaden^{A}	splash
taak^{C} kalak^{A}	waterfall
taak^{C} kapəəm^{B}	wave-like motion
taak^{C} khɪat^{A}	leak
taak^{C} lot^{B}	water level is lower

taak^{C} lɯŋ^{A}	deep
taak^{C} mat^{B}	tear
taak^{C} nuəŋ^{B}	brook water
taak^{C} paak^{B}	high tide
taak^{C} phuŋ^{B}	spring up
taak^{C} phuh^{A}	spring
taak^{C} phuh^{A} thuu^{C}	hot spring
taak^{C} phɹɯp^{B}	flood
taak^{C} puk^{A}	spoil water
taak^{C} pɹii^{B}	cascade
taak^{C} sat^{A}	flow violently towards something
taak^{C} sɔʔ^{A}	erode
taak^{C} sɹam^{A}	dirty water
taak^{C} thuu^{C}	hot water
taak^{C} won^{C}	deep pool
taak^{C} ɹiit^{C}	shallow water
taak^{C} puəŋ^{B} piəm^{B}	overflow
taak^{C} poŋ^{C}	
taak^{C} khɹam^{C}	slosh
taak^{C} laʔɔɔŋ^{C} kɹap^{A}	dregs
taak^{C} chiəw^{B}	swift water
taak^{C} kɹah^{A}	ice
taam^{A} taak^{C}	along the current of river
thalee^{B}	sea
thiim^{C} taak^{C}	source of river
thɔk^{B}	dribble

1.4 Soil and minerals

din^{A} kaam^{C}	gunpowder
kahuəŋ^{A}	steel
kahuəŋ^{A} lɔɔ^{A}	cast iron
kapaŋ^{C} kapaaw^{A}	mud hole
kapuək^{B} nih^{A}	animal hole
kasɛc^{A}	sand
kham^{A}	gold
kheet^{C} dɛɛn^{A}	border
khɹɯəŋ^{C} thee^{C} puəh^{C}	potter
kɔɔ^{C}	island
look^{B}	world
maʔɯk^{A}	dust
maap^{B}	lower land
miɲ^{A} kahuəŋ^{A}	magnet
mɯəŋ^{A} tɔɔ^{B} wɛɛn^{B}	mine
pɛc^{A} kahɛɛŋ^{A}	dry
phet^{A} taak^{C} kamuuc^{B}	a kind of ruby
phlɯk^{A} muə^{C}	floating of dust
phuŋ^{A}	mud
phɯɯn^{C}	ground
phɯɯn^{C} thee^{C}	earth, land
pɹak^{A}	silver
pɹii^{B} cakaat^{C}	forest
pɹɯɯ^{B}	earth dam
ɹɛɛ^{C} mɯəŋ^{A}	metal
ɹaap^{B} ɹiəp^{B}	level
sɹaŋ^{C}	bank (of river)
takuə^{C}	lead

thɛɛw^{A}	row
tham^{B}	cave
thamoo^{C}	Rock
thee^{C}	soil
thee^{C} luən^{C}	mold
thee^{C} luən^{C} pon^{C} thee^{C} kasɛc^{A}	sandy soil
thee^{C} niəw^{B}	dry clay
thee^{C} phuŋ^{A}	mud
thee^{C} sanim^{A}	rust soil
thee^{C} phɔɔŋ^{A}	a clay rich in alumina
thɔɔŋ^{A} ŋaɹ^{A}	copper
thɔɔŋ^{A} jɔh^{A}	bronze
thɹaŋ^{B} kɯɯɹ^{A} ɹee^{C} thee^{C}	hole
tii^{C} kathee^{C}	at lower place
tii^{C} koh^{A} satuu^{B}	grassless land
tii^{C} la?uuc^{C}	shed
tii^{C} ɹaap^{B} ɹiəp^{B}	level place
tuŋ^{A} thamoo^{C} kic^{A}	gravel
wɛɛn^{B}	ruby
wɛɛn^{B} ŋaɹ^{B}	red ruby
wɛɛn^{B} caŋ^{A}	garnet
waaɹ^{B}	plain, field

1.5 Fire

?uuh^{A}	firewood
cap^{B} pliiw^{A}	ignite
chaaw^{C}	burn
chaaw^{C} kahɔŋ^{C}	burnt black
chaaw^{C} laam^{C}	burnt in large area
chaaw^{C} ɹɛɛŋ^{A}	blaze up brightly

chɯə^{C} pliiw^{A}	fuel
huu^{A}	blow, start fire
kah^{A} pliiw^{A}	warm at fire
khajah^{A} pliiw^{A}	glowing coals
khajah^{A} nih^{A}	charcoal
khajak^{A}	burn
khamah^{A}	smoke
khamah^{A} paak^{B} pen^{A} woŋ^{C}	smoke rising
khamin^{C}	soot
khop^{A} pliiw^{A}	torch made from dried bamboo
kɔɔ^{B} pliiw^{A}	build fire
maʔɯk^{A} pliiw^{A}	flame
paaŋ^{A} pliiw^{A}	fireworks
phic^{A} pliiw^{A}	stop, cease
pliiw^{A} chaaw^{C}	blaze up
pliiw^{A} khiit^{C}	match(noun)
pliiw^{A} pathoh^{A}	sparks
pliiw^{A} pɹii^{B}	forest fire
pliiw^{A}	fire
pliiw^{A} tɛh^{A}	lighter
puəh^{C}	burn
puəh^{C} pliiw^{A}	burn
pɔh^{A}	ash
ɹuuɹ^{A}	singe
tuuc^{A} pliiw^{A} khiit^{C}	light match
tɔɔ^{B} pliiw^{A}	light one fire from another

2. Flora, flora parts and relationship with human beings

2.1 Plants

cɔɔ^{C} kajaak^{C}	Garcinia
cɔɔ^{C} kəɪ^{A}	a kind of lemon
daɪ^{A}	The lettuce plant
diiplii^{C}	Genus piper
nih^{A}	wood
pɪii^{B}	forest
pɪii^{B} kamooŋ^{A}	jungle
pɪii^{B} lamɔʔ^{A}	bracken
pɪii^{B} pɪooŋ^{A}	forest
pɪii^{B} thɯp^{A}	jungle
sabuu^{C}	cane
samɪɔɔŋ^{A}	a kind of tree
suum^{C}	liana
suum^{C} kaaloŋ^{A}	a kind of flower
suum^{C} mɯɯ^{B}	climbing plant
suum^{C} wiit^{B}	green climbing plant
suək^{C}	mango tree
thiim^{C} phaphutlaksaa^{A}	canna plant
thiim^{C} caak^{A}	nida palm
thiim^{C} campaa^{A}	a kind of tree
thiim^{C} chɔɔ^{C} muuj^{B}	horse-eye bean
thiim^{C} dawɪɯəŋ^{A}	a kind of tree
thiim^{C} duun^{A}	taro
thiim^{C} kɛɛncan^{A}	sandal tree
thiim^{C} khlɔŋ^{C}	a kind of tree
thiim^{C} madɯə^{C}	beech

thiim^{C} nih^{A}	tree
thiim^{C} niw^{C}	bansaminaceae
thiim^{C} paam^{A}	palm tree
thiim^{C} phoo^{A}	bodni tree
thiim^{C} sak^{A}	teak wood
thiim^{C} saɪ^{B}	a kind of tree
thiim^{C} son^{A}	pine
thiim^{C} sɪii^{B}	banyan tree
thiim^{C} taan^{A}	toddy palm
thiim^{C} tabɛɛk^{B}	a kind of tree
thiim^{C} teŋ^{A}	a kind of tree
thiim^{C} ɪaŋ^{A}	a kind of tree
thiim^{C} ɪak^{B}	a kind of tree
thiim^{C} duuŋ^{A}	coconut
thiim^{C} kaaɪ^{C}	olive
thiim^{C} kathɛɛŋ^{B}	a kind of tree
thiim^{C} kathiəŋ^{B}	a kind of tree
thiim^{C} khlak^{A}	a kind of flower

2.2 Flora parts

caaw^{A} duuŋ^{A}	coconut heart
chuuj^{C} nih^{A}	tree top
chɔɔ^{B}	mango flower
chɔɔ^{B} nih^{A}	bunch
jɯə^{B}	fruit fiber
kɛɛn^{A} nih^{A}	hard wood
kantuəŋ^{B} luəŋ^{A}	bunch of bananas
khlaa^{C} luəŋ^{A}	banana leaf
khlaa^{C} nih^{A}	leaf

khlaa^{C} nih^{A} puut^{C}	young leaf
khlaa^{C} nih^{A} chɯh^{A}	turn yellow and fall (leaf)
khuə^{B}	connecting point where stem is attached fruit
khɔɔ^{B}	segment of plant
kliip^{C}	petal
koon^{B} nih^{A}	tree stump
kɹaaŋ^{A} khop^{A} nih^{A}	main fork of tree
kɹaaŋ^{A} kuəc^{C}	young bunch
kɹaaŋ^{A} nih^{A} jah^{A}	bushwood
kɹaaŋ^{A} nih^{A} phee^{C} kɹaaŋ^{A}	forked branch
kɹaaŋ^{B}	branch
lalɛh^{A}	hand of bananas
lam^{A} thiim^{C}	tree trunk
muuɹ^{C}	clf. for fruit and round objects
paaŋ^{A} luəŋ^{A}	part of banana flower bud
paɹee^{C} thiim^{C} nih^{A}	heartwood of tree
phum^{B} nih^{A}	bush
plɔɔŋ^{B}	segment of plant
pɹooŋ^{C}	hole
ɹiih^{C}	root
ɹiih^{C} lɔɔj^{B}	branch roots as distinguished form
saket^{A} nih^{A}	splinter
salaa^{C}	thorn
sambɔɔk^{B}	outer covering
saɹ^{B} nih^{A}	glue
sum^{C} nih^{A}	bush
takɯɯ^{C} nih^{A}	stump
thaaŋ^{A}	forked branch

2.3 Bamboos

kasɯɯ^{A}	bamboo
jɯə^{B} kasɯɯ^{A}	bamboo fiber
thiŋ^{C}	bamboo shoot
kasɯɯ^{A} jah^{A}	dried bamboo
kasɯɯ^{A} suk^{A}	a kind of bamboo tree
kasɯɯ^{A} toŋ^{A}	a kind of bamboo
keesɔɔn^{A} paaŋ^{A} nih^{A}	pollen
khan^{A} ʁom^{B}	bamboo shoot
lam^{A} malɔɔk^{C}	bamboo tree
mat^{B} kasɯɯ^{A}	bud of plant
sanɯɯ^{C}	a kind of bamboo
thiim^{C} maaj^{C} ʁuəp^{C}	a kind of bamboo tree
thiim^{C} saaŋ^{A}	bamboo tree
thiŋ^{C} tɔɔ^{B} cɔɔ^{C}	soured bamboo shoot
thiŋ^{C} kuəc^{C}	young (bamboo)

2.4 Flowers

baanchɯɯn^{B}	a kind of flower
kulaap^{B}	rose
luəŋ^{A} nih^{A}	orchid
naaŋ^{A} jɛɛm^{C}	a kind of flower
ŋɔɔn^{A} liək^{A}	a kind of flower
paaŋ^{A}	class. for flower
paaŋ^{A} ʔɔɔ^{B}	reed
paaŋ^{A} buə^{A}	lotus
paaŋ^{A} kathin^{C}	a kind of flower
paaŋ^{A} khɛɛm^{A}	elephant grass

paaŋ^{A} khleem^{A}	Melodorum fruticosum
paaŋ^{A} koh^{A} diŋ^{A} ɹooj^{A}	Immortelle
paaŋ^{A} kok^{A}	a kind of flower
paaŋ^{A} mali?^{A}	Jasmine
paaŋ^{A} nih^{A}	flower
paaŋ^{A} nih^{A} baan^{A}	blooming flower
paaŋ^{A} nih^{A} tum^{A}	bud
paaŋ^{A} phikun^{A}	Mimusops elengi
paaŋ^{A} thaan^{A} sanii^{C}	Sunflower
paaŋ^{A} faaj^{B}	cotton flower
paaŋ^{A} kamcaaj^{A}	a kind of flower
phlapphlɯŋ^{A}	a kind of flower
phutsɔɔn^{C}	a kind of flower
paaŋ^{A} jɔk^{B} miəw^{B}	Rauwenhoffia siamensis
saajjut^{A}	desmos chinensis
tum^{A}	budding

2.5 Fruits

chomphuu^{B}	rose apple
cɔɔ^{C}	orange
cɔɔ^{C} lalah^{A}	wild mangosteen
cɔɔ^{C} majoŋ^{A}	a kind of fruit
cɔɔ^{C} puək^{C}	a kind of fruit
cɔɔ^{C} saa^{B}	a kind of fruit
cɔɔ^{C} mapɹiiŋ^{A}	a kind of fruit
cɔɔ^{C} lakam^{C}	a kind of fruit
cɔɔ^{C} makhaam^{A}	tamarind
cɔɔ^{C} m̩?oo^{A}	pomelo
cɔɔ^{C} sambɔɔk^{B} kathiŋ^{C}	a kind of orange

cɔɔ^{C} sii^{A} laman^{A} jaaŋ^{C} puəm^{C} duɯk^{A}	litchi
cɔɔ^{C} siilaman^{A}	a kind of fruit
cɔɔ^{C} suək^{C} paaŋ^{A} nih^{A}	a kind of mango
cɔɔ^{C} suək^{C} pɹii^{B}	wild mango
cɔɔ^{C} suək^{C} chɔɔ^{B} koh^{A} sanɔk^{A}	a kind of mango
cɔɔ^{C} suək^{C} hin^{A} m̩phaan^{C}	a kind of mango
cɔɔ^{C} suək^{C} kamuuc^{A}	a kind of mango
cɔɔ^{C} suək^{C} kɹic^{A} ɹɔɔŋ^{B}	a kind of mango
cɔɔ^{C} wiit^{B} ŋaam^{C}	a kind of orange
juəŋ^{A}	a kind of fruit
khanaɹ^{A}	jackfruit
khlɔŋ^{C}	A kind of fruit
laŋkhut^{A}	mangosteen
laaŋsaat^{B}	a kind of fruit
lahuŋ^{A}	papaya
lahuŋ^{C}	castor oil plant
lamjaj^{C}	longan
lamut^{A}	naseberry
luəŋ^{A}	banana
luəŋ^{A} khuuɹ^{C}	a kind of banana
luəŋ^{A} lawaa^{B}	a kind of banana
luəŋ^{A} tuək^{A}	a kind of banana
maŋuə^{B}	a kind of fruit
mafɯəŋ^{A}	Carambolfruit
makhaam^{A}	tamarind
makhaam^{A} cɔɔ^{C}	sour tamarind
makhaam^{A} pɔɔm^{B}	emblic myrobalan
manah^{B}	pine-apple

nɔɔjnaa^{B}	custard apple
phutsaa^{A}	Chinese date
phɹii^{A}	fruit
phɹii^{A} jɔk^{A} miəw^{B}	a kind of fruit
phɹii^{A} khiəŋ^{C}	Java plum
phɹii^{A} lakoo^{C}	a kind of fruit
phɹii^{A} ʔajŋun^{T}	grape fruit
phɹii^{A} thɔɔ^{C}	apricot
phɹii^{A} ŋɔʔ^{A}	rambutan
suən^{A}	garden
thuɹiən^{C}	durian
thɹaa^{C}	guava

2.6 Vegetables

ʔuuɹ^{A}	yam
ʔuuɹ^{A}	casssava
ʔuuɹ^{A} ʔon^{B}	potato
ʔuuɹ^{A} haam^{C} liək^{A}	blood potato
ʔuuɹ^{A} kɛɛw^{A}	yam bean
ʔuuɹ^{A} lawaa^{B}	sweet potato
ʔuuɹ^{A} tak^{A}	dioscorehispid tuber
capluu^{C}	leaf of betel
kalamplii^{C}	cabbage
kataak^{C}	bean
kataak^{C} lantaw^{C}	garden pea
kataak^{C} kapaaj^{C} sɹuŋ^{B}	winged bean
kataak^{C} niw^{C} naaŋ^{A}	bonavist
kataak^{C} caŋ^{A}	mung bean
kataak^{C} jɔh^{A}	soy bean
kataak^{C} koŋ^{A}	long bean
kataak^{C} thee^{C}	soil bean

kataak^{C} tɔk^{A}	bean sprout
kataak^{C} wiit^{B}	mung bean
khiin^{A} taak^{C}	water weed
khiin^{C}	squash
khlaa^{C} lɔk^{A} katuh^{A}	a kind of vegetable
khɹee^{A} kadaat^{B}	eddoes
m̥pɔŋ^{C}	vegetables
m̥pɔŋ^{C} saʔom^{C}	acacia
m̥pɔŋ^{C} sot^{A}	fresh (vegetables)
malɛɛ^{A}	pumpkin
maluu^{B}	betel leaves
mawɛɛŋ^{C}	bitter tomato
maɹah^{B}	bitter melon
m̥pɔŋ^{C} phak^{A} wɛɛn^{B}	herb of the genus Hydrocotyle
nɔŋ^{C}	luffgourd
nɔɔŋ^{C} khuuɹ^{C}	luffgourd
nɔɔŋ^{C} liəm^{B}	luffgourd
paliiw^{C}	eggplant
paliiw^{C} suk^{A}	lime
paliiw^{C} kahɔŋ^{C}	eggplant
paliiw^{C} lakhɔɔn^{C}	bunch eggplant
paliiw^{C} muəŋ^{B}	eggplant
phak^{A}	vegetable
phak^{A} buŋ^{B}	morning-glory
phɹii^{B} m̥puj^{A}	pigeon pea
piɲ^{A} pɔh^{A}	tomato
ɹuəɹ^{A}	cucumber
ɹuəɹ^{A} tuəŋ^{A}	cucumber
ɹuəɹ^{A} ŋan^{A}	musk melon
ɹuəɹ^{A} ɹaan^{C}	cucumber
ɹuəɹ^{A} ɹit^{B}	water melon
saaj^{A} tiŋ^{A}	a kind of vegetable
saaj^{A} tɔɔj^{B}	a kind of vegetable

samuuj^{C}	floating weeds
satuŋ^{C} kic^{A}	wax gourd
satuŋ^{C} kɯt^{A}	wax gourd
satuŋ^{C} wiit^{B}	wax gourd
saɪaaj^{C}	algae
taban^{A}	an aquatic plant
tamlɯŋ^{C}	vegetable
thiim^{C} tamjɛɛ^{C}	nettle
tuŋ^{A}	tuber
tuŋ^{A} khɪee^{A}	taro
tuuh^{A} phak^{A} kaat^{B}	turnips

2.7 Rice

chuuɪ^{A}	plant
chɯŋ^{A}	to grow rice
ciŋ^{A} ɪuəŋ^{C}	set ears of paddy
jɔɔt^{C} kanuət^{B}	plant rice by dropping rice grain in hole
kadiəw^{A}	sickle
kakhoo^{A} klɔɔŋ^{B}	milled but unpolished rice
kanuət^{B}	paddy
kanuət^{B} ŋaɪ^{C}	a kind of rice
kanuət^{B} faam^{B}	wither, dry out
kanuət^{B} jah^{A}	dry (paddy rice)
kanuət^{B} klaa^{B}	a kind of rice
kanuət^{B} liip^{C}	unhealthy rice
kanuət^{B} met^{A} kic^{A}	a kind of rice
kanuət^{B} puŋ^{A}	pregnant (paddy rice)
kanuət^{B} sambɔɔk^{B}	unhusked rice
kanuət^{B} sombuun^{A}	healthy (rice)
katuuŋ^{B}	transplant rice seedlings
khajaam^{C}	chaff
khoo^{A} bɯə^{C}	soaked rice to be pounded with condiments

khoo^{A} muun^{A}	broken milled rice
klɔŋ^{A} kamec^{B}	sticky rice
kuum^{A}	winnow
laan^{C} puət^{B} kanuət^{B}	threshing-floor
lakee^{A}	winnow
lɯk^{A}	rice bran
met^{A} kanuət^{B}	grain
puut^{C}	corn
puət^{B}	to thresh
ɹuəŋ^{C} kanuət^{B}	ear of paddy
ɹɔɔn^{B} kakhoo^{A}	sift, winnow
samuuj^{C}	rice straw
samuəɹ^{A}	to beat
sii^{A} kanuət^{B}	mill
suk^{A} puut^{C}	corn fibers
sɹɛɛ^{A} lum^{C}	a field where high water is available
sɹoom^{C}	corn cob
wɯh^{B} kanuət^{B}	reap

2.8 Grass and weed

ŋuən^{A}	a kind of grass
kom^{B} satuu^{A}	mass of tall grass
laan^{C}	lawn
satuu^{A}	grass
wɯh^{B}	mow

2.9Verbs associated with plants

cam^{A}	to soak a slip
ciɲ^{A} paaŋ^{A}	bud
ciɲ^{A} phɹii^{A}	have fruit
cuk^{A} thee^{C}	covering ground

chɯɯ^{A}	sprout
kɛc^{A} nih^{A}	break
kat^{B}	knock down
khlaa^{C} dok^{A}	plentiful (leaves)
khlɔk^{A} puut^{C}	strip (kernels from corn cob)
khɯɯn^{B} ɹaa^{B}	get mildewed
kɔh^{A} n̤daaɹ^{A} thiim^{C}	break in middle
lajuun^{C} ~ kajuun^{C}	to shake
laluk^{A}	fall covering ground
laluk^{A} cak^{B} khuə^{C}	come from stem
lɯəj^{B} nih^{A}	creep
nih^{A} sapuk^{A}	rotten wood
pen^{A} phɹii^{A}	fruit
phɔɔ^{C}	plant
phɹii^{A} nih^{A} chɯh^{A}	ripe
phɹɯk^{A}	drop
phɹɯk^{A} sawɔɔn^{A}	blown
piŋ^{A} ŋɔɔm^{C}	overripe
piŋ^{A} piŋ^{A} wiit^{B} wiit^{B}	half raw and half ripe
piŋ^{A} con^{A} pɯəj^{A}	too ripe
sawiit^{C}	wilted
tɔk^{B} jip^{A} plaa^{B}	sprout
tɔk^{B} sɛɛm^{A} saa^{A}	inserted between two things

2.10 Miscellaneous and plant products

kɛɛn^{A}	do not grow
kanuut^{C} nih^{A}	section, piece
kapɹɔɔk^{C}	parasitic plant
kawaan^{C}	cardamom
khlaa^{C} makaw^{C}	tobacco
kluəŋ^{A} suŋ^{A}	log
kɹaam^{C}	aniline blue

maak^{C}	areca
maak^{C} laliiŋ^{A}	a kind of areca
maak^{C} malɔɔj^{C}	a kind of areca
maak^{C} katəən^{A}	a kind of areca
maciik^{A}	a kind of screw pine
makaw^{C} kalet^{A}	cigarette
nih^{A} kan^{A} pɹɯɯ^{B}	wood used in earth dyke
nun^{B}	cotton
paan^{A}	flax
pasiit^{A}	mushroom
pasiit^{A} taŋook^{B}	a kind of mushroom
pasiit^{A} pɹaaj^{B}	mushroom
pasiit^{A} tukkɛɛ^{C}	mushroom
pasiit^{A} palaaŋ^{B} khuən^{C}	mushroom
pasiit^{A} saɲin^{C} kanuət^{B}	mushroom
pasiit^{A} panɯm^{C}	mushroom
phlɛɛ^{A} khwan^{B}	track cut around piece of wood
puum^{A}	ripen
pɹiiŋ^{A} duuŋ^{A}	coconut oil
ɹee^{B}	rattan
ɹee^{B} plɔɔk^{A}	a kind of rattan
ɹee^{B} puəɹ^{A}	a kind of rattan
ɹee^{B} tabɔɔŋ^{A}	a kind of rattan
ɹee^{B}	rattan
ɹee^{B} huə^{A} diəw^{C}	a kind of rattan
ɹiih^{C} nih^{A} jah^{A}	dry root
ɹuh^{B}	to water

3. Fauna, fauna parts, actions and relationship with human beings

3.1 Domestic and wild animals

canaaj^{C}	tusk
cawsuut^{A}	bear
chamɯh^{B}	mon-goose
chɔɔ^{C}	dog
chɔɔ^{C} lɯŋ^{A}	dog
chɔɔ^{C} khiilɯən^{C}	mange
chɔɔ^{C} khiin^{A} kic^{A}	dog with puppy
ciih^{C}	deer
cut^{A}	spot on animal's skin
jaaŋ^{B}	gibbon
kabaaŋ^{B}	flying squirrel
kacɔɔ^{C}	civet cat
kanaaj^{A}	elephant
kanaaj^{A} sadɔɔ^{A}	elephant
kantɔŋ^{B} niəŋ^{A}	pangolin
kantɔŋ^{B} liiw^{C}	rabbit
kanɔh^{A}	tiger
kanɔh^{A} caŋ^{A}	panther
kanɔh^{A} kasɯm^{A}	leopard
kapaaw^{A}	buffalo
kasɯm^{C} chiim^{A} sat^{A}	herdsman
kathiŋ^{A}	guar
khuən^{C}	mouse
khuən^{C} liŋ^{A}	rat
khuən^{C} huəj^{A}	opossum
kɔɔk^{B}	stable
kɹiəŋ^{A} pamaa^{A}	bell at end of porcupine's tail
lak^{A} khuət^{A} kapaaw^{A}	pole for tethering animal
lawaaj^{B}	striped tiger

liip^{C}	castrate
luuh^{A}	barking deer
makɔɔŋ^{A}	prawn
makɔɔŋ^{A} jah^{A}	salty sun-dried shrimp
miəw^{B}	cat
pamaa^{A}	porcupine
phii^{C}	otter
phuək^{A}	squirrel
pluək^{B} kanaaj^{A}	trunk of elephant
plɔɔŋ^{B} ɹɛɛt^{C}	dewlap of bovine animal
sɛh^{A}	horse
sanaa^{C}	mouse-deer
sat^{A}	animal
siŋtoo^{C}	lion
suk^{A} kuək^{B} sɛh^{A}	mane
suk^{A} maaŋ^{B} miəw^{B}	cat's whiskers
sɹɔk^{B}	pig
sɹɔk^{B} pan^{C}	pig
sɹɔk^{B} pɹii^{B}	boar
sɹɔk^{B} thɔɔk^{B}	large male pig
tuuh^{A} phoo^{A}	white line on dog's or pig's face
tɹuəj^{A}	ox
tɹuəj^{A} pɹii^{B}	wild ox
waa^{A}	monkey
waa^{A} nuəŋ^{B}	macaque
waaɹ^{B} chiim^{A} sat^{A}	pasture

3.2 Fowls

ʔup^{A} tuŋ^{A}	hatch
chiim^{C}	bird
chiim^{C} kwak^{A}	a kind of bird
chiim^{C} kɔʔ^{B} ɹaaŋ^{B}	a kind of bird

chiim^{C} liək^{A} laa^{B}	moorhen
chiim^{C} liŋ^{B} khajaaɪ^{C}	seagull
chiim^{C} ʔiit^{B}	parrot
chiim^{C} ʔinsii^{A}	eagle
chiim^{C} huuk^{B}	owl
chiim^{C} kacɔɔk^{A}	sparrow
chiim^{C} kathaa^{A}	francolin
chiim^{C} khanthɔɔŋ^{A}	talking mina
chiim^{C} klɛh^{A}	wood pecker
chiim^{C} kulaap^{B}	pigeon
chiim^{C} kuuk^{C}	large horned owl
chiim^{C} kɪic^{A} ʔɛɛn^{A}	swallow
chiim^{C} kɪooŋ^{C}	myna
chiim^{C} lamiət^{B}	iora
chiim^{C} liək^{A} juuɪ^{B}	pheasant
chiim^{C} luk^{B}	a kind of bird
chiim^{C} maɪaak^{C}	peacock
chiim^{C} sɛɛw^{A}	drongo
chiim^{C} tɛɛwɛɛt^{A}	a kind of bird
chiim^{C} takɯɯɪ^{C}	dove
chiim^{C} ɪit^{A}	a kind of bird
chiim^{C} ɪuək^{B}	a kind of bird
daa^{A}	duck
haan^{A}	goose
hɯɯ^{A} pen^{A} muu^{B}	fly in a group
kaak^{C}	crow
kachiɪ^{C}	crest of cock
kaphɯɯ^{A} takɪiəŋ^{C}	flutter
katəj^{A}	crest of cock
khlaaŋ^{C}	hawk
khuuj^{C} thee^{C}	dig
khɔŋ^{C}	bottom
kɔʔ^{A}	perch

kɹic^{A} liək^{A}	chicken breast
kəək^{A} kəəŋ^{A} kəək^{C}	crowing of crock
liək^{A}	chicken
liək^{A} tɔɔ^{A}	decoy chicken
miŋ^{A} liək^{A}	hen
muək^{A}	bat
ŋkut^{B} liək^{A}	bamboo chicken cage
ŋaw^{A} ŋuəŋ^{B}	disease affecting chickens, making them seem lifeless
paat^{A} suk^{A} nuən^{A}	preen feathers
pɹok^{A}	the second stomach of the hen
sanaɹ^{C}	cock spur
sɹuŋ^{B} liək^{A}	chicken coop
takaak^{C} takaak^{C}	clucking of hen
takɯɯɹ^{C} wiit^{B}	dove
tamaat^{A}	vulture
tiɹ^{B}	crow
tuŋ^{A}	egg
tuŋ^{A} daa^{A}	duck egg
tuŋ^{A} liək^{A}	hen egg
tuŋ^{A} siə^{C}	unhatched egg
wəj^{B} takɹiəŋ^{C}	at wings

3.3 Spider and insects

ʔic^{A} khɯn^{A}	excrement from insect
ʔon^{C}	bamboo rat
ʔuəŋ^{A}	wasp
ʔuəŋ^{A} panɯm^{A}	wasp
ʔuəŋ^{A} thee^{C}	bees which lives in ground
chii^{A}	louse
chii^{A} chɔɔ^{C}	louse
chɔɔ^{C} laa^{B}	wasp

ciŋɹiit^{C}	cricket
dii^{A} lahun^{C}	a kind of insect
jaaw^{B}	scorpion
jaaw^{B} nɯm^{B}	giant scorpian
jaj^{C}	spider web
kacee^{C}	buck bettle
kamuut^{B} khlaa^{C} mahɯk^{A}	weevil, woodmite
khiin^{A} taak^{C}	mosquito larva
khɯn^{A}	insect
khɯn^{A} suut^{C}	a kind of insect
khɯn^{A} maluuj^{C}	fruitfly
khɯn^{A} pɔɔ^{A}	dragonfly
khɯn^{A} salaa^{C}	flying termite
khɯn^{A} thɔɔŋ^{A}	ladybird
kiət^{B}	cockroach
la?ee^{C}	midge
lalee^{C}	worm
lamuut^{B}	woodborer
lɯəp^{C}	insect which lives on blood of animals
malii^{C}	maggot
malii^{C} chuuj^{A} duuŋ^{A}	coconut rhinocerus beetle
mat^{B}	flea
mat^{B} chɔɔ^{C}	dog flea
mat^{B} kapaaw^{A}	buffalo flea
panaam^{B}	bee
panaam^{B} thiək^{A} sanii^{C}	a kind of bee
panɯm^{C}	termite
phloom^{C}	wax
phɹuəh^{B}	a kind of bee
pliiw^{A} pluut^{C}	firefly
poom^{A}	crowd
puŋ^{A} liiw^{B}	butterfly
ɹiin^{C}	gnat

ɹuəŋ^{B}	centipede
ɹuəj^{A}	fly
ɹɯət^{B}	bedbug
saaj^{C} wɛɛ^{A}	cicada
sambuk^{A} panaam^{B}	bee hive
sammawɛɛk^{C}	small red insect that eats root of rice
samuuc^{C}	ant
samuuc^{C} ŋaam^{B}	a kind of ant
samuuc^{C} ŋaɹ^{A}	red ant
samuuc^{C} caŋ^{A}	black ant
samuuc^{C} pliiw^{A}	red ant
sanaj^{C}	stinger of insect
suuc^{A}	mosquito
suuc^{A}	sting
taak^{C} panaam^{B}	honey
tanɔɔ^{C}	worm
tanɔɔ^{C} puŋ^{A} liiw^{B}	caterpillar
tanɔɔ^{C} suk^{A}	worm
thuu^{C}	hornet
thɹiək^{A}	grasshopper
tuŋ^{A} chɔɔ^{C}	louse egg
tuŋ^{A} maaŋ^{B}	spider
tuŋ^{A} miŋ^{B}	carpenter bee
tuŋ^{A} samuuc^{C}	ant's eggs
tun^{C}	mole rat
tuə^{A} kajam^{C} phɛɛk^{C}	tussock moth
tɔŋ^{B} panɯm^{C}	hole of termite

3.4 Snakes and crawling animals

canlaaŋ^{B}	monitor
ciŋcok^{A}	lizard
kajaaŋ^{A}	turtle

kajaaŋ^{A} khlaa^{C}	turtle
kajaaŋ^{A} kɪaa^{B}	turtle
kajaaŋ^{A} kɪah^{B}	turtle
kapee^{B}	crocodile
khot^{A}	roll incoil
koŋ^{C}	shell
kuŋwiək^{C}	millipede
pasii^{A}	snake
pasii^{A} laam^{T}	python
pasii^{A} lamuuj^{B}	a kind of snake
pasii^{A} miiɪ^{A}	poisonous water snake
pasii^{A} saŋ^{A}	cobra
pasii^{A} coŋʔaaŋ^{A}	king cobra
pasii^{A} kapah^{B}	pit viper
pasii^{A} kuup^{C}	a kind of snake
pasii^{A} kɪaa^{B}	a kind of snake
pasii^{A} pɪaaj^{B}	snake
pasii^{A} thaaŋ^{C} duuŋ^{A}	a kind of snake
pasii^{A} wiit^{C}	chrysopelea ornata
pasii^{A} chiim^{A}	python
pasii^{A} lɯəj^{A}	crawl
phliim^{C}	land leech
piɪ^{C}	water leech
pɔk^{B}	peck, strike
pɯh^{B} pasii^{A}	snake venom
takhooŋ^{A}	horned crocodile
takhuət^{A}	monitor
takhuət^{A}	monitor lizard
tanɔɔ^{C}	worm
tanɔɔ^{C} suk^{A}	hairy caterpillar
tukkɛɛ^{C}	gecko

3.5 Fish and amphibians

ʔɯŋʔaaŋ^{A}	bull frog
kasaaŋ^{A}	fish scale
khajɔɔŋ^{A}	shell
khajɔɔŋ^{A} khooŋ^{A}	a kind of shell
khajɔɔŋ^{A} ŋat^{B}	a kind of shell
khajɔɔŋ^{A} khlɔɔ^{C}	snail
khiin^{A} kuup^{C}	a small frog
khlɔɔ^{C} kliip^{C}	a kind of shell
kiəp^{B}	fin
kluəŋ^{A} miiɹ^{A}	fish bone
koŋ^{C} thaam^{C}	claws of a crab
kuup^{C} kaʔat^{A}	a small frog
kuup^{C}	small green frog
kuup^{C} ŋoop^{B}	a kind of frog
kuup^{C} bɔŋ^{T}	a kind of frog
kuup^{C} kampaat^{C}	a kind of frog
kuup^{C} kic^{A}	tadpole
kuup^{C} nuəŋ^{B}	a kind of frog
kuup^{C} ɹɛɛt^{C}	a kind of frog
kɔŋ^{C}	claw of prawn
m̩phaa^{A}	snapping turtle
makɔɔŋ^{A}	shrimp
maluəŋ^{C}	eel
miiɹ^{A} mɔɔ^{B}	climbing perch
miiɹ^{A} kapɔɔt^{B}	globe fish
miiɹ^{A} kiin^{C}	a kind of fish
miiɹ^{A} laʔiit^{A}	a kind of fish
miiɹ^{A} miŋ^{A} hoo^{A}	a kind of fish
miiɹ^{A} pasuəŋ^{A}	serpent headed fish
miiɹ^{A} saaŋ^{A}	carp
miiɹ^{A} sɔk^{A}	a kind of fish

miiɪ^{A} takɪap^{A}	a kind of fish
miiɪ^{A} thawaaj^{A}	a kind of fish
miiɪ^{A} ʔinsii^{A}	mackerel
miiɪ^{A} ʔoo^{A}	tunny
miiɪ^{A} buu^{B}	boby
miiɪ^{A} chanaak^{B}	saw-fish
miiɪ^{A} daap^{B}	cutlass fish
miiɪ^{A} kalɔŋ^{C}	a kind of fish
miiɪ^{A} kamaɪ^{B}	a kind of fish
miiɪ^{A} kasooŋ^{A}	a kind of fish
miiɪ^{A} khem^{A}	needle fish
miiɪ^{A} kliəw^{B}	a kind of fish
miiɪ^{A} mat^{B} caŋ^{A}	a kind of fish
miiɪ^{A} muk^{A}	squid
miiɪ^{A} nin^{A}	a kind of fish
miiɪ^{A} nuəncan^{A}	milky fish
miiɪ^{A} taaŋ^{A} kluəŋ^{B}	a kind of fish
miiɪ^{A} thuu^{A}	fish
miiɪ^{A} laliəŋ^{B}	silurus
miiɪ^{A} kɛɛm^{B} cham^{C}	a kind of fish
miiɪ^{A} kabeen^{A}	stingray
miiɪ^{A} salit^{A}	a kind of fish
miiɪ^{A} thalee^{B}	sea fish
miiɪ^{A} kataak^{C} chɔɔ^{C}	a kind of fish
miiɪ^{A} taphiən^{A}	dace
miiɪ^{A} tuun^{A} kɪoom^{A}	gar-fish
phɪiəŋ^{C}	barnacle
thaam^{C}	crab
thaam^{C} sɪɛɛ^{A}	crab
thaam^{C} nuəŋ^{B}	crab
thaam^{C} thalee^{B}	crab
thaam^{C} thamoo^{C}	crab
thaam^{C} sɪɛɛ^{A}	a kind of crab

3.6 Miscellaneous

baa^{B}	mad
chaɲɛɛŋ^{C}	to bare one's teeth
chiim^{A}	feed
chɯəŋ^{B}	tame
cɯt^{A}	scold
daan^{B} khɹaa^{A} sat^{A}	trail used by animals
dak^{A} ʔɛɛk^{B}	harness
fɯk^{A}	train
huəŋ^{A} khiin^{A}	guard, keep from others
kadik^{A} phah^{A}	wag
kadɯŋ^{A}	metal bell around animal's neck
kasee^{A} muh^{B}	rope used for harnessing buffalo's nose
kasɹah^{A}	claw
katuk^{A}	back
khluh^{A} muh^{B}	harness
khuuj^{C}	paws or claws
khɹaap^{B}	sloughed off, cast-off skin
khɹaat^{B}	scratch with claws
kiɹ^{B}	bark
kiŋ^{C}	fat
kliip^{C}	hoof
klɔŋ^{B} kwiit^{C}	screech
kɹuu^{B}	howl
laŋoo^{C}	tusk
luuc^{B} tuŋ^{A}	lay eggs
nook^{A}	a horn of a rhinoceros
ɲen^{B}	to bare one's teeth
pasom^{A} chanak^{A} sat^{A}	breed
phah^{A}	end of tail
phuuŋ^{A}	group
pii^{C}	to breed

pɹuək^{B}	trunk
ɹak^{B}	shut up
ɹiit^{C} taak^{C} jɔk^{A}	milk (vb)
ɹok^{B}	placenta of (big animal)
samɹaam^{C}	to growl
sat^{A} chiim^{A}	domestic animal
sat^{A} pɹii^{B}	wild animal
sonsaan^{A}	(of cattle) to wander
suk^{A}	feather
suk^{A} sɛh^{A}	hair of horse
suuc^{A}	horn
taŋap^{A}	bite
takaaj^{A}	(of a tiger) to scratch
takɹiəŋ^{C}	wing
takɹup^{A}	to grab
taloo^{C}	skin
tapop^{A}	seize
wɛɛw^{A}	(of a peacock) to spread his tail
wat^{B}	gore

4. Agriculture, hunting, gathering, fishing and tools

4.1 Agriculture

ʔuuc^{C} ɹɛɛŋ^{A} saa^{A}	work together
chuuɹ^{A}	plant (v.)
chuuɹ^{A} kanuət^{B}	plant rice by using sowing
chuək^{A} kanuət^{B}	pound
cɔɔp^{A}	hoe
hɔɔp^{C} ciiw^{A} kɔɔŋ^{A} tih^{A} tih^{B}	grab from one place to another
kabɔɔŋ^{A}	fence
kanah^{A}	rake
khut^{A}	to dig

khɪɯəŋ^{C} pacuəɪ^{A} sɪɛɛ^{A}	plow
lum^{C}	hole
met^{A} chanak^{A}	seed
phee^{C} ŋaam^{B}	fork
phluə^{C}	shovel
phɔɔ^{C}	to cultivate
phɯh^{B}	sow seeds by tossing them in air
plɛɛŋ^{C} mpɔŋ^{C}	plot of land
puəh^{C} maaɪ^{A}	burn field prepare it for next planting
ɪaan^{C} thiim^{C}	trellis
ɪooŋ^{B}	hut in field
ɪuuc^{B} pɪii^{B}	clear field before planting
ɪɔɔŋ^{B}	ditch
ɪɔɔŋ^{B} thee^{C}	furrow
saac^{C} kanuət^{B}	scatter
siəm^{A}	spade
tii^{C} thee^{C}	processed land, land with legal title
tɔɔ^{B} maaɪ^{A}	farm swidden field
waaɪ^{B}	field dry
waaɪ^{B} sɪɛɛ^{A}	rice field

4.2 Hunting and traps

cak^{A}	shoot
diŋ^{A} ciiw^{A}	chase
diŋ^{A} sat^{A}	hunt
kapdak^{A}	trap
katak^{A} dak^{A} chiim^{C}	a noose
leŋ^{A} mpləəŋ^{A}	aim
leŋ^{B}	to aim
luuc^{C} kapdak^{A}	trap (v)
luuk^{C} mpləəŋ^{A}	bullet
mpleeŋ^{A} khajaaɪ^{C}	a gun

mpləəŋ^{A} kɛɛp^{C}	a muzzle-loading gun
naaj^{B} pɹaan^{C}	hunter
nih^{A} kwaak^{A}	sharp pointed stick for trapping animals
nok^{A} mpləəŋ^{A}	a trigger
plaat^{C}	miss
sanaa^{A}	cross-bow
sanuu^{A}	arrow
taloo^{C} kɹaaŋ^{A} katik^{A}	sling
thee^{C} mpləəŋ^{A}	gun powder

4.3 Fishing

ʔuən^{A}	seine
cat^{A}	to catch for shrimp
çhamuək^{B}	to cast sidelong glances
daa^{A} dak^{A} miiɹ^{A}	a fish trap
hɛɛ^{A}	cast-net
jom^{A}	fish (by groping in water)
kapɔk^{A}	fishhook
kasee^{A} phiŋ^{A}	fishing line
kathɔŋ^{C} sɹaa^{C}	a fish trap
kathɔŋ^{C}	a fish basket made of ratten
lahoot^{A} ~ kahoot^{A}	a bamboo fish container
luuj^{C}	bait
ŋom^{C}	to dive for
phiŋ^{A}	fishhook
phiŋ^{A} kuŋ^{C}	fishhook
phiŋ^{A} miiɹ^{A}	fish (with hook)
ɹuŋ^{B} phiŋ^{A}	a rod of angling
saj^{A}	a fish trap
sɹɛɛm^{B}	fish trap

5. Houses, utensils and useful articles

5.1 Building construction

ʔaasaj^{A}	live
hɔɔ^{A} khɔɔj^{A}	tower
pɹam^{A}	a temporary of ritual ceremony
ɹaan^{C} tuək^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A}	store
ɹooŋ^{C}	hut
ɹəə^{C}	demolish
saalaa^{A}	hall
sɹoo^{C} ~ ɹoo^{C}	barn
tɔŋ^{A}	house

5.2 Parts of houses

baan^{A} tawaaɹ^{B}	door panel
canthan^{A}	rafter
cuə^{B} tɔŋ^{A}	gable
hɔɔŋ^{A}	room
hɔɔŋ^{B} thiək^{B}	bedroom
kabuək^{A} chɔɔ^{C}	ditch for dog when eating
kabɔɔŋ^{A}	fence
kachaa^{C}	uncovered porch
kam^{A} makuəŋ^{C}	ladder
kam^{A} makuəŋ^{C}	step of staircase
kanuək^{B}	pole
kanɯp^{A} tɔŋ^{A}	house wall
kapuək^{B}	roof
kapuək^{B} khlaa^{C} caak^{A}	roof made from a kind of leaves
kapuək^{B} khlaa^{C} ŋuən^{A}	roof made from grasses
kataaɹ^{B}	board
khaan^{A}	beam

khɹiəŋ^{C}	bamboo flooring
khɹuə^{C}	kitchen
khɯɯ^{B}	tie beam
klɔɔn^{A}	door-bolt
klɔɔn^{A} tawaaɹ^{B}	door-bolt
kɹic^{A} liək^{A}	ridgepole
kɯp^{A} tɔŋ^{A}	place under house
laan^{C} patakaa^{C} tɔŋ^{A}	front yard
labiəŋ^{A} ~ kabiəŋ^{A}	roofed veranda
lim^{C}	wedge
mum^{C}	corner of house
ŋaaɹ^{B} taaŋ^{A}	window
pɛɛ^{A}	beam
paak^{C} tawaaɹ^{B}	door
panaah^{C}	fireplace
patakaa^{C} tɔŋ^{A}	back part of house
patamuun^{A} tɔŋ^{A}	platform
phalaj^{A}	verandah with shelter
pheedaan^{A} tɔŋ^{A}	ceiling
plɔɔŋ^{A}	chimney
ɹaaŋ^{C} taak^{C} cuəɹ^{A}	trough
siŋ^{B} kam^{A} makuəŋ^{C}	foot of staircase
suəm^{B}	toilet
sɹaŋ^{B} tɔŋ^{A}	house pillar
tawaaɹ^{B}	door
tii^{C}	place
tii^{C} huəp^{A}	place eat
tii^{C} kɯɯɹ^{A}	sitting place
tii^{C} thiək^{B}	sleeping place
tiim^{A}	roof(v)
tuuh^{A} kam^{A} makuəŋ^{C}	staircase
tɔɔmɔɔ^{C}	pier

5.3 Furniture, furnishing

ʔooŋ^{A}	jar
can^{C} dak^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A}	shelf
cɔɔk^{C}	small brass water-cup
fuuk^{B}	mattress
kaʔii^{C}	chair
kaaŋ^{A} muŋ^{C}	hang up mosquito-net
kasee^{A} khuət^{A} muŋ^{C}	string for hanging mosquito-net
kathaaŋ^{A} thiim^{C} nih^{A}	planter
khanəəj^{A}	pillow
khanəəj^{A} khaaŋ^{A}	bolster
kheŋ^{A}	basket
khop^{A}	torch
muŋ^{C}	mosquito-net
niiɪ^{A}	mat
phat^{A} khajaaɪ^{C}	fan
plaaŋ^{B}	shine
plɔɔk^{A} khanəəj^{A}	pillow case
takiəŋ^{C}	lamp
tawɔɔ^{C}	winnowing basket
thaŋ^{C}	basket
thaɪ^{A} phuk^{A}	blanket
thaɪ^{A} phuk^{A} duɯk^{A}	rug
thaɪ^{A} phuəj^{A}	quilt
thaɪ^{A} piɪ^{C} tii^{C} thiək^{B}	flitted sheet
thaɪ^{A} maan^{B}	curtain
thɔŋ^{C}	tin
tiəŋ^{A}	bed
tiəŋ^{A} dak^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A}	shelf
tiən^{B}	candle
toʔ^{A}	table
tum^{A}	jar
tuu^{B} dak^{A} thaɪ^{A}	wardrobe

5.4 Kitchen utensils

ʔaaŋ^{A}	bowl
ʔooŋ^{A}	jar
caan^{A}	dish
caan^{A} ʔaaŋ^{A}	enameled basin
caan^{A} m̩phaaɹ^{C}	plate
chanuəŋ^{C} khuə^{C} siiw^{B}	ladle for dipping soup
chanuəŋ^{C} wak^{A} klɔŋ^{A}	ladle for dipping rice
chɔɔn^{C}	spoon
chɔɔn^{C} sɔɔm^{B}	fork
huət^{A}	pot for cooking sticky rice
kɛɛw^{B}	glass
kɛh^{A}	pot
kɛh^{A} huu^{A}	pot
kɛh^{A} thee^{C}	pot
kaa^{A} taak^{C}	kettle
kabuəj^{A} puuc^{C} taak^{C}	scoop for dipping water
kachɔɔn^{A}	strain
kalamaŋ^{A}	basin
kapuk^{A}	canister for salt
katah^{B}	pan
katip^{A}	container made of bamboo
khanuəŋ^{C} ~ sanuəŋ^{C}~ chanuəŋ^{C}	ladle
khuət^{A} taak^{C}	bottle
khɹɐɲ^{A}	cutting board
khɹuh^{B}	tin
lahii^{C}	pestle
lɔɔt^{C} duut^{C} khɹaaŋ^{B}	bamboo tube for drinking wine
naa^{B} wɛɛn^{B}	strain
nih^{A} ɹuk^{A} khuuj^{A}	toothpaste
ŋɹɔɔp^{B} chii^{A}	dish cover
paan^{C} dak^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A}	tray with pedestal

panaah^{C}	stove
panaah^{C} puəh^{C}	stove
paniəŋ^{A}	jar
patɯɯɪ^{A}	bowl
phooŋ^{A}	can
phuəj^{A} kaa^{A} taak^{C}	spout of the kettle
piit^{B}	knife
piit^{B} baaŋ^{A}	a kind of big knife
piit^{B} too^{C}	a kind of big knife
piit^{B} paleh^{A}	knife with sheath
plɔɔk^{A} piit^{B}	knife sheath
samɪap^{A}	tray of dishes
takhoo^{A}	mortar
takhoo^{A} chuək^{A} kanuət^{B}	rice-pounding motar
takhoo^{A} chuək^{A} maak^{C}	betel-pounding motar
takiəp^{C}	copsticks
takɪɛɛŋ^{A}	sieve
taliw^{C}	spatula
tatik^{B} taak^{C}	water flask
thaah^{C}	tray
thuəj^{B}	cup
thuəj^{B} luk^{A} namphik^{A}	bowl
thɔŋ^{A}	handle of the knife
tiip^{C}	big bucket
tuu^{B} chaaŋ^{C}	refrigerator
tuu^{B} dak^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A} huəp^{B} klɔŋ^{A}	cupboard

5.5 Household Necessities

kanoh^{A}	broom
pɪɛɛŋ^{A}	brush
pɪɛɛŋ^{A} duh^{A} khuuj^{A}	toothbrush
sabuu^{A}	soap

sanam^{A} duh^{A} khuuj^{A}	toothpaste
sanam^{A} sa?^{B} suk^{A}	shampoo
tawɹiit^{C}	iron
thaɹ^{A} kapic^{A}	rag
thaɹ^{A} suət^{C} tii^{A}	napkin
thaɹ^{A} suət^{C} ŋaaɹ^{B}	serviette

5.6 Tools

ʔit^{A}	brick
buəŋ^{A}	lasso
caŋhiən^{A}	bridle
canlaak^{B}	chisel
chalɛɛŋ^{A}	crowbar
chalɔɔm^{A}	basket
jaam^{C}	cloth bag
kadiəw^{A}	sickle
kancɛɛ^{A} ~ ɲcee^{A}	key
kasee^{A}	rope
kasɔɔp^{B} katee^{B}	sack
kataan^{B}	ax
kathiəŋ^{C}	long basket
kathɔŋ^{C} kuək^{A} kiw^{C}	a kind of bamboo basket
kathɔŋ^{C} dak^{A} maak^{C}	basket used for betel nut
kheŋ^{A}	a Chinese style bamboo basket
khiin^{C} piɲ^{A}	bottle gourd
khuuj^{A} lɯəj^{B}	saw tooth
khɔɔŋ^{A}	thing
khɔɔn^{C}	hammer
khɹɯəŋ^{C}	tool
klɔɔŋ^{B} dak^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A}	box
kɹaak^{C}	carry
lahat^{A}	bow for carding cotton

luə^{A}	tall basket
lɯəj^{B}	saw
m̥boɹ^{A}	cement
m̥phiit^{C}	bamboo strips
niiɹ^{A} lamphɛɛŋ^{A}	bamboo mat
ŋkap^{A}	tongs
ŋaaɹ^{B} piit^{B}	sharp part of a knife
paak^{B} kɛh^{A}	mouth of container
pathaw^{A}	axe
piit^{B}	knife
piit^{B} khɔɔ^{A}	knife
piit^{B} khɔɔ^{C}	hook knife
piit^{B} kic^{A}	small knife with long handle
piit^{B} n̥tɔh^{A}	knife
pluə^{C}	shovel
ɹom^{B} cuk^{A}	umbrella
ɹuk^{A}	to pull down
saansom^{B}	alum
san^{A} piit^{B}	blunt edge of knife
sapaaj^{C}	carry
sawaan^{B}	awl
soo^{B}	chain
taŋhaɹ^{A}	wind wheel
takhoo^{C} kadɯəŋ^{C}	rice mortar
takɹaj^{C}	scissors
tapuu^{A}	nail
tawɔɔ^{C} mat^{B} kɹɛŋ^{B}	woven bamboo tray
thaŋ^{C}	long basket
thaŋ^{C} dak^{A} khaja?^{A}	bin
thamoo^{C} talaah^{C} piit^{B}	whetstone
thaɹ^{A} toŋ^{A}	flag
thuŋ^{C}	bag
took^{B} maak^{C}	betel container

5.7 Stationery

cotmaaj^{B}	letter
dinsɔɔ^{C}	pencil
dinsɔɔ^{C} thamoo^{C} phuh^{B}	slate pencil
kadaah^{A}	paper
kataaɪ^{B} caŋ^{C}	blackboard
kataaɪ^{B} leek^{C}	slate
khɪɯəŋ^{C} khiən^{A}	stationery
naŋsɯɯ^{A}	book
paakkaa^{A}	pen
kaaw^{A}	glue

6. Food

6.1 General Food

ʔɔt^{A}	famine
caŋhan^{A}	food
chaa^{A}	eat
chiin^{C}	ripe
cip^{A}	suck
duut^{C}	suck
hiw^{C}	hunger
hiw^{C} hooj^{A}	hungry and weary
huəp^{A}	eat
jɔk^{A}	milk
kaak^{C}	leftovers
kaak^{C} kanuət^{B}	grit in rice
kahaaj^{A}	thirst
khɔɔŋ^{A} chaa^{A}	food
kiəm^{B}	chew
klɔŋ^{A} laa^{B} laa^{B}	dinner

klɔŋ^{A} sanii^{C}	lunch
klɔŋ^{A} tuuh^{A} sak^{A}	breakfast
klɯk^{A}	swallow
koon^{B} kanuət^{B}	foot of paddy
mɯɯ^{C}	meal (s)
pɹuŋ^{A}	cooked
salɯk^{A}	choke
saw^{A}	left over
taak^{C} sɹaap^{B} kakhoo^{A}	rice cleaning water
taak^{C} mɯt^{A}	water in cooked rice
tɔɔ^{B} khɔɔŋ^{A} chaa^{A}	cook
wiəŋ^{C}	raw

6.2 Various kinds of foods

jam^{C} liək^{A}	chicken salad
kamec^{B} caŋ^{A}	black glutinous rice
kanuət^{B} plaa^{B}	pounded unripe rice
khlaa^{C} makɔɔŋ^{C}	a kind of leave
khɹɯəŋ^{C} ɹee^{C} liək^{A}	giblets of chicken
klɔŋ^{A} chiin^{C}	cooked rice
klɔŋ^{A} phat^{A}	fried rice
klɔŋ^{A} khuə^{C}	rice that roasted in a pan
kum^{A} tɔɔ^{B} cɔɔ^{C}	pickled vegetable
laap^{B} puəm^{C} sɹɔk^{B}	spiced minced pork
lamaaŋ^{C} tɔɔ^{B} cɔɔ^{C}	pickled vegetable
miiɹ^{A} laliəŋ^{B} kah^{A}	roasted catfish
miiɹ^{C} thɔɔt^{B}	fried fish
m̥pɔŋ^{C} suɹ^{C}	soft-boiled vegetable
namjaa^{C}	broth
nom^{B} cok^{A}	rice vermicelli
pasiit^{A} phat^{A}kiŋ^{C} sɹɔk^{B}	mushroom stir-fried with pork
puəm^{C}	meat

siiw^{B} dak^{A} cɔɔ^{C}	sour soup
siiw^{B} liək^{A} pon^{C} satuŋ^{C}	red chicken curry with wax gourd
siiw^{B} maluəŋ^{C}	eel soup
siiw^{B} miiɪ^{A}	fish soup
suuɪ^{C} jam^{C}	hot and sour soup
taak^{C} siiw^{B}	broth
thiŋ^{C} phat^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} sɪɔk^{B}	bamboo shoot stir-fried with pork
thɔɔt^{B} tuŋ^{A} kasɯm^{A}	fried egg
tuŋ^{A} liək^{A} thɔɔt^{B}	omlete
tɔɔ^{B} liək^{A} suuɪ^{C}	boiled chicken

6.3 Ingredients, condiments

ʔopchəəj^{A}	cinnamon
chii^{A} phɪaŋ^{A}	herb
chuuɪot^{A}	monosodium glutamate
cɔɔ^{C} manaaw^{C}	lemon
cɔɔ^{C} maphiit^{C}	lemon
huəhɔɔm^{A}	onion
kamiət^{B}	turmeric curcuma
kapih^{A}	fermented shrimp
kapɪuə^{C}	herb
kasəəm^{A}	herb
katim^{A}	garlic
katoo^{A}	galingale
khajaa^{C}	ginger
khlaa^{C} makuut^{C}	kaffir lime
khlaa^{C} naaŋ^{A} lak^{B}	sweet basil leaf
khlaa^{C} solaphaa^{A}	sweet basin
kiŋ^{C}	fat
luk^{A}	salt
luk^{A} muuɪ^{C}	salt
luk^{A} ŋɪəəm^{A}	curry ingredient

luk^{A} la?it^{A}	salt
m̥tih^{B}	chili
m̥tih^{B} ?ic^{A} khuən^{C}	chili
maɪec^{B}	pepper
m̥tih^{B} ?ic^{A} juuɪ^{B}	chili
m̥tih^{B} pon^{A}	chili pepper
nam?ɔɔj^{B}	sugar cane
namtaan^{A} dum^{A}	cube sugar
paaɪ^{C}	dough
paaɪ^{C} kiŋ^{C}	cassava starch
paliiw^{C} koŋ^{A}	long eggplant
phak^{A} chii^{A}	coriander
sakuəɪ^{C}	a lump of sugar cane
salanɛɛ^{B} ləəj^{C}	leaves for seasoning
salanɛɛ^{B} thiim^{C}	leaves for seasoning
suum^{C} wiit^{B}	vegetable
taak^{C} cɔɔ^{C}	vinegar
taak^{C} kiŋ^{C}	oil
taak^{C} taan^{A}	sugar
tamuuc^{B}	lemongrass
thiim^{C} khuuɪ^{C}	onion leaf

6.4 Sweet and dessert

?uuɪ^{A} chɯəm^{B}	sweet potato in syrup
chak^{C} khamaak^{B}	sweet rice wine
kajasaat^{B}	dessert made from rice
kamec^{A} kɛɛw^{B}	sweet sticky rice
kamec^{A} kuən^{A}	sticky rice pudding
kasɔɔm^{C} khuət^{A}	steamed-sticky rice wrapped in banana leaves and tied
kasɔɔm^{C} pɔk^{A}	steamed-sticky rice wrapped in banana leaves
kataak^{C} suɪ^{C} ŋaam^{C}	black-eyed peas in syrup

kataak^{C} tat^{A}	mung bean
kataak^{C} wiit^{B} kuən^{A}	mung bean jam
klɔŋ^{A} kalɔŋ^{C}	cook (rice)in bamboo section
luəŋ^{A} chaap^{B}	dried banana coated with syrup
luəŋ^{A} chih^{A}	dried babana
luəŋ^{A} chɯəm^{B}	banana in syrup
luəŋ^{A} buə^{A} cii^{C}	bananas in coconut milk
luəŋ^{A} thɔɔt^{B}	deep-fried banana
nom^{B}	sweet
nom^{B} ŋaam^{C}	dessert
nom^{B} khanmaak^{C}	sweet for wedding
nom^{B} takim^{A}	sweet
nom^{B} tiən^{B}	sweet
nom^{B} tom^{B} ŋaɪ^{A}	sweet
nom^{B} tuŋ^{A} hoŋ^{A}	cake
nom^{B} tuŋ^{A} canlaaŋ^{B}	deep-fried cake
nom^{B} paaɪ^{C} puŋ^{A} luŋ^{B}	sweet
pathoh^{A}	popped rice
ɹuəmmit^{A}	sweet
saŋkhajaa^{A}	custard
thaaŋ^{A}	shredded rice grain

6.5 Beverage

ʔooliəŋ^{C}	iced black coffee
biə^{A}	beer
kafɛɛ^{A} caŋ^{A}	black coffee
kafɛɛ^{A} chaaŋ^{C}	iced coffee
kafɛɛ^{A} thuu^{C}	black coffee with milk
katuj^{C} kaw^{C} kalet^{A}	stub of cigarette
klɔɔŋ^{B} cɔk^{B} makaw^{C}	pipe
kɹaaɲ^{B}	alcohol
lakchuu^{A}	rice whiskey

ɹuəm^{B} woŋ^{C} kɹaaɲ^{B}	join in drinking party
sodaa^{A}	soda
taak^{C} phuh^{B}	bootleg whiskey
taak^{C} baj^{A} chaa^{A}	tea
taak^{C} jɔk^{A} sot^{A}	fresh milk
taak^{C} khook^{C}	coke
taak^{C} khɹah^{A}	ice
taak^{C} koo^{A} koo^{A}	pure water
taak^{C} taan^{A} sot^{A}	palm sap
taak^{C} waaj^{A} manah^{B}	wine made from pine-apple

6.6 Food preparation and cooking terms

ʔop^{A}	bake
ʔun^{C}	warm up
bɔt^{A}	grind
bɔɔk^{B}	peel
chic^{A}	astringent
chuək^{A}	pound
cɹam^{A}	soak
jam^{C}	salad
kah^{A}	roast
kasak^{A}	let oil drain
kaɹ^{A}	put sth. on fire
khajak^{A} kɹiəm^{A}	charred
khajak^{A} lahɔŋ^{C}	burnt
khlaaw^{C}	blend together
khluk^{A}	pour
khuuh^{A}	scrape
klɔŋ^{A} chɛʔ^{A}	muddy
kuuɹ^{A}	stir
kuən^{A}	mix
kɔʔ^{A}	break an egg

luək^{C}	scaled
moo^{B}	mill
nuət^{A}	knead
nɯŋ^{C}	steam
pan^{B}	to mould into shape
phat^{A}	stir-fry
plaac^{B} chɯɯt^{C}	tasteless
pon^{A}	pound
puh^{A}	boil
pɯəj^{A} pəʔ^{A}	decomposed
ɹaa^{A} pliiw^{A}	reduce
ɹom^{A} khamah^{A}	warm or bake sth.
ɹun^{C} ʔuuh^{A}	press, accelerate fire
ɹɔɔn^{B}	to winnow
siit^{C}	pour
suuɹ^{C}	boil (v)
sɹaap^{B} kakhoo^{A}	wash rice before steaming
taak^{C} duuŋ^{A}	coconut milk
thɔɔt^{B}	fry
thɯm^{A} khɹaaɲ^{B}	distil
thɯm^{A} klɔŋ^{A}	cook rice
tun^{A}	steamed soup
tɔɔ^{B} cɔɔ^{C}	pickle
tɯp^{A} ɹee^{C} panaah^{C}	bake under coals or fire
wiəŋ^{C}	raw

7. Clothes and ornaments

7.1 Clothes and accessories

ʔaw^{A} kuək^{A} muuɹ^{C}	sweat shirt
ʔaw^{A} makhɯn^{A}	blouse
ʔaw^{A} thaɹ^{A}	cloth

ʔaw^{A} tii^{A} koŋ^{A}	shirt with long sleeves
chaniit^{C}	comb
chaniit^{C} kuŋ^{C}	comb
cuk^{A}	cloak
cuk^{A} tuuh^{A}	cover the head
kacok^{A}	mirror
kadum^{A}	button
kapɹooŋ^{A}	skirt
kasɔɔp^{A}	sack
katuut^{B}	loincloth
khaniit^{C} ɹeŋ^{B}	a comb with fine teeth for straighten the hair
khiit^{C}	comb (v)
khoo^{A}	trousers
kooɹ^{A}	shave
kɯək^{A}	shoe
m̥pɯɯ^{B} cɔɔŋkabeen^{A}	traditional skirt
muək^{A}	hat
nih^{A} chaniəŋ^{C}	staff
pah^{B} thaɹ^{A}	mend
piit^{B} kooɹ^{A}	razor
piə^{C}	braid
ploom^{C}	ointment
suk^{C} cɔɔn^{A} koŋ^{C}	hair on cheek in front of ear
sɔɔj^{B} kuək^{A}	necklace
thar^{A} saɹooŋ^{A}	sarong
thaɹ^{A} cuk^{A} ŋaaɹ^{B}	veil
thaɹ^{A} cuk^{A} tuuh^{A}	turban
thaɹ^{A} kɹaa^{B} dɔɔk^{A}	flowered
thaɹ^{A} pɛɛ^{C}	rayon
thaɹ^{A} poo^{B}	loincloth
thaɹ^{A} suət^{C} kɯp^{B}	towel
thaɹ^{A} thuŋ^{A}	skirt
thaɹ^{A} thak^{A} pen^{A} ɹiw^{C}	cloth that torn with stripes

thuŋ^{A} sin^{B}	sock
thuŋ^{A} dak^{A} tii^{A}	glove
wɛɛn^{B} mat^{B}	eye-glasses

7.2 Ornaments

kapaw^{C}	pocket
cɹiəŋ^{A}	ring
khemkhat^{A}	belt
khɹɯəŋ^{C} tɛɛŋ^{A} padap^{A}	adornment
kɔɔŋ^{A}	bracelet
n̥cɯɯɹ^{B} klat^{A}	pin
n̥suuɹ^{C}	loose
phlɛɛ^{A} sak^{A}	tattoo
sanaaŋ^{C} lamuuc^{C}	bead
sɔɔj^{A} kuək^{A}	necklace
thaɹ^{A} suəc^{C} ŋaaɹ^{B}	handkerchief
tomhuu^{A}	earring
tɔk^{B} muək^{A}	take off hat
tɯŋ^{A}	tight

7.3 Fabrics, clothes-making, wearing

dak^{A} thaɹ^{A}	put on
diɹ^{C}	sew
haap^{B} thaɹ^{A}	take off
jɔɔm^{C} sii^{A}	dye
n̥cɯɯɹ^{B}	needle
pɛŋ^{A}	spin
phlah^{A} thaɹ^{A}	change one's cloth
pɹaaj^{B}	cord
tɛɛŋ^{A} kɯp^{B}	dress
thaaŋ^{A}	weave

thak^{A}	weave
tɔɔ^{B} pɪaaj^{B}	to make thread

8. Human body and function

8.1 Head and face

ʔic^{A} mat^{B} krəʔ^{B} kɪaŋ^{A}	matter in eye
ʔic^{A} muh^{B}	nasal mucus
ʔic^{A} palaaŋ^{B}	ear wax
ŋaaɪ^{B}	face
ŋaaɪ^{B} phaak^{A}	forehead
hɯɯt^{A} khajaaɪ^{C}	inhale
kalook^{A}	skull
kalɔŋ^{C} kuək^{A}	throat
kalɔŋ^{C} kuək^{A}	stiff neck
kalɔŋ^{C} mat^{B}	eye socket
kamaaŋ^{C}	chin
kamaaŋ^{C} hɔɔj^{B}	flesh under chin
kamaaŋ^{C} takɪaj^{C}	jaw
kamap^{A}	temple on head
kaphlic^{A} mat^{B}	blink
kataak^{C}	tongue
kataak^{C} liək^{A}	tongue
katoɪ^{C}	palate
katuk^{A} kuək^{A}	nape of neck
katɯəŋ^{C}	palate
khaaŋ^{A} paniim^{C}	lip
khaak^{C}	phlegm
khajii^{B} mat^{B}	rub hard with hand
khajip^{A} mat^{B}	to wink the eyes
khaleet^{C}	phlegm
khamen^{C} mat^{B}	to twitch (of the eyes)

khanooŋ^{A} kiw^{C}	eyebrows bone
khiin^{A} mat^{B}	eye ball
khlaa^{C} palaaŋ^{B}	ear lobe
khuuj^{A}	tooth
khuuj^{A} chɔɔ^{C}	canine tooth
khuuj^{A} jook^{A}	loose tooth
khuuj^{A} jəən^{A}	stretch out tooth
khuuj^{A} kɔh^{A}	broken tooth
khuuj^{A} kɪaam^{C}	molar tooth
khuuj^{A} kɯt^{A}	big tooth
khuuj^{A} laʔiət^{C}	small tooth
khuuj^{A} lɔɔ^{A}	tooth with cavity
khuuj^{A} phuh^{A}	caries
khuuj^{A} plɔɔm^{A}	false tooth
khuuj^{A} samәә^{A}	front teeth
khuuj^{A} taak^{C} jɔk^{A}	milk tooth
khuuj^{A} takaa^{C}	front teeth
khuuj^{A} thɛɛ^{C}	permanent tooth
kiw^{C}	eyebrow
koon^{A} muh^{B}	bridge of nose
kuək^{A}	neck
kuək^{A} khlɔɔ^{C}	Adam's apple
kɪaam^{C}	jaw
mat^{B}	eye
mat^{B} phloo^{A}	protruded eyes
mat^{B} poo^{A}	stalky eyes
mat^{B} khee^{A}	squint-eyed
mat^{B} khloo^{A}	blind
mat^{B} lee^{A}	cross-eyed
muh^{A}	nose
muh^{B} dooŋ^{A}	prominent nose
muh^{B} bii^{C}	flat nose
paŋiɪ^{C} lum^{C}	dimple

palaaŋ^{B}	ear
palaaŋ^{B} tɯŋ^{A}	deaf
palɯŋ^{A}	whole of hair on head
paniim^{C}	mouth
paniim^{C} luuj^{C}	beak
paniɹ^{C}	cheek
pen^{A} ɹah^{B}	scalp disease
phah^{A} kajaaŋ^{A}	pointed tuft of hair
phuəŋ^{C}	soft spot on top of head
pɹiəŋ^{C}	shoulder
ɹii^{A} mat^{B}	blink
sambɔɔk^{A} mat^{B}	eyelid
saniɹ^{C} mat^{B}	quiver involuntarily
sathɔɔj^{A}	nape of neck
siɲ^{B} khuuj^{A}	gums
suk^{A}	hair
suk^{A} ŋaam^{A}	beautiful hair
suk^{A} ŋɔɔɹ^{A}	curly hair
suk^{A} ŋɛɛŋ^{C}	wavy hair
suk^{A} cɔɔn^{A}	lock of hair beside cheek
suk^{A} kɹah^{A}	stiff hair
suk^{A} maaŋ^{B}	moustache, beard
suk^{A} mat^{B}	eyelash
suk^{A} tuuh^{A}	dandruff
suk^{B} ʔuj^{A}	hair line
sɹaŋ^{B} muh^{A}	nostril
taak^{C} muh^{A}	mucus
thaleet^{A}	phlegm
that^{A} palaaŋ^{B}	tuck beside ear
thraŋ^{B} palaaŋ^{B}	ear canal
thɹaŋ^{B} kuək^{A}	trachea
tuuh^{A}	head
tuuh^{A} laan^{C}	bald

tuun^{A} mat^{B}	nasal canthi
tɔɔ^{B} paniim^{C} khaɲuun^{A}	puckered mouth

8.2 Body

ʔiəw^{A}	guts
ʔiəw^{A} tiŋ^{A}	projection
jɔk^{A}	breast
kaluun^{C}	navel
kapuŋ^{C}	belly
kapɔh^{B} khluum^{C}	bladder
katuk^{A} kuŋ^{C}	have crooked back
kawiin^{C}	waist
kluəŋ^{A} kajaaŋ^{A}	shoulder blade
kluəŋ^{A} katuk^{A}	spine
kɹic^{A}	chest
luəm^{B}	liver
maam^{C}	spleen
mat^{B} khiin^{A}	womb
phanɯt^{A}	gall
phiim^{C}	kidney
puŋ^{A}	stomach
puŋ^{A} kic^{C}	lower abdomen
puŋ^{A} kɯt^{A}	large or distended belly
puŋ^{A} muuɹ^{C} kɯt^{A}	large belly
pɔɔt^{A}	lung
ɹok^{B}	placenta
taphook^{B}	hip
thuəc^{A} kahiim^{A}	breathe
tuuh^{A} caj^{A}	heart
tuuh^{A} jɔk^{A}	nipple

8.3 Limbs

kamɯn^{C} siŋ^{B}	toe
kamɯn^{C} tii^{A}	thumb
kaniəŋ^{C} tii^{A}	little finger
kapuŋ^{C} tii^{A}	claw
kasɹah^{A}	fingernail
katoɹ^{C} siŋ^{B}	heel
khuət^{A} tii^{A}	tie hand
khɔŋ^{C} khlɔɔ^{C}	spiral in fingerprints
khɔɔ^{B} tɔɔ^{B}	joint
klaa^{C} tii^{A}	palm hand
koon^{B} kasɹah^{A}	root of fingernail
koon^{B} pluu^{B}	thigh
kuuɹ^{B} tii^{A}	index finger
kuək^{A} siŋ^{B}	ankle
kuək^{A} tii^{A}	wrist
ṇdaaɹ^{A} tii^{A}	middle finger
niw^{C}	finger
niw^{C} naaŋ^{A} tii^{A}	ring finger
pakaak^{C}	armpit
pluu^{B}	leg
pluu^{B} kuəc^{C}	thigh
puŋ^{A} takɹiəŋ^{C}	inside part of arm
ɹɔɔŋ^{B} niw^{C}	area between fingers
siŋ^{B}	foot
suk^{A} ɹuəŋ^{B}	hair on calf of legs
suək^{B}	footprint
takɹiəŋ^{C}	elbow
tamluəŋ^{A}	calf of leg
tapaaɹ^{C} tii^{A}	palm of hand
tii^{A}	arm
tii^{A}	hand
tuuh^{A} makuuɹ^{C}	knee

8.4 Buttock

khɔŋ^{C}	buttocks
khɔŋ^{C} ŋɔɔɪ^{B}	curved bottom
kluəŋ^{A} koon^{B} pluu^{B}	pelvis
lec^{B}	penis
phuum^{C}	break wind
suk^{A} tuun^{A}	pubic hair
sɪaŋ^{B} khɔŋ^{C}	anus
sɪaŋ^{B} tuun^{A}	vagina
tuŋ^{A} khlaaw^{A}	testicle

8.5 General body

ʔaajuʔ^{A} kiin^{C}	short life
ʔiin^{A} ɪɛɛŋ^{A} ʔiin^{A} kamlaŋ^{A}	healthy
chap^{A} sen^{A} thɔɔnii^{A} waj^{A}	pulse
haam^{C}	blood
katak^{A}	tendon
katɯk^{A}	scurf
khamɯk^{A}	sweat
khɪaap^{B} haam^{C}	blood stain
kiŋ^{C} khɔɔ^{B}	marrow
klaam^{B} puəm^{C}	muscle
klaam^{C} tɯŋ^{A}	stretch
kluəŋ^{A}	bone
kluəŋ^{A} kɪah^{A}	rib
kluəŋ^{A} puut^{C}	cartilage
kluəŋ^{A} sapuk^{A}	decayed bone
kɪee^{A} haam^{C}	menses
kɯt^{A}	grow
paan^{A}	birthmark
phlɛɛ^{A} pen^{A}	scar

phɯɯn^{A}	rash on body
pɔɔ^{A}	carry a child
ɹaaŋ^{C} kɯp^{B}	body
ɹah^{B}	itch
sen^{A} haam^{C}	artery
suk^{A}	body hair
suk^{A} dok^{A}	very hairy
taloo^{C}	skin
thaɹ^{A} poo^{B}	piece of cloth used for carrying baby

9. Life cycle, drug and sickness

9.1 Life cycle

ʔaajuʔ^{A}	age
ʔuək^{C} kamnəət^{A}	to give birth
caɹəən^{A}	grow
choom^{C}	grow
ciiwit^{A}	life
com^{C} taak^{C} huuc^{A}	drowned
dak sanam m̩puɹ	poison (verb)
huuc^{A}	dead, die
kasɯm^{C} huuc^{A}	dead person
kasɯm^{C} koh^{A} sabaaj^{A}	sick person
khɛɛŋ^{C} ɹɛɛŋ^{C}	healthy
khaa^{B}	kill
khiim^{B} puŋ^{A}	pregnant
khɹaŋ^{B}	get better
kɔt^{A} kɔt^{A} biip^{C} biip^{C}	press down and squeeze
kəət^{A}	born
laluuc^{B} nuən^{A}	miscarriage
mɔɔ^{B} tamjɛɛ^{C}	midwife
naan^{A} ʔiin^{A} chiiwit^{A}	alive

pen^{A} man^{A}	sterile
pih^{A} kat^{B}	get well
ɹiit^{C} khiin^{A} ciŋ^{A}	have abortion
ɹuuj^{A}	alive
sanam^{A} mpuɹ^{B}	poison
sop^{A} khamuuc^{C}	corpse
sɹiim^{B} puŋ^{A}	morning sickness
taak^{C} tuuɹ^{B} tuuh^{A}	amniotic fluid
tɔɔ^{B} kamnəət^{A}	give birth
tɔɔ^{B} laluuc^{B}	have abortion

9.2 Diseases

ʔah^{A}	boil(n)
ʔah^{A} ʔiin^{A} tɯŋ^{B} paɹee^{C}	wound with pus
baat^{B} thajak^{A}	tetanus
baj^{B}	mute
chawəj^{A}	fever
haa^{A} boɹ^{A}	diarrhea epidemic
həəm^{A} taam^{A}	body swollen
kɯp^{B}	
kamaaŋ^{C} tuum^{A}	mumps
kasɯm^{C} phikaan^{A}	lame
kataak^{C} phut^{A} taan^{A} phut^{A} saaŋ^{A}	pain at the tongue
khaaɹ^{C}	have ringworm
koh^{A} sabaaj^{A}	sickness
kuək^{A} phɔɔk^{B}	goiter
kuək^{A} puəj^{A}	throat disease
kəət^{B} chaaɹ^{C}	have chloasma
kəət^{B} maleŋ^{A}	cancer
kəət^{B} phajaat^{B}	parasitic disease
makhuə^{A}	pimple
malaliə^{C}	malaria

mat^{B} khloo^{A}	blind
mat^{B} ŋaɹ^{A}	have sore eyes
mat^{B} makɔɔŋ^{C}cak^{A}	stye
palaaŋ^{B} calak^{A}	deaf
pasii^{A} sawat^{A}	skin disease
pen^{A} chaa^{A}	numb
phlɛɛ^{A} pen^{A}	scar
phuut^{C} daat^{A}	small pox
pluu^{B} liip^{C}	limbs
pluu^{B} pee^{T}	lame
ɹook^{B}	disease
ɹook^{B} bit^{A}	diarrhea with mucus and blood
ɹook^{B} huəcaj^{A}	heart disease
ɹook^{B} khajaaɹ^{C} baa^{B} sɹɔk^{B}	epilepsy
ɹook^{B} labaat^{B}	epidemic
ɹook^{B} lɯən^{C}	have leprosy
ɹook^{B} phaj^{A} kat^{B} chawəj^{A}	sickness
ɹook^{B} pɔɔt^{C}	lung disease
ɹook^{B} taloo^{C}	have skin disease
ɹook^{B} tuəŋ^{C} taak^{C}	rabies
sampheŋ^{A}	venereal disease
sapmɔk^{B}	cold
taliih^{C}	swelling of lymph nodes in groin area
thaaj^{C} puŋ^{A}	diarrhea
tɯŋ^{B}	pus

9.3 Symtoms

ʔamphaat^{B}	paralysis
ʔic^{A} ɹaat^{B}	have loose bowels
baat^{A}	cut
bɔɔp^{C}	tired
bɯə^{B} klɔŋ^{A}	have no appetite

cɛŋ^{A} sanam^{A}	allergic
cam^{C}	bruise
chawəj^{A} ŋaɹ^{C}	severely sick
pluu^{B} khlɛɛŋ^{A}	sprained
ciɲ^{A} hat^{A}	have measles
cuk^{A} nɛɛn^{B}	suffer from colic
cuuc^{C}	vomit
fɯɯn^{C}	regain
haam^{C} ciɲ^{A} sook^{B}	bleeding lot
haam^{C} tap^{B} chawəj^{A}	sick
haam^{C} khaŋ^{B}	congealed blood
haam^{C} ciɲ^{A} muuj^{C} kic^{A}	bleeding little
muuj^{C} kic^{A}	
hamm^{C} muh^{B}	epistoxis, nosebleed
huuc^{A} hooŋ^{A}	accidental death
huuc^{A} thaŋ^{C} muɹ^{C}	die while pregnant
hɔɔp^{A} hɯɯt^{C}	gasp of breath
həəm^{A}	swelling
həəm^{A} cam^{C}	bruised
hɯm^{A} puŋ^{A}	break wind
jut^{A} bɔɔp^{C}	rest
kahaaŋ^{C}	weary
kasɯm^{C} kuəc^{C}	weak
kat^{B}	ache
kat^{B} puŋ^{A}	have stomachache
kat^{B} siət^{C}	stomachache
kat^{B} tuuh^{A}	headache
khɛɛŋ^{A} ɹɛɛŋ^{C}	strong
khaap^{C}	itchy
kham^{C} khɯə^{C}	have an ague
khamɔk^{A}	cough
khat^{A} muh^{B}	have stuffed-up nose
khlec^{B}	sprain

khɪaam^{C} kɯp^{B} khɪaam^{C} kluəŋ^{A}	feel unwell
klɛɛŋ^{C} tɔɔ^{B} nuən^{A} huuc^{A}	play dead
kluəŋ^{A} kɔh^{A}	broken bone
koh^{A} sabaaj^{A} tap^{B} haam^{C}	have a fever before menses
kəət^{B} ŋɔɔj^{B}	lame
kəət^{B} kakhiw^{C}	cramped
kɯp^{B} khɪah^{A}	paralysis
lamuəɪ^{B} puŋ^{A}	have colic
nɛɛn^{B} kɪic^{A}	breath with difficulty
ṇdah^{A}	sneeze
paniim^{A} pɯəj^{A}	skin disease at mouth
pen^{A} khajaaɪ^{C}	faint
phajɔɔ^{C} phajɛɛ^{C}	weak
phlɛɛ^{A} pliiw^{A} chaaw^{C}	burn scar
phlɛɛ^{A} thalɔɔk^{A}	have skin scratched
puŋ^{A} ʔɯɯ^{B}	flatulence
puŋ^{A} ʔɯɯt^{C}	have indigistion due
puŋ^{A} phuuk^{C}	constipated
puuɪ^{B} taak^{C} khlɯɯn^{B}	seasick
puɪ^{B}	drunk
pɔɔŋ^{C}	swelling
pɪiəŋ^{C} lɯən^{B}	dislocated (shoulder)
sɛc^{A} kathaan^{C}	very cold shiver from cold
sɛc^{A} khɪah^{A}	very cold feel stiff from cold
salɛɛŋ^{A} sanam^{A}	intoxicated with drugs
salɔp^{A}	come unconscious
samlop^{A}	to have a spasm
samɪɔɔk^{B} jɔk^{A}	vomit milk
saniw^{C} puŋ^{A}	get sharp sudden sensation
sukkaphaap^{B}	health
suup^{C} siəw^{A} lakii^{C}	thin and pale
takɪooŋ^{C} won^{B} waaj^{B}	toss and turn from sickness
thaɪ^{C}	numb

thuəc^{A} kahiim^{A} khat^{A} khat^{A}	breath interruptedly
tii^{A} son^{C}	dislocated(hand)
tum^{A}	blister
wiɪ^{B} muk^{A}	to be dizzy

9.4 Treatment medications

ʔaanaamaj^{A}	health center
bɔt^{A} sanam^{A}	grind medicine
ciit^{C} sanam^{A}	inject medicine
dak^{A} fɯək^{C}	put on splint
kamheŋ^{A}	to stimulate the memory
khnam^{A} ɪɔɔn^{C}	abortive drug
kɪɔɔk^{A} sanam^{A}	fill with medicine
mɔɔ^{B}	doctor
pakhop^{A}	apply compress
phanɯt^{A} luk^{A}	Epsom salt
ɪaksaa^{A}	cure
samaan^{A} phlɛɛ^{A}	heal a wound
sanam^{A}	medicine
taak^{C} kasaaj^{A} sanam^{C}	liquid vehicle for powdered medicine

10. Religion, beliefs and ritual ceremony

10.1 Religion

boot^{B}	church
buucaa^{C}	worship
buə^{A}	ordain
ciŋ^{A} buə^{A}	to enter monk-hood
hɔɔ^{A} lakhaŋ^{A}	bell tower
khiiw^{A} palɯŋ^{B}	bring back one's spirit
kɪaap^{C} m̩pah^{B}	to prostrate

look^{B}	monk
miŋ^{A} cii^{C}	nun
napthɯɯ^{A}	respect
phawwanaa^{B}	chant prayers
phut^{A} satsanaa^{A}	Buddhism
pithiikam^{C}	rites
saatsanaa^{A}	religion
siintham^{A}	religious doctrine
theet^{B}	preach
tiəŋ^{A} look^{B}	Buddha 's altar
tɔɔ^{B} bun^{A}	to make merit
tɔɔ^{B} dii^{A}	to do good
tɔɔ^{B} cuə^{C}	to do evil
wat^{B}	temple

10.2 Beliefs in supernatural

ʔantaɹaaj^{C}	danger
baap^{A}	sins
caw^{B} tii^{C}	the host
cook^{C} dii^{A}	good luck
cook^{C} ɹaaj^{C}	bad luck
kathaa^{A}	magic
khamuuc^{C}	demon
khamuuc^{C} mot^{B}	witch
khamuuc^{C} muu^{B} tɔŋ^{C}	village god
khamuuc^{C} nuəŋ^{B}	mountain god
khamuuc^{C} pɹii^{B}	forest god
khamuuc^{C} taak^{C}	water god
khamuuc^{C} tɔŋ^{A}	house god
khamuuc^{C} khamooc^{B}	a kind of god
khamuuc^{C} panaah^{C}	kitchen god
khiin^{A} kɹɔɔk^{B}	a stillborn offspring

khɔɔŋ^{A} khaŋ^{A}	amulet
kɹɔh^{B}	luck
mɔɔ^{B} khamuuc^{C}	sorcery
naɹok^{B}	hell
paak^{B} sawan^{A}	go to heaven
phit^{A} khamuuc^{C}	offend spirit
puun^{B}	curse
ɹəək^{C} jaam^{C}	the auspices
saksit^{A}	holy
sataa^{C}	fate
taak^{C} pooŋ^{C}	sacred water from jungle
thamnaaj^{C}	foretell
tɔŋ^{A} pɹaʔ^{A} phuum^{A}	the guardian spirit inhabiting a homestead
winjaan^{C}	soul

10.3 Ritual ceremonies

buucaa^{C}	worship
chiim^{A} khamuuc^{C} sɹuk^{A} tɔŋ^{A}	sacrifice to spirits
kathaaŋ^{A} dak^{A} tuup^{B}	joss-stick bowl
kathəə^{C}	cone decorated by jack-fruit leaf
khuuɹ^{C} klum^{B} klam^{B}	fragrant wafted through the air
khɹɯəŋ^{C} suuc^{C} khamuuc^{C}	offering
lɔɔ^{B} khamuuc^{C}	lure
pɯk^{A} khwaam^{C}	to drive off a spell
suuc^{C}	offer
suuc^{C} caw^{B} tii^{C}	ceremony held to respect place spirits
suət^{C} mon^{A}	pray
tii^{C} buucaa^{C}	altar
tuuc^{B} tuup^{B}	joss sticks

10.4 Social custom

ʔuək^{C} phɔɔn^{A}	bless
ʔuəŋ^{C} tuk^{C}	go into mourning
chaa^{A} liəŋ^{C}	celebrate
chak^{A} baŋtakun^{A}	a requiem
ciŋ^{A} tuk^{B}	end of mourning
cəəc^{C}	Chong Wedding ceremony style
cəən^{B}	invite
jaa^{B}	divorce
kaaɪ^{A} sop^{A}	funeral
kɯɯɪ^{A} lawaaŋ^{B} tuk^{B}	be in mourning
laa^{B} baap^{A} laa^{B} kam^{C}	to forgive and forget
laməət^{B}	to break
looŋ^{A} sop^{A}	coffin
man^{B}	engagement
paak^{B} nɯm^{B} plaa^{B}	new year
papheenii^{A}	custom
phit^{A} papheenii^{C}	break tradition
puk^{B} khamuuc^{C}	grave
puəŋ^{C} ɪiit^{C}	wreath
pɪak^{A} kaa^{C} laməət^{B}	money paid for wedding
saak^{B} khamuuc^{C}	corpse
sabaan^{A}	take oath
sinsɔɔt^{B}	money given to bride's parents
taaɪ^{B} suəɪ^{A}	ask for girl's hand in marriage
thawkɛɛ^{A}	matchmaker
thaɪ^{A} phuk^{A} khamuuc^{C}	shroud a corpse
tɯp^{A}	bury

11. People , kinship, and society

11.1 People and nationality

baaw^{A}	servant
canlabuun^{A}	Chantaburi
chɯə^{C}	clan
kasɯm^{C}	person
kasɯm^{C} ciin^{A}	Chinese
kasɯm^{C} kɹoom^{A}	Cambodian
kasɯm^{C} laaw^{A}	Lao people
kasɯm^{C} naac^{B}	other people
kasɯm^{C} phɹaŋ^{A}	a foreigner (white)
kasɯm^{C} sɹuk^{A}	citizen
kasɯm^{C} samɹee^{A}	Samre people
kasɯm^{C} siəm^{C}	Thai people
kheet^{C} dɛɛn^{A}	boundary
kɹaat^{B}	Trat
malɔh^{A} saliəŋ^{B}	young
patheet^{C}	country

11.2 Society

ʔamphəə^{A}	district
ʔaw^{A} kadook^{A}	armor
caaw^{B}	royal
caaw^{B} khɔɔŋ^{A} tɔŋ^{A}	host
caaw^{B} naaj^{B}	master
camləəj^{C}	defendant
canah^{B}	victory
cawkhɔɔŋ^{A}	own
coot^{A}	plaintiff
cuh^{A} thoot^{B}	punishment

dak^{A} ɹaaj^{C}	accuse
fɛɛt^{B}	twins
huənaa^{B}	chief
kaa^{C} pɹap^{A}	fine
kamlɔh^{A}	young man
kan^{C}	hinder
kasɯm^{C} chaləəj^{A}	prisoner
kasɯm^{C} con^{C}	beggar
kasɯm^{C} jaam^{B}	guard
kasɯm^{C} kuk^{A}	robber
kasɯm^{C} nam^{B}	leader
kasɯm^{C} plɛɛk^{C} ŋaaɹ^{B}	stranger
kasɯm^{C} pɔɔŋɹaaj^{C}	enemy
kasɯm^{C} pɹɯɯ^{C}	servant
kasɯm^{C} taaɹ^{B}	beggar
kasɯm^{C} ɹak^{B}	lover
khɛɛk^{C}	guest
khaa^{B}	murder
khaniiw^{C}	child
khaniiw^{C} kic^{A}	infant
khiin^{A} loŋ*	stray bullet
khiin^{A} kampɹaa^{C}	orphan
khiin^{A} sɹuk^{A}	villagers
khoot^{C} puək^{C}	ancestors
khum^{C}	rule
khɔmkhɯɯn^{A}	rape
khɔɔŋ^{A} kuk^{A}	booty
khɹɯəŋ^{C} ʔaawut^{A}	arms
khɯn^{A}	female
kluəŋ^{B}	male
koh^{A} diŋ^{A} pasaa^{A}	innocent
kuk^{A}	jail
kuk^{A}	steal

kɔtmaaj^{A}	law
kɔɔŋ thap^{A}	army
m̩pləəŋ^{A}	gun
m̩pləəŋ^{A} kɯt^{A}	cannon
makhɯn^{A} khamaaj^{A}	widow
makhɯn^{A}	woman
makhɯn^{A} chɯh^{A}	old woman
maluəŋ^{B}	man
maluəŋ^{B} chɯh^{A}	old man
maluəŋ^{B} khamaaj^{A}	widower
mat^{A} chɯə^{C}	extinct
mɯəŋ^{A}	town
naaj^{B} caaŋ^{B}	employer
naam^{B} sakuun^{A}	surname
pɛɛ^{C}	surrender
paak^{B} kanuək^{B}	not be married
pasuk^{A}	quarrel
pen^{A} cuu^{C}	adultery
phɛɛn^{A}	plan
phajaan^{C}	witness
phuu^{A} phaaksaa^{A}	judge (n)
phuujaj^{B}	village headman
pokkhɹɔŋ^{A}	govern
ɹop^{B}	fight
saŋop^{A}	peace
saabaan^{A}	swear
saan^{A}	court
saliəŋ^{B}	young woman
saliəŋ^{B} chɯh^{A}	old maid
sanaa^{B}	friend
sanaa^{B} sɹuk^{A}	neighbor
soŋkɹaam^{C}	war
sruk^{A} tɔŋ^{A}	village

suu^{B}	fight
sɹuk^{A} kəət^{A}	one's native country
taaw^{A}	sword
tabɔɔŋ^{A}	club
tat^{A} sin^{A}	judge
thaat^{B}	slave
thɔɔj^{A}	retreat
tɔɔ^{B} ɹaaj^{C}	ambush
wəj^{B} saa^{A}	fight

11.3 Pronoun and address terms

ʔiŋ^{A}	I
chan^{C}	I (polite form)
hiəŋ^{A}	we (inclusive)
jaŋ^{B}	we (exclusive)
naaŋ^{B}	married woman
naaj^{B}	married man
nak^{B}	he/she
poo^{B}	you (singular)
puək^{C} jaŋ^{B} paaɹ^{C} nak^{B}	we two (exclusive)
puək^{C} nak^{B}	they
puək^{C} poo^{B}	you (plural)
puək^{C} hiəŋ^{A} paaɹ^{C} nak^{B}	we two (inclusive)

11.4 Kinship terms

ʔaa^{A}	father's sister
ʔun^{C}	grandfather or grandmother
ʔɔk^{A}	grandmother
chanɯn^{A}	wife
chanɯn^{A} dəəm^{A}	1st wife
chanɯn^{A} sadiəŋ^{C}	2nd wife

chanɯn^{A} sadiəŋ^{C}	2nd wife
chuu^{A}	nephew
jaat^{C}	cousin
khiin^{A}	child
khiin^{A} chamuək^{B}	son or daughter-in-law
khiin^{A} chuu^{A}	descendants
khiin^{A} maluəŋ^{B}	son
khiin^{A} n̤daaɹ^{A}	middle child
khiin^{A} poh^{A}	stepson
khiin^{A} saliəŋ^{B}	daughter
khiin^{A} suthɔɔŋ^{C}	youngest child
khliɲ^{A}	older (brother)
khuuɲ^{A}	father
khuuɲ^{A} chamuək^{B}	father-in-law
khuuɲ^{A} miɲ^{A}	parents
khuuɲ^{A} poh^{A}	stepfather
khɹɔɔpkhɹuə^{C}	family
kluəŋ^{B}	husband
leen^{A}	great grandson, great granddaughter
mɛʔ^{A}	mother
miɲ^{A}	mother
miɲ^{A} chamuək^{B}	mother-in-law
muut^{A}	younger (brother)
muut^{A} chanɯn^{A}	wife's sister
naa^{C}	mother's sister
pat^{A}	divorce
pɔʔ^{A}	father
tɛɛŋ^{A} kaaɹ^{A}	marriage
taa^{A}	grandfather
tom^{C} makhɯn^{A}	aunt
tom^{C} maluəŋ^{B}	uncle

11.5 Occupations

caaŋ^{B} nih^{A}	carpenter
caaŋ^{B} thɛc^{A} suk^{A}	barber
caaŋ^{B} thɛc^{A} ʔaw^{A}	tailor
caaŋ^{B} wəj^{B} kahuəŋ^{A}	blacksmith
caaŋ^{B} ləək^{B} tɔŋ^{A}	mason
caw^{B} khɔɔŋ^{A}ɹooŋ^{B} sii^{A}	miller
kamnan^{A}	a head man of village
kasɯm^{C} kalii^{A}	prostitute
kasɯm^{C} suən^{A}	gardener
kasɯm^{C} tɔɔ^{B} kaaɹ^{A}	workman
mɔɔ^{B} nuət^{C}	masseuse
naaj^{B} ʔamphəə^{A}	district officer
phuu^{B} lic^{A}	provincial government
phuu^{B} tɛɛn^{C}	representative
puək^{C} chap^{A} miiɹ^{A}	fisherman
puək^{C} tɔɔ^{B} sɹɛɛ^{A}	farmer
sappaɹəə^{A}	undertaker
tahaan^{A}	soldier
tahaan^{A} pɹaan^{C}	soldier
tamɹuət^{C}	police
thahaan^{A}	soldier

12 Music and entertainment

khluj^{A}	flute
klɔŋ^{A}	voice
kɹiɲ^{A}	drum
laak^{C} khɔŋ^{C} ciiw^{A} taam^{A} taak^{C}	children game
laaw^{B} nithaan^{A}	tell folktale
liɲ^{B} muə^{C}	to be entertained
liɲ^{B} khlɛɛŋ^{A}	play kite

liŋ^{B} tuŋ^{A} thamoo^{C}	children games played with stones
liŋ^{B} tuək^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A}	children game pretending to be sellers and buyers
mɹiəŋ^{B} too^{C} saa^{A}	sing in pairs
pan^{B} thee^{C}	sculpturing
phɹii^{A} khaɹ^{C}	the snuffbox bean
pleeŋ^{C}	song
pleeŋ^{C}	song
pleeŋ^{C} kɹoom^{A}	Khmer song
pleeŋ^{C} lawiək^{C} khiin^{A}	lullaby
pleeŋ^{C} panleen^{A}	a kind of song
pleeŋ^{C} pɹɔh^{B}	beautiful
pluum^{A} pii^{C}	blow pipe
pluəj^{A}	musical instrument
sii^{C}	ratten ball
sɔɔ^{C}	fiddle
tiih^{A}	noise
wəj^{B} kɹiŋ^{A}	drum

13. Language and communication

ʔaan^{A}	read
ʔuət^{C}	boast
camɔh^{B}	name
cuuɹ^{A} thɛɛw^{A}	in row
cɯə^{C}	obey
haam^{C}	forbid
jɔɔm^{B} ɹap^{B}	admit
kam^{C} padam^{A}	command
kam^{C} sɔɔn^{A}	teaching
khaniiw^{C} ɹooŋɹiən^{C}	student
khiiw^{A}	call
khiən^{A}	write

khuj^{C}	chat
khuu^{B}	threaten
khɹuu^{B}	teacher
laaw^{B}	tell
lic^{A}	say
mɔk^{A}	word
ɲaaj^{C}	speak
ɲaaj^{C} liŋ^{B}	joke
ɲaaj^{C} sɔɔsiət^{B}	speak ironically
ɲaaj^{C} takuk^{A} takak^{A}	stammer
pakaat^{B}	announce
pasaa^{A}	language
ɹiən^{C}	study
ɹiən^{C} diŋ^{A}	learn
ɹooŋɹiən^{C}	school
sanjaa^{C}	promise
suəŋ^{C}	tell
sɔɔn^{A}	teach
sɹii^{A}	ask
taaɹ^{B}	request
taaɹ^{B} thoot^{B}	pardon
tɔɔp^{B}	answer

14. Economic

ʔuək^{C} jɯɯm^{C}	lend
ʔuək^{C} koo^{A} koo^{A}	give for free
bɛɛŋ^{A} m̩tiih^{A}	divide in halves
cɛɛk^{B}	distribute
caŋ^{C}	weigh
caaŋ^{B}	hire
caj^{C}	pay (v)
dɔɔk^{A}	interest

jɯɯm^{C}	borrow
kaa^{C} caaŋ^{B}	wages
kamɪaj^{A}	profit
kasɯm^{C} tuək^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A}	merchant
laakaa^{C}	price
loŋ^{B} tun^{C}	investment
nii^{B}	debt
pɛɛŋ^{C}	expensive
pen^{A} nii^{B}	owe
plɯəŋ^{A}	waste
pɪak^{A} khlɯŋ^{A}	Khmer currency
pɪak^{A} pɛɛ^{C}	Khmer currency
pɪɯɯ^{C} caj^{C}	spend
ɪaan^{C} tuək^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A}	shop
suək^{C}	change
taaɪ^{B} jɯɯm^{C}	borrow
talaat^{B}	market
thuuk^{C}	cheap
tiiw^{B}	buy
tuəŋ^{A} nii^{B}	ask for payment of debt
tuək^{A}	sell
tuək^{A} mau^{T}	sell out lock

15 Travelling and transportation

ʔɛɛk^{B}	yoke
cɛɛw^{C} tɔk^{B}	to row
cakkajaan^{C}	bicycle
cuh^{B} ɪot^{A}	get off
cɯh^{B} tɔk^{B}	sail
jut^{A} maan^{B}	stop
kasɯm^{C} paaj^{C} tɔk^{B}	oar
katɛh^{B}	wagon

khlaa^{C} tɔk^{B}	sail
khɹaa^{A}	path
khɹaa^{A} khooŋ^{C}	curved path
kluəŋ^{A} pasii^{A}	keel of a boat
lɔɔ^{B}	wheel
lɔɔŋ^{B} pɛɛ^{C}	float on raft
nih^{A} cɛɛw^{C}	paddle
nih^{A} paaj^{C}	paddle
nih^{A} thɔɔ^{B} tɔk^{B}	pole for punting a boat
pɛɛ^{C}	raft
pɛɛ^{C}	raft
paaj^{C}	row
paak^{B} kook^{B}	land (v)
paak^{B} ɹot^{A}	get on
phah^{A} kanɔh^{A} tɔk^{B}	rudder
plaw^{A}	axle
ɹot^{A} ʔajtɛɛn^{C}	wagon
ɹot^{A} jon^{C}	car
ɹot^{A} khɹɯəŋ^{C}	motorcycle
ɹot^{A} paaɹ^{C} thɛɛw^{C}	pick up
ɹot^{A} pliiw^{A}	train
samɔɔ^{A} tɔk^{B}	anchor
sɹaŋ^{B} kadooŋ^{A} tɔk^{B}	outrigger
sɹaŋ^{B} tɔk^{B}	mast
taaj^{B}	under
tapaan^{C}	bridge
thanon^{C}	road
thɔɔn^{A}	change
tii^{C} cɔɔt^{B} ɹot^{A}	street car stop
tii^{C} cɔɔt^{B} tɔk^{B}	port
tiəm^{B}	yoke
tɔk^{B} kampan^{B}	a western-style ship with a stem
tɔk^{B} thalee^{B}	yacht

16. Characteristics and behaviour

ʔaakhaat^{B}	be vengeful
ʔuwah^{A}	greedy
caŋnaŋ^{C}	obstinate
caj^{A} kɛɛp^{C}	narrow-minded
chalaat^{B}	clever
chəəj^{A}	passive
ciəm^{A} kɯp^{B}	to be humble
cɔɔŋhɔɔŋ^{A}	impudent
cɯə^{C}	obey
dɯɯ^{B}	naughty
haan^{A}	brave
huəŋ^{A} khɔɔŋ^{A}	keep for oneself
jaap^{B}	rude
jim^{C}	smile
juə^{C} ʔuək^{C} piək^{B}	provoke
jɯɯn^{B} jan^{C}	insist
kalɔɔn^{B}	unreliable
kasɯm^{C} kapɹap^{B} kapɹook^{B}	careless
kasɯm^{C} niəw^{B}	stingy
kasɯm^{C} suk^{A} liət^{C}	ticklish
khat^{A} mat^{B} khat^{A} palaaŋ^{B}	ridiculous
khii^{B} ʔɔɔn^{C}	fussy
khii^{B} khuj^{C}	brag
khɹee^{C}	shy
kit^{A} kɹɔɔŋ^{A}	think
klaa^{B}	dare
kuəj^{C} kuəj^{C}	to be sluggish
kəən^{A} ciiw^{A}	exaggerated
liŋ^{B}	play
liŋ^{B} makhɯn^{A}	to have sexual with prostitute
lɔɔ^{B}	deceit

lɔɔŋ^{B}	try
m̥pəəɲ^{C}	to be indifferent
mak^{A}	greedy
muuj^{C} kic^{A} ciiw^{A}	insufficient
ŋum^{B} ŋaam^{B}	feel awkward
ŋɔɔ^{C}	humble oneself in order to conciliate
pacop^{A}	flatter
pajat^{A}	miserly
phajajaam^{C}	attempt
piək^{B}	laugh
pot^{A}	tell lies
pɔɔ^{C} dii^{A}	suitable
ɹop^{B} kuən^{C}	bother
sa?ə?^{A}	saucy
son^{A}	naughty
soncaj^{A}	mind
sɯɯsat^{A}	faithful
thaa^{B} thaaŋ^{A}	manner
thalee^{B} thalaj^{A}	loiter about
thanu?^{A} thanɔɔm^{A}	indulge
thɔɔm^{B} kɯp^{B}	modest
won^{B} waaj^{C}	disturb

17. Head and face actions

caap^{B}	wash (face)
chaŋəə^{C}	stretch one's neck out see
con^{C}	bump against
fup^{A}	collapse
han^{A} ŋaaɹ^{B}	turn face
hɯɯt^{A}	sniff
kajak^{A} ŋaaɹ^{B}	nod
kapak^{B} ~ pak^{B}	put around the neck

katɛɛk^{C}	butt with one's head
kawiək^{B} tuuh^{A}	shake one's head
khajaaj^{A} suk^{A}	loose-hanging hair
kuuj^{A} ŋaaɪ^{B}	bending down
kuək^{A} phɯŋ^{A}	tension of muscles around the neck
malaak^{C}	to open one's eye
ŋəəj^{A}	raise lift
phuuɪ^{B}	swell (head)
pic^{A}	close (the eyes)
plɔk^{B} sambɔɔk^{B} mat^{B}	roll eyes upward
pɪah^{A} ŋaaɪ^{B}	powder face
suu^{A}	blow the nose
suəŋ^{B}	smell
tuuɪ^{B}	carry on head

18 Mouth action

ʔəə^{C}	shout with joy
ʔɯk^{B} ʔak^{B}	be stuck dumb
ŋkaap^{B}	yawn
ŋaaɲ^{B}	nibble the corn
ŋum^{C} ŋam^{A}	mumble
biəm^{C}	keep in mouth
bon^{B}	complain
cakmam^{A}	compress the lips
cap^{B} ʔaaŋ^{A}	stammer
chaa^{A} plaat^{C} pooŋ^{A}	eat scattered
chuəj^{A}	nibble a bait
cuh^{A} taak^{C} suəc^{C}	spit
cuut^{C}	vomit
haa^{A} paniim^{C} kahoo^{A}	opening mouth
hiək^{B} paniim^{C} khiiw^{A}	shout and scold
hoo^{C}	to boo

huut^{A}	sip
jaam^{B} kabuən^{A}	sob
kaʔɛɛn^{C} khamɔk^{A}	cough
kaaɹ^{A}	call out
kahuuc^{A}	whistle
kasaɹ^{C}	moan
kasaɹ^{C} ʔaɹɯm^{C}	moan in pain
khat^{A}	bite
kuu^{A}	spit out
kuu^{B}	cry out
lahuuc^{A}	whisper
loom^{C}	console
maɹiəŋ^{B}	sing
ɲaaj^{C} sɔɔ^{B} siət^{C}	speak inform against
paam^{B}	seize in teeth
paat^{B}	lick
phak^{A} ʔic^{A}	hiccough
pɹiət^{B}	raise a hue and cry
sii^{A}	kiss
taah^{C}	challenge
taak^{C} suəc^{C}	saliva, spit
thiək^{B} laŋiət^{B} kahɔɔ^{C}	to sleep with opening mouth
tɔk^{B} kataak^{C}	stick out
tɔɔ^{B} paniim^{C} cuk^{A} cuk^{A}	click

19. Hand action

ʔat^{A} ʔuək^{C} nɛɛn^{B}	compress
ʔut^{A}	block way through small hole
ŋaaŋ^{C}	pull out
ŋaaɲ^{B}	pick out with teeth
bɛɛ^{A}	Spread out
baŋ^{B}	mark on surface around

baak^{C}	notch
biip^{C}	press
bit^{A}	squeeze
biəm^{C}	hold (in mouth)
blɛh^{A} ciŋ^{A}	break off with one's finger
bɔɔk^{B} taloo^{C}	flay
cah^{A}	whittle make hole
cah^{A} ʔuh^{A}	chop up firewood
chaj^{A}	bore
chic^{A}	pinch
chic^{A} m̩pɔŋ^{C}	select and keep fresh vegetable by pulling out rotten parts
chiim^{A} taak^{C}	feed water from spoon
chooŋ^{A}	grasp
chuək^{A}	Pierce
chɔh^{A}	make hole
chɔk^{A}	stab
cii^{C}	poke
cup^{A}	dip
cɯk^{A}	plunge down
dak^{A}	plane
dan^{A}	push
dat^{A}	bend
diit^{C}	flip
duh^{A}	rub
faat^{B}	at clothes hard while washing
han^{A}	cut
hiək^{B}	tear
hɔɔm^{A}	gather in folds
jɛɛk^{C}	separate
jan^{C}	support
jat^{A}	stuff
juut^{A}	grab

kɛc^{A}	broken
kɛc^{A} puuc^{C}	break apart
kah^{B}	prop up
kamuuc^{A}	hold
kamuuc^{C}	grasp
kat^{A} koon^{B} nih^{A}	cut down tree
kathuŋ^{C}	poke
kathɔh^{A} sambɔɔk^{B}	break
katuk^{A}	pull with jerks
kawiək^{B}	embrace
kep^{A}	pick up
kheek^{A} tuuh^{A}	knock
khiə^{B}	remove
khlɛh^{A}	to chip off
khlii^{C}	sharpen point
khlɔk^{A}	hollow out
khuh^{A}	scrape off
khuj^{C}	dip in
khuət^{A} chap^{A} lak^{A}	tie pole
khuət^{A} pen^{A} pum^{C}	knot
khuət^{A} ʔuəɲ^{C} pen^{A} bɛc^{A}	tie make bundle
khuət^{A} tɔɔ^{B} ŋɯən^{B}	tie not
khwaaj^{B} saa^{A}	twisted
khwaan^{C}	take out sth. from inside
khɯh^{A}	press using finger nails
klam^{C} thuəc^{A}	feel for something
klɔɔ^{A}	dip in
kooɹ^{A}	shave
kuŋ^{C}	crook one's arm
kuuɹ^{B}	point at
kɔŋ^{A}	carry
kɔt^{A}	press
kɹiit^{C}	slit

kɹɔɔk^{B}	pour
kɯh^{B}	lop the branches
kɯn^{A}	carry in hand
lɛɛ^{B} taloo^{C}	cut off skin
laap^{B}	paint
lalɛh^{A}	cut branches of tree
lawiək^{B}	shake
lawəəc^{B}	wave the hand
lut^{A} ciiw^{A}	slip apart
luuc^{B} phɛɛ^{B}	spread out on ground
luuc^{C} takhɛɛŋ^{C}	carelessly place
luup^{B}	stroke
lɔɔk^{C}	peel off
nuət^{C}	rub
ɲam^{C}	squeeze with hand
pɛʔ^{B}	stick
paaj^{B}	brush with sweeping motion
paat^{B}	edge out
paat^{C}	place over
pasah^{A}	sprinkle
pen^{A} siəw^{B}	cut in small pieces
phɛɛn^{B}	pieces
plɛh^{A}	pluck
plɔh^{A}	chop
plɔh^{A} duuŋ^{A}	chop off
plɔh^{A} pak^{A} ɳdaaɹ^{A}	cut in half
poŋ^{C}	push
puuc^{A}	to spit
puuc^{B}	pick (one's pocket)
puut^{B}	cut
ɹap^{B}	take, snatch
ɹuk^{A}	go through
ɹum^{A} makaw^{C}	roll up cigarettes

ɹuuc^{B} pɹii^{B}	cut off
ɹuut^{C}	slide
sɛʔ^{A}	dig and scratch gently
saac^{B} pat^{A}	throw out
sakat^{A}	chisel out
samɔɔ^{A}	smoothly
sap^{A}	chop finely
sap^{A} khɹiəŋ^{C}	chop bamboo to make floor
siəp^{B}	thread
suət^{A}	wipe
sɔɔj^{A}	cut in thin small pieces
sɔɔj^{A} suk^{A}	cut hair
sɔɔn^{C}	place on top of other
sɔɔt^{B} khaaŋ^{A} pataa^{C}	insert under
sɹɛɛm^{A}	drill
sɹaap^{B}	wash
sɯək^{A}	push
taap^{C}	place over
taaŋ^{C}	pull
taaŋ^{C} makhɯn^{A}	drag off
talɔɔm^{B}	heap by hand
thɛc^{A}	pick up
thɛc^{A} chuuj^{C}	cut top
thɛc^{A} kasɹah^{A}	trim
thɛc^{A} n̤daaɹ^{A} thiim^{C}	cut down tree at the middle
thɛc^{A} wɛʔ^{B} ciŋ^{A}	cut open body
thaaw^{C} tii^{A}	rest one's arm
thak^{A}	braid
thak^{A} pɯɯt^{C}	rip
thic^{A}	cut out at roots
tih^{A}	dip in
tii^{A} lalah^{A}	Given to thieving
tii^{A} tɯŋ^{B}	to liberate as pus

tɔk^{B} kasaaŋ^{A} miiɪ^{A}	scrape off
tɪuəj^{A}	string
wɛɛk^{B}	push aside
wej^{B} thaɪ^{A}	wash cloth
wic^{B}	carry suspended from the hand
wəj^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} takɪiəŋ^{C}	hit with elbow

20. Body action

ʔiəw^{C} kɯp^{B}	turn body
ŋom^{C}	grope in water
paʔeek^{A}	place at wall
cɯh^{B} kuək^{A}	ride on someone's shoulder
kadiət^{C} tawɔɔ^{C}	placing on one's waist
kapak^{B}	hang around one's neck
kasɛc^{A} tɯɯn^{A}	startle at night
khajap^{A}	adjust
khwaaŋ^{A}	bar way
khɯɯn^{A} ŋuəŋ^{B}	reluctant sleep
kooŋ^{B} khooŋ^{C}	bend down
kɔŋ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} katuk^{A}	carry on back
kɪook^{A}	hair standing on end
kɪɯk^{A}	wake up
kɯɯɪ^{A} kaaj^{B} haaŋ^{C}	sit with one leg on another
kɯɯɪ^{A} sec^{A} pliiw^{A}	warm oneself by fire
kɯɯɪ^{A} kamook^{B}	to sit and pay no attention
kɯɯɪ^{A} phap^{A} phiəp^{B}	sit with both legs folded back to one side
kɯɯɪ^{A} biət^{B} saa^{A}	sit very close
kɯɯɪ^{A} jooŋ^{B} khləəm^{C}	to sit in a drowsy state
kɯɯɪ^{A} jɔŋ^{B} hoŋ^{C}	sit with legs spreading apart
kɯɯɪ^{A} kadaaŋ^{A} pluu^{B}	sit separating legs
kɯɯɪ^{A} khat^{A} thamaat^{B}	sit cross-legged
kɯɯɪ^{A} khɪɔɔm^{B}	straddle

kɯɯɹ^{A} kɯp^{B} liip^{C}	sit with legs cross together
kɯɯɹ^{A} taŋ^{B} tuuh^{A} makuuɹ^{C}	sit with both legs tucked back one side
lɔɔm^{C} ɹɔɔp^{B}	surround
muc^{A} taak^{C}	dive
mɔɔp^{B}	crouch
niip^{C}	carry under arm
pakhɔɔŋ^{A}	hug
phut^{A}	rise up
piiw^{A}	hold
piiw^{A} dak^{A} kawiin^{C}	hold child on one's hip
pok^{A}	tie
puŋ^{B} kiw^{C}	draw in the belly
saʔ^{A} suk^{A}	wash hair
saduŋ^{B} phɹaat^{B}	stop short
sappaŋok^{A}	nod from drowsiness
suən^{A} kɯəp^{C} ŋec^{B}	stumble and trip
səəj^{A} suk^{A}	push hair upward
thaaj^{C}	redeem (a pledge)
thiək^{B} kapuuc^{B}	sleep with face down
thiək^{A} laŋok^{A}	to take a sitting sleep
tooŋ^{A}	swing

21. Leg and foot action

ʔuuc^{C} tuuh^{A} makuuɹ^{C} paak^{B}	kick with knee
boɹ^{A}	run
boɹ^{A} ɹeew^{B}	run quickly
boɹ^{A} phɯŋ^{A} ciiw^{A}	run suddenly
ciiw^{A}	walk
ciiw^{A} kasat^{A} kasee^{A}	unsteady in walking
ciiw^{A} liŋ^{B}	take walk
ciiw^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} katoɹ^{C} siŋ^{B}	walk on heels
ciiw^{A} tiʔ^{A} taʔ^{A}	walking(fat person)

ciiw^{A} dum^{A} dum^{A}	walk without looking left or right
ciiw^{A} jook^{C} jeek^{C}	sway
dɛɛk^{A} ciiw^{A}	pass over
jam^{B}	tramp
kɛɛŋ^{A}	kick
kathɔɔn^{C} klap^{A} mùun^{B}	recoil
kathɯɯp^{C}	stamp on
khajeeŋ^{B}	stand on tiptoe
khajook^{C} khajeek^{C}	limp
kɯɯɹ^{A} khuk^{A} tuuh^{A} makuuɹ^{C}	kneel
lakhiit^{C}	slippery
lakiit^{C} chalɛɛp^{B}	slide
loot^{B}	jump
loot^{B} cuh^{A}	jump
sapɯh^{B}	trip over
sawaak^{C}	step
suəŋ^{A}	dance
thɔɔj^{A} tamuun^{C}	walking backward
tɯn^{A}	shove away with the foot

22. General action and behaviour

ʔeen^{A}	leaning
ʔic^{A}	defecate
ʔiin^{A}	have
ʔiin^{A} saa^{A}	have sexual
ʔiin^{A} ɹap^{B}	get
ʔup^{A} thiək^{A}	lie face downwards
ʔuuc^{C}	take
ʔuək^{C}	give
bɛɛŋ^{A}	divide
baŋ^{A}	conceal
boh^{A}	sweep

boɪ^{A} ɹeew^{B} wɯɯ^{A}	run very fast
bɔh^{A}	throw
bəək^{B}	open
bɯt^{A}	close
cam^{A}	wait
cam^{A}	remember
can^{B}	step on
canlɔɔŋ^{A}	related by marriage
chanɔk^{A}	look
chap^{A}	catch
chih^{A}	dry in the sun
chom^{A}	praise
ciiw^{A}	go
ciɲ^{A} ciiw^{A}	go out
com^{C}	admire
con^{B}	bump against
cuh^{B} taa^{A}	go down
cuk^{A}	cover
cuuɪ^{A}	enter
cuuɪ^{A} kaat^{C}	approach
cuəj^{C}	rescue
cɪah^{A}	shine
cɯh^{B}	drive
daw^{A}	guess
diɲ^{A}	understand
diɲ^{A} lamuət^{C}	pursue
don^{B} ciiw^{A}	retract
dɔm^{A}	strike
dɔɔm^{B}	hide
faat^{C}	beat
haap^{B} thaɪ^{A}	bare, naked
hiək^{A}	hurry
hot^{A}	shrink

huu^{A}	blow
huum^{A}	bathe
hɔɔj^{A}	hang
jɛɛk^{B}	separate
jaaj^{C}	move
jip^{A}	come
jip^{A} klee^{A}	reach
jɔɔn^{C} khlap^{A}	return
jɯɯt^{B}	stretch
kaʔum^{C}	make a hole
kacaaj^{A}	spread out
kadok^{A} nih^{A}	move one end up or down
kajəəp^{B} kajaap^{B}	flutter in wind
kalak^{A}	drop
kamɹəəp^{B}	get worse
kan^{B}	block away
kaphuŋ^{C}	bend
kapuuc^{B}	turn over
kathɯən^{A}	shake
kep^{A}	collect
khanee^{A}	suspect
khliə^{A}	level out
khluum^{C}	urinate
khuət^{A}	bind
khɯŋ^{A}	stretch
khɯɯn^{A}	return
kit^{A}	think
klap^{A}	return
klap^{A} jip^{A}	come back
kliŋ^{B}	roll thing downward
kliək^{A}	glance at
kon^{C} thuəc^{A}	seek
kwak^{A}	hang

kɔh^{A}	broken
kɪook^{B}	wake up
kɯh^{A}	awake
kɯɯɪ^{A}	sit, stay
laak^{B}	untie
lalɯh^{B}	tumble down
lamuət^{B} nɛh^{A} suək^{B}	follow after
lamuət^{C}	follow
lawiək^{C}	shake
lawiək^{C}	shake
lop^{B} ŋaaɪ^{B}	avoid meeting someone
lop^{B} kamaa^{C}	protect from rain
lut^{A} kaden^{A}	slip away
luuc^{C}	release
lɔh^{B}	climb up
ləək^{B}	build
ləək^{B}	lift
ləək^{B} thoot^{B}	forgive
lɯək^{C}	choose
lɯən^{B}	move
mun^{A} tiw^{A}	spin quickly
mun^{C}	turn around
muən^{C}	wind
muət^{B}	to ferment
mɔh^{B}	to hit slightly at the bottom of the child when it goes to bed
mɔɔp^{B} sum^{B}	collapse
nɛh^{A}	look at
nam^{B} jip^{A}	bring
nuŋ^{A}	to ask
nɯk^{A}	conceive
ɲaɪ^{C}	shiver
pɛc^{A}	break

pɛɲ^{A}	twist
paak^{A}	rise
paak^{B} liɲ^{A}	go up ascend
paak^{B} saa^{A}	have sexual
pajuuɹ^{A}	hang up
patah^{B}	meet
pec^{A} khamɯk^{A}	perspire
phloo^{A}	bobbing up and down in water
phlɯk^{B}	blow
phoo^{A}	dream
pih^{A}	to disappear
plam^{B}	struggle with
poom^{C}	watch
pɔk^{A}	wrap
pɔɔŋ^{A}	intercourse
pɯk^{A}	fan (v)
pɯn^{A}	pile up
ɹeew^{B} jaaŋ^{C} chiəw^{B}	hurry up
ɹiən^{C} bɛɛp^{B}	imitate
ɹun^{C}	shove
ɹuək^{B}	hide
ɹuəm^{B}	join together
sam^{C}	repeat
sanam^{C}	hear
sap^{A}	absorb
siit^{C}	pour
siə^{C}	lose
soŋsaj^{A}	doubt
suun^{B}	send
suən^{C} chəəj^{A}	quite
sɔɔm^{C}	train
sɯɯ^{A}	to pierce
taak^{C} cuəɹ^{A} salak^{A}	spurt out

taaɪ^{C}	drink
taluh^{B}	to be pierced
tap^{B}	pile up
tap^{B}	fold
thaaɪ^{A}	stand
thamlaaj^{C}	destroy
thamnaaj^{C}	fortune
thanaɪ^{A}	know
thiək^{B}	lie down
thiək^{B} laŋiət^{B}	sleep
thiəw^{A} kɪee^{A}	go on outing for pleasure
tuu^{B}	flee
tɔɔ^{B}	make
tɔɔ^{B} kaaɪ^{A}	work
tɔɔj^{A}	pound with fist
təəŋ^{A}	throw away
tɯk^{A} ŋuək^{B}	snore
tɯp^{A} ɹuək^{B}	put under sth.
waaɪ^{C}	crawl
wəj^{A}	hit

23. Characteristic, quality, shape and size

23.1 Colour

caŋ^{A}	black
jɔh^{B}	yellow
kalak^{A} sii^{A}	have colour that fades
ŋaɪ^{A}	red
ŋaɪ^{B} kɪam^{C}	dark red
ŋaɪ^{B} ɹɯə^{B}ɹɯə^{B}	shade of light red
ŋaɪ^{B} cat^{B}	very red
pɹuh^{B}	white

sii^{A}	paint
sii^{A} ŋaɹ^{A} chaat^{A}	very red
sii^{A} ŋaɹ^{A} mɯn^{C} haam^{C}	blood red
sii^{A} caŋ^{A} ŋiət^{C}	very black
sii^{A} caŋ^{A} caŋ^{A} daaŋ^{B} daaŋ^{B}	not very black
sii^{A} cɔɔ^{C}	orange
sii^{A} juuɹ^{B}	blue
sii^{A} kuəc^{C}	light(in color)
sii^{A} ŋaɹ^{A} kuəc^{C}	light red
sii^{A} kakii^{A}	pale color
sii^{A} pɹuh^{B} waaw^{B} waaw^{B}	white and shiny
wiit^{B}	green

23.2 Shape and size

kaa^{A} labaat^{C}	cross
koŋ^{C} koŋ^{C} ɹiəw^{A} ɹiəw^{A}	long and sharp
liən^{B}	coin
mon^{C}	round
mum^{C}	corner
muɹ^{C}	round
phuun^{C} liəm^{B}	square
sen^{A}	line
siəw^{B}	quarter
sɹaŋ^{B}	hole
woŋ^{C} muuɹ^{C}	circle

23.3 Measure

cin^{C}	part
lit^{A}	liter
muuj^{C} hat^{A}	cubit

muuj^{C} kiək^{A}	a unit for measure(from the index finger to the thumb)
muuj^{C} thaak^{A}	a unit for measure(from the thumb finger to the middle finger)
maat^{B} wah^{A}	measure
thaak^{A}	fathom
kiloo^{C}	kilo
tan^{A}	ton
tuəŋ^{A}	measure by scooping up in container of standard capacity
wah^{A} khanaat^{B}	measure

23.4 Number and quantity

chuh^{A}	hundred
kaaŋ^{C}	many
kanuuɪ^{A}	seven
kasaaɪ^{B}	nine
katii^{A}	eight
katuəŋ^{B}	six
khiit^{C}	gram
kic^{A}	few
koo^{A}	nothing
leek^{B}	number
mat^{A} kliəŋ^{B}	totally used up
matiih^{B}	half
muuj^{C}	one, alone
muuj^{C} kic^{A} chiət^{C}	very little
muuj^{C} kic^{A} muuj^{C} kuuj^{C}	little
muuj^{C} malaak^{C}	piece
naac^{B}	some
nap^{B}	count
paaɪ^{C}	two

paaɪ^{C} lɯk^{A}	two times
paaɪ^{C} see^{A}	twenty
pan^{A}	thousand
phee^{C}	three
phee^{C} lɯk^{A}	three times
phuun^{C}	four
phɪam^{A}	five
pɔɔ^{C}	enough
ɪaaj^{B}	ten
ɪaaj^{B} muuj^{C}	eleven
ɪaaj^{B} paaɪ^{C}	twelve
ɪaaj^{B} phɪam^{A}	fifteen
suttaaj^{C}	last
tamuuj^{C}	only
thaŋ^{A} mat^{A}	all
tii^{C} muuj^{C}	first
tii^{C} paaɪ^{C}	second
tii^{C} phee^{C}	third
tuk^{B}	every

23.5 Quality

ʔuən^{B}	fat
bum^{C} bii^{C}	crooked twisted
buut^{C}	to go sour
caat^{C}	untidy
cat^{A}	clear
chaaŋ^{C}	cool
chɯp^{A} chaniit^{C}	dark completely
con^{C}	poor
cuə^{C}	bad
dii^{A}	good
dɯk^{A}	thick

haam^{A}	almost ripe
jaak^{C}	difficult
jap^{A}	to be ruined
jon^{B}	wrinkled
jooŋ^{B}	high and toweringly
jɔɔp^{C}	flat
kɛɛp^{C}	narrow
kapuuc^{B}	put upside down
katiŋ^{C}	thin
kaɹ^{C}	pointed
khajaak^{C}	to be crushed
khap^{A}	thick
khuuɹ^{C}	fragrant
khwaaj^{B}	cross
kiin^{C}	short
koŋ^{C}	long
koŋ^{C} phluəj^{C}	very long
kooŋ^{C}	cunning
koon^{A}	sparse
kuŋ^{C}	bend
kut^{A}	shortened
kuəc^{C}	soft
kɹah^{A}	hard
kɹɔɔj^{A}	brackish
kɯt^{A}	big
lakii^{C}	be lean
lakii^{C} siit^{C}	skinny and pale
lan^{B} look^{B}	noisy
lawaak^{C}	to be chipped
leew^{B}	bad
luuj^{C}	pointed
lə?^{A} kapɹuuc^{B}	dirty
lə?thə?^{A}	dirty

lɯŋ^{A}	deep
lɯɯ^{A}	blunt
meɲ^{C}	beautiful
naa^{B} kliət^{A}	ugly
naaŋ^{B}	old
nih^{A} kapɔk^{A}	hook
nim^{B}	soft
ŋaaj^{B}	easy
ŋaam^{C}	sweet
ŋat^{A}	bitter
ŋaɹ^{C}	heavy
ŋiəp^{B}	quiet
ŋum^{C}	curved down
ŋɔɔm^{C} ŋɛɛm^{C}	old
ŋɯm^{C}	warm
ŋɯən^{B}	knot
pap^{B}	fold
pen^{A} tamɔɔj^{A}	amputated finger
phaa^{C}	full (from eating)
phit^{A}	wrong
phɯh^{B} pɹaat^{B} pɹooŋ^{B}	scatter (seeds)
plɛɛk^{C}	strange
plaa^{B}	new
plaac^{C}	bland
pom^{C}	knot
puk^{A}	spoiled
puuh^{C}	to go sour
puəŋ^{B}	full
pɔh^{B}	dry
pɹɔɔm^{C}	ready
pɯəj^{A} puj^{A}	ready to fall apart at touch
ɹaŋ^{B}	dry
ɹaap^{B}	flat

ɹuuh^{A}	high
sɛc^{A}	cold
saʔaat^{A}	clean
saam^{A}	smell
saap^{C}	bright
sadiit^{C}	light
salaaŋ^{C}	odor
siə^{C}	damage
suk^{A} pɹuh^{B}	grey (hair)
sɹaŋ^{B} puh^{B}	perforated
taak^{C} kathin^{C} saweeŋ^{A}	transparent
thak^{A} ɹiw^{C}	torn raggedly
thiək^{B} soom^{A}	lie helpless
thɹat^{A}	leak
tuʔ^{A} tuʔ^{A}	to tickle
tuən^{B}	correct, passive marker
tuən^{B} kat^{A}	harm
tɔɔ^{A} choo^{A}	raise a hue and cry
tɔɔlɛɛ^{A}	lie
tɹɔŋ^{A}	straight
waaŋ^{B}	empty
wiit^{B}	unripe
wiiɹ^{A}	loud

24. Mental images, wanting, sensation

ʔitchaa^{A}	envy
bɯə^{C}	to be bored
campen^{A}	need
cɯt^{A}	anger
cɯt^{A} kliət^{B}	angry
huəŋ^{A}	envy
jaam^{B}	cry

khamuuc^{C} tɔɔ^{B}	inspire
khat^{A} kwaaŋ^{A}	difficult
khɪee^{C}	shame
khɪiət^{B}	fully strained
kliət^{A}	hate
kwaam^{C} kit^{A}	idea
muuj^{C} nuən^{A}	lonely
ŋiəp^{B} saŋoot^{C}	silent
ŋɯt^{A}	feel
plɛɛk^{C} caj^{A}	astonished
pɔɔ^{C} caj^{A}	proud
pɪoot^{A}	like, favor
ɪak^{B}	love
ɪot^{A} caat^{C}	taste
saaj^{C} heet^{C}	cause
sabaaj^{A} caj^{A}	happy
sandaan^{A}	innate character
sen^{A} ɪiit^{C}	laughable
siə^{C} caj^{A}	regret
siə^{C} sati?^{A}	insane
taŋ^{A}	see
taŋ^{B} caj^{A}	intend
tamnih^{A}	blame
tanee^{A}	listen
that^{A}	salty
thon^{C}	endure
tok^{A} talɯŋ^{A}	stunned
tuk^{B}	worry
tuəŋ^{C}	fear
waŋ^{A}	hope
wiɲ^{B}	forget

25. Expression for time

ʔaaw^{A}	day
ʔaaw^{A} wan^{A}	today
baaŋ^{A} kɹaŋ^{C}	sometimes
bɔɔj^{A}	often
chuəmooŋ^{C}	hour
cop^{A}	end
jut^{A}	stop
kaaŋ^{A}	month
kaat^{C} saap^{B}	dawn
kanii^{C} tɛɲ^{A} tɛɲ^{A}	daytime
khaneen^{A} ʔan^{A}	at the moment
khɹiəŋ^{C}	night
koh^{A} kuəj^{C}	soon
kuəj^{C}	slow
kuəj^{C} kuk^{A}	long-time
maʔaaw^{A}	before yesterday
masii^{C}	yesterday
mooj^{B}	day after tomorrow
naa^{C} satoo^{C}	a moment
naakaa^{A}	o'clock
nɯm^{B}	year
nɯm^{B} masii^{C}	last year
paaŋ^{B}	tomorrow
pacam^{C}	always
phansaa^{A}	Buddhist lent
piithoo^{C}	last night
plaa^{B} muuj^{C} lɯk^{B}	again
ɹaduu^{C}	season
ɹaduu^{C} kamaa^{C}	rainy season
ɹaduu^{C} sɛc^{A}	winter
ɹaduu^{C} thuu^{C}	summer

ɹaduu^{C} wɯh^{B} kanuət^{B}	weeding rice reason
ɹeew^{B}	quick
ɹəəm^{A}	begin
sadiəŋ^{C} sanii^{C} trɔŋ^{A}	afternoon
samaj^{A} tuəj^{C}	former time
sanii^{C} tɪɔŋ^{A}	noon
sanii^{C} ɹuuh^{A}	late
sappadaa^{A}	week
teet^{C}	just a moment
tuuh^{A} sak^{A}	early
tɔɔn^{A} baaj^{A}	afternoon
tɔɔn^{A} laa^{B} laa^{B}	evening
tɔɔn^{A} sak^{A}	morning
wan^{A} ʔaathit^{A}	Sunday
weelaa^{B}	time
weelaa^{B} ʔan^{A}	now

26. Grammatical words

26.1 Demonstratives

ʔan^{A}	this
ten^{B}	that
tih^{A} ʔan^{A}	here
tih^{A} ten^{B}	there

26.2 Classifiers

khɹaŋ^{C}	time
kuu^{C}	pair
lem^{B}	clf. for book
mɔk^{B}	a word
mpɔŋ^{C}	shoot

muuɪ^{C}	a unit for round thing
muuɪ^{A}	a body of animal
nak^{B}	a body of men
muu^{B}	multitude
nuut^{B}	lump
phuuŋ^{A}	crowd
sii^{C}	clf. of the tooth

26.3 Comparative

kaaɲ^{C} kwaa^{B}	more
muuj^{C} kic^{C} kwaa^{B}	less
mɯn^{C}	like
nɛh^{A} mɯn^{C}	seem
tii^{C} sut^{A}	finally
tiɲ^{C}	equal

26.4 Negative

koh^{A} koh^{A}	not have
koh^{A} kəəj^{B}	never
koh^{A}	not
maaj^{C}	no
naak^{C}	not

26.5 Prepositions and conjunctions

ʔaw^{A} con^{A}	so that
ʔiin^{A}	so
chuuj^{A}	end
cop^{A}	end
hɯɯ^{A}	or
kaaj^{C}	out

kaat^{C}	near
kandaaɪ^{A}	middle
kandap^{A}	border
kathee^{C}	low
khaaŋ^{A}	beside
khaaŋ^{A}	side
klee^{A}	reach
lawaaŋ^{A}	between
liɲ^{A}	up
nɔɔŋ^{B}	and
nɯə^{C}	north
pakaaj^{C}	outside
paliɲ^{A}	above
paliɲ^{A} sut^{A}	top
pataa^{A}	under
paɪee^{C}	inside
phɯə^{C}	so that
pɪɔʔ^{B}	because
ɪee^{C}	in
ɪuəc^{B}	finish
sadiəŋ^{C}	back
sadiəŋ^{C}	after
sanaaj^{C}	far
sanii^{C} chɯp^{A}	west
sanii^{C} tɔk^{B}	east
tɛɛ^{B}	but
taa^{A}	under
taaj^{B}	end
takaa^{C}	front
talɔɔt^{B}	throughout
tamuun^{C}	after
thaa^{B}	if
thit^{A} taaj^{B}	south

tiiw^{A}	right
tiəŋ^{A}	left
tuəj^{C}	before

26.6Pre-verbs and Post-verbs

ʔiin^{A}	can
haan^{A}	dare
kamaŋ^{A}	uncertain
kamlaŋ^{A}	progressive
khah^{A}	can
klaa^{B}	dare
kɹop^{B}	completely
kəəj^{B}	used to (customary aspect)
kɯəp^{C}	inactive aspect
mɛɛn^{B}	true
mɛɛn^{B} tɛɛn^{C}	really
naan^{A}	still
nɔɔŋ^{B}	will
phəəm^{B}	add
plaa^{B}	again
saŋəət^{B}	want
sɔɔŋ^{C}	need
thən^{C}	just

26.7 Question words

ʔaaj^{C} nii^{C}	which
campii^{C}	what
chii^{C}	how many
jaaŋ^{C} pii^{C}	how
mii^{C}	who
muuj^{C} ʔii^{C}	how many

naa^{C} kachii^{C}	when
nii^{C}	where
tɔɔ^{B} pii^{C}	why

26.8 Exclamative initial and final particles

ʔoʔ^{A}	sound of frightening
ʔoj^{C}	an exclamation when one's frightened
bɔɔ^{C}	final (yes/no) question
hɔɔ^{C}	final (yes/no) question, responding final particle occurring with negative koh^{A}
hɯɯ^{A} naan^{A}	final (yes/no) question
koo^{A}	affirmative final particle
mɯt^{A}	exclamation word
nən^{C}	affirmative final particle
thoo^{C}	an exclamation to show sympathy

26.9 Useful words and expressions

kaʔok^{A} kaʔuəɪ^{A}	feel queasy
kacuk^{B} kacuj^{A}	flitling here and there all the time
kalam^{C} kalɔɔj^{C}	nonsense and meaningless speaking
kamam^{B} kamoo^{B}	gluttonously
kampɪah^{A} kampɪɛɛŋ^{C}	agitated
kasik^{A} kasak^{A}	slipery like a toad skin
kasɔɔk^{C} kasɛɛk^{C}	narrow
kasɯm^{C} chaa^{A} kluəŋ^{B}	a woman who has husband after husband each of whom dies
kat^{B} thuu^{C} kat^{B} thaɪ^{C}	have a burning pain
khajiŋ^{B} khajɔɔŋ^{B}	walk limpingly
khajii^{A} khajaa^{A}	uneven surface
koh^{A} tuən^{B} koh^{A} tɪuu^{A}	tell a lie
laʔiət^{C} laʔɔɔŋ^{A}	careful

labu?^{B} laban^{A}	not be exaggerated
mapliik^{C} maplaak^{C}	very greedy
palɯŋ^{B} palah^{B}	the circle of whorl of hair behind the top of the head
ɹɛɛŋ^{A} chanɯn^{A} ɹɛɛŋ^{A} kluəŋ^{B}	having many deceased husband or wife
saŋaat^{B} saŋəəj^{A}	really worn out
salə?^{A} sala?^{A}	ignorantly (speaking)
sapɹap^{B} sapɹii^{C}	uncertain
taluk^{A} talaan^{C}	hasten in alarm

27. Onomatopoeia

khat^{A} khuuj^{A}	sound of gnashing one's teeth
khiət^{B} khiət^{B}	
ŋɯɯ^{C}	sound of tiger's growl
pɹook^{C}	sound that cause frightening

APPENDIX B

TEXTS OF THE SAMRE LANGUAGE

1. kasɯm^{C} booɹaan^{C} (A story of the people in the previous days)
2. caɲ^{B} ʔic^{A} chɔɔ^{C} (Stepping on the dog's excrement)
3. pluu^{B} khɔɔŋ^{A} mii^{C} (Whose leg is it?)
4. kluəŋ^{A} kanuət^{B} (A rice-bone)

1. kasɯm^{C} booɹaan^{C}

man ancient

(A story of the people in the previous days)

1) paaɹ^{C} nak^{B} chanɯn^{A} kluəŋ^{B} ʔiin^{A} khiin^{A} muuj^{C} nak^{B}
two class. wife husband have child one class.

2) ∅ ʔiin^{A} khiin^{A} kɔʔ^{B} khiin^{A} kɯɯɹ^{A} nɔɔŋ^{B} miɲ^{A} ∅ kɔʔ^{B} jaam^{B}
(they) have child then child be with mother (child) then cry
tuk^{B} ʔaaw^{A} tuk^{B} ʔaaw^{A} tuk^{B} ʔaaw^{A}
every day every day every day

3) miɲ^{A} kɔʔ^{B} lic^{A} ʔoj^{A} wan^{A} ʔiɲ^{A} ciiw^{A} tɔɔ^{B} kaaɹ^{A} naa^{A} ∅
mother then say "Oh today I go do work fp. (you)
nɛh^{A} khiin^{A} nuən^{A} thəʔ^{A}
look after child yourself fp."

4) ∅ ʔam^{C} kluəŋ^{B} nɛh^{A} khiin^{A}
(wife) have husband look after child

5) kluəŋ^{B} kɔʔ^{B} nɛh^{A} khiin^{A} ∅ nɛh^{A} ∅ kɔʔ^{B} khiin^{A}
husband then look after child (husband) look after (child) then child
jaam^{B} nah^{A} nah^{A}
cry a lot a lot

6) ∅ kɔʔ^{B} ʔuuc^{C} n̥cɯɯɹ^{B} ciiw^{A} tih^{B} phuəŋ^{C} ∅ ʔeeŋ^{C}
(husband) then take needle go lance brain (child) fp

7) ∅ tih^{B} phuəŋ^{C} khiin^{A} tih^{B} ɹuəc^{B} kɔʔ^{B} ∅ ʔuuc^{C}
(husband) lance brain child lance finish then (husband) take
khiin^{A} ciiw^{A} huum^{A} taak^{C} huum^{A} taak^{C} huum^{A} phuək^{B} ɹuəc^{B} kɔʔ^{B}
child go bath water bath water bath water finish then
∅ ʔuuc^{C} ∅ ciiw^{A} thiək^{B} ɹee^{C} n̥juuɹ^{B}
(husband) take (child) go sleep in cradle

8) ∅ ciiw^{A} thiək^{B} ɹee^{C} n̥juuɹ^{B} ∅ kɔʔ^{B} thiək^{B} ŋiəp^{B}
(child) go sleep in cradle (child) then sleep silent

9) ∅ thiək^{B} ŋiəp^{B} kɔʔ^{B} miɲ^{A} kɔʔ^{B} naan^{A} koh^{A} klap^{A} hɔɔ^{C}
(child) sleep silent then mother then still not return fp.

10) laa^{B} laa^{B} miŋ^{A} klap^{A} jip^{A} cak^{B} tɔɔ^{B} kaaɹ^{A}
evening evening mother return come from do work

11) kluəŋ^{B} kɔʔ^{B} lic^{A} campii^{C} ∅ nɛh^{A} khiin^{A} aaŋ^{C} pii^{C} ∅ jaam^{B}
husband then say "what (you) look after child how (child) cry
nah^{A} ʔiŋ^{A} nɛh^{A} ∅ koh^{A} taŋ^{A} hiin^{A} jaam^{B} hiin^{A} pii^{C}
a lot I look after (child) not see it cry it what
∅ thiək^{B} ŋiəp^{B}
(child) sleep silent

12) chanɯn^{A} kɔʔ^{B} jip^{A} klee^{A} paak^{B} tɔŋ^{A} liŋ^{A}
wife then come reach up house on

13) ∅ kɔʔ^{B} cuuɹ^{A} ciiw^{A} nɛh^{A} ɹee^{C} ɲjuuɹ^{B}
(wife) then enter go see in cradle

14) ∅ cuuɹ^{A} ciiw^{A} nɛh^{A} kɔʔ^{B} nii^{C} khiin^{A} huuc^{A} həəj^{C}
(wife) enter go see then "where child die fp."

15) tɔɔ^{B} pii^{C} khiin^{A} huuc^{A}
"why child die"

16) ʔiŋ^{A} koh^{A} ʔiin^{A} tɔɔ^{B} hɔɔ^{C} hiin^{A} huuc^{A} nuən^{A}
"I not have do fp. it die itself"

17) poo^{B} ʔuuc^{C} ∅ ciiw^{A} pat^{A} naa^{A}
"you take (child) go throw fp."

18) ∅ kɔʔ^{B} ʔuuc^{C} khiin^{A} ciiw^{A} pat^{A}
(husband) then take child go throw

19) ∅ ciiw^{A} klee^{A} sampuk^{A} khamuuc^{C} kɔʔ^{B} tɯp^{A} ∅
(husband) go reach burial ground ghost then burial (child)

20) khiin^{A} kɔʔ^{B} lut^{A} taam^{A} khɹaa^{A}
child then slip out along way

21) ∅ tɯp^{A} ∅ ɹuəc^{B} kɔʔ^{B} klap^{A} muun^{B} ∅ taŋ^{A}
(husband) burial (child) finish then return again (husband) see
sop^{A} khaniiw^{C} taam^{A} khɹaa^{A}
dead body child along way

22) ʔej^{C} koh^{A} huuc^{A} tɛɛ^{B} khiin^{A} hiəŋ^{A} hɔɔ^{C}
Hey not die only child we fp.

khiin^{A} nak^{B} kɔʔ^{B} huuc^{A}
child he then die

23) ∅ jip^{C} suəŋ^{C} chanɯn^{C} chanɯn^{A} kɔʔ^{B} pliim^{C} ∅
(husband) come tell wife wife then scold (husband)
phiim^{C} ləəj^{C}
scold fp.

24) ∅ phiim^{C} ∅ ləəj^{C} hiin^{A} kɔʔ^{B} ciiw^{A} khuuj^{C} nɛh^{A}
(wife) scold (husband) then it then go scratch see

25) ʔaaw^{C} koh^{A} koh^{A} khiin^{A} ləəj^{C} ʔiin^{A} tɛɛ^{B} kasɔɔp^{B} ʔiin^{A} tɛɛ^{B} niɪ^{A}
"Oh oh! Not have child fp." have only sack have only mat
koo^{A} koo^{A}
nothing nothing

26) ∅ ləəj^{C} kɔʔ^{B} khap^{A} ʔuuc^{C} khiin^{A} ciiw^{A} tɯp^{A} plaa^{B}
(husband) then return take child go burial again

27) ∅ ciiw^{A} tɯp^{B} ∅ plaa^{B} ɹuəc^{B} kɔʔ^{B} mat^{A} muuj^{C} kii^{C} ʔeeŋ^{C}
(husband) go burial (child) again finish then end only that fp.

Free translation

A wife and husband had a child. The child was looked after by the wife and he always cried every day. One day the mother said to her husband, " Hey, today I will go to work so you have to look after our child." The husband stayed with the child but the child cried a lot. Thus he took a needle to lance the child's brain then took the child to take a bathe and put him in the cradle. The child slept silently all the time. In the evening the wife returned home. The husband said, "How do you look after our child, why does he cry a lot? When he has stayed with me he doesn't cry at all." The wife came into the house and went to look at the child who still slept in the cradle. Then she shouted, "Oh our child is dead! Why does it die?" Her husband said, " I haven't done anything. He naturally died." So the wife said, "Go take it for to burial, please." As the husband took the child's body to the cemetery it slipped out of the mat without the man noticing. He then buried the mat. While he walked back home he saw a dead body of a child. So he came back and told his wife that not only their child died but someone else's child died too. The wife didn't believe her

husband and thought that the dead body might be her child so she scolded her husband. The husband went back to the cemetery and dug the diet out and cried, " Oh there is no child in the hole, there are only the sack and the mat that I used them to cover the child." Thus he returned to take the child to be buried again. The end.

2. caŋ^{B} ʔic^{A} chɔɔ^{C}

step excrement dog

(Stepping on the dog's excrement)

nak^{B}	lic^{A}	maaj^{C}	caŋ^{B}	kapiʔ^{A}		nak^{B}	naa^{A}	phɔɔ^{A}	jip^{A}	kɹuŋthep^{C}
he	*say*	*not*	*step*	*fermented-shrimp*		*he*	*fp.*	*when*	*come*	*Bangkok*
ləəj^{C}	caŋ^{B}	ʔic^{A}	chɔɔ^{C}	ʔiŋ^{A}	caŋ^{B}	ʔic^{A}	chɔɔ^{C}	puəŋ^{C}	siŋ^{B}	
then	*step*	*excrement*	*dog*	*I*	*step*	*excrement*	*dog*	*full*	*foot*	
sɔŋ^{C}	puuc^{C}	siŋ^{B}	pat^{A}	hiin^{A}	siət^{C}					
want	*cut*	*foot*	*throw away*	*it*	*dirty*					

Free translation

Someone says to country people that if one goes to Bangkok he must be careful even though he might step on a fermented-shrimp bowl (because of his excitement). But when I came to Bangkok, I really stepped on excrement of a dog! It was all over my foot and I would have liked to cut the foot off. It's so dirty.

3. pluu^{B} khɔɔŋ^{A} mii^{C}

leg of who

(Whose leg is it?)

1) kasɯm^{C} taaɪ^{C} khɪaaŋ^{B} puuɪ^{B} ø ciiw^{A} thiək^{B} liət^{C} thanon^{A}
human drink alcohol drunk (he) go sleep beside road

2) ø liət^{C} thanon^{A} ø tuən^{B} ɹot caŋ^{B}
(he sleep) beside road (he) pass.Mk. car ran over

caŋ^{B} pluu^{B} thak^{A} muuj^{C} nuut^{B}
ran over leg torn off one side

3) ∅ thak^{A} ciiw^{A} muuj^{C} khaaŋ^{A}
(his leg) torn off go one side

4) ∅ thak^{A} ciiw^{A} muuj^{C} khaaŋ^{A} ∅ ciiw^{A} cap^{B} nɔɔŋ^{B} thɹaŋ^{B}
(his leg) torn-off go one side (it) go catch with pole
kaloo^{C} naʔ^{B}
kilo emp.

5) lɛɛw^{C} kasɯm^{C} ciiw^{A} kep^{A} ʔuuc^{C} ciiw^{A} tih^{B} tamɹuət^{C}
then human go hold take go at police

6) ciiw^{A} kɹee^{A} tih^{B} ..... siŋ^{B} khɔɔŋ^{A} jaaj^{B} baj^{A}
go reach at ..... Foot poss. address Bai

7) tokloŋ^{A} naak^{C} khɔɔŋ^{A} jaaj^{B} baj^{A} kɔʔ^{B} ləəj^{C} tuəŋ^{C}
agree not poss.Mk. address Bai then fear

8) kasɯm^{C} kep^{A} kɔʔ^{B} ləəj^{C} pat^{A} .... tih^{B} ʔeeŋ^{C}
human hold then throw there fp

9) pat^{A} tii^{C} ɹooŋphak^{A} tuə^{A} ʔeeŋ^{C}
throw at police station that fp.

10) thawnan^{C} ʔeeŋ^{C}
only that fp.

Free translation

A man drank alcohol until he was drunk. He went to sleep beside the road. His leg was run over by a car. It tore off and smashed against a kilometer pole by the roadside. Then a man took the leg to the police station thinking that it's Mrs.'s Bai's leg (Mrs.Bai always drank alcohol and went everywhere around there so that man thought that it might be her leg). But it was not Mrs.'s Bai's leg. Thus the man was afraid and left the leg at the police station. That's all.

4. kluəŋ^{A} kanuət^{B}

bone rice

(A rice-bone)

1) ɹuəŋ^{C} ʔɔk^{A} taa^{A} paaɹ^{C} nak^{B}
story grandmother grandfather two class.
chanɯn^{A} kluəŋ^{B} ʔaʔ^{B} naa^{A} tɔŋ^{A} nak^{B} ɹuəj^{C}
wife husband emp. house his rich

2) ∅ tɔɔ^{B} maaɹ^{A} tɔɔ^{B} sɹɛɛ^{A}
(they) do field do paddy-field

3) ∅ chuək^{A} kanuət^{B} naʔ^{B} kuum^{A} kuum^{A} kakhoo^{A} pat^{A}
(they) pound rice emp. winnow winnow rice throw
kuum^{A} pa t^{A} kuum^{A} pat^{A}
winnow throw winnow throw

4) ∅ ʔuuc^{C} lɯk^{A} ʔuuc^{C} khajaam^{C} jip^{A} thɯm^{A} jip^{A} chaa^{A} saa^{A}
(they) take rice bran take chaff come cook come eat together

5) ∅ tiək^{B} khiin^{A} chaa^{A} lɯk^{A} chaa^{A} khajaam^{C} .....
(they) persuade children eat rice bran eat chaff

6) ∅ chaa^{A} lɯk^{A} chaa^{A} khajaam^{C} ɹuəc^{B} kɔʔ^{B} ciiw^{A} tɔɔ^{B} kaaɹ^{A}
(they) eat rice bran eat chaff finish then go do work

7) khiin^{A} kɯɯɹ^{A} tɔŋ^{A} paaɹ^{C} nak^{B} kɯɯɹ^{A} tɔŋ^{A} paaɹ^{C} nak^{B}
children be home two class. be home two class.
muut^{A} khlɨŋ^{A}
younger-sibling older-sibling

8) ∅ ciiw^{A} khuuj^{C} kakhoo^{A} jip^{A} thɯm^{A}
(they) go scratch rice come cook

9) ∅ lic^{A} ∅ kluəŋ^{A} lic^{A} ∅ kluəŋ^{A}
(they) call (it) bone call (it) bone

10) ∅ jip^{A} ∅ suuɹ^{C} chaa^{A} thəʔ^{A} ...
(we) come (it) boil eat fp.

11) muut^{B} ʔəəj^{A} .... lɔɔŋ^{B} suuɹ^{C} ∅ chaa^{A} saa^{A}
younger-sibling .... try boil (it) eat together

12) ∅ ʔuuc^{C} jip^{A} klee^{A} ruəc^{B} kɔʔ^{B} thɯm^{A} suuɹ^{C} ∅
(they) take come reach finish then cook boil (it)

13) ruəc^{B} ∅ tiək^{B} saa^{A} huəp^{A} saa^{A} chaa^{A} ∅
finish (they) persuade together eat together eat (it)

14) ruəc^{B} ∅ kɔʔ^{B} pee^{C}
finish (they) then delicious

15) ʔee^{A} nɔɔ^{A} pee^{C} nah^{A} kluəŋ^{A} ʔan^{A} pee^{C} nah^{A}
..Em.. delicious adv bone this delicious adv

16) ∅ kɔʔ^{B} tiək^{A} saa^{A} huəp^{A} ∅
(they) then persuade together eat (it)

17) ∅ phaa^{C} saa^{A} puəŋ^{B}
(they) enough together full

18) kɔʔ^{B} miɲ^{A} jip^{A} klee^{A}
then mother come reach

19) ∅ kɔʔ^{B} suəŋ^{C} mɛʔ^{A} ʔeej^{A} pɔh^{A} ʔeej^{A} ʔiɲ^{A} suuɹ^{C} kluəŋ^{A}
(they) then tell mother.... father... I boil bone
chaa^{A} naʔ^{B} pee^{A} nah^{A}
eat emp dilicious adv

20) miɲ^{A} khuuɲ^{A} sanam^{A} khiin^{A} lic^{A} jaaŋ^{C} kii^{C} kɔʔ^{B} tɔɔ^{B} jaaŋ^{C} khiin^{A}
mother father hear children say like that then do like children

21) tɔɔ^{B} jaaŋ^{C} khiin^{A} kɔʔ^{B} ʔuuc^{C} kakhoo^{A} naʔ^{B} jip^{A} thɯm^{A}
do like children then take rice emp come cook

22) ∅ jip^{A} thɯm^{A} ∅ ɹuəc^{B} kɔʔ^{B} ∅ tiək^{B} saa^{A} huəp^{A}
(they) come cook (it) finish then (they) persuade together eat
tiək^{B} saa^{A} chaa^{A} ∅
persuade together eat (it)

23) thaŋ^{C} chanɯn^{A} thaŋ^{C} kluəŋ^{B} thaŋ^{C} khiin^{A} saa^{A} chaa^{A} ∅
all wife all husband all children together eat (it)
ɹuəc^{B} ∅ kɔʔ^{B} tit^{A} caj^{A} cap^{B} kataŋ^{B} ɹəəm^{B} ʔan^{A} ∅
finish (they) then impress on mind till nowadays (they)
ʔiin^{A} chaa^{A} tɛɛ^{B} khoo^{A}
have eat only rice

24 tuəj^{C} ∅ chaa^{A} luɯk^{A} chaa^{A} khajaam^{C}
former time (they) eat bran rice eat chaff

25) jaaŋ^{C} ŋan^{C} ʔeeŋ^{C} pɔɔ^{A}
like that fp. finish

Free translation

Actually, the main characteristic of the new generation is cleverness. According to the story, in those previous days, the Samre people did not know how to eat rice properly that they ate rice bran and chaff and threw away something inside which they considered to be uneatable and called it "bone". One day the children felt hungry, while staying home alone, they kept the part of rice that their parents had thrown away and cooked it. They tried to eat "bone of rice" and founded that it tasted good. When their parents came back home the children told them that the bone of rice was very delicious and persuaded them to eat it. Since that day, the Samre people have eaten rice.

BIOGRAPHY

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