PLANG GRAMMAR AS SPOKEN IN
HUAY NAMKHUN VILLAGE, CHIANG RAI PROVINCE

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Thesis entitled

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this thesis is to present a Grammar study of the Kontoj dialect of Plang, an Austroasiatic language spoken in Thailand, at Huay Namkhun village, Mae Fa Luang District, Chiang Rai Province. The study describes the phonological and syntactical characteristics of morphology, word, phrase, clause and sentence following the grammatical hierarchy of the Tagmematics model.

The results show that in Plang phonology, there are 9 main vowel phonemes and 25 consonant phonemes and there are two registers, clear voice quality (R1) and breathy voice quality (R2). Syntax is described in terms of morphology, word, phrase, clause and sentence. The normal order of the elements is S-P-O consisting of an obligatory nucleus and optional periphery. There are some special syntactic structures found in this study. In the morphology of the Kontoj dialect, there is the prefixation /ni- / used with verbs to produce negation and / 1e- / used with pronouns to make singular pronouns plural. The suffix / -riʔ / is used with one syllable nouns and / ni- / is used with compound nouns to make the noun possessive. Additionally, the suffix / -riʔ / is used with verbs to make the verb reflexive. Certain clauses in Plang are items of great interest such as possessive clauses which can be divided into two types, one by use of the possessive verb / kʰ oʔ R1 / 'of', plus possessive marker / -riʔ / or / -niʔ / after a nominal phrase. Moreover, / -riʔ / can be the reflexive marker, after a verb to produce a reflexive phrase.

The study also indicates that the Plang language is now in a process of developing into a tone language, since breathy voice register is now dying in the new Plang generation.

KEY WORDS: AUSTROASIATIC / GRAMMAR / PLANG / CHIANG RAI

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บทคัดย่อ

วิทยานิพนธ์เรื่อง "ไวาะกรณีภาษาเปลิง บ้านหัวน้ำชุ่ ม จังหวัดเชียงราย" มีจุดประสงค์เพื่อศึกษา
ระบบไวาะกรณ์ของภาษาเปลิงบ้านหัวน้ำชุ่ มจังหวัดเชียงราย ซึ่งเป็นภาษาในระดับ
ยอดโด่งเด่นกิตติ์ ได้ศึกษาระบบเสียง และหน่วยเสียงที่ 2 และตระดับหน่วยคำ คำ วิธี อนุทกนัยและ
ประโยคตามลำดับชั้นทางไวาะกรณ์ ซึ่งใช้ทฤษฎีไวาะกรณ์เทนนิสมิทในการวิเคราะห์

จากการศึกษาครั้งนี้สรุปว่าระบบเสียงภายในภาษาเปลิงมีหน่วยเสียงรวม 9 หน่วยเสียง และหน่วยเสียง
พยัญชนะมี 25 หน่วยเสียง และมีลักษณะนั้นเสียง 2 ลักษณะ คือ R1 นั้นเสียงปกติ (High clear) และ R2
ลักษณะนั้นเสียงก้องมีเสียง (Low breathy) ในส่วนของลักษณะโครงสร้างไวาะกรณ์ของภาษาเปลิงโครง
สร้างจะประกอบด้วย ภาษาประธาน – ภาษาแสดง – ภาษากรรม แบ่งเป็นระบุและไม่ได้ระบุ ใบสื่อ
ของหน่วยคำมีคำวิจััดกิตติ์จัดเข้าด้วยปูปสระ / nd / ใช้ด้วยหน้าคำรจำแสดงการปฏิเสธ, คำปูสระ
/11/ ใช้ด้วยหน้าคำรจำแสดงเหตุที่เป็นคำรจำพนมทุ่งขณะคำปูจัดตัวหลักคำรจำแสดง
ความเป็นเจ้าของ / -ria / ใช้กับคำนามพนมทุ่งโดย / -ri2 / ใช้กับคำนามของพ JVM ไปนอกกันนี้
/-ri2 / ดังเป็นหน่วยคำปูจัดตัวหลักคำรจำพนมให้เป็นคำอั้ดคำรจำพนม ในส่วนของอนุทกนัยที่ก่อน
ส่วนหนึ่งอนุทกนัยแสดงความเป็นเจ้าของงดการแสดงความเป็นเจ้าของได้ 2 ประเภท โดยใช้คำรจำใ
แสดงความเป็นเจ้าของ / kh°2/ จาก และใช้ปูจัด / -ria / และ / -ri2 / ด้วยหลักคำรจำแสดงความ
เป็นเจ้าของได้ และใช้ปูจัด / -ri2 / หลังคำรจำแสดงการกระทบที่เป็น 'self' ที่กระทำกับตนเอง
เอง เป็นต้น

ผลการศึกษาชี้ให้เห็นว่าภาษ 실제อยู่ในกระบวนการเปลี่ยนแปลงไปสู่ภาษาที่มีการสูญด้วยเนื่องจาก
ขณะนี้ไปพุ่มและนั้นเสียงก้องมีเสียงในจะเปลี่ยนใหม่ได้

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<td>question</td>
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<td>adjectival verb phrase</td>
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<tr>
<td>VP cop</td>
<td>copula verb phrase</td>
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<tr>
<td>^</td>
<td>extra short vowel (shorter than other syllable)</td>
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<tr>
<td>- :</td>
<td>length</td>
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<tr>
<td>- .</td>
<td>breathy voiced</td>
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<td>,</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ /</td>
<td>use for phonemic transcription</td>
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<td>[ ]</td>
<td>use for phonetic transcription</td>
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Plang is an Austroasiatic language in the Northern Mon-Khmer family. It belongs to the East-Palaungic of the Waic group. (see figure 1.) Plang people live in Sipsongpanna area, Southwest part of Yunnan province China; Shan state at Kengtung and Yong in the Eastern of Myanmar; and in the North of Thailand at Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province. Diffloth reported that Jimmy Harris and Jerry Gainey discovered Plang language in 1976. They recorded approximately 1,000 word list from a women in Huay Namkhun village in the North of Thailand. (Diffloth, 1982)

In Thailand there are Plang people in Huay Namkhun village, Tambon Mae Fa Luang Amphoe Mae Fa Luang, Chiang Rai Province. (see figure 2.) The preliminary survey by using a questionnaire adapted from the Plang – lexicon (Debbie, 1990). Mrs. Miej Sawla and Mr. Sam Khot Taphatsin who live in Huay Namkhun village said that they immigrated from Kontoj village in Yunnan, China to Kengtung at Samtao Mountains, Myanmar. After that, they immigrated to Mae Sai District and then to Huay Namkhun village which is about 20 kilometers from Mae Sai. (see figure 3.)

The Plang language has been studied by some linguists, Pijitra Dissawaroatham authored “The Phonology of Plang as spoken in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province” for the requirements of the master degree of arts at Mahidol University (Dissawaroatham, 1986). Debbie Paulsen authored “A Phonology Reconstruct Proto-Plang” from three dialects: Kontoj dialect, Shinman dialect and Samtao dialects for the requirements the Master of Arts degree at The University of Texas at Arlington, (Paulsen, 1989). Paulsen presented the article “Tone and intonation in Plang” at the 24th international conference on Sino-Tibetan languages (Paulsen, 1991). Debbie Paulsen and Palette Hopple authored “Phonology of Plang” (Paulsen and Hopple, 1993) by using the informants speaking the Kontoj dialect at Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province. Karen Louise Block authored “Discourse Grammar of first person narrative in Plang” for the requirements of the Master of Arts degree at the University of Texas at Arlington. This work is a discourse analysis which describes some points of grammar (Louise Block, 1994). In grammatical details of Plang are incomplete. To preserve the language, study of the language must continue. The researcher found that most of the younger Plang speak Thai in daily life and they speak Plang only with their family and the older generation of Plang people. Since Plang has no written rendition, it is passed orally only, there is the possibility that Plang may be lost in Thailand. Additionally, the people are reluctant to show themselves as Plang. They say that they aren’t Plang but Lua and dress like the Tai-Yai people (a simple white skirt, white blouse and use a long white turban). Sadly, they will represent themselves as any nationality in order to live and work in Thailand.
From the reasons, the researcher is interested in studying "Plang Grammar as spoken in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province" to describes the phonological system and syntactical structure of Plang language.

1.2 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is to describe the grammar of the Kontoj dialect of the Plang language as spoken in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province.

1.2.1 To study the phonological system of Plang, Kontoj dialect.

1.2.2 To study the syntactical characteristics: morphology, words, phrases, clauses, and sentence of the Plang language.

1.3 Benefit of the study

1.3.1 To know the Plang Phonology as spoken in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province.

1.3.2 To know the Plang syntax as spoken in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province.

1.3.3 To provide information for further study in the Plang language or Palaungic branch.

1.3.4 To be preserve the language of minority people.

1.4 Scope of the study

The scope of this study is to describe the grammar of Plang that includes phonological and syntactical characteristics of the Kontoj dialect of Plang as spoken in Huay Namkhun village, Mae Fa Luang District, Chiangrai Province.

1.5 Definition of term

The term "Plang" in this thesis refers to the Kontoj dialect in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai province. Kontoj is the name of a village in Sipsongpanna. My informant told me that there are many dialects of Plang which are slightly different from each other such Konkang, Konmak, Jongmoj and Phemjong.
Figure 1: The position of Plang in the Palaungic branch from Diffloth, 1982.
Figure 2: Map of Chiang Rai and Mae Fa Luang District, Huay Namkhun village
(Adapted from Amphoe Mae Fa Luang office)
Figure 3: Plang immigration rout
(Adapted from Amphoe Mae Fa Luang)
1.6 Theoretical Approach

The theoretical approach adapted in this study is tagmemic, using the two cell tagmèmes. The researcher got idea from Kenneth Pike in "Grammatical Analysis" (1977) and from Dr. David D. Thomas in "Invitation to Grammar" (1993).

In the two cell tagmème, the first cell represents slot or function and the second cell represents the filler or class. For pedagogical ease the researcher starts with morphology, word, phrase, clause, and sentence following the grammatical hierarchy. (see figure 4)

![Grammatical Hierarchy From Thomas, 1993](image)

1.7 Researches on the Plang language in Thailand

1. Diffloth Gerard, 1982. 'Subclassification of Palaungic'.
   This paper described the subclassification of Palaungic. He classified Plang in an Austroasiatic language in the Northern Mon – Khmer family. It belongs to the East – Palaungic of the Waic group. The figure below are show the languages in the Waic group. (see figure 5.)

![The Waic language group](image)
In addition, he reported that in 1976 Mr. Jimmy Harris and Jerry Gainey discovered the Samtao language in the Huay Namkhun village in the north of Thailand and recorded about 1,000 words in careful pronunciation. Continuing, in 1977 Jerry Gainey and Theraphan L. Thongkham made a language map of Thailand. Samtao was plotted on the map. Plang language has been called Samtao by Harris, Gainey and Theraphan because it is spoken at the Samtao mountain area.

2. Pijitra Dissawaroatham, 1986. ‘The phonology of Plang as spoken in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province’

This thesis described the phonological system and phonetic characteristics of the Kontoj dialect of the Plang language as spoken in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai province. She concluded that there are 25 consonant phonemes in Plang: /p, pʰ, t, tʰ, c, cʰ, k, kʰ, ʔ, m, n, n̄, n̄̄, s, h, r, l, ɬ, w, ɭ, j, j̄/. Every pheme can be initial consonant. There are 13 final consonants: /-p, -t, -c, -k, -ʔ, -m, -n, -n̄, -n̄̄, -h, -l, -w, -j/. And there are 9 two - consonant clusters: /pr, pl, kr, kl, kw, pʰr, pʰl, kʰr, kʰl/. There are 9 main vowels with three registers: /i, e, ɛ, w, ø, a, u, o, ɔ, u/ and there are no diphthongs in Plang. The three registers are High Clear, Mid Level and Low Breathy register as shown in the table 1 and 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of articulation</th>
<th>Point of articulation</th>
<th>Labial</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stop</td>
<td>unaspirated</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>ʔ</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>aspirated</td>
<td>pʰ</td>
<td>tʰ</td>
<td>cʰ</td>
<td>kʰ</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>voided</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n̄</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>m̄</td>
<td>n̄̄</td>
<td>n̄̄̄</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
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<td>s</td>
<td></td>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Flap</td>
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<td>l</td>
<td>ɬ</td>
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<td></td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>l̄</td>
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<tr>
<td>Semi – Vowel</td>
<td>voided</td>
<td>w</td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>w̄</td>
<td>j̄</td>
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</table>

Table 1: The Plang consonant phonemes
Table 2: The Plang vowel phonemes

3. Debbie Paulsen, 1989. 'A Phonological reconstruction of Proto-Plang'.
This thesis reconstructs the phonemic system of Proto—Plang using a comparative method to examine three related languages. The languages used in this are study Kontoj and Shinman dialects of Plang, both from Yunnan province in southwestern China, and Samtao from the neighboring border area of Myanmar. She concluded that there are 26 consonant phonemes in Proto-Plang: /p, ph, t, th, c, ch, k, kh, ?, f, v, s, sh, h, m, mh, n, nh, n, ng, nh, l, lh, r, y, yh/. And there are 7 main vowels with two registers: /i, e, a, o, o, u, y/. There are two registers: High Clear and Low Breathy registers as in the table 3 and 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of articulation</th>
<th>Point of articulation</th>
<th>Labial</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stop</td>
<td>voiceless unaspirated</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>aspirated</td>
<td>ph</td>
<td>th</td>
<td>ch</td>
<td>kh</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>(f)</td>
<td>s</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>h</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>nh</td>
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<td>voiced</td>
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<td>Semi-Vowel</td>
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<td></td>
<td>voiceless</td>
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<td>(yh)</td>
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Table 3: The Proto—Plang consonant phonemes
Table 4: The Proto – Plang Vowel Phonemes.

Based on this reconstruction it is apparent that Kontoj Plang is the close to the proto language. The reason for this claim is the number of innovations in Kontoj. Only 5 of the 17 consonant change rules are used to derive Kontoj from Proto – Plang. The more rules necessary to derive a present language from the parent language, the more innovative the present language is and the more distant phonologically it is from the parent. Conversely, the fewer rules applied, the closer the daughter language is to the parent language. The most innovative of the tree languages is Samtao, with 10 of 17 consonant change rules necessary to derive it from Proto – Plang. Shinman is almost as innovative as Samtao in having 9 rules necessary. It might appear that Samtao and Shinman are closely related to each other by the number of innovations each has, but only four of these are shared innovations.

Cognate counts add supporting evidence that Samtao and Shinman are not most closely related. The following cognate percentages were found: Kontoj and Shinman 68% cognate, Kontoj and Samtao 68% cognate, and Shinman and Samtao 63% cognate. These percentages would indicate that Shinman and Samtao are least closely related. Thus, according to the reconstruction and the cognate counts, there are no two language which are strikingly more closely related to each other than to the third. Figure below illustrates the genetic relationship between the daughter languages.


The purpose of this paper is to look at the characteristics of both tone and intonation in Plang, and to analyze the effect these two have on each other. At this point register will not be included in the discussion as there appears to be no correlation between pitch and the phonation types exhibited. A study of register in
Plang is currently in progress though. The dialect in focus in this paper is the Kontoj dialect of Plang as found in the village of Huay Namkhun village in Chiang Rai province, Thailand. Several different dialects of Plang are represented in this village but Kontoj is the dialect of the majority. In conclusion, it appears that innovation patterns in Plang have a high enough functional load that the tone contrasts in connected speech are overtly neutralized except in the final syllable of a pause group. In final syllables, high and low lexical tones are manifest in statement and the lexical tones of the penultimate syllable manifest on final question and negative particles.


This work describes the information about the Austroasiatic people, the establishment of Austroasiatic, Austroasiatic and other language families. Including the sub – families and branches of Austroasiatic that set out in table as follow

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Sub – Family</th>
<th>Branches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| I : MUNDA    | A. North Munda  
|              | B. South Munda  
|              | C. Nihal       |
| II : NICOBARESE | Not yet established |
| III : ASLIAN | D. Jahaic      
|              | E. Senoic      
|              | F. Šemelaic    |
| IV : MON – KHMERN | G. Khasi     
|              | H. Monic       
|              | J. Khmeric     
|              | K. Pearic      
|              | L. Bahnaric    
|              | M. Katuic      
|              | N. Viet – Muong|
|              | P. Khmuic      
|              | Q. Palaungic   |

Table 5 : The Austroasiatic language Family : Main Divisions.

Palaungic branches, Diffoth, 1982 estimates that there over a million speakers of Palaungic languages in Myanmar, Thailand and Yunnan. His tentative diagram of Palaungic is based on phonology rather than lexicon, the figure below show the Palaungic branches.

This work described the phonology system of Plang Kontoj dialect in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province. They concluded that there are 24 consonant phonemes: /p, pʰ, t, tʰ, c, cʰ, k, kʰ, ʔ, f, s, h, m, ɳ, n, ɲ, ɲ̊, r, l, l̊, w, j, j/ and 7 main vowels: /i, e, a, o, ɔ, u, u/ as shown in table 5 and 6. There are two tones: High and Low each having two allophones. The high has high short rise and high long rise, Low tone has low short rise and low long rise.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of articulation</th>
<th>Point of articulation</th>
<th>Labial</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stop</td>
<td>unaspirated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>aspirated</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>ʔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>pʰ</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>cʰ</td>
<td>kʰ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>s</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>voiced</td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>ɳ</td>
<td>ɲ̊</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquids</td>
<td>voiced</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>ɭ</td>
<td>ɭ̊</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi – Vowel</td>
<td>voiced</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: The consonant phonemes
Table 7: The vowel phonemes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tongue position</th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tongue height</td>
<td>-round</td>
<td>+round</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>u</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mid</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>o</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>o</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


This thesis described the Plang discourse. Louise Block focus on several aspects of Robert E. Longacre’s approach to discourse analysis as it applies to the Plang language. The corpus of data for this research consists primarily of three first person narrative texts. Each text is discussed with a summary of the major episodes and proposed macrostructures. There aspects of discourse analysis are examined: macrosegmentation (the chunking of a discourse into episodes); plot structure and profile (surface structure features used to mark the peak that reflects the tension in the national structure); and a tentative salience scheme (the ranking of verb phrases and clause).

1.8 The preliminary information concerning Plang people living at Huay Namkhun Village, Chiang Rai Province.

1.8.1 The condition of living of Plang people at Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province.

Plang, who are now living at Huay Namkhun village, Tambon Mae Fa Luang district, Chiang Rai province, had their original place of residence in Sipsongpanna territory situated in the South – west of the Yunnan province in China. Some Plang emigrated from Keng Tung in Shan state which is located in the east of Myanmar, and some of them emigrated from the north of Thailand. They have since been living at Huay Namkhun village, tambon Mae Fa Luang, Mae Fah Luang district, Chiang Rai province.

Chiang Rai province occupies an overall area of 11,678 square kilometers, is situated in the northern most of Thailand. It is about 785 kilometers from Bangkok. It extends to the north and borders Myanmar and Laos. It extends to the south and borders on Lam Pang province and Pha Yao. It also extends to the east and borders on Laos. To the west, it borders on Chiang Mai province and Myanmar.

Huay Namkhun village is situated in tambon Mae Fa Luang, Mae Fa Luang district, Chiang Rai province. It is about 45 kilometers from Muang Chiang Rai district along the Asia Highway 1 (Phaholyothin road) and is about
5 kilometers off Highway 1 near Phrathat Doi Tung. There are many ethnic groups living at Huay Namkhun, according to the village chiet and the district officer. The majority of them are Shan people or Tai Yai. Next are the Lawa or Lua and the third are Plang people. additionally, there are some Paluang, Akha and Lahu who emigrated to live at Huay Namkhun village. The characteristic ways of life of Plang at Huay Namkhun village are simple and peace. They are cohesive and love one another. This can be seen when an important event has been held in any family, such as a wedding or ordaining and making merit ceremonies. Most Plang people show their help with work. The women help in the kitchen, and the men help with installing the amplifiers, carrying necessary things to use in the ceremony. Any family planting vegetables, fruits or raising pigs, ducks and chicken, will take them or even give money to help make merit. The way of life of all Plang how old they are if they can work they have to help with the work. This can be observed from every morning. Plang are seen walking and carrying their hoes and spades with a basket called ‘Akhrep’ on their backs to the fields. They take care of their fields by watering and loosening the soil, picking the product they have planted, digging bamboo shoots for their meals or sometimes selling them at the market or sending them to the vendors. Some families plant tea. They have to dry the tea leaves in the open space in front of their houses before taking them to sell. In the afternoon they separate to do their tasks, but the aged persons do some chores and look after their grand children. For the youth who do not attend school, they must take care of their paddy field or be hired by Thai. It is found that if one wants to see the Plang one must go in the evening after they return from the field. If one goes during the day one only finds the aged who watch the houses. When a visitor comes to their house, Plang will bring betel and areca, tea or plain water to welcome their guests. The visitors are always persuaded to have meal of which the visitor at least must drink tea or water prepared by Plang or else the Plang regard the guests having an aversion to them.

1.8.2 Housing

A group of the Plang told the researcher that formerly they were called ‘the Loy group’. The word ‘Loy’ means mountain, and while living in China, their ancestors erected huts in high mountains. The huts were built with bamboo and roofs were made of hay and grass. But nowadays, in China, the Plang do not live in the mountains because of difficult travelling. At present, the Plang live on the plains and they plant rice and do not have to pick things from the forest for food. When emigrating into Huay Namkhun village, Plang people built their house in the plains near the foot of mountains, or in the plains. Some rich families bought land from Thai to build houses for their grand children. The walls of the house of Plang were made of bricks with cement floors and roofed with tin – roofs. They have space in front of their house so that they can raise ducks and chicken or dry their products from their crop- farming, such as tea leaves, maize, etc. The compounds around their house, there will be a planting of crops – vegetables to eat or to sell (see picture 8). Inside the house there is a bedroom and a hall in the middle of the house. The kitchen is behind the house. The Plang who are better – off will build a two- storey house with many
bedrooms. The structure of their house is cement with steel roof structure and roofing with ceramic tiles. They also have a space in front of their house multipurpose.

Figure 8: The Plang’s house.

1.8.3 Occupations

Most Plang people who reside at Huay Namkhun village earn their living by doing crop-farming and gardening. In the past, they used area on the hill to plant crops. When finished harvesting they moved. At present, there is a project named ‘Mae Fa Luang’. The Plang have been provided with some land planting. Plang people principally grow maize and plant ginger, tea, lychee, pineapple, banana and papaya in season. The products they have raised will be taken to sell at the market in the morning and evening for supporting the family. But the aged, who can no longer work, watch the house and look after their grand children. The teenagers, of some families, will be encouraged to attend school, but some other families want their children to be work in the town centre of Chiang Rai or in Bangkok. In addition, some families want daughters to get married with foreigners so they will get richer and do not have to attend school and work hard.

1.8.4 Education

In the past, when Plang people lived in Sipsongpanna, men had a chance to get an education by studying at a Buddhist temple school taught by Buddhist monks. Of the Plang who emigrated to Huay Namkhun village, most can use Thai to communicate but are unable to read. When they have children, they encourage them to learn Thai and they send the children to Wat Huay Krait school which is the closest to their homes. Plang children there have the opportunity to learn to read, write and speak Thai. Parents want their children to
learn the Thai language so they can understand the society and can work in Thailand. They want their children to avoid the difficulties the older generation has faced. The researcher has had a chance to live in the community of Huay Namkhun village. Interviews with the village headman, a Plang, and the district officer reveal that Plang are now aware of the value of education. There have been two Plang people graduated at the bachelors level. One from Rajabhat Institute Chiang Rai and another from Ramkhamheang University. One is a teacher of English and the other is an official working for community development. They are both well-off and earn salaries and occupy important roles in the Plang community. They assist their fellow Plang in agricultural practices and in encouraging parents to obtain education for their children. By their assistance they have helped the younger Plang get on in the world avoiding being cheated and avoiding being drawn into prostitution. At present, because of a lack of funding, there is only primary education available in Huay Namkhun village.

1.8.5 Food

In former times, Plang men went to the forest to hunt, and to pick vegetable and fruit for food. Women would pick up wild fruits and bamboo shoots, and dig wild taro and yam. The hunting was performed by men. At present, the Plang at Huay Namkhun village will eat sticky rice dipped in Nam-prik or pepper sauce, roast fish, vegetables they grow in the compound of the house or which they could pick. Vegetables will be grown in the compound around their house by most Plang families; the vegetables grown are holy basil, lime, lemon grass, chilli and coriander. They also grow fruit trees such as guava, roseapple and jujubee etc. Generally, Plang people do not like to buy ready-cooked food from the market. They prefer to buy meat and vegetables for cooking by themselves, because they think that cooking by themselves is cleaner and provides more quantity, is more delicious and is also more economical. Therefore, in the market at Huay Namkhun village there is no ready-cooked food sold. Those who are better – off, will have a dining – table. They will put the plates on the table and sit on a chair to have meals. Some families have Tok or a flat basket for putting food like that of northern Thai, they have done this by spreading the mat on the floor and sit around to eat. Those who are not rich enough put food on the floor of the house and sit around to have meals. Most Plang use their hands to serve food, but some families use a spoon and fork for serving food. In addition, good manners require that there is an acquaintance person going past while they are having a meal they have to call that person to join them or else it is felt only for that they care eating and do not know how to share things among friends or they are criticized for not having good manners. Unless that person is busy and cannot have a meal one must give one’s reason for not accepting.
1.8.6 Religion and Beliefs

Plang, in the past, believed in spirits such as the ancestral spirits, forest spirits and village and house spirits. Now they practice Buddhism. From interviews with the senior Plang who emigrated from Sipsongpanna, the researcher learned that while residing in China they believed in spirits only of their grand parents. This can be observed at Buddhist religious ceremonies; for example, Buddhist Lent which comes on the fifteenth of the eighth lunar month of each year. Plang persuade their relatives to make Khaw tom mat or steamed sticky rice mixed with coconut milk, sugar and ripe banana wrapped with banana leaves to offer to the Buddhist monks and listen to sermons and Dhamma at the temple, and bring the leftover to give away to their neighbors. Those who are rich have to give much, and moderate families do as little as they can. In the evening, they have dinner together. Buddhist Lent is on the fifteenth day of eleventh lunar month. On this day Plang make merit to deliver result of good the virtue to their parents who passed away. Food and sweets are put in a basket and tied to the Bhodi tree to offer to the Buddhist monks. This includes melon, pumpkin, bamboo shoot, taro, yam, wrapped – up chilli, salt and rice or anything else that can sent to their beloved ancestors. The water-pouring ceremony for the monks is held. The water used to pour is called ‘Nam Prata’ or the water from seven – rivers (seven – river water). This water will be mixed with turmeric that gives it a sweet scent. The scened water left over from pouring to the monks will be brought home to bathe themselves and their grand children. This makes them have clean and pure minds.

1.8.7 Dressing

In the past, Plang men who lived in China wore long pants tied by a rope around their waists, a rounded – collar black short – sleeve shirt with buttons in the front and a black turban. Women wore a rounded – collar black blouse with long sleeves, a black sarong and a black turban too. A woman who had had a fiancé would wear a flower on her head, and it must be a flower which her future husband brought her. A single girl, she will wear a lot of flowers on her heads, silver necklace, belt, lace and earrings. When a Plang girl reaches 12 years of age, she is regarded as a young woman and her ears must be pierced using a very hot pointed silver or steel wire. Then a piece of wood is inserted in the hole in her earlobe. Later, the wood is replaced by silver earrings. Gradually, larger and larger earrings are used. The larger the earrings, the more beautiful they are. The hole in the earlobe ultimately becomes quite large as can be seen in some of the elderly women in the village.

Nowadays, living in Thailand, Plang women do not wear the large earrings partly because many have been sold, but mainly to blend in with Thai people. They also now wear simple cotton blouses with buttons on the front, some with long sleeves and some with short sleeves. They also wear colorful sarongs and sometimes wear small, thin black or white towels on their heads. Some Plang women dress like Shan (Tai Yai) women wearing a white sarong,
a white long-sleeved blouse and a white turban in order to harmoniously blend in with their most numerous neighbors.

Figure 9: The Plang people and researcher in Plang traditional dress
CHAPTER II
METHODOLOGY

This study has been designed as a grammatical study of Plang by using the Tagmematics model which utilized the concepts of slot and filler and of grammatical rank. The researcher collected the data by using texts: Narrative, Procedural, Hortatory, Fable and Dialogue. The methodology of this study may be divided into steps as follows:

2.1 Preparation

2.1.1 Surveying the published and unpublished documents on the Palaungic branch of Waic and of Plang to get some general ideas about the Plang language.

2.1.2 Reread the theoretical frame work in Phonology and Syntax relevant to this study.

2.1.3 Making a preliminary survey of Plang people at Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province. The researcher made the preliminary collection of data by using the Southeast Asia word list (285 word list) of Mahidol University field methods revised in 1990 and Plang – lexicon (Paulsen, 1990).

2.2 Selecting the informants

To choose native speakers of Plang as informants, a number of criteria were set up as follows:

1) The informants must be Plang people who lived in Huay Namkhun village.

2) The informants must have a complete set of articulators, so that they can speak pronounce words clearly and fluently.

3) The informants' age must be over 50 because the people in this age group still use the Kontoj Plang dialect without much interference from Thai language structures.

4) The informants must have enough time to work with the researcher.

5) Assistant must know Thai and use Plang dialect in daily life.

This study the researcher there are four informants and one Plang language assistant. They are Mrs. Miej Sawla /mɛj sawla/ (figure 10). She is about 62 years old and was born in Kontoj village in Sipsongpanna., Mrs. Seng Sawla /sɛŋ sawla/ (Figure 11). She is about 60 years old, was born in Kontoj village in Sipsongpanna. Mrs. Ja-am Taphatsin /ja?am tapʰatsin/, 62 years old (Figure 12) and Mr. Samkhot Taphatsin /samkʰot tapʰatsin/, 72 years old, as born in Kontoj village in Sipsongpanna. (Figure 13)

The Phonological data is based on the speech of Mrs. Miej Sawla /mɛj sawla/ and Mrs. Seng Sawla /sɛŋ sawla/. The researcher rechecked the collected data with Mr. Soj Tasamdee /soj tasamdi/. (figure 14) her Plang language assistant, 28 years old.
For the syntax, the researcher collected the data from the 4 informants. The data focuses on the different kind of discourse: Narrative, Procedural, Hortatory, Fable and Dialogue.

Figure 10: Mrs. Miej Sawla

Figure 11: Mrs. Seng Sawla
Figure 12: Mrs. Ja-am Taphatsin

Figure 13: Mr. Samkhot Taphatsin
2.3 Field work

The researcher started collecting phonological data by using the word list of the Southeast Asia word list of Mahidol University field methods revised in 1990 and has obtained more than 2,000 words. The researcher reviewed the word list with 2 informants and observed conversation in daily life with Plang families in the village for about two months. The researcher recorded word lists by using a tape recorder at the time with my assistant who later helped me recheck the data. Then, the researcher collected data by using tape recordings of the texts: Narrative, Procedural, Hortatory, Fable and Dialogue and translation with Plang language assistant. The data was written down and transcribed into phonetic symbols. The data received were enough for the analysis because they covered the syntactical facts in five levels of syntax: morphological element, word, phrase, clause, and sentence.

2.4 The data analysis

The data analysis is based on a Tagmemics model of Kenneth L. Pike, 1977 and David D. Thomas, 1993, which uses the concept of slot and filler (two-cell analysis). In this study used the two cell tagmeme. In the two cell tagmeme, the first cell represents slot or function and the second cell represents the filler or class. For pedagogical ease the researcher starts with the morphology, word, phrase, clause, and sentence following the grammatical hierarchy. The diagram below shows the idea of the grammatical hierarchy of this study.
2.5 Conclusion

The results of analysis are arranged into chapters according to a grammatical hierarchy. For this study, the researcher described five grammatical ranks that started with the morpheme rank and ascended to the sentence rank. The conclusions of the units are presented in the last chapter. There is discussion and suggestions for the study of Plang in aspects other than those studied here. Finally, there is an Appendix of Plang vocabulary and of different kinds of discourse.
CHAPTER III
PLANG PHONOLOGY

Introduction

The Plang language has been studied by linguists for over 27 years. First, in 1976, Jimmy Harris and Jerry Gainey discovered the Plang language in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai province. Later, Pijitra Dissawaroatham 1986 and Debbie Paulsen & Paulette Hopple 1993 studied the phonological system of the Plang language at Huay Namkhun village. Pijitra Dissawaroatham concluded that Plang has 25 consonant phonemes: /p, pʰ, t, tʰ, c, cʰ, k, kʰ, ʔ, m, n, n̥, n̥n̥, n̥, s, h, r, l, l̥, w, ɣ, j, j̥/ and there are 3 registers: High Clear, Mid level and Low Breathy register. But Paulsen & Hopple showed that there are 24 consonant phonemes in Plang. Paulsen and Hopple remarked that Plang has no [ŋ], [w] but there is also [f] in the system which Pijitra didn’t meet in her study. There are 7 main vowels, but no /ɛ, ə, o/ as Pijitra, and there are 2 tones: High and low.

Both Pijitra, 1986 and Paulsen, 1993 concluded the phonological system of Plang are different, and the researcher didn’t meet the informants who did the recording for Pijitra and Paulsen & Hopple. The researcher must to study the phonological system with Plang people who were born at Kontoj village at Sipsongpanna and immigrated to live at Huay Namkhun village. So, in this chapter the researcher will briefly present the contemporary Plang phonology at Huay Namkhun village which was analyzed from her own data.

A phoneme is the smallest potential unit of difference between similar words recognizable as different to the native. That is a phoneme is the smallest unit of speech that distinguishes one utterance from another. The phoneme is defined as the rank at which the units function in the syllable, as the lowest rank of the hierarchy( Pike, 1947 ).

The major functional classes of phonemes in a syllable are the vowel and consonant phonemes.

3.1 Vowel Phonemes

The distinctive quality of sound of any vowel segment results from the general shape given to the mouth and throat during its production. The mouth and throat together form a tube-shaped cavity which starts at the larynx and ends at the lips: it depends partly on the position which the tongue takes up in the mouth and throat and partly on how the lips shape the exit from the cavity. Vowel sounds are voiced sounds and can also be nasal vowels, that is the air
stream can pass through the nasal cavity as well as the oral cavity. The vowels function as syllable nucleus. (Abercrombie 1967: 55)

In Plang there are 9 single vowel phonemes /ɪ, ɛ, ə, ɔ, o, u, ʊ, ə/. There are no diphthongs and no contrasts between short and long vowels. Vowels can occur in both open and closed syllables and all vowels can occur with two registers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tongue height</th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>ɪ</td>
<td>ʊ</td>
<td>ʊ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>ɛ</td>
<td>ə</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>ɛ</td>
<td>ə</td>
<td>ɔ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Vowel phonemes

3.1.1 Formational Statements of Main Vowels

/ɪ / a high front unrounded vowel

/ˈpiɛ ʁɪ/ ‘pencil’
/ˈmiɛ ʁɪ/ ‘yon’
/ˈsir ʁɪ/ ‘gold’
/ˈpih ʁɪ/ ‘sweep’
/ˈkaci ʁɪ/ ‘bright’

/ɛ / a mid front unrounded vowel.

/ˈteɛ ʁɪ/ ‘this’
/ˈteŋ ʁɪ/ ‘to come’
/ˈleŋ ʁɪ/ ‘to come down’
/ˈtareŋ ʁɪ/ ‘grass’
/ˈtɛw ʁɪ/ ‘trousers’

/ə / a low front unrounded vowel.

/ˈtʃɛŋ ʁɪ/ ‘shoes’
/ˈtɛt ʁɪ/ ‘small’
/ˈsælɛŋ ʁɪ/ ‘cigarette’
/ˈtem ʁɪ/ ‘to write, to draw’
/ˈhærɛŋ ʁɪ/ ‘seven’

/a/ a low central unrounded vowel.

/ˈpaŋ ʁɪ/ ‘book, notebook’
/sanat^{RI}/ ‘small gun’
/wac^{RI}/ ‘knife’
/pañ^{RI}/ ‘to sell’
/pasah^{RI}/ ‘sky’

/ɔ/ a low back rounded vowel.
/lot^{RI}/ ‘to pull’
/sak^{h}roc^{RI}/ ‘shell’
/katom^{RI}/ ‘egg’
/môn^{RI}/ ‘mouth’
/kor^{RI}/ ‘hard’

/ɔ/ a mid back rounded vowel.
/palok^{RI}/ ‘mortar’
/ʔon^{RI}/ ‘not’
/loŋ^{RI}/ ‘tall’
/toh^{RI}/ ‘that’
/ʔator^{RI}/ ‘grass hopper’

/u/ a high back rounded vowel.
/kʰup^{RI}/ ‘socks’
/juk^{RI}/ ‘ear’
/cəru^{RI}/ ‘monk’
/nuh^{RI}/ ‘to do’
/ləʔuh^{RI}/ ‘fat’

/ʊ/ a high central unrounded vowel.
/ʔup^{RI}/ ‘kapok’
/kurt^{RI}/ ‘to cut’
/kruw^{RI}/ ‘wrong’
/swʔ^{RI}/ ‘feel pain’
/pʰruw^{RI}/ ‘to fly’

/ə/ a mid central vowel.
/ʔəp^{RI}/ ‘rice’
/wəc^{RI}/ ‘lung’
/hek^{RI}/ ‘hair’
/nəm^{RI}/ ‘year’
/ceŋ^{RI}/ ‘laugh’
3.1.2 The vowel contrasts.
All vowels described above are phonemically contrastive in the Plang language.

/\i/-\e/ /\pit^{RI} / 'pencil'
/\pet^{RI} / 'to close'
/\e/-\ɛ/ /\leh^{RI} / 'to come down'
/\leh^{RI} / 'to go out'
/\w/-\ø/ /\twp^{RI} / 'kapok'
/\twp^{RI} / 'boiled rice'
/\ø/-\a/ /\hek^{RI} / 'feather'
/\hak^{RI} / 'skin'
/\u/-\o/ /\tuh^{RI} / 'head'
/\toh^{RI} / 'that'
/\o/-\ɔ/ /\toh^{RI} / 'that'
/\toh^{RI} / 'to hit'
/\i/-\ɯ/ /\si^{RI} / 'lice'
/\sw^{RI} / 'feel pain'
/\ɯ/-\u/ /\sw^{RI} / 'feel pain'
/\su^{RI} / 'new'
/\e/-\ɵ/ /\te^{RI} / 'this'
/\tɵ^{RI} / 'vegetable'
/\ɵ/-\o/ /\tən^{RI} / 'he'
/\tən^{RI} / 'not'
/\e/-\a/ /\leh^{RI} / 'to go out'
/\lah^{RI} / 'open the palm of the hand'
/\a/-\o/ /\lak^{RI} / 'way'
/\lok^{RI} / 'to full'

3.2 Consonant Phoneme

A consonant functions as a syllable periphery. There are 25 consonant phonemes in Plang: /p, ph, t, th, c, ch, k, kh, q, m, n, n̥, n̄, ñ, s, h, r, l, l̄, w, y, j, j̄/. As in the Table 9.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of articulation</th>
<th>Point of articulation</th>
<th>Labial</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosives</td>
<td>Unaspirated</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aspirated</td>
<td>pʰ</td>
<td>tʰ</td>
<td>cʰ</td>
<td>kʰ</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>voiced</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>m̓</td>
<td>n̓</td>
<td>n̓</td>
<td>n̓</td>
<td>n̓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>s</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td>voiced</td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td>voiced</td>
<td>ɾ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>ɾ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi – Vowel voiced.</td>
<td>w</td>
<td>w</td>
<td>j</td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>w̓</td>
<td>j̓</td>
<td>j̓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Consonant phonemes

The consonants can be divided into three sub-classes according to their function in different position in the syllable: Consonant sub-class (C1), Consonant sub-class (C2) and Consonant sub-class (C3).

**Consonant sub-class (C1)**

The consonant sub-class (C1) functions in syllable initial position and consists of /p, pʰ, t, tʰ, c, cʰ, k, kʰ, ɾ, m, m̓, n, n̓, n̓, n̓, s, h, r, l, l̓, w, w̓, j, j̓/.

Example:

/паn⁹¹/ ‘to sell’
/pʰак⁹¹/ ‘to clean’
/tуп⁹¹/ ‘hut’
/tʰух⁹¹/ ‘chop sticks’
/сетa⁹¹/ ‘eye-brow’
/сʰиp⁹²/ ‘fire word’
/кaнum⁹²/ ‘oily-tasted’
/kʰоŋc⁹¹/ ‘dirty’
Consonant sub-class (C2)

The consonant sub-class C2 functions as the second member of syllable initial cluster which consists of / r, l, w / . The consonant phonemes which can occur in the first position of consonant cluster are / p, p^h, k, k^h / as shown in table 9. There are 9 cluster initials in Plang : / pr, pl, p^h r, p^h l, kr, kl, kw, k^h r, k^h l /

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cl</th>
<th>C2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>r,l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p^h</td>
<td>r,l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>r,l,w</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k^h</td>
<td>r,l</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Consonant cluster

Example:

/ priŋ^Rl / 'to build'
/pləŋ^Rl / 'spear'
/p^h rəw^Rl / 'to fly'
/p^h luŋ^Rl / 'clothes'
/krue^{R1}/ ‘wrong’
/klor^{R1}/ ‘to help’
/kwar^{R1}/ ‘to bark’
/k^{h}rup^{R1}/ ‘to strike’
/k^{h}la^{R1}/ ‘road’

Consonant sub-class (C3)

The consonant sub-class C3 functions in syllable final position and consist of 13 final consonants: /p, t, c, k, ?, m, n, ñ, h, r, w, j /

Example:

/ʂap^{R1}/ ‘difficult’
/ntak^{R1}/ ‘tongue’
/hoc^{R1}/ ‘to finish’
/muk^{R1}/ ‘hat’
/wa^{R1}/ ‘monkey’
/ŋam^{R1}/ ‘blood’
/kamɔn^{R1}/ ‘desert’
/semeŋ^{R1}/ ‘star’
/ŋoŋ^{R1}/ ‘to know’
/tuŋ^{R1}/ ‘head’
/wakmor^{R1}/ ‘earth worm’
/cʰaw^{R1}/ ‘fried’
/woj^{R1}/ ‘to turn’

3.2.1 Formational Statement of Consonants.

All consonant phonemes in Plang are produced with the pulmonic egressive airstream mechanism.

/p/ [p] a voiceless unaspirated bilabial plosive. It occurs syllable initially.

/pit^{R1}/ [‘pɪt’] ‘pencil’
/pɔn^{R1}/ [‘pɔn] ‘eat (meat)’
/pap^{R1}/ [‘pap’] ‘book, notebook’
/pæŋ^{R1}/ [‘pæŋ] ‘to sell’
/peŋ^{R1}/ [‘peŋ’] ‘hoe’
finally.

/ŋap\(^{R1}\) / ['ŋáp']  ‘difficult’
/cɔp\(^{R1}\) / ['tɔ̂p']  ‘tight’
/?up\(^{R1}\) / ['ʔúp']  ‘narrow’
/kwp\(^{R1}\) / ['kʰwp']  ‘turn up-side down’
/?ep\(^{R1}\) / ['ʔép']  ‘boiled rice’

[b] a voiced unaspirated bilabial plosive. It occurs after the syllabic nasal [m]

/mpıŋ\(^{R1}\) / [m'bin]  ‘bank’
/mpuh\(^{R1}\) / [m'buh]  ‘face’
/mpuh\(^{R1}\) / [m'búh]  ‘breast’
/mpen\(^{R1}\) / [m'ben]  ‘woman’
/mpuŋ\(^{R1}\) / [m'búŋ]  ‘ladder’

/pʰ/ [ph] a voiceless aspirated bilabial plosive. It occurs syllable initially.

/pʰat\(^{R1}\) / ['phát]  ‘to turn’
/pʰɔk\(^{R1}\) / ['phók']  ‘to ride’
/pʰaʔ\(^{R1}\) / ['pháʔ]  ‘lid’
/pʰah\(^{R1}\) / ['pháh]  ‘to smoke’
/pʰak\(^{R1}\) / ['phák']  ‘to clean’

/t/ [t] a voiceless unaspirated alveolar plosive. It occurs syllable initially

/tup\(^{R1}\) / ['túp']  ‘hut’
/tut\(^{R1}\) / ['tút']  ‘suck’
/toʔ\(^{R1}\) / ['téʔ]  ‘vegetable’
/təm\(^{R1}\) / ['tém]  ‘to draw’
/tih\(^{R1}\) / ['tíh']  ‘to get’

[tʰ] a voiceless unreleased alveolar plosive. It occurs syllable finally.

/pit\(^{R1}\) / ['ʔítʰ]  ‘to sleep’
/wit\(^{R1}\) / ['wítʰ]  ‘withered’
/łat\(^{R1}\) / ['látʰ]  ‘to fear’
/kot\(^{R2}\) / ['kótʰ]  ‘old’
/kwut\(^{R1}\) / ['kútʰ]  ‘to cut’
/tʰ/ [th] a voiceless aspirated alveolar plosive. It occurs syllable initially.

/tʰuk R₁/ [ˈthʊk̚] ‘to pour’
/tʰiʔ R₁/ [ˈthɨʔ] ‘not hollow’
/tʰɛm R₁/ [ˈthèm] ‘add’
/tʰamʔum R₁/ [thâm ʔúm] ‘water jar’
/tʰuh R₁/ [ˈthuh] ‘chop sticks’

/c/ [tɕ] a voiceless palatal affricate. It occurs syllable initially.

/cɛp R₁/ [ˈtɕɛp̚] ‘right’
/cuk R₁/ [ˈtɕuk̚] ‘stop’
/cetaʔ R₁/ [tɕeʔˈtaʔ] ‘eye-brow’
/cɛm R₁/ [ˈtɕɛm] ‘embrace’
/cen R₁/ [ˈtɕɛn] ‘laugh’

[cʰ] a voiceless unreleased palatal plosive. It occurs syllable finally.

/nac R₁/ [ˈnáːc̚] ‘sharp knife’
/sekʰroc R₁/ [sɛ̚ˈkʰɾoc̚] ‘shell’
/wuːc R₁/ [ˈwuːc̚] ‘bowels’
/pɛc R₁/ [ˈpɛc̚] ‘hoe’
/plɛc R₁/ [ˈplɛc̚] ‘wing’

/tʃ/ [tʃ] a voiceless aspirated palatal affricate. It occurs syllable initially.

/cʰɛp R₁/ [ˈtʃɛp̚] ‘shoes’
/cʰiʔ R₂/ [ˈtʃʰiʔ] ‘fire word’
/cʰɛʔ R₁/ [ˈtʃʰɛʔ] ‘seasons’
/caw R₁/ [ˈtʃʰaw] ‘fried’
/cʰiʔ R₁/ [tʃʰiʔ] ‘month’

/k/ [k] a voiceless unaspirated velar plosive. It occurs syllable initially.

/kot R₁/ [ˈkɒt̚] ‘cold’
/kok R₁/ [ˈkɒk̚] ‘basin’
/kəʔ R₁/ [ˈkəʔ] ‘fish’
/kəʔ R₁/ [ˈkəʔ] ‘back’
/kâ'num R2/  [kā'num]  ‘oily-tasted’

[k’]  a voiceless unreleased velar plosive. It occurs syllable finally.

/lik R1/  [līk]  ‘pig’
/sêkalak R1/  [sē'klâk]  ‘red’
/puk R1/  [pûk]  ‘dig’
/khâncuk R1/  [khô'n'tôuk]  ‘dirty’
/hêk R1/  [hêk]  ‘hairs’

/kh/  [kh]  a voiceless aspirated velar plosive. It occurs syllable initially.

/khâup R1/  [khûp]  ‘socks’
/khâu2 R1/  [khû?]  ‘stalk’
/khâncokon R1/  [khôn’kôn]  ‘pestle’
/khâncuk R1/  [khôn’tôuk]  ‘dirty’
/khat R1/  [khát]  ‘not smooth’

/[ʔ]/  [ʔ]  a glottal stop. It occurs syllable initially and finally.

/ʔuʔ R2/  [ʔûʔ]  ‘I’
/ʔûʔ R2/  [ʔûʔ]  ‘rope’
/samuʔ R2/  [sâ’mûʔ]  ‘rock’
/ʔôn R1/  [ʔôn]  ‘not’
/ʔéɾ R1/  [ʔéɾ]  ‘chicken’

/m/  [m]  a voiced bilabial syllabic nasal. It occurs before bilabial consonants: /p, m, n, w, w/ at the first syllabic.

/mpuk R1/  [mû'buːk]  ‘to broken’
/mmiʔ R1/  [mû’miʔ]  ‘woman’
/mpûʔ R1/  [mû'buːʔ]  ‘ladder’
/mwit R1/  [mû’wit]  ‘chameleon’

[m]  a voiced bilabial nasal. It occurs syllable initially and finally.

/muk R1/  [mûk]  ‘to sit’
/miʔ R1/  [miʔ]  ‘you’
/sêmiʔ R1/  [sâ’miʔ]  ‘cane’
/satim R1/  [sâ’tîm]  ‘nine’
/ŋam R1/  [ŋam]  ‘blood’
/m/ [m̩] a voiceless bilabial nasal. It occurs syllable initially.

/muş / [ˈmʊʃ] ‘hat’
/muş / [ˈmʊŋ] ‘sad’
/.partition ŋ̩ / [ˈmɔŋ] ‘to hear’
/muş / [ˈmʊʔ] ‘rope’
/মুর / [ˈmɔɾ] ‘farm’

/n/ [n̩] a voiced alveolar syllabic nasal. It occurs before alveolar consonants: /t, th, n, ŋ, s, r, l, l/ at the first syllabic.

/ŋtak / [ŋ̩ˈt̪aŋ] ‘tongue’
/ŋnaʔ / [ŋ̩ˈn̪aŋ] ‘dear’
/ŋsɔp / [ŋ̩ˈsɔ̞p] ‘to squeeze’
/ŋɾŋ̩ / [ŋ̩ˈɾ̩ŋ̩] ‘mat’
/ŋlɔŋ̩ / [ŋ̩ˈl̪ɔŋ̩] ‘tick’

[n] a voiceless alveolar nasal. It occurs syllable initially and finally.

/nɔc / [ˈnɔc] ‘sharp knife’
/nam / [ˈn̩əm] ‘bank’
/nhɛŋ / [ŋ̩ˈhɛŋ] ‘to count’
/kamɔŋ / [kʰəmɔŋ] ‘desert’
/nkum / [ŋ̩ˈkʰum] ‘finger’

/ŋ/ [ŋ̩] a voiceless alveolar nasal. It occurs syllable initially.

/ŋaʔ / [ŋ̩ˈaŋ] ‘face, front,
/ŋɔŋ / [ŋ̩ˈɔŋ] ‘carry’
/ŋum / [ŋ̩ˈɔm] ‘young man’
/ŋəm / [ŋ̩ˈəm] ‘blood’

/ŋ/ [ŋ̩] a voiced palatal syllabic nasal. It occurs before palatal consonants: /c, ch, ɲ, j/ at the first syllabic.

/ŋcuk / [ŋ̩ˈtɕuk] ‘cone’
/ŋcʰɔk / [ŋ̩tɕʰɔk] ‘cripple’
/ŋɔŋ / [ŋ̩ˈɔŋ] ‘don’t know’
/ŋjʊr / [ŋ̩ˈjʊɾ] ‘climb’

[n] a voiced palatal nasal. It occurs syllable initially and finally.

/ŋaʔ / [ŋ̩ˈaŋ] ‘house’
/ŋuh / [ŋ̩ˈuŋ] ‘to do’
/ŋɔŋ / [ŋ̩ˈɔŋ] ‘to know’
Suchada Giaphong

/ŋum^R^I/  ['ŋúm] ‘to cry’
/ʔoŋ^R^I/  ['ʔoŋ] ‘to smile’
/ʃəməŋ^R^I/  [ʃə’məŋ] ‘star’

/ŋ/  [ŋ] a voiceless palatal nasal. It occurs syllable initially.
/ŋap^R^I/  ['ŋáp] ‘difficult’

/ŋ/  [ŋ] a voiced velar syllabic nasal. It occurs before velar consonants : /k, q/ at the first syllabic
/ŋkwən^R^I/  [ŋ’kwən] ‘finger’
/ŋən^R^I/  [ŋ’ən] ‘middle’

/ŋ/  a voiced velar nasal. It occurs syllable initially and finally.
/ŋuk^R^I/  ['ŋuk'] ‘heck’
/ŋot^R^I/  ['ŋot'] ‘to bend’
/ŋaʔ^R^I/  ['ŋáʔ] ‘to itch’
/saqiŋ^R^I/  [sə’tɕiŋ] ‘ginger’
/kasaŋ^R^I/  [kə’səŋ] ‘elephant’

/s/  [s] a voiceless alveolar fricative. It occurs syllable initially.
/sæt^R^I/  ['sæt] ‘naughty’
/sañek^R^I/  [sə’leŋk] ‘cigarette’
/ʃəməŋ^R^I/  [ʃə’məŋ] ‘star’
/sir^R^I/  ['sɨɾ] ‘gold’
/səkəɾ^R^I/  [sə’kəɾ] ‘to teach’

/h/  [h] a voiceless glottal fricative. It occurs syllable initially and finally.
/həŋ^R^I/  ['həŋ] ‘to finish’
/hak^R^I/  ['hak] ‘skin’
/həɾ^R^I/  ['həɾ] ‘to walk’
/kəh^R^I/  ['kəh] ‘to take off’
/kəməŋ^R^I/  [kə’məŋ] ‘banana’

/r/  [ɾ] a voiced retroflex approximant. It occurs syllable initially
or in the second position of the consonant cluster and finally.
/rak^R^I/  ['ɾak] ‘shout’
/ɾəŋ^R^I/  ['ɾəŋ] ‘to rich’
/kɾuro^R^I/  [kɾuɾo] ‘wrong’
/pʰɾur^R^I/  [pʰɾur] ‘to fly’
/sir^R^I/  ['sɨɾ] ‘gold’
/l/ [l] a voiced alveolar lateral. It occurs syllable initially or in the second position of the consonant cluster.

/ləŋ Rl/ ['lɔŋ] ‘black’
/ləŋ Rl/ ['lɑŋ] ‘tea’
/ləŋ Rl/ ['lán] ‘long’
/kʰləŋ Rl/ ['kʰlɑŋ] ‘road’
/pləŋ Rl/ ['plɛŋ] ‘wing’

/l̃/ [l̃] a voiceless alveolar lateral. It occurs syllable initially

/l̃iŋ Rl/ ['l̃iŋ] ‘rain’
/l̃at Rl/ ['l̃ɑt] ‘to fear’
/l̃eŋ Rl/ ['l̃eŋ] ‘thin’
/l̃on Rl/ ['l̃ɔn] ‘tall’
/l̃um Rl/ ['l̃ɔm] ‘mud’
/l̃oŋ Rl/ ['l̃ɔŋ] ‘banana laves’
/l̃ak Rl/ ['l̃ak] ‘late’

/w/ [w] a voiced labial-velar semivowel. It occurs syllable initially and finally.

/wəc Rl/ ['wəc] ‘knife’
/wuic Rl/ ['wuic] ‘bowels’
/waɾ Rl/ ['waɾ] ‘fence’
/ləwəw Rl/ [ləw ’əw] ‘unattractive’
/təw Rl/ ['təw] ‘trousers’

/w̃/ [w̃] a voiceless labial-velar semivowel. It occurs syllable initially.

/waŋ Rl/ ['waŋ] ‘monkey’
/waŋkuŋ Rl/ [waŋ ’kʊŋ] ‘worm’
/wəŋmar Rl/ [wəŋ ’məɾ] ‘earth worm’
/waŋ Rl/ ['waŋ] ‘tiger’
/wəŋ Rl/ ['wəŋ] ‘tum’

/j/ [j] a voiced palatal semivowel. It occurs syllable initially and finally.

/juk Rl/ ['jʊk] ‘bait’
/jiŋ Rl/ ['jɪŋ] ‘day’
/jem Rl/ ['jem] ‘to die’
/wəŋ Rl/ ['wəŋ] ‘quick’
/j/  [j] a voiceless palatal semivowel. It occurs syllable initially.

/juk/ ['jʊk] 'ear'

3.2.2 The Consonant Contrasts

/p/-/pʰ/  /paʔ/  'ferrule, condom`
/pʰaʔ/  'lid`
/t/-/tʰ/  /tuh/  'head'
/tʰuh/  'chopsticks'
/c/-/cʰ/  /ciʔ/  'to soak'
/cʰiʔ/  'month'
/k/-/kʰ/  /kuʔ/  'to writ'
/kʰuʔ/  'tree'
/m/-/mʰ/  /muk/  'to sit'
/mʰuk/  'hat'
/n/-/ŋ/  /nam/  'bank'
/ŋam/  'blood'
/ŋ/-/ŋ/  /ŋam/  'cry'
/ŋap/  'difficult'
/l/-/lʰ/  /lak/  'side'
/lʰak/  'to late'
/w/-/wʰ/  /wəj/  'quickly'
/wəj/  'to turn'
/j/-/jʰ/  /juk/  'bait'
/juk/  'ear'
/t/-/ʔ/  /tup/  'hut'
/ʔup/  'narrow'
/k/-/ʔ/  /kwəp/  'turn up --side down'
/ʔwp/  'kapok'
/m/-/w/  /mac/  'squeeze'
/wac/  'knife'
/mʰ/-/wʰ/  /mar/  'farm'
/waj/  'tiger'
/n/-/nʰ/  /mən/  'eat (desert)'
/mən/  'mouth'
/ n / \ /n/ / pɔn/ R1 / ‘eat (meat)’
/ pɔŋ R1 / ‘sprout’
/ r / \ /l/ / raŋ/ R1 / ‘tooth’
/ ɭaŋ R1 / ‘long’
/ n / \ /j/ / nən R1 / ‘heel’
/ nəj R1 / ‘in’
/ n / \ /ŋ/ / nəm R1 / ‘blood’
/ nəp R1 / ‘difficult’
/ ɲ/ \ /j/ / ɲəp R1 / ‘difficult’
/ juk R1 / ‘ear’

3.3 Suprasegmental Features

Suprasegmental features are phonetic features that are associated with segmental speech sounds. The syllable nucleus (vowel) always carries the suprasegmental features, (Pike, 1982).

3.3.1 Length

Length is a phonetic feature concerned with the duration of sound. In Plang there are no phonemic contrasts between short and long vowels, but there is automatic lengthening of the final syllable of the sentence, and automatic shortening of the first syllable of disyllabic words.

An automatic lengthening of the final syllable of the sentence

Example:

- /kamən R1 / ‘desert’

[ʔũʔ mόn kâ’moːn ]
I eat desert

- /tew R1 / ‘sweet’

[kâ’mόn teːw ]
desert sweet
An automatic shortening of the first syllable of disyllabic word (shorter than other syllable).

Example: /kaʔ R2/ ['kāʔ] ‘fish’  
/kawaʔ R1/ [kā 'waʔ] ‘door’  
/sêʔ R1/ [sêʔ] ‘feel pain’  
/sêʔmûn R1/ [sêʔ 'mûn] ‘snake’  
/piʔ R1/ ['piʔ] ‘you’  
/piʔcaw R1/ [piʔ 'caw] ‘image of the Buddha’  
/kôn R1/ [kôn] ‘baby’  
/kônsoʔ R1/ [kôn 'soʔ] ‘puppy’

Note: Length cannot change the meaning of words so length is non-phonemic in this language.

3.3.2 Stress

In Plang, stress is predictable and thus non-phonemic. Stress in Plang can be divided into 3 degrees. They are strong stress, weak stress and unstress.

Strong Stress

The strong stress is defined as a syllable which is loudest of the phonological word. It is the stress that occurs on the peak of the major syllable. This strong stress is obligatory in a phonological word and it symbolized by ['].

Example: /pêʔ R2/ ['pêʔ] ‘to blow’  
/khruʔ R1/ ['khû'úʔ] ‘thing’  
/naʔ R1/ ['náʔ] ‘house’  
/lat R1/ ['lát] ‘to fear’  
/pûk R2/ ['pûk'] ‘dig’

Weak Stress

The weak stress is defined as a syllable which is weak in loudness and length compared with the strong stress syllable. It is placed in a minor syllable position of the phonological word and it is symbolized by [ , ]
Example: /tɔktiʔ/ [tɔk'tiʔ] ‘to jump’
/kɔnsim/ [kɔn'sim] ‘bird’
/tɔgtiʔ/ [tɔŋ'tiʔ] ‘Adam’s apple’
/ɲɔŋnaʔ/ [ŋɔn'ɲaʔ] ‘hall’
/makmor/ [mək'mɔr] ‘earth worm’

Unstress

The unstress is defined as a syllable which is a non stress syllable. The unstressed in Plang occur in the first open syllable in disyllabic, in the first syllable of trisyllabic and in the syllabic nasal.

Example: in the first open syllable in disyllabic.
/kətəŋ/ [kə'təŋ] ‘big’
/ʔatəm/ [ʔətəm] ‘on the right’
/həɾəh/ [həɾəh] ‘seven’

Example: in the first syllable of trisyllabic.
/maksoŋpʰɔʔ/ [mək,sən'pʰɔʔ] ‘papaya’
/tiʔajmaʔ/ [tī,ʔəjʼmaʔ] ‘thumb (finger)’
/seŋawwaʔ/ [sə,ŋəw'waʔ] ‘galingale’

Example: in the nasal syllabic.
/məʔt/ [mə't] ‘chameleon’
/ntak/ [ntak] ‘tongue’
/nəm/ [nəm] ‘tongue’
/ŋon/ [ŋon] ‘don’t know’
/ŋəm/ [ŋəm] ‘finger’
/ŋon/ [ŋon] ‘middle’

3.3.3 Register

The term ‘register’ has been used in many different ways. As a result, many definitions can be found in the literature depending upon who uses it – music and specialists, phoneticians, linguistics or language teachers…. (Theraphan, 1985).

Some of the features manifesting register not only in Mon and Khmer proper, but on a wider scale, including other lesser known Mon – Khmer languages of Southeast Asia……(Gregerson, 1976).

From the data received, Plang register is unpredictable and thus phonemic. In this study, the researcher has found that Plang has two contrastive registers.
Register I (\(^{R1}\)) represents a clear voice quality with all vowel. This register occurs in both open and closed syllables.

/\k\ø\v^i\v^{R1}/  [kø'tî?]  ‘Soil’
/\t\v^e^m^{R1}/  ['t̚em]  ‘to write, draw’
/\k\v^a^\v^{R1}/  ['káʔ]  ‘fish’
/\k\v^o^t^{R1}/  ['køt]  ‘to cold’
/\t\v^h\v^o^j^{R1}/  ['thôj]  ‘scour the floor’
/\v^u^2^{R1}/  ['vûʔ]  ‘stupid’
/\p\v^u^k^{R1}/  ['pûk’]  ‘to dig’
/\p\v^e^\v^{R1}/  ['pøj]  ‘to run’

The clear voice quality, has 3 different accompanied pitches:

**High pitch** [´] occurs in monosyllabic words and the final syllable of disyllabic and trisyllabic words.
Example:

['síʔ ]  ‘gold’
[ʔâ'ńóʔ ]  ‘what’
[tīʔ , ʔâj'mâʔ ]  ‘thumb (finger)

**Mid pitch** [̃] occurs in the first open syllable of disyllabic, in the first syllable of trisyllabic words and the syllabic nasal.
Example:

[ʔâ't̚óm]  ‘on the right’
[mâk , sàŋ'phòʔ ]  ‘papaya’
[ŋ 'ták']  ‘tongue’.

**Low pitch** [ ] occurs in the first closed syllable of disyllabic and the second syllable of trisyllabic words.
Example:

[ˌj àŋ'ṭû̯íʔ ]  ‘moon’
[̃m , mè' phû́m ]  ‘heart’

Register II (\(^{R2}\)) represents a breathy voice quality with all vowel. This register occurs in both open and closed syllables.

/\k\ø\v^i\v^{R2}/  [kø'tî?]  ‘one’
/\t\v^e^m^{R2}/  ['t̂̚mm]  ‘under’
/\k\v^a^\v^{R2}/  ['kâʔ]  ‘car’
/\k\v^o^t^{R2}/  ['køt]  ‘old’
/\t\v^h\v^o^j^{R2}/  ['thôj]  ‘spit’
/\v^u^2^{R2}/  ['vûʔ]  ‘I’
/pu:kR2/  ['pũk']  ‘calf’
/pẽjR2/  ['pẽj]  ‘man’

The breathy voice quality, has an accompanied pitch:

**Low Rising pitch** [¨] occurs in the monosyllabic words and the final syllable of disyllabic words.

/ko:tR2/  ['ko:t]  ‘old’
/pu:R2/  ['pu:]  ‘I’
/kẽtjR2/  [kẽ'tʃi?]  ‘one’
/kẽtɛŋR2/  [kẽ'tɛŋ]  ‘big’

If we compare this study with Pijitra’s study in 1986, we find that both studies have the same consonant and vowel phonemes. However this study has found two registers: high clear or normal voice quality and low breathy or breathy voice quality while Pijitra’s 1986 study has found three registers: high clear or normal voice quality, mid clear or normal voice quality and low breathy or breathy voice quality.

3.4 Syllable

A syllable is defined as the rank whose unit functions in the phonological word and its structure is stated in terms of a phoneme.

The syllable structure is described in terms of a nucleus and a periphery. The former is formed by a vowel and the later is formed by one to three consonants.

3.4.1 Syllable function

There are two classes of syllables in terms of its function in the phonological word: the nuclear syllable and the peripheral syllable.

**The nuclear syllable**

The nuclear syllable functions as the center of a word. It always takes strong stress and it occurs in words of more than one syllable. It always occurs in the last position of the word.

Examples:
/1ονR1/  ['1oŋ]  ‘tall’
/kahR2/  ['kãh]  ‘give’
/hãreŋR1/  [hã. 'jeŋ]  ‘seven’
/ɲatɔmR1/  ['ɲa. 'tɔm]  ‘on the right’
/κόνσυθ / [ˌκόν.ˈςύθ] 'dog'

/pαπʔαν / [ˌpα.ˈʔαν] 'book'

The peripheral syllable

The peripheral syllable functions outside the nucleus of a word. It takes weak stress in minor syllables and unstress in presyllables. This class of syllable never occurs in monosyllabic words or in the final position of disyllabic, trisyllabic and tetrasyllabic words.

Examples:

/κόνσυθ / [ˌκόν.ˈςύθ] 'dog'

/pαπʔαν / [ˌpα.ˈʔαν] 'book'

/χαρς / [χα.ˈχέ] 'seven'

/νιτ / [ɲ.ˈɲιτ] 'chameleon'

/κσλεμκνυ θ / [κσ.ˈλεμ.ˈκνυθ] 'tree'

/μηθυμ / [μ.ˈμθυμ] 'heart'

3.4.2 Syllable types

There are three types of syllable in term of stress; the major syllable, the minor syllable and the presyllable.

The major syllable

The major syllable is defined as a syllable which always takes strong stress. Every word has one major syllable. This types of syllable can be both open and closed syllables. It structure is ['C (C) V(C)].

There are three different subtypes of a major syllable as follows:

Subtype A: ['C V]

/cu/ ['cú] 'or'

/wi/ ['wí] 'fan'

Subtype B: ['C VC]

/lου / ['lου] 'tall'

/mακ / ['mακ] 'love'
/ʔon⁴¹/   ['ʔóŋ]    ‘not’

Subtype C : ['CC VC ]

/pʰak⁴¹/   ['pʰáŋ]    ‘clean’

/krawc⁴¹/   ['krawc]    ‘wrong’

/pʰrwm/    ['φρύμ]    ‘fly’

The minor syllable

The minor syllable is defined as a syllable which takes weak stress. This type of syllable can be both open and closed syllables. It can occur in both disyllabic, trisyllabic and tetrasyllabic words. Its structure is [ , C (C) V(C)].

There are four different subtypes of a major syllable as follows :

Subtype A : [, C V ]

/mmepʰum⁴¹/   [m̥ , mɛ. 'phúm]    ‘heart’

/kahara?⁴¹/   [k̥a , ʰà. 'jáʔ]    ‘salted fish’

/kawapɔŋ⁴¹/   [k̥a , wà 'pɔŋ]    ‘window’

Subtype B : [, C VC ]

/konsu?⁴¹/    [,kɔn. 'súʔ]    ‘dog’

/papʔan⁴¹/    [,pàp 'ʔán]    ‘book’

/ŋajsaniʔ⁴¹/   [,ŋəj.sá. 'nîʔ]    ‘sun’

/sapliʔ⁴¹/   [,sàp pə 'lîʔ]    ‘funny’

Subtype C : [, CC V ]

/kremelaŋ⁴¹/    [,kɾɛm. 'lán]    ‘widower’

/prikʰamɔŋ⁴¹/    [,pɾi[kʰá. 'món]    ‘fruits’

Subtype D : [, CC VC ]

/kʰruŋsatcaʔ⁴¹/    [,kʰruŋ.sát.'cáʔ]    ‘deposit’

/plirhɛk⁴¹/    ['plir. 'hék]    ‘rambutan’
The presyllable

There are two different subtypes of the presyllable as follows:

Subtype A: It structure is [CV].

The presyllable is defined as a syllable which takes /ə,ə/ and an single vowel consonant (found only in the open syllable type). These type of syllables always takes unstress.

Examples: /hərəhR1/ [hə ɾeh] 'seven'
          /ətəmR1/ [ətəm] 'on the right'
          /kətəŋR2/ [kə ɾtəŋ] 'big'
          /səkəɾR1/ [sə ɾkəɾ] 'cloudy'

Subtype B: It structure is [C].

The presyllable is defined as a nasal syllabic consist of the bilabial nasal syllabic /m, n, ɲ, ŋ/. These occur initially before homorganic consonants. These type of syllables always takes unstress.

Examples: /məɾʊkR1/ [mə ɾʊk] 'to broken'
          /nnaʔR1/ [nə ɾnəʔ] 'dew'
          /ɲɲonR1/ [ɲɲ ɾnɔn] 'middle'
          /ɲjʊɾR1/ [ɲɲ ɾjʊɾ] 'climb'

A syllabic nasal does not have the structure of a normal syllable because it is not composed of a consonant and a vowel but only a consonant. It comes before another consonant.

3.5 Phonological word

Phonological word or “stress group” functions in the intonation group, which is the highest level in the phonological hierarchy. It may have one, two or three syllables. Each stress group has as its nucleus one stressed syllable, which is always the last syllable in the group, and as its periphery it may have an unstressed syllable or a weakly stressed syllable.
There are three types of phonological word divided according to their structure.

3.5.1 Phonological word with just a stressed syllable. Its structure is ['s]

/ţon\textsuperscript{R1}/ ['ţ\textsubscript{o}n] ‘tall’
/mak\textsuperscript{R1}/ ['m\textsubscript{a}k'] ‘love’
/ţon\textsuperscript{R1}/ ['ţ\textsubscript{o}n] ‘not’
/kah\textsuperscript{R2}/ ['k\textsubscript{a}h] ‘give’
/puk\textsuperscript{R2}/ ['p\textsubscript{u}k] ‘dig’

3.5.2 Phonological word with a weakly stressed or unstressed first syllable and a stressed second syllable.

i) Phonological word with an unstressed syllable and a stressed syllable. Its structure is [, u 's]

/har\textsubscript{a}ch\textsuperscript{R1}/ [h\textsubscript{a} 'r\textsubscript{a}ch] ‘seven’
/ţat\textsubscript{o}m\textsuperscript{R1}/ [ţ\textsubscript{a} 't\textsubscript{o}m] ‘on the right’
/n\textsubscript{w}it\textsuperscript{R1}/ [n\textsubscript{w} 'w\textsubscript{it}'] ‘chameleon’
/ţ\textsubscript{a}n\textsubscript{on}\textsuperscript{R1}/ [ţ\textsubscript{a} 'n\textsubscript{on}] ‘middle’

i) Phonological word with a weakly stressed syllable and a stressed syllable. Its structure is [, w 's]

/konsuţ\textsuperscript{R1}/ [, k\textsubscript{o}n 's\textsubscript{u}ţ] ‘dog’
/pap\textsubscript{a}n\textsuperscript{R1}/ [, p\textsubscript{a}p 'p\textsubscript{a}n] ‘book’
/t\textsubscript{a}n\textsubscript{t}iţ\textsuperscript{R1}/ [, t\textsubscript{a}n 't\textsubscript{i}ţ] ‘Adam’s apple’

3.5.3 Phonological word with unstressed first syllable, a weakly stressed second syllable and a stressed third syllable. Its structure is [ u , w 's].

Only a few words have been found.

/mm\textsubscript{e}ph\textsubscript{u}m\textsuperscript{R1}/ [m\textsubscript{m}, m\textsubscript{e} 'ph\textsubscript{u}m] ‘heart’
/sap\textsubscript{a}liţ\textsuperscript{R1}/ [s\textsubscript{a}, p\textsubscript{a} 'l\textsubscript{i}ţ] ‘funny’
3.6 Intonation

Intonation is defined as the highest rank of the phonological hierarchy. Its structure is stated in terms of the phonological word.

3.6.1 General intonation contours

Significant intonation contours in Plang have been found as follows:

1) Rising intonation may manifest a statement and an imperative.

\[ / \text{ūŋ}^{R2} \text{sum}^{R1} \text{ʔep}^{R1} / \text{ (statement)} \]

I eat rice
'I eat rice.'

\[ / \text{ʔer}^{R1} \text{ʔeŋ}^{R1} \text{ʔaŋ}^{R1} \text{lak}^{R1} \text{soŋ}^{R1} / \text{ (imperative)} \]

go feed buffalo Fp
'Go to feed buffaloes!'

\[ / \text{ʔeŋ}^{R1} \text{nuŋ}^{R1} \text{nhom}^{R1} \text{nang}^{R1} \text{mar}^{R1} / \text{ (a statement)} \]

he do work at farm
'He works at the farm.'

2) Falling intonation may manifest a content interrogative or a polar question act.

\[ / \text{ʔer}^{R1} \text{nangŋoŋ}^{R1} / \]

go where
'Where are you going?'

\[ / \text{sum}^{R1} \text{kaf}^{R1} / \]

eat Qfp
'Do you eat (rice)?'

6. / ʔənᵢ⁰ervatives nuhᵢ⁰ervatives kanɔᵢ⁰ervatives /

he do what

'What is he doing?'

3.6.2 Intonation prominence

Emphasis may cause individual words in a sentence to be raised or lowered. This factor evaluates the importance of each word in a sentence. If the speaker wants to emphasize a word, the pitch of word in the sentence will be raised.

1. / miʔᵢ⁰ervatives taʔᵢ⁰ervatives herᵢ⁰ervatives majᵢ⁰ervatives ʔuʔᵢ⁰ervatives / -General

1. / miʔᵢ⁰ervatives taʔᵢ⁰ervatives herᵢ⁰ervatives majᵢ⁰ervatives ʔuʔᵢ⁰ervatives / -Emphasis

you must go with I

'You must go with me.'

The pitch of / taʔᵢ⁰ervatives / 'must' is raised for emphasis.

2. / miʔᵢ⁰ervatives naŋᵢ⁰ervatives sumᵢ⁰ervatives majᵢ⁰ervatives ʔuʔᵢ⁰ervatives / -General

2. / miʔᵢ⁰ervatives naŋᵢ⁰ervatives sumᵢ⁰ervatives majᵢ⁰ervatives ʔuʔᵢ⁰ervatives / -Emphasis

you will eat with I

'You will eat with me?'

The pitch of / naŋᵢ⁰ervatives / 'will' is raised for emphasis.
CHAPTER IV
MORPHOLOGY AND WORD

Morphemes are minimum meaningful unit in a language. Each of them cannot be further split apart. They are commonly classified into free morphemes (morphemes which can occur as separate words) and bound morphemes (morphemes which cannot occur alone). In Mon-Khmer languages, the bound morphemes are mainly affixes. The morpheme is seen primarily as the smallest functioning unit in the composition of words which are the basic building blocks of grammar.

Words consist of minimally one free morpheme. They normally function as elements of phrase and may also function at higher ranks, especially as particles or linkers.

Plang morphemes there are prefixation : /lə-/ and /ni- / and suffixation : /-riʔ, niʔ, niʔ/, can be described in detail of the following parts.

4.1 Word formations

Word in Plang may be simple or complex. A simple word consists of only one free morpheme. A complex word is a combination of two or more morphemes (free morpheme with free morpheme, or bound morpheme with free morpheme). A complex word therefore derives from any word formation.

There are four main types of word formation in Plang language. They are affixation, compounding, reduplication, and onomatopoeia.

4.1.1 Affixation

Affixation is a morphological process of word formation consisting of an affix and a root. An affix is a types of bound morpheme which occurs with root (free morpheme) and modifies its basic meaning. Affixes in Plang include prefixes and
suffixes. These affixes are considered to be derivational affixes, they create new lexical items and give the result in a change of the word class of root.

**Prefixation**: there are 2 prefixes in Plang: /lə-/ and /ni-/

1. /lə-/ is a prefix used with pronouns to make a singular pronoun plural.

   Example: /ʔən^R1/ 'he' /ləʔən^R1/ 'they,(all)'
   /məʔ^R1/ 'you' /ləməʔ^R1/ 'you,(all)'
   /əʔ^R1/ 'it' /ləʔəʔ^R1/ 'it,(all)'

2. /ni-/ a negative prefix used only with the verb.

   Example: /həʔ^R1/ 'go' /nihəʔ^R1/ 'not go'
   /nɪʔ^R1/ 'hear' /ninɪʔ^R1/ 'not hear'
   /nʊʔ^R1/ 'do' /nipʊʔ^R1/ 'not do'
   /pʰraʔ^R1/ 'eat' /nipʰraʔ^R1/ 'not eat'

Normally, we can find another negative marker in Plang /ʔən^R1/ but it occurs alone as in answering to the Yes – No question.

**Suffixation**: There are two suffixes in Plang: /-ril/ and /-nil/

1. /-ril/ a suffix used with single syllable noun to mark possession.

   Example: /koʔ^R1/ 'child' → /koʔril^R1/ 'my child'
   /maʔ^R1/ 'my mother' → /maʔril^R1/ 'my mother'
   /naʔ^R1/ 'house' → /naʔril^R1/ 'my house'
/ʔon^R1 hər^R1 naŋ^R1 mar^R1 maj^R1 maʔriʔ^R1 /
he go to farm with mother Poss
‘He goes to the farm with his mother.’

/ leʔon^R1 mak^R1 naʔriʔ^R1 /
they love house Poss
‘They love their house.’

/ miʔ^R1 sum^R1 ʔepriʔ^R1 /
you eat rice Poss
‘You eat your rice.’

/-riʔ/ can occur after a verb from a reflexive verb.

Example: /ʔeʔ^R1/ → /ʔuʔ^R2 ʔepiʔ^R1 /
hit I hit Refl
‘I hit myself.’

/mak^R1/ → /miʔ^R1 makriʔ^R1 /
love you love Refl
‘You love yourself.’

/həm^R1/ → /ʔon^R1 həmrif^R1 /
bath he bath Refl
‘He take his bath.’
2. /-nɪʔ/ a suffix used with a compound noun which has two syllables, each syllable have its own meaning, to mark possession. The suffix /-nɪʔ/ will be added after each syllable of these compounds.

Formula is $N(Sy1 + Sy2) \rightarrow Sy1 + nɪʔ + Sy2 + nɪʔ$.

Example: 

$/məʔkəŋ^R1/ \text{ 'parent'}$

$\rightarrow /məniʔkəŋnɪʔ^R1 \ hər^R1 \ nəŋ^R1 \ məwət^R1 /$

parent Poss go at temple

' my parent go at the temple.'

$/ɔikʔɔŋ^R1/ \text{ 'brother and sister'}$

$\rightarrow /ɔikniʔɔŋnɪʔ^R1 /$

brother and sister Poss

' my brother and my sister.'

$/ɔeptəʔ^R1/ \text{ 'food'}$

$\rightarrow /ɔən^R1 \ səm^R1 \ ɔepnɪʔ təniʔ^R1 /$

he eat food Poss

' He eats his rice and food.'

4.1.2. Compounding

Compounding is composed of two or more free morphemes to form a new lexical item with a single meaning. The meaning of a compound word normally relate to the meaning of each morpheme joining together. There are a large number of compound words in this language. Nouns and verbs are most commonly compounded as: noun – noun compounds, verb – verb compounds, and noun – verb compounds.
4.1.2.1. Noun – noun compounds

Two nouns are compounded resulting in a new meaning in Plang.

Example:

\[ /k\text{turm}^a/ \text{‘stomach’} + /\text{r}\text{ep}^a/ \text{‘rice’} \]
\[ \rightarrow /k\text{turm}\text{r}\text{ep}^a / \text{‘bladder’} \]

\[ /\text{tum}^a / \text{‘water’} + /\text{naj}^a / \text{‘eye’} \]
\[ \rightarrow /\text{tumnaj}^a / \text{‘tears’} \]

\[ /\text{hek}^a / \text{‘hair’} + /\text{m}\text{\text{on}}^a / \text{‘mouth’} \]
\[ \rightarrow /\text{hekmon}^a / \text{‘moustache’} \]

4.1.2.2 Verb – verb compounds

Two verbs are compounded resulting in a new meaning in Plang.

Example:

\[ /\text{som}^a / \text{‘want’} + /\text{lit}^a / \text{‘sleep’} \]
\[ \rightarrow /\text{somlit}^a / \text{‘sleepy.’} \]

\[ /\text{mak}^a / \text{‘like’} + /\text{t}\text{\text{e}}^a / \text{‘eat’} \]
\[ \rightarrow /\text{makte}\text{\text{e}}^a / \text{‘greedy’} \]
4.1.2.3 Noun – verb compounds

A noun and a verb are compounded to create a new noun resulting in a new meaning in Plang.

Example:

/\textit{pap}^{R1}\ /‘binder’ + /\textit{tɛm}^{R1}\ /‘write’

\[ \text{N} \quad \text{V} \]

\[ \rightarrow/\textit{pap}tɛm^{R1}\ /‘notebook.’ \]

/\textit{pap}^{R1}\ /‘binder’ + /\textit{tan}^{R1}\ /‘read’

\[ \text{N} \quad \text{V} \]

\[ \rightarrow/\textit{pap}tan^{R1}\ /‘book’ \]

/\textit{um}^{R1}\ /‘water’ + /\textit{kɛtɛŋ}^{R2}\ /‘big’

\[ \text{N} \quad \text{V} \]

\[ \rightarrow/\textit{um}kɛtɛŋ^{R2}\ /‘river.’ \]

/\textit{um}^{R1}\ /‘water’ + /\textit{ron}^{R1}\ /‘hot’

\[ \text{N} \quad \text{V} \]

\[ \rightarrow/\textit{um}ron^{R1}\ /‘sweat’ \]

4.1.2.4 Three – word compounds

In addition, I found a few three-word compounds. They are N-V-N:

/\textit{pɛj}^{R1}\ /‘man’ + /\textit{pan}^{R1}\ /‘sell’ + /\textit{kʰuʔ}^{R1}\ /‘thing’

\[ \text{N} \quad \text{V} \quad \text{N} \]

\[ \rightarrow/\textit{pɛj}papkʰuʔ^{R1}\ /‘merchant.’ \]
/kʰuʔ R1/ ‘thing’ + /cip R1/ ‘stick’ + /hek R1/ ‘hair’

N V N

/kʰuciphæk R1/ ‘hair accessory’

4.1.3 Reduplication

A reduplication is usually refers to the process of forming a new word by repeating or copying all segments or a certain substring of a given morpheme. (Thomas, 1993).

4.1.3.1 Complete reduplication

A Complete reduplication is to emphasizes the meaning of the root word which can be translated as ‘very’.

Example:

/hen R1/ ‘much’ → /hënhen R1/ ‘very much’

/pʰak R1/ ‘clean’ → /pʰakpʰak R1/ ‘very clean’

4.1.3.2 Semantic reduplication

Semantic reduplications are coordinate compounds whose constituents are similar in meaning.

Example:

/kərak R1/ ‘to grow up (man)’ + /kəɾeʔ R1/ ‘to grow up (plant)

→/kərakkəɾeʔ R1/ ‘to establish oneself’

/məhrıt R1/ ‘ancient’ + /məhran R1/ ‘previous time’

→/məhrıt məhran R1/ ‘former time’

/tamʔoʔ R1/ ‘here(place)’ + /tamʔeʔ R1/ ‘there(place)’

→/tamʔoʔtamʔeʔ R1/ ‘every where’
4.1.4 Onomatopoeia

Many onomatopoeia words are reduplicated. Others may be repeated two or three times. These onomatopoeic words are individual sound symbolism.

/ʔuʔ ʔuʔ /\^{R1}   ‘gibbon’

/mew mew /\^{R1}   ‘cat’

/kuk kuk /\^{R1}   ‘cock, hen’

/kap kap /\^{R1}   ‘duck’

/put put /\^{R1}   ‘pig’

/ciʔ ciʔ /   ‘house lizard’

/høŋ høŋ /\^{R1}   ‘dog’

/hιʔ hιʔ /\^{R1}   ‘horse’

/ʔεʔ ʔεʔ /\^{R1}   ‘buffalo’

4.2 Word classes

Words may be divided into the following classes according to their functions: noun, pronoun, demonstrative, quantifier, classifier, preposition, conjunction, auxiliary, verb, adverbial, question word, intensifier and final particle.

4.2.1 Noun

Nouns function in the head position of noun phrases. A noun may be simple, consisting of a single word, which may have one or two morphemes. If they consist of two morphemes, neither of the morphemes can stand alone as the head. Some nouns may be compound, consisting of two or more words, each of which can stand alone in the noun head position. It may or may not have the same meaning as the whole compound unit.
Example:

A) Simple noun with one morpheme.

/пит\textsuperscript{R1}/ 'pencil, pen'

/ти\textsuperscript{R1}/ 'hand'

/мир\textsuperscript{R1}/ 'field'

/ра\textsuperscript{R1}/ 'tooth'

/ла\textsuperscript{R1}/ 'tea'

/жук\textsuperscript{R1}/ 'ear'

B) Simple noun with two morphemes.

/сета\textsuperscript{R1}/ 'eyebrow'

/катам\textsuperscript{R1}/ 'crab'

/аса\textsuperscript{R1}/ 'basket'

/саму\textsuperscript{R1}/ 'rock'

/sek\textsuperscript{R1}/ 'shell'

/лафух\textsuperscript{R1}/ 'fat'

4.2.2 Pronoun

Pronouns function in the head position of a pronoun phrase. Pronouns in Plang are divided into four major groups: personal, possessive, relative and demonstrative pronouns.
A) Personal Pronoun

This class is divided into categories as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>First person pron</th>
<th>Second person pron</th>
<th>Third person pron</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dual</td>
<td>?i?R1</td>
<td>pi?R1</td>
<td>le?enR1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td>le?uR2</td>
<td>lemi?R1</td>
<td>le?a?R1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11: Personal Pronoun

- First personal pronouns
  / ?u?R2 / 'I' used as the first person singular pronoun and normally occurs in the subject or object position.

- / ?i?R1 / 'we, (two)' used as the first person dual pronoun and normally occurs in the subject or object position.

- / le?uR2 / 'we, (all)' used as the first person plural pronoun and normally occurs in the subject or object position.

Examples: / ?u?R2 sumR1 sakR1 ?etR1 /

  I eat full already
  'I'm full.'

/ ?i?R1 taR1 herR1 sumR1 majR1 ?enR1 /

  we must go eat with he
  'We, (two) must go to eat with him.'
\[ / \text{le?u}^{R2} \text{e?w}^{R1} \text{na}^{R1} / \]
we,(all) look for house
‘We,(all) look for the house.’

- Second personal pronouns

\[ / \text{mi}^{R1} / \text{‘you’ used as the second person singular pronoun} \]
and normally occurs in the subject or object position.

\[ / \text{pi}^{R1} / \text{‘you(two)’ used as the second person dual pronoun} \]
and normally occurs in the subject or object position.

\[ / \text{l?mi}^{R1} / \text{‘you(all)’ used as the second person plural pronoun} \]
and normally occurs in the subject or object position.

Example:

\[ / \text{mi}^{R1} \text{ja}^{R1} \text{sum}^{R1} \text{ka}^{R1} / \]
you still eat Qfp
‘Are you still eating?’

\[ / \text{pi}^{R1} \text{mak}^{R1} \text{?u}^{R2} / \]
you(two) love I
‘You(two) love me’

\[ / \text{l?mi}^{R1} \text{nuh}^{R1} \text{k?n?}^{R1} / \]
you(all) do what
‘What are all of you doing?’

\[ / \text{le}^{R1} \text{sum}^{R1} \text{maj}^{R1} \text{pi}^{R1} / \]
go out eat with you(two)
‘(I) go out to eat with you(two).’
/\textit{maken}^{R1} \textit{cah}^{R2} \textit{tom}^{R1} \textit{lemi}^{R1}/

parent usually teach you,(all)

'The parents usually teach all of you'

- Third personal pronouns

/\textit{en}^{R1}/ 'he', a third person singular pronoun and normally occurs in the subject and object position.

/\textit{a?}^{R1}/ 'it', a third singular pronoun (used with things or animals) occurs in the subject and object position.

/\textit{en}^{R1}/ 'they', a third person and plural pronoun and normally occurs in the subject and object position

/\textit{a?}\textit{af}^{R1}/ 'they', a third and plural pronoun (used with things or animals) occurs in the subject and object position.

Examples: /\textit{en}^{R1} \textit{en}^{R1} \textit{meh}^{R1} \textit{pej}^{R2} \textit{calit}^{R1}/

he not be man good

'He is not a good man'

/\textit{en}^{R1} \textit{kah}^{R2} \textit{u?}^{R2} \textit{me}^{R1} \textit{mej}^{R1}/

they give I name Miej

'They named me Miej.'

/\textit{u?}^{R2} \textit{nu}^{R1} \textit{en}^{R1} \textit{pej}^{R1}/

I saw they run

'I saw them run'

/\textit{te}\textit{?}^{R1} \textit{en}^{R1} \textit{nsem}^{R1} \textit{a?}^{R1}/

bring come plant it

'Bring it to plant.'
/ταφί / μελ / θωσια/  
it be dog
'It is a dog.'

/λεγαρι / μελ / θωσια/  
they be toy
'They are toys.'

B) Relative Pronouns
Relative pronouns function as pronouns and as relaters in relative clauses.

/ki / ‘who’ used as a relative pronoun relating to the singular and plural personal.

/κρυ / ‘which’ used as a relative pronoun relating to things and animals.

Examples: /μα / ki / θων / ιν / θωσια / μελ / ιν / θαζαν /  
mother who bathe child Poss be teacher
'Mother who bathes her child, is a teacher.

/κοντο / κρυ / μελ / θωσια / μελ / θωσια / μελ / ιν / 
dog which be of I die
'The dog which is mine, died.'

C) Demonstrative pronouns
Demonstrative pronouns occur as head of noun phrase. They can also stand alone referring to the whole noun phrase.

/τεν / ‘this’

/τεν / ‘that’
Examples:

/ ?uʔ R2 sum R1 ?en R1 maj R1 ?ep R1 /

I eat this with rice
‘I eat this with rice.’

/ ?on R1 meh R1 khɔʔ R1 ?uʔ R2 /

that be of I
‘That is mine.’

4.2.3 Demonstrative

Demonstratives function in the demonstrative position of a noun or pronoun phrase. They can also function in a location position of peripheral clause elements. These demonstratives are:

/ ?en R1 / ‘this’
/ teʔ R1 / ‘this’ (farther than / ?en R1 /)
/ ?on R1 / ‘that’
/ toʔ R1 / ‘that’ (farther than / ?on R1 /)

Example

/ naʔ R1 ?en R1 meh R1 khɔʔ R1 naʔ R1 ?uʔ R2 /

house this be of house I
‘This house is mine.’

/ ?uʔ R2 muk R1 naʔ R1 naʔ R1 teʔ R1 /

I stay in house that
‘I stay in that house.’
\[/\text{mar}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{on}}}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{u}}}^{R2} \text{\textcircled{\text{kah}}}^{R2} \text{\textcircled{\text{nri}}}^{R1} /\]

farm that I give my sister

'That farm, I give to my sister.'

\[/\text{\textcircled{\text{on}}}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{sum}}}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{ep}}}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{na}}}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{hr}}}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{r}}}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{to}}}^{R1} /\]

he eat rice at forest that

'He eats some rice at that forest.'

4.2.4 Quantifier

Quantifiers function in the quantity slot of a noun phrase. They are sub-classified into numerals and non-specific numbers.

4.2.4.1 Numerals

In Plang, the researcher found only cardinal numbers one – nine, and other numbers used in this language are loan words from Thai, such as:

\[/\text{\textcircled{\text{et}}}^{R2} /\]

'one'

\[/\text{la}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{ar}}} /\]

'two'

\[/\text{la}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{or}}} /\]

'three'

\[/\text{lapun}^{R1} /\]

'four'

\[/\text{lap}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{on}}} /\]

'five'

\[/\text{le}^{R1} /\]

'six'

\[/\text{har}^{R1} /\]

'seven'

\[/\text{sat}^{R1} /\]

'eight'

\[/\text{sa}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{im}}} /\]

'nine'

\[/\text{si} /\]

'ten'

\[/\text{sip}^{R1} \text{\textcircled{\text{son}}} /\]

'twelve'
/saw/  ‘twenty’
/samsip/  ‘thirty’
/sɔŋroj/  ‘two hundred’

4.2.4.2 Non-specific Numbers
Non-specific numbers include:
/hənənR1/  ‘many’
/kʰrumR1/  ‘a half’
/ŋoncuR1/  ‘some’
/paniR1/  ‘a little’
/?etcumR1/  ‘all of’

Examples:
/ʔerR1  hənənR1/  
  -  chicken  many
  ‘Many chickens’

/laʔR1  kətiʔR2  cumR1  kʰrumR1/  
tea  one  cup  half
  ‘A cup of tea and a half.’

/kujR1  ʔəpR1  ŋoncuR1/  
have  rice  some
  ‘There is some rice’

/kujR1  sirR1  panitR1/  
have  gold  little
  ‘There is a little bit of gold’
4.2.5 Classifiers

Classifiers function in the classification slot of a noun phrase. They are normally used to identify the shape and the size of nouns.

The researcher found that most of the classifiers in Plang language resemble Thai classifiers. They may be the Thai loan words and also the invitation of Thai Noun phrase structure.

There are three types of classifiers: regular classifiers, self – classifiers, and measure classifiers.

a) Regular classifiers are general classifiers which are frequently used. Regular classifiers include:

/laŋ R1/ used for houses or huts.

/tɔŋ R1/ used for plants or trees.

/tuʔ R1/ used for animal.

Example:

/naʔ R1 kətiʔ R2 laŋ R1/

‘one house’

/kelŋmkuʔ R1 kətiʔ R2 tɔŋ R1/

‘one tree.’

/konsuʔ R1 kətiʔ R2 tuʔ R1/

‘one dog.’
b) Self-classifiers are a set of nouns used to classify themselves.

Self-classifiers include:

\(/ \text{ni} \text{ʔ}^\text{R1}/\) ‘day’ used for day

\(/ \text{chি} \text{ʔ}^\text{R1}/\) ‘month’ used for month

\(/ \text{ne} \text{m}^\text{R1}/\) ‘year’ used for year

\(/ \text{pe} \text{ж}^\text{R1}/\) ‘person’ used for person

\(/ \text{cu} \text{м}^\text{R1}/\) ‘cup’ used for a cup

\(/ \text{krо} \text{ж}^\text{R1}/\) ‘bowl’ used for a bowl

Example:

\(/ \text{kети}^\text{R2} \text{ni} \text{ʔ}^\text{R1}/\)

one day

‘one day.’

\(/ \text{tu}^\text{R2} \text{мuk}^\text{R1} \text{na} \text{j}^\text{R1} \text{pри} \text{i}^\text{R1} \text{kети}^\text{R2} \text{chи} \text{ʔ}^\text{R1}/\)

I stay in forest one month

‘I stayed in the forest for one month.’

\(/ \text{mi} \text{ʔ}^\text{R1} \text{мuk}^\text{R1} \text{na} \text{j}^\text{R1} \text{lu} \text{р}^\text{R1} \text{фор}^\text{R1} \text{ne} \text{m}^\text{R1}/\)

you stay in Sipsongpanna three year

‘You stayed at Sipsongpanna for three years.’

\(/ \text{ту}^\text{R2} \text{kuj}^\text{R1} \text{кон}^\text{R1} \text{фal}^\text{R1} \text{pe} \text{ж}^\text{R1}/\)

I have child two person

‘I have two children.’

\(/ \text{la} \text{ʔ}^\text{R1} \text{kети}^\text{R2} \text{cu} \text{м}^\text{R1}/\)

tea one cup

‘one cup of tea.’
/ʔum R^1 /kətิ^R^2/ kroŋ R^1 /
water one bowl
‘one bowl of water.’

C) Measure classifiers

Measure classifiers are used to indicate the size, weight of the thing.

Measure classifiers include:

/ sэwak R^1 / ‘two palms’ used for a unit of capacity equivalent to two palms of the hand.

/calо̌ R^1 / ‘kilogram’ used for a unit of capacity equivalent to one kilogram.

/mat R^1 / ‘package’ used for numerical designation for package.

/tаŋ R^1 / ‘twenty litres’ used for a container which its capacity equivalent to twenty litres.

Example: /pэjuŋ R^1 /kətิ^R^2/ sэwak R^1 /
cinders one two palms
‘A palm of the hand of cinders.’

/ʔuŋ R^2 /wiʔ R^1 pøn R^1 kətิ^R^2/ calо̌ R^1 /
I buy meat one kilogram
‘I bought one kilogram of meat.’

/cɪh R^1 kətิ^R^2/ mat R^1 /salt one package
‘one package of salt.’
/κετίφιο / κετίφιον ταν /
soil one 20 litres
'twenty litres of soil.'

4.2.6 Preposition

Prepositions function in the relater position of a prepositional phrase.

Preposition are:

/ναι / 'in, on, at'

/laktεm / 'under'

/lakŋα / 'in front of'

/lakτυ / 'at the back of'

Examples:

/ων μυκ ναιν ναιν /

He stay in house

'He stays in the house.'

/konsυ / μυκ / laktεm / pantεm /
dog stay under chair

'The dog stays under the chair.'

/ων hερ / lakŋα / τυ /
he go in front of I

'He walks in front of me'

/lakτυ / na /
back house

'At the back of a house'
4.2.7 Conjunctions

Conjunctions function in the linkage position of an additive complex nominal phrase, verb phrase and clause. The conjunction are:

/ majR1 /  ‘with, and’
/cuR1 /  ‘or’
/ʔetletR1 /  ‘and then’
/letR1 /  ‘then’
/juʔR1 /  ‘if’
/saktaʔR1/  ‘although’
/makkʰoʔR1 /  ‘until’
/rotleʔR1/  ‘until’
/maklet/  ‘since’
/koʔR1 /  ‘so’
/teʔR1 /  ‘but’
/hatjuʔR1 /  ‘even if’
/kasəʔR1/  ‘however’
/maj...pərəʔR1 /  ‘with...too’

Example:

/ hatjuʔR1 ʔənR1 hukR1 rahR1 thəmR1 .../

‘Even if he go up steal again’

/ saktaʔR1 ʔənR1 jəmR1 puʔR2 ʔonR1 namR1 /

‘Although he die I not cry’
/ʔuʔ R2 sɛtʌŋ R1 tɛʔ R1 ʔon R1 ʔit R1 /

I try but not slept
'I'm trying but I haven't slept yet.'

/ʔiʔ R1 ʔeʔ R1 ɬikrɛʔ R1 kɛʔ R1 ʔiʔ R1 naŋ R2 ponriʔ R1 /

we feed pig Poss so we will meat Poss
'We feed our pig, so we will eat our meat.'

/ɾotlɛʔ R1 nɛm R1 laŋhoŋ R1 ʔeʔ R1 naŋ R2 taŋniʔ R1 kʊt R1 ʔaʔ R1 /

until month five person will begin watch it
'Until the fifth month, the person will begin to watch it.'

/hoʔ R1 ʔaʔ R1 mɛkhoʔ R1 hoʔ R1 ʔet R1 /

dry it until dry already
'Dry it, until it becomes dry.'

/kasəʔ R1 mɛkɛn R1 khoʔ R1 ʔiʔ R1 caŋ R1 lah R1 ʔiʔ R1 ɬɛn R1 /

however parent of we usually say we Fp
'However our parent usually say to us.'

4.2.8 Auxiliaries

Auxiliaries are words which function in the pre-verbal position of an active verb phrase but some of them function both in the pre-verbal position and in the main verb position of the phrase. Modal auxiliaries can be functionally divided into two subclasses:

1. Auxiliaries function only in the pre-verbal position of a verb phrase.

/jaŋ R1 /

'still, remain'

/naŋ R2 /

'will'
/ tə́2R1/ 'must'
/ pong2R1/ 'may'
/ caŋR1/ 'can'
/ łónR1/ 'used to'
/ ṭə́nR1/ 'not'

Example: / ṭə́nR2 pongR1 jəŋR1 ṭə́nR1 sumR1 /

Aux MV
I not still drink water
'I still have not drunk some water.'

/ ṭə́nR1 naŋR2 sumR1 ʔəpR1 /

Aux MV
he will eat rice
'He will eat some rice.'

/ ti2R1 taŋR1 sumR1 ʔəpR1 ʔənlo2R1 /

Aux MV
we must eat rice now
'We must eat some rice, now.'

/ ṭu2R2 pong2R1 ʔərR1 maŋR1 ṭə́nR1 /

Aux MV
I may go with he
'I may go with you.'
'ʔuʔ₂⁴ can₁⁴ ɲuh₁⁴ ɲɔŋ₁⁴ naŋ₁⁴ 男神₁⁴ /

Aux  MV

I can do work at field

'I can work at the field.'

'mif₁⁴ lon₁⁴ kʰrep₁⁴ ʔen₁⁴ /

Aux  MV

you used to see him

'You used to see him.'

2. Auxiliaries function both in the pre-verbal position and in the main verb position of a phrase.

/ pun₁⁴/  'get, have an opportunity'

/ som₁⁴/  'like'

Example:  /ʔuʔ₂⁴ pun₁⁴ ɲɔŋ₁⁴ naŋ₁⁴ 男神₁⁴ /

I get work at field

Aux  MV

'I got a job at the field.'

/ mif₁⁴ som₁⁴ ʔit₁⁴ hɛn₁⁴ hɛn₁⁴ /

Aux  MV

you like sleep much much

'You like to sleep very much.'
In addition, these two subtypes of auxiliaries can occur together in the same verb phrase.

Example: \( / \text{ʔən}^{R_1} \ \text{kon}^{R_2} \ \text{naŋ}^{R_2} \ \text{ʔəŋ}^{R_1} / \)

he  being  will  come
Aux  Aux  MV

‘He is going to come.’

\( / \text{ʔon}^{R_2} \ \text{ʔon}^{R_1} \ \text{caŋ}^{R_1} \ \text{phaŋ}^{R_1} \ \text{phaŋ}^{R_1} / \)

Aux  Aux  MV

I  not  can  speak  Phang

‘I still do not to speak Phang.’

4.2.9 Verbs

Verbs are words which describe the action or state of the actor. They function in the main verb position of the verb phrase.

According to their functional restrictions they may be divided into 13 subclasses.

1. Transitives: Transitive verbs are main verbs which fill the main verb slot of transitive clauses. These verbs are:

\( / \text{sum}^{R_1} / \ ‘\text{eat (rice)}’ \quad / \text{pon}^{R_1} / \ ‘\text{eat (meat)}’ \)

\( / \text{mon}^{R_1} / \ ‘\text{eat (desert)}’ \quad / \text{nop}^{R_1} / \ ‘\text{eat (liquid)}’ \)

\( / \text{phraŋ}^{R_1} / \ ‘\text{eat (used with monk)}’ \)

\( / \text{nul}^{R_1} / \ ‘\text{do}’ \quad / \text{pəŋ}^{R_1} / \ ‘\text{hit}’ \)

2. Intransitives: Intransitive verbs are main verbs which fill the main verb slot of intransitive clauses. These verbs are:

\( / \text{muk}^{R_1} / \ ‘\text{sit}’ \quad / \text{jokcon}^{R_1} / \ ‘\text{stand}’ \)

\( / \text{fit}^{R_1} / \ ‘\text{sleep}’ \quad / \text{jem}^{R_1} / \ ‘\text{die}’ \)
3. Bitransitives: Bitransitive verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of bitransitive clauses. These verbs are:

/𝑘𝑎.navigate/ ‘give’ /𝑝𝑎.navigate/ ‘sell’

/ʔ𝑒.navigate/ ‘feed’ /𝑝𝑟.navigate/ ‘build’

4. Descriptives: Descriptive verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of the adjectival verb phrase in descriptive clauses. They can function as an adjective modifying a noun. These verbs are:

/𝑝𝑎.navigate/ ‘white’ /𝑘𝑒.navigate/ ‘big’ /ʔ𝑒.navigate/ ‘small’

/ɳ.navigate/ ‘beautiful’ /𝑐𝑎.navigate/ ‘good’

5. Equational: Equational verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of copula verb phrases in equational clauses, only one equational clause has been found /𝑚.navigate/ ‘be’.

6. Motion: Motion verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of motion clauses. Motion verbs show movements of the actors from one place to another. These verbs are:

/ʔ.navigate/ ‘to come’ /ℎ.navigate/ ‘to go, to walk’

/ɲ.navigate/ ‘to run’ /𝑝.navigate/ ‘to fly’

/ɾ.navigate/ ‘to arrive’ /ℎ.navigate/ ‘to go up’

7. Quotatives: Quotative verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of quotative clauses. Only one quotative verb has been found: /𝑙.navigate/ ‘say, tell, suggest, ask’

8. Ambient: Ambient verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of ambient clauses. These verbs are:

/ɾ.navigate/ ‘hot’ /ℎ.navigate/ ‘cold’

/𝑙.navigate/ ‘raining’ /𝑙.navigate/ ‘to be over cast’

9. Existives: Existive verbs fill the main verb slot of existence clauses. Only one existive verb has been found: /ʔ.navigate/ ‘have’
10. Possessive: Possessive verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of possessive clauses. Only one possessive verb has been found:
/kʰɔʔ R¹/ ‘of’

11. Cognitives: Cognitive verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of cognitive clauses. These verbs are:
/nɔŋ R¹/ ‘know’   /nam R¹/ ‘cry’   /mɔŋ R¹/ ‘hear’
/nuʔ R¹/ ‘see’    /pɪr R¹/ ‘forget’

12. Evaluation: Evaluation verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of evaluation clauses. Only one evaluation verb has been found:
/kʰaw R¹/ ‘amount, cost’.

13. Comparative: Comparative verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of comparative clause. Only one comparative verb has been found:
/seŋ R¹/ ‘same as’, /ləʔ R¹/ ‘than’ /palaparuʔ R¹/ ‘the most’

4.2.10 Adverb

Adverbs are words which occur as attributes of a preceding verb and of an entire predication.

They may be semantically divided into 5 subclasses

4.2.10.1 Adverbs of manner.

They show the manner of the action. They occur after main verb position. Some members are:
/wəŋ R¹/ ‘quickly’
/kəŋ R¹/ ‘slowly’
/loŋ/ ‘highly’
Example.

/ʔuʔ R2 pəj R2 wəj R1/
I run quick
'I run quickly'

/ʔən R1 her R1 kəj R1/
he go slow
'He goes slowly.'

/ʔən R1 məh R1 pəj R1 lən R1/
he be man high
'He is a tall man.'

4.2.10.2 Adverbs of Frequency
They show the frequency of the action.
Adverbs of frequency occur before main verb position:
/caŋ R2/ 'usually'

Adverbs of frequency occur after main verb position:
/ʔwənʔiʔ R1/ 'every day'
/ʔwən nəmpor R1/ 'every evening'
/əmŋon R1/ 'sometime'

Example:

/ʔən R1 caŋ R2 lah R1 ʔiʔ R1/
he usually tell we
'He usually tell us.'
/ʔwtniʔ R1 leʔen R1 her R1 naŋ R1 malriʔ R1/

everyday they go at their farm

'Everyday, they go at their farm.'

4.2.10.3 Adverbs of Location

They show the location where the action occurs. They occur after main verb position. Some members are:

/ʔoʔ R1/  ‘here’

/ʔeʔ R1/  ‘there’

Example:

/ʔen R1 muk R1 ʔoʔ R1/

he sit here

'He sits here.'

/

/ʔuʔ R2 her R1 ʔeʔ R1 maj R1 marif R1/

I go there with my mother

'I go there with my mother.'

4.2.10.4 Adverbs of time

They show the time when the action occurs. They occurs before or after main verb.

/panloʔ R1/  ‘in a few minutes’

/pansaʔ R1/  ‘tomorrow’

/næmkusəʔ R1/  ‘yesterday’

/ʔasəʔ R1/  ‘the other day’

/soʔ R1/  ‘the day before yesterday’
Example:

/panlo?R1 nœcR1 ʔa?R1 kešitR1/  
‘In a few minutes, massage it like this.’

/panṣa?R1 ʔu?R2 naŋR2 teʔR1 hoκR1/  
‘Tomorrow, I will bring dry.’

/nœmkusuʔanŋR1 miʔR1 kahR2 ʔeŋR1 ʔuʔR2/  
‘Yesterday, you gave me rice.’

/leʔenR1 hœrR1 naŋR1 marR1 ʔasanoʔR1/  
‘They will go to the farm in the future.’

/ʔenR1 ʔeŋR1 naŋR1 naʔR1 ʔonnaʔR1/  
‘He went to the house the day before yesterday.’

4.2.11 Question word

Question words are used in content participant questions when one or more participants in an action are unknown. In addition, they are used in content relationship questions when the relationship between actions is unknown. These question words include:

/kanoʔR1/ ‘what’ /naŋnuʔR1/ ‘where’

/nœmuʔnɔʔR1/ ‘when’ /ʔanɔʔR1/ ‘who’

/sanɔʔR1/ ‘how’ /puʔliʔR1/ ‘why’
Example.

/ʔen\textsuperscript{R1} nuh\textsuperscript{R1} kano\textsuperscript{R1} naŋ\textsuperscript{R1} mər\textsuperscript{R1}/

he do what at filed

“What is he going to do at the field?”

/ʔen\textsuperscript{R1} ʔen\textsuperscript{R1} nəmno\textsuperscript{R1}/

he come when

“When did he come?”

/naʔ\textsuperscript{R1} mîʔ\textsuperscript{R1} muk\textsuperscript{R1} naŋŋo\textsuperscript{R1}/

house you stay where

“Where is your house?”

/ano\textsuperscript{R1} ʔen\textsuperscript{R1} naʔ\textsuperscript{R1}/

who come house

“Who comes to the house?”

/nuːliʔ\textsuperscript{R1} ʔen\textsuperscript{R1} ʔon\textsuperscript{R1} ʔen\textsuperscript{R1} naŋ\textsuperscript{R1} məŋtʰəj\textsuperscript{R1}/

why they not come at Thailand

“Why didn’t they come to Thailand?”

4.2.12 Intensifier

Intensification is used to show a higher degree or to emphasize some thing. It is manifested by intensifier words and a strong stress. In this language the researcher found only one intensifier word /mɔt\textsuperscript{R1}/ ‘very’.

Example:

/ʔen\textsuperscript{R1} sum kəj\textsuperscript{R1} mɔt\textsuperscript{R1}/

he eat slow very

“He eats very slowly.”
/miığ R1 pəj R1 wəj R1 mot R1/
you run quick very
‘You run very quickly.’

In addition, the reduplication descriptive verbs are often used to show intensification. The high - rising pitch is used with the second adverb or descriptive verb.

/ηam R1 ηam R1/
beautiful beautiful
‘very beautiful’

/sam R1 wəj R1 wəj R1/
eat quick quick
‘Eat very quickly.’

4.2.13 Final particle

Final particles function in the final position of the clause. It is difficult to find a single unifying semantic factor among the various final particles. The meanings include affirmation and interrogation.

The final particles, which have been found, are:

/jo2 R1/ ‘already’

/najo2 R1/ ‘already’

/po2 R1/ ‘request particle’

/təpo2 R1/ ‘request particle’

/heț R1/ ‘invite particle’

/nø2 R1/ ‘invite or imperative particle’

/nɔ2 R1/ ‘ask permission particle.’

/na2 R1/ ‘ask permission or imperative particle.’

/so2 R1/ ‘imperative particle.’
/seʔ R1/  'imperative particle.'
/jën R1/  'imperative particle.'
/ʔajən R1/  'imperative or emphasis particle.'
/lekaʔ R1/  'imperative particle.'
/mañ R1/  'suspect particle.'

Example:  /kuj R1  konsuʔ R1  hareh R1  tuʔ R1  joʔ R1/
          have    dog    seven    body    Fp
            '(I) have seven dogs.'

/num R1  ʔajɛm R1/
delicious    Fp
            'Delicious.'

/ʔen R1  sum R1  -kʰəm R1  həʔ R1/
come    eat    together    Fp
            'Come to eat together.'

/muk R1  jën R1/
sit    Fp
            'Sit.'

/ŋəʔ R1  laʔ R1  poʔ R1/
drink    tea    Fp
            'Drink tea please.'

/nəmkusanən R1  seʔ R1/
previous day    Fp
            'At the previous day.'
"It is still very long."

"Our parents usually teach us."
CHAPTER V
PHRASES AND CLAUSES

5.1 Phrase
Phrases normally function as elements in a clause. They may be embedded or used as an independently higher rank.

Structurally and functionally, phrases in Plang may be divided into nominal phrases, verb phrases, prepositional phrases and adverb phrases.

5.1.1 Nominal phrase
Nominal phrases function in the subject, object and item position in a clause, in the head position in a prepositional phrase and in the possessor position in an expanded nominal phrase.

Structurally nominal phrases may be divided into noun phrases, pronoun phrases, additive complex nominal phrases, and appositional complex nominal phrases. These differ from each other in their head items, in their elements, and in their transformation potential.

5.1.1.1 Active noun phrase
The elements of the noun phrases are:
Active noun phrase = + H: N ± Mod : Adj. ± Qt: (Nu ± Clas) ± Poss:(N / Pron + Poss Mk ) ± D: Dem

That is, an obligatory head positions filled by a noun. An optional modifier position is filled by an adj. An optional quantity position is filled by a numeral, and a classifier. An optional possessor position is filled by a noun or pronoun plus a possessive marker, and an optional demonstrative position is filled by a demonstrative.

A restriction on the co-occurrence of adjective modifying a noun. An adjective modifying will occur in the utterance and is optional with quantity,
possessor and/or demonstrative. But if adjective modifying occurs in the final position of the utterance it will function as a descriptive verb.

The normal order of the noun phrase is:

H – Mod – Qt – Poss – Dem

1. / ɲaʔ¹ /

house
H
‘The house’

2. / kɔŋlik¹ ɲaŋ² ʔon¹ /

pig white that
H Mod Dem
‘That white pig’

3. / ɲaʔ¹ kɛtɛŋ² ɬəpun¹ ɬaŋ¹ /

house big four Clas
H Mod Qt
‘The four big houses.’

4. / kɔnʃuʔ¹ ɬon¹ ʔuʔriʔ² /

dog black mine
H Mod Poss
‘My black dog.’

5. / ɲaʔ¹ ɲaŋ² ɬaʔor¹ ɬaŋ¹ ʔuʔriʔ² ʔon¹ /

house white three Clas mine that
H Mod Qt Poss Dem
‘That, my white house.’
The modifier, quantity and possessor can change position with each other

6. / naʔ R1 kətən R2 ləʔor R1 ləŋ R1 ʔuʔriʔ R2 /
   house big three Clas mine
   H Mod Qt Poss
   ‘My three big houses.’

→ / naʔ R1 kətən R2 ʔuʔriʔ R2 ləʔor R1 ləŋ R1 /
   house big mine three Clas
   H Mod Poss Qt
   ‘My three big house.’

5.1.1.2 Pronoun phrase

The elements of a pronoun phrase are:

Pronoun phrase = + H : Pron ± Qt : { Nu Nu + Clas } ± D : Dem

That is, an obligatory head position is filled by a pronoun. An optional quantity position is filled by a numeral or a numeral plus a classifier. And an optional demonstrative position is filled by a demonstrative.

The normal order of the elements is H – Qt – Dem

1. / ʔiʔ R1 /

   we
   H
   ‘we’

2. / ʔuʔ R2 muk R1 naŋ R1 naʔ R1 /

   I (stay at home)
   H
   ‘I (stay at home).’
3. / ləmiʔ R₁ sum R₁ ʔəp R₁ /
   you, all   ( eat  rice )
   H
   'All of you eat rice.'

4. / ʔiʔ R₁ satim R₁ tuʔ R₁ /
   we    nine  Clas
   H    Qt
   'Nine of us.'

5. / ʔiʔ R₁ ʔətcum R₁ ʔon R₁ meh R₁ plan R₁ /
   we    all of  that  ( be  Plang )
   H    Qt    Dem
   'Those, all of us (are Plang).'

5.1.1.3 Numeral phrase

A numeral phrase occurs in the quantity position of an evaluation clause. It also occurs in the quantity position of a noun or pronoun phrase. The elements of a numeral phrase are:

\[
\text{Numeral Phrase} = \pm \left\{ \begin{array}{c}
   \text{k}^h \text{aw} \\
   \text{H : Nu + Clas} \\
   \pm \left\{ \begin{array}{c}
   \text{kwa}^2 \text{R₁} \\
   \text{k}^h \text{rωŋ} \text{R₁}
   \end{array} \right. \right\}
\right\}
\]

That is, the optional / k^h aw R₁ / 'amount', an obligatory quantity filled by numeral plus an optional classifier. And plus an optional / kwa^2 R₁ / 'more' or / k^h rωŋ R₁ / 'half'.

/kwa^2 R₁ / and / k^h rωŋ R₁ / shows an approximate figure, and it seem to be a Thai loan word.

The normal order of the elements is:

\[
\left\{ \begin{array}{c}
   \text{k}^h \text{aw} \\
   \text{H - Clas -} \\
   \pm \left\{ \begin{array}{c}
   \text{kwa}^2 \text{R₁} \\
   \text{k}^h \text{rωŋ} \text{R₁}
   \end{array} \right. \right\}
\right\}
\]
1. / (laʔ) R I laʔar R I cum R I kʰəŋ R I / (tea) two cup half H

‘Two and a half cups.’

2. / (ʔep) R I leʔor R I sewak R I kwaʔ R I / (rice) two hand than H

‘More than two palms of rice.’

3. / (kənlik) R I kʰaw R I teʔ R I caloʔ R I / (pig) amount one kilogram H

‘A pig weight about one kilogram’

4. / cih R I kʰaw R I leʔor R I mat R I kwaʔ R I / salt amount three bundles more H

‘More than three bundles of salt (but less than four).’

5.1.1.4 Additive Complex nominal phrase

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

The elements of the additive complex nominal phrase are:
Additive Complex nominal phrase = ± 11 : Np + Conj. : / maʔ R I/ + 12 : Np

That is, an obligatory Item 1 position is filled by a nominal phrase. An obligatory conjunction position is filled by a / maʔ R I/ ‘and’, and an obligatory Item 2 position is filled by a nominal phrase.
The normal order of the elements is: $I_1 - 	ext{Conj} - I_2$

1. / $mI^R I_1 \text{maj}^R I_1 \text{pu}^R I_2 (m\,\text{meh}^R I_1 \text{pu}^R I_1 \text{pe}^R I_2) /$

   you and I (be friend together)

   $I_1 \text{Conj} I_2$

   ‘You and I (are friends).’

2. / $\text{Daeng}^R I_1 \text{maj}^R I_1 \text{yi}^R I_2 \text{dam}^R I_1 (\text{her}^R I_1 \text{na}^R I_1 \text{mar}^R I_1) /$

   man’s Mk Daeng and women’s Mk Dam (go at field)

   $I_1 \text{Conj} I_2$

   ‘Daeng and Dam (go to the field).’

3. / $mI^R I_1 \text{maj}^R I_1 \text{pu}^R I_2 \text{me}^R I_1 \text{ka}^R I_2 /$

   you and I (to fish fish)

   $I_1 \text{Conj} I_2$

   ‘You and I are fishing.

   If there are more than two items, the linkage / maj$^R I_1 / ‘and’ is normally placed before the last item.

4. / ($\text{pu}^R I_2 \text{mak}^R I_1) \text{lo}^R I_1 \text{um}^R I_1 \text{me}^R I_1 \text{ka}^R I_2$

   (I like) swim water fishing fish

   $I_1 I_2$

   maj$^R I_1 \text{ce}^R I_2 \text{lu}^R I_1 /$

   and saw shirt

   Con$\text{j}_3$

   ‘(I like) swimming, fishing and saw the shirt.’

/ maj$^R I_1 / can also be translated as ‘with’, to indicate an instrument as shown in the following examples.
5. / ʔuʔ R2 sum R1 ʔǝʔ R1 maj R1 con R1 /
   I eat rice with spoon
   ‘I eat rice with a spoon.’

6. / kǝŋ R1 sac R1 maj R1 saŋhék R1 /
   father to comb with comb
   ‘Father combs the hair with a comb.’

5.1.1.5 Appositional complex nominal phrase

Appositional complex nominal phrase consists of two noun phrases which indicate the same thing or the same person.

The elements of the appositional complex nominal phrase are
Appositional complex nominal phrase = + I₁ : Np + I₂ :Np

That is, an obligatory Item₁ position is filled by a nominal phrase and an obligatory Item₂ position filled by another nominal phrase.

The normal order of the elements is : I₁ – I₂

1. / ʔiʔ R1 dǝn R1 ʔǝŋ R1 miʔ R1 (kǝsoʔ R1) /
   woman’s marker Daeng sister you (sick)
   I₁                        I₂
   ‘Daeng, your sister, is sick.’

2. / fa R1 kon R1 ʔuʔ R2 (hǝr R1 naŋ R1 ronrion R1) /
   Fa daughter I (go at school)
   I₁                        I₂
   ‘Fa, my daughter,( went to school).’

3. / ʔok R1 kon R1 ʔǝn R1 (nuh R1 nhom R1 ʔet R1 seʔ R1) /
   Aok child he (do work and Fp)
   I₁                        I₂
   ‘Aok, his child ( worked ).’
4. \[ \text{k\textasciicircum{h}aw}^{R_1} \text{ konsu}\?^{R_1} \text{ ?u}\?^{R_2} (\text{j\textasciimac{em}}^{R_1}) / \]

\[ \text{k\textasciicircum{h}aw} \quad \text{dog} \quad I \quad (\text{die}) \]

\[ I_1 \quad I_2 \]

'Khaw, my dog (died).'

5.1.2 Verb phrase

A verb phrase functions in the predicate position in a clause. The verb phrase consists of a main verb in the head slot and modifying elements.

Structurally verb phrases may be divided into active verb phrases, adjectival verb phrases and copula verb phrases. These differ from each other in their main verb, their potential expansions, and clause types in which they function.

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

\[ \text{Verb phrase} = \pm \text{Pre V} : (\text{Aux1} \pm \text{Aux2}) + \text{MV} : \text{V} \pm \text{Mod} : \text{Adv} \]

That is, an optional pre-verbal position is filled by an auxiliaries1 and/or auxiliaries1. An obligatory main verb position is filled by a verb. And an optional modifier position is filled by an adverb.

5.1.2.1 Active verb phrase

An active verb phrase functions in the predicate position of all clause types except descriptive and equational clauses.

The elements of the active verb phrase are:

\[ \text{Active verb phrase} = \pm \text{Pre V} : (\text{Aux1} \pm \text{Aux2}) + \text{MV} : \text{V} \pm \text{Mod} : \text{Adv} \]

That is, an optional Pre-verbal position is filled by an auxiliaries1 and/or auxiliaries2. An obligatory main verb position is filled by a verb. And an optional modifier position is filled by an adverb.

The normal order of the elements is Pre V - MV - Mod, when a verb filled in the main verb position, the verb phrase can be discontinuous, i.e., the modifier will occur after the object (sec. ex.2)
1. / (ʔuʔ R2) naŋ R2 sum R1 koj R1 /  
   (I) will eat slowly 
   Mod1 MV Mod 
   ‘I will eat slowly.’

2. / (ʔuʔ R2) lɔn R1 neʔ R1 (ʔum R1) hən R1 /  
   (I) used to drink (water) much 
   Mod1 MV Mod 
   ‘I used to drink much water.’

3. / (ʔuʔ R2) təʔ R1 sum R1 ?ət R1 /  
   (I) must eat already 
   Mod1 MV Mod 
   ‘I have to eat.’

4. / ʔuʔ R2 lɔn R1 can R1 puŋ R1 plan R1 /  
   I not can speak Plang 
   Mod1 MV 
   ‘I can not speak Plang.’

5.1.2.2 Adjectival verb phrase
An adjectival verb phrase function in the predicate position of descriptive clauses.

The elements of adjectival verb phrase are:

Adjectival verb phrase = ± Mod1 : (Aux1. ± Aux2 )  
+ MV : V + Mod2 : Adv

That is, an optional modifier1 position is filled by an auxiliaries1 and/or auxiliaries2. An obligatory main verb position is filled by a descriptive verb. And optional modifier2 position is filled by an adverb. The normal order of the elements is : Mod1 – MV – Mod2
1. / ṭuu^R2 lōn^R1 (ʔən^R1) / 
   I   tall   (Fp) 
   MV
   'I'm tall.'

2. / miʔ^R1 ʔon^R1 ʔam^R1 hən^R1 / 
   you not beauty very 
   Mod1 MV Mod2
   'You are not very beautiful.'

3. / kran^R1 hən^R1 hən^R1 / 
   lazy very very 
   MV Mod
   'very lazy.'

5.1.2.3 Equative verb phrase

Equative verb phrase function n the Predicate position of equative clause. The elements of the Copula verb phrase are:

Equative verb phrase = + I1 : Np ± Mod : (Aux1. ± Aux2 ) +MV 
   : Vp Eq + I2 : Np

That is, an obligatory Item1 position is filled by noun phrase. An optional modifier position is filled by an auxiliary1 and/or auxiliaries2. An obligatory main verb position is filled by an equative verb / mən^R1 / 'be'. And optional Item2 position is filled by an noun phrase.

The normal order of the elements is : I₁ – MV – I₂

1. / ṭuu^R2 naŋ^R2 mən^R1 ʔacăn^R1 / 
   I   will be teacher 
   I₁      MV     I₂
   'I will be a teacher.'

2. / naʔ^R1 ʔən^R1 mən^R1 naʔ^R1 ṭuu^R2 / 
   house this be house I 
   I₁      MV     I₂
   'This house is mine.'
3. / ʔaʔ R₁ taʔ R₁ məh R₁ kʊnšuʔ R₁ ʔon R₁ /  
It must be dog that  
I₁ MV I₁  
'It must be that dog.'

5.1.3 Prepositional phrase  
A prepositional phrase functions in the relator position, an object position of clauses, and possessor. The general structure of a prepositional phrase may be diagrammed as: Prepositional phrase = + H : Prep + N : Np  
That is, an obligatory head position is filled by a preposition. An obligatory noun position is filled by a nominal phrase.

The normal order of the elements is: H - N  
1. / (kaʔ R₁ muk R₁) nəj R₁ ?um R₁ /  
(fish stay) in water  
H   N  
'Fish are in the water.'

2. / (ʔakən R₁ hər R₁) nəŋ R₁ pʰriʔ R₁ /  
(father go) at forest  
H   N  
'The father went into the forest.'

3. / (ʔən R₁ muk) tem R₂ kəɬəmkʰuʔ R₁ /  
(he stay) under tree  
H   N  
'He stays under the tree.'

4. / (kənwaʔ R₁ muk R₁) naŋ R₁ kəɬəmkʰuʔ R₁ /  
(monkey stays) at tree  
H   N  
'The monkey stays on the tree.'
5.1.4 Adverb phrase

Adverb phrase functions in the manner position of clauses and also in the modifier function in the verb phrase.

The element of adverb phrase are: Adverb phrase = + H : Adv ± Mod : Inten

That is, an obligatory head position is filled by an adverb
And an optional modifier position is filled by an intensifier. The normal order of the elements is H – Mod

1. / (ʔənRI  pəjR2) wəjRI motRI /
   (he run) quick much
   H Mod

   ‘He runs very quickly.’

2. / (ʔənRI  suR2) hənRI motRI /
   (he eat) much much
   · H Mod

   ‘He eats a lot.’

3. / (ʔuR2  həR) kəjRI motRI /
   (I go) slowly much
   H Mod

   ‘I go very slowly.’

5.2 Clauses

Clauses normally function as elements in a sentence, but may also be embedded in a noun phrase.

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

The structure of a clause may be generally diagrammed as.

\[
\text{Clauses} = \pm S : \text{Np} + P : \text{Vp} \pm \text{IO} : \text{Np} \pm \text{DO} : \text{Np}
\]

That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrases an
obligatory predicate position filled by a verb phrase, an optional indirect object
position filled by a nominal phrase and an optional direct object position filled
by a nominal phrase.

Clause in Plang may be divided in to three types: statement clause, imperative clause and interrogative clause.

5.2.1 Statement clause

Statement clauses function primarily in the nucleus and periphery of
declarative sentences, although they may also function in the periphery of
imperative or interrogative sentences, in the nucleus of sentences, or may be
embedded at other levels. Statement clauses are marked by falling intonation.

Structurally statement clauses may be divided into the following
subtypes: transitive, intransitive, bitransitive, descriptive, equational, motion,
quotative, ambient, existive, possessive, cognitive, evaluation, and comparative.
These subtypes differ from each other in the verb classes which they take, some
of their nuclear slots, some of their peripheral optional, and their transformation
potential.

5.2.1.1 Transitive clause

The elements of transitive clauses are:

\[
\text{Transitive clause} = \pm S : \text{Np} + P : \text{Vp \ Tr} + O : \text{Np} \pm \text{Mod} : \text{Adv}
\]

Loc / Man / Temp

That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrase.
An obligatory predicate position is filled by a transitive verb phrase. An
obligatory object position is filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral, an optional
modifier position is filled by adverbs of location, manner or temporal.
Example:

1. / ?ərɔ? R2 sum R1 ?əp R1 wəj R1 /
   I eat rice quick
   ‘I eat rice quickly.’

2. / ?ən R1 pəm R1 kənsim R1 nəmkuʔsaŋon R1 /
   he shoot bird yesterday
   ‘He shot birds yesterday.’

3. / ?ən R1 met R1 kəʔ R2 /
   he to fish fish
   ‘He is fishing.’

4. / kənsuʔ R1 kək R1 nəmum R1 /
   dog bite child
   ‘A dog bit a child.’

5. / ?ən R1 mak ?ərɔ? R2 palaparuʔ R1 /
   he love I very much
   ‘He loves me very much.’

6. / ?ərɔ? R2 pəʔ R1 miʔ R1 /
   I hit you
   ‘I hit you.’

5.2.1.2 Intransitive clause

The elements of the intransitive clause are:


That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrase and an obligatory predicate position is filled by an intransitive verb phrase. And an optional modifier position is filled by an adverbs of Location, Manner or Temporal.
The normal order of the elements is S-P

1. / ?en\textsuperscript{R1} \textit{?it\textsuperscript{R1} nk\textsuperscript{R1}} /
   he sleep alone
   S P Mod
   ‘He sleeps alone.’

2. / k\textit{on\textsuperscript{R1} kwal\textsuperscript{R1}} /
   dog bark
   S P
   ‘The dog barks.’

3. / ra\textit{n\textsuperscript{R1} kho\textsuperscript{R1} u\textsuperscript{R2} np\textsuperscript{w\textsuperscript{R1}} /
   tooth of I break
   S P
   ‘My tooth has broken.’

The predicate may sometimes be omitted when it is understood from the context.

4. A: / ?an\textsuperscript{R2} ?en\textsuperscript{R1} /
   who come
   ‘Who is coming?’

B: / u\textsuperscript{R2} /
   I
   ‘Me.’

5.2.1.3 Bitransitive Clause

The elements of the bitransitive clause are:

Bitransitive Clause = ± S : Np + P1 : Vp + DO: Np + P2 : Vp \( \{ \text{kah}^{R2} \} \)
+ IO : Np ± P3 : Vp

That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrase an obligatory predicate1 position is filled by a bitransitive verb phrase, an obligatory direct object position is filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory predicate2 position is filled by a bitransitive verb phrase / k\textit{ah}\textsuperscript{R2} / ‘give’, an
obligatory Indirect position is filled by a nominal phrase and an optional predicate position is filled by a verb phrase. Peripheral elements consist of temporal and location.

The normal order of the elements is:

S-P1-DO-P2 \{ / kah^R2 / \} -IO-P3

1. / ?u^R2  lah^R1  2acompaj^R1  kah^R2  mi^R1 /  
   I    tell    story    give    you  
   S     P1    DO    P2    IO  
   'I told the story to you.'

2. / ?u^R2  wi^R1  2ep^R1  kah^R2  ki^R1  sum^R1 /  
   I    buy    rice    give    he    eat  
   S     P1    DO    P2    IO    P3  
   'I bought the rice for him to eat.'

3. / ?en^R1  pu^R1  2ak^hlop^R1  kah^R2  ?u^R2  ?en^R1  mar^R1/  
   he    carry on back    basket    give    I    go    field  
   S     P1    DO    P2    IO    P3  
   'He is carrying the basket for me to go to the field.'

4. / ?u^R2  2ew^R1  mer^R1  kah^R2  mi^R1 /  
   I    find    money    give    you  
   S     P1    DO    P2    IO  
   'I find the money to give to you.'

5. / ?u^R2  kah^R2  kamön^R1  kah^R2  ?en^R1 /  
   I    give    dessert    give    he  
   'I give some dessert to him.'

A restriction on the co-occurrence of elements is that the direct object and indirect object can't switch their positions.
5.2.1.4 Descriptive Clause

The elements of the descriptive clause are:

Descriptive Clause = ± S : Np + P : Vp Des ± Mod : Adv

That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrase and an obligatory predicate position is filled by a descriptive verb phrase. An optional modifier position is filled by an adverb.

The normal order of the elements is: S-P-Mod

1. / mpəŋ $^R_1$  nam $^R_1$  hən $^R_1$ /
   woman  beautiful  very
   S  P  Mod
   ‘The woman is very beautiful.’

2. / naʔ $^R_1$  kətəŋ $^R_2$ /
   house  big
   S  P
   ‘The house is big.’

3. / ʔumkətəŋ $^R_2$  rəʔ $^R_1$  hən $^R_1$ /
   river  deep  very
   S  P
   ‘The river is very deep.’

5.2.1.5 Equational Clause

The elements of the equational clause are:

Equational Clause = + I$_1$ : Np + P : Vp Eq + I$_2$ : Np

That is, an obligatory Item1 position is filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory predicate position is filled by an equational verb phrase and an obligatory Item2 position is filled by a nominal phrase.
The normal order of the elements is I₁-P-I₂

1. / ꞌwuf² ꞌmēh⁵ ꞌplāŋ⁵ /
   I₁ be Plang
   I₁ P I₂
   'I'm Plang.'

2. / ꞌwēn² ꞌmēh⁵ ꞌnum⁵ /
   he be Num
   I₂ P I₂
   'His name is Num.'

3. / ꞌwēn² ꞌmēh⁵ ꞌcaw⁵ ꞌnāŋ² /
   he be owner house
   I₂ P I₂
   'He is the owner of the house.'

5.2.1.6 Motion Clause

The elements of motion clauses are:

Motion Clause = ± S : Np + P : Vp Mot ± Mod : Adv Man or Prep

That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory predicate position is filled by a verb of motion, and an optional modifier position is filled by adverbs of manner or a prepositional phrase.

The normal order of the elements is S - P - Mod

1. / ꞌwuf² ꞌhər⁵ ꞌnāŋ⁵ ꞌsəsəw⁵ /
   I go at school
   S P Mod.
   'I go to school.'

2. / ꞌkēn⁵ ꞌpəj⁵ ꞌwəj⁵ /
   child run quick
   S P Mod
   'The child runs quickly.'
3. / konsimR1 pʰrumR1 wəjR1 motR1 /
   bird fly quick very
   S P Mod
   ‘The bird flew very quickly.’

4. / ?u?R2 naŋR2 hərR1 naŋR1 pʰriʔR1 /
   I will go at forest
   S P Mod
   ‘I will go to the forest.’

5.2.1.7 Quotative Clause

The elements of the Quotative clause are :

Quotative Clause = ± S : Np + P : V Quot + O : Np ± Mod : Adv

That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory predicate position is filled by a quotative verb /lahR1/, an obligatory object position is filled by a nominal phrase, and an optional modifier position is filled by an adverb phrase.

The normal order of the elements is : S – P – O – Mod

1. / ?əŋR1 lahR1 ?u?R2 hərR1 nəmpɔrR1 sənənR1 /
   he tell I go evening today
   S P O Mod
   ‘He told me that I would go tonight.’

2. / mɔʔR1 lahR1 ?əŋR1 ?itR1 hənR1 hənR1 /
   doctor suggest he sleep much much
   S P O Mod
   ‘The doctor suggested that he should sleep a lot,’

3. / ?u?R2 lahR1 ?əŋR1 nɯhR1 nhɔmR1 sənənR1 /
   I say he do work today
   S P O Mod
   ‘I said that he worked today.’
5.2.1.8 Ambient Clause

Ambient clauses refer to the weather.

The elements of the ambient clause are:

\[
\text{Ambient Clause} = \pm S : Np + P : Vp \enspace \text{Amb} \pm \text{Mod} : \text{Adv}
\]

That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrase and an obligatory predicate positions is filled by an ambient verb phrase, that is, \( /\text{li}\text{t}^R_1/ \) ‘rain’, \( /\text{kot}^R_1/ \) ‘cold’ and \( /\text{ron}^R_1/ \) ‘hot’. An optional modifier position is filled by an adverb phrase.

The normal order of the elements is \( S - P - \text{Mod} \)

1. \( /\text{kunt}^h\text{ep}^R_1 \text{ li}\text{t}^R_1 / \)
   
   Bangkok \quad \text{rain}
   
   S \quad P

   ‘It is raining in Bangkok.’

2. \( /\text{kot}^R_1 \text{ kot}^R_1 \text{ sen}\text{en}^R_1 / \)

   wind \quad \text{cold} \quad \text{today}
   
   S \quad P \quad \text{Mod}

   ‘The wind is cool today.’

3. \( /\text{kot}^R_1 \text{ hen}^R_1 / \)

   \text{cold} \quad \text{very}
   
   P \quad \text{Mod}

   ‘(The weather) is very cold.’

5.2.1.9 Existence Clause

Existence clauses are mainly used to introduce persons or things in a discourse.

The elements of the existence clauses are:

\[
\text{Existence Clause} = + P : \text{Vp} \enspace \text{Exist} + I : Np + \text{Loc} : \text{Prep}
\]

That is, an obligatory predicate position is filled by an existence verb phrase, an obligatory item position is filled by a nominal phrase, and an
obligatory location position is filled by a prepositional phrase. Peripheral
temporal and manner have been observed in this clause type.

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

1. / kuj\textsuperscript{R1} pəj\textsuperscript{R1} hən\textsuperscript{R1} naŋ\textsuperscript{R1} kʊŋ\textsuperscript{h} ep\textsuperscript{R1}/

have people many in Bangkok
P I Loc
‘There are many people in Bangkok.’

2. / kuj\textsuperscript{R1} pləŋ\textsuperscript{R1} hən\textsuperscript{R1} naŋ\textsuperscript{R1} jun\textsuperscript{R1} /

have Plang many in village
P I Loc
‘There are many Plang people in the village.’

3. / kuj\textsuperscript{R1} ?aŋɔ?\textsuperscript{R1} sak\textsuperscript{R1} kətə?\textsuperscript{R1} ?ən\textsuperscript{R1}/

have who only one here
P I Loc
‘There is only one (here).’

4. / kuj\textsuperscript{R1} ?u?\textsuperscript{R2} naŋ\textsuperscript{R1} na?\textsuperscript{R1} /

have I in house
P I Loc
‘There is me in the house.’

5.2.1.10 Possessive Clause

There are two types of possessive clauses.

Type 1

The elements of the possessive clause type I are:
Possessive Clause 1 = + I : Np + P : Vp Poss + Poss : Np

That is, obligatory Item position is filled by noun phrase, an
obligatory predicate position is filled by possessive verb phrase (complement
possessor; / məŋ\textsuperscript{R1} kʰɔp\textsuperscript{R1}/ ‘belong’) and an obligatory possessor position is
filled by a nominal phrase.
The normal order of the elements is I – P – Poss

1. / naʔ R¹ ?ən R¹ məh R¹ kʰoʔ R¹ ʔuʔ R² /
   house that belong I
   I P Poss
   ‘That house belongs to me.’

2. / cʰɛp R¹ ?ɛn R¹ məh R¹ kʰoʔ R¹ miʔ R¹ /
   shoes this belong you
   I P Poss
   ‘These shoes belong to you.’

3. / naʔ R¹ ?ən R¹ məh R¹ kʰoʔ R¹ ?ən R¹ /
   house that belong he
   I P Poss
   ‘That house belongs to him.’

Sometimes, in the daily life the speaker will delete possessive verb such as

4. / naʔ R¹ ʔuʔ R² /
   house I
   I Poss
   ‘My house.’

5. / kɔnsuʔ R¹ ?ən R¹ /
   dog he
   I Poss
   ‘His dog’

**Type II**

The elements of the possessive clause type II are:

possessive clause 2 = + I₁ : Np + P : / məh R¹/ + I₂ : Np + Poss : (N / Pron + ..riʔ or..niʔ)
That is, an obligatory item₁ position is filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory predicate position is filled by /məh /‘be’ and co-occurrence obligatory Item₂ position is filled by a nominal phrase. An obligatory possessor position is filled by a nominal or pronoun add a possessive suffix marker /.. ri? / or /..ni? /‘of someone’.

Possessive clauses which are one person or thing will use single possessor/ri?/ with noun as in example 1,2,4.

Possessive clauses which are two or more persons or things will use plural possessor /..ni?..ni?/ as in example 3.

The normal order of the elements is I – P – I- Poss

1. / kon R1 ?on R1 məh R1 kon R1 ?enri? R1 /
   child that be child his
   I P I Poss
   ‘That is his child.’

2. / ?əp R1 ?on R1 məh R1 ?əp R1 ma?ri? R1 /
   rice that be rice my mother
   I P I Poss
   ‘That rice is my mother’s.’

   pig this be pig my mother my father
   I P I Poss
   ‘This pig is my parents’s.’

A restriction on the co-occurrence of this type is that Item₂ must be the same as item₁ Moreover, item₂ can not occur without item₁

In addition, in the possessive clause type II the Item can be deleted in conversation such as
A : / nāʔ_R1 ʔən_R1 mēh_R1 nāʔriʔ_R1 kəʔ_R1 /
house that be house Qfp
I P I Poss
‘Is that your house?’
B : / mēh_R1 ʔuʔ_R2 /
be I
P P Poss
‘That’s my house.’

5.2.1.11 Cognitive Clause

The elements of the cognitive clause type are:


That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory predicate position is filled by a cognitive verb phrase, and an optional object position is filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral element position is filled by temporal, manner and location.

The normal order of the elements is S – P – O

1. / ʔuʔ_R2 nūʔ_R1 ʔən_R1 /
   I see he
   S P O
   ‘I saw him.’

2. / ʔuʔ_R2 nən_R1 miʔ_R1 /
   I know he
   S P O
   ‘I know him.’

3. / ʔuʔ_R2 ʔən_R1 pir_R1 piʔ_R1 /
   I not forget you
   S P O
   ‘I will not forget you.’
The emphasized object of the cognitive clause may be transformed.

4. / conraj\(^{R1}\) plan\(^{R1}\) ?u?\(^{R2}\) pir\(^{R1}\) ?et\(^{R1}\) /
   folktale  Plang    I    forget    already
   O        S       P
   'I forgot the Plang folktale.'

The deleted subject and object in the conversation may be transformed

5. A:/ mi?\(^{R1}\)  ?en\(^{R1}\)  ka?\(^{R1}\) /
   you     he      or not.
   S       P       O    Qw
   'Do you know him?'
B:/  ?en\(^{R1}\)  n?\(^{R1}\) /
   not    know    Fp
   P
   '(I) don’t know.'

5.2.1.12 Evaluation Clause

The elements of the evaluation clause type are:

Evaluation Clause = + I : Np + P : Vp Eval + Va: Cl / Np quality/quantity

That is, an obligatory item position is filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory predicate position is filled by a evaluation verb phrase and an obligatory value position is filled by a clause or a nominal phrase which shows quantity or quality. Peripheral element position is filled by temporal and location.

The normal order of the elements is I – P – Va

1. / ka2\(^{R1}\) k\(~\)aw\(^{R1}\) saw\(^{R1}\) mwat\(^{R1}\) /
   fish     cost    20    baht
   I        P       Va
   'The fish costs 20 baht.'
2. / ʔep^{R1} kaw^{R1} ?en^{R1} kʰaw^{R1} saw^{R1} mwat^{R1} /  
   rice pack this cost 20 baht  
   I P Va  
   'This pack of rice cost 20 baht.'  

3. / kəmon^{R1} kʰaw^{R1} kətiʔ^{R1} mwat^{R1} /  
   desert cost one baht  
   I P Va  
   'The dessert cost one baht.'  

   In addition, the emphasized Evaluation clause may be  
   transformed as  

4. / kʰaw^{R1} saw^{R1} mwat^{R1} ʔep^{R1} kaw^{R1} ?en^{R1} /  
   amount 20 baht rice pack this  
   P Va I  
   'This pack of rice costs 20 baht.'  

   In conversation the predicate in this clause type can be deleted  

5. A:/ ʔik^{R1} ?en^{R1} kʰaw^{R1} sansoʔ^{R1} /  
   pig this amount how  
   I P  
   B:/ (kʰaw)^{R1} sisip^{R1} mwat^{R1} /  
   cost 40 baht  
   P Va  
   '(It) costs 40 baht.'  

5.2.1.13 Comparative Clause  
   There are three kinds of comparative clauses  
   A) Comparison of Equality  
   B) Comparative Degree  
   C) Superlative Degree
A) Comparison of Equality

The element of Comparison of Equality are: Comparison of Equality = + I₁ : Np + P : Vp Des + Com Mk: \( \{ / \text{sen}^{R1} / \} \) + I₂ : Np

That is, an obligatory item₁ position is filled by a nominal phrase. An obligatory predicate position is filled by a descriptive verb phrase. An obligatory comparison marker is filled by / sen^{R1} / 'same as' and an obligatory item₂ position is filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral temporal has been observed in this clause.

The normal order of the element is S - P - / sen /

1. / déŋ^{R1} nkup^{R1} sen^{R1} dam^{R1} /
   Daeng thin same Dam
   I₁ P Com Mk I₂
   'Daeng is as thin as Dam.'

2. / leʔiʔ^{R1} ʔοŋ^{R1} sen^{R1} déŋ^{R1} /
   we(all) tall same Daeng
   I₁ P Com Mk I₂
   'All of us are as tall as Daeng.'

3. / déŋ^{R1} kakeŋ^{R2} sen^{R1} dam^{R1} /
   Daeng big same Dam
   I₁ P Com Mk I₂
   'Daeng is as big as Dam.'

4. / naʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} ʔam^{R1} sen^{R1} naʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} /
   house this beautiful same house that
   I₂ P Com Mk I₂
   'This house is as beautiful as that house.'
Restrictions on the co-occurrence of the elements of Comparison of Equality are only descriptive verbs are used.

B) Comparative Degree

The elements of Comparative Degree are: Comparative Degree

\[ + I_1 : NP + P : VP Des + Com Mk : / 1 \varepsilon^{R1} / \pm I_2 : NP \]

That is, an obligatory Item1, position is filled by a nominal phrase. An obligatory predicate position is filled by a descriptive verb phrase, an obligatory comparative marker position is filled by / 1 \varepsilon^{R1} / ‘than’. An optional Item2 position is filled by a nominal phrase.

The normal order of the elements is: \( S_1 - P - / 1 \varepsilon^{R1} / - S_2 \)

1. \( m1 \varepsilon^{R1} nam^{R1} 1 \varepsilon^{R1} 2u^{R2} / \)
   
   you beautiful than I
   
   I_1 P Com Mk I_2
   
   ‘You are more beautiful than I.’

2. \( de\eta^{R1} lo\eta^{R1} 1 \varepsilon^{R1} purn^{R1} / \)
   
   Daeng tall than friend Poss
   
   I_1 P Com Mk I_2
   
   ‘Daeng is taller than his friend.’

3. \( mpen^{R1} calit^{R1} 1 \varepsilon^{R1} k\sigma^{R1} / \)
   
   woman good than child
   
   I_1 P Com Mk I_2
   
   ‘The woman is better than the child.’

The predicate and comparative marker are obligatory present. The Subject_1 and the Subject_2 are normally present.
C) Superlative Degree

The elements of Superlative Degree clauses are: Superlative Degree = + I: Np + P : Vp Des + Sup Mk : / palaparu? R1 / ± Mod : Adv Loc

That is, an obligatory Item position is filled by a nominal phrase. The predicate position is filled by a descriptive verb phrase and an obligatory Superlative marker is filled by / palaparu? R1 / 'the most'. An optional a modifier position is filled by an adverb of locative.

The normal order of the elements is S- P / palaparu? /

1. / ʔen R1 calit R1 palaparu? R1 /
   he    good  the most
I       P    Sup
   'He is the best.'

2. / miʔ R1 ŋam R1 palaparu? R1 naŋ R1 juŋ R1 /
   you  beautiful  the most  in  village
I       P    Sup      Loc
   'You are the most beautiful in the village.'

3. / naʔ R1 ʔen R1 kətəŋ R2 palaparu? R1 /
   house  this   big    the most
S         P    Sup
   'This house is biggest.'

The Predicate and the Superlative marker is obligatory present. The Subject is normally present.

Restrictions on the co-occurrence of elements are only descriptive verb used in this clause type, and / palaparu? R1 / can't occur without predicate.
5.2.2 Imperative clause

An imperative clause functions primarily in the nucleus of the imperative sentence, but it is rarely used in a sentence periphery or an embedding clause. It is used only in direct speech to command the hearer to do or not to do something.

The structure of imperative clauses may be diagrammed generally as:


That is, an obligatory predicate position is filled by an imperative verb phrase, an optional direct object and indirect object position is filled by a nominal phrase and optional particle position is filled by a final particle.

The normal order of the elements in imperative clause is

P - DO - IO - Part

1. / sum\textsuperscript{R1} \textsuperscript{R1} ŋ\textsuperscript{R1} \textsuperscript{R1} /
   eat rice Fp
   'Eat rice.'

2. / n\textsuperscript{R1} ḥ\textsuperscript{R1} \textsuperscript{R1} \textsuperscript{R1} um\textsuperscript{R1} so\textsuperscript{R1} /
   drink water Fp
   'Drink water.'

3. / ḥ\textsuperscript{R1} n\textsuperscript{R1} ḥ\textsuperscript{R1} /
   go Fp
   'Let's go.'

4. / muk\textsuperscript{R1} n\textsuperscript{R1} ḥ\textsuperscript{R1} /
   sit Fp
   'Sit.'

5. / pa\textsuperscript{R1} ḥ\textsuperscript{R1} s\textsuperscript{R1} /
   Neg go Fp
   'Don't go.'
6. / ṁuh^RLi kəleʔ^RLi/
   do  Fp
   'Please do it.'

/ ṣoʔ / an imperative final particle expressed. (example 2, 5)
/ ṃəʔ / an imperative final particle expressing an invition.
(example 1, 3, 4)
/kəleʔ / an imperative final particle expressing politeness.
(example 6)

5.2.3 Interrogative clause

Interrogative clauses function primarily in the nucleus of interrogative sentences, but may also function in the nucleus of social sentences or self-expression sentences. They are seldom used in sentence peripheral or in embedding. They are used primarily in direct speech.

Structurally interrogative clauses may be divided into simple yes / no questions, participant content questions, relationship content questions and alternation questions. These subtypes differ from each other in their word orders, question words, and transformation potentials.

5.2.3.1 Simple Yes / No Question

The simple yes / no question clause type 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, as indicated by its name. It takes the same syntactic form as a statement, except for a question word which occurs in the clause final position. It often ends with a falling intonation.

The elements of simple yes / no question clauses are:
Simple Yes / No Question = + Clause + Qf p : \left\{ / kaʔ^RL / \right\}
That is, an obligatory clause position is filled by any elements of 13 independent clause types (sec.5.2.1.1-5.2.1.13) plus an obligatory question word position is filled by /kaʔ /.

1. / miʔ / jəŋ / sum / ʔəp / kaʔ /
   you just eat rice Qfp
   ‘Did you just finish eating rice?’

2. / miʔ / səʔənɛ / kaʔ /
   you tried Qfp
   ‘Are you tired?’

3. / ʔon / somsum / kaʔ /
   not hungry Qfp
   ‘Aren’t you hungry?’

4. / həc / kaʔ /
   finish Qfp
   ‘(Are you) done?’

5.2.3.2 Participant Content Questions

A participant content question clause functions in contexts where one or more of the participants in an action are unknown and under question. It is marked by a question word such as / ʔanəʔəʔ / ‘who’ / nəʔənkəʔ / ‘where’ / nəmənəʔ / ‘when’ / kənəʔ / ‘what’. If the question word is in the clause-final position, the intonation will be high. In other positions, it will be a falling intonation.
The participant content question clauses are formed by substituting the appropriate question word within the clause.

The elements of the participant content questions are: Participant Content Questions = + Qw : /ʔanɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1}/ + Clause + Qw : \[\begin{cases} /kɔŋɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1}/ \\ /nɛŋnɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1}/ \\ /nɛmənɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1}/ \end{cases}\]

That is, an obligatory clause position is filled by any elements of 13 independent clause types (sec.5.2.1.1-5.2.1.13). An obligatory Question word position is filled by /ʔanɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1}/ ‘who’, /nɛŋnɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1}/ ‘where’, /nɛmənɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1}/ ‘when’, /kɔŋɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1}/ ‘what’.

The position of the question word in a clause is not fixed. It can occur in any position of the clause where the participant is unknown, i.e., in the subject, object, Indirect object, etc. position.

1. /tɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1} kɔŋɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1}/
   eat     what
   ‘What did (you) eat?’

2. /ʔɛʔ\textsuperscript{R1} nɛmənɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1}/
   go     when
   ‘When did (you) go?’

3. /piʔ\textsuperscript{R1} muk\textsuperscript{R1} nɛŋnɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1}/
   you   stay   where
   ‘Where are you staying?’

4. /ʔanɔʔ\textsuperscript{R1} kah\textsuperscript{R2} miʔ\textsuperscript{R1} mɛl\textsuperscript{R1}/
   who   give   you   money
   ‘Who gave you the money?’
It is interesting that in the Participant Content Questions of ‘how much’, ‘how many’, ‘how long’, or ‘how tall’ there is no question word, but /sənoʔ^Rl/ ‘how’ is used after an evaluation verb.

5. /piʔ^Rl kʰaw^Rl sənoʔ^Rl /
you sell how
‘How much does it cost?’

6. /piʔ^Rl pum^Rl nem^Rl sənoʔ^Rl /
you get year how
‘How old are you?’

7. /piʔ^Rl kuj^Rl kilo^Rl sənoʔ^Rl /
you have kilo how
‘How much is your weight?’

8. /piʔ^Rl hək^Rl laŋ^Rl sənoʔ^Rl /
you hair long how
‘How long are your hairs?’

The question word is obligatory present. Other deletions are the same as that of the statement clauses.

Concurrence restrictions and transformation are the same as that of the statement clauses.

5.2.3.3 Relationship Contents Question

A relationship content question clause functions in contexts where relationship between actions are unknown and under question. It is marked by the question words /kənɔʔ^Rl/ ‘why’ or /sənoʔ^Rl/ ‘how’.
If the either question word is in the clause final position, the intonation will be high. In the other positions, it will be a falling intonation.

The elements of relationship content question are:

\[
\text{Relationship Contents Question} = \pm \text{Clause} \pm \text{Qw} : \left\{ / \text{ʔɛŋŋ}^{\text{R1}} / , / \text{səŋŋ}^{\text{R1}} / \right\}
\]

That is, an obligatory clause position is filled by any elements of 20 independent clause types (sec.5.2.1.1-5.2.1.13), and an obligatory question word position filled by /ʔɛŋŋ^{\text{R1}}/ ‘Why’ /səŋŋ^{\text{R1}}/ ‘how’.

1. /pi^{\text{R1}} ?oŋ^{\text{R1}} sum^{\text{R1}} ʔɛŋŋ^{\text{R1}} /
   you not eat why
   ‘Why don’t you eat?’

2. /ʔɛŋŋ^{\text{R1}} ?ən^{\text{R1}} kah^{\text{R1}} ?i^{\text{R1}} ?əp^{\text{R1}} /
   why he give we rice
   ‘Why did he give the rice to us?’

3. /səŋŋ^{\text{R1}} ?əŋ^{\text{R1}} naŋ^{\text{R1}} huajnamk^{\text{hun R1}} /
   how come to Huay Namkhun village
   ‘How did you come to the Huay Namkhun village?’

The subject is normally deleted because it is in direct speech. A question word is obligatory present. Other deletions are the same as that of the statement clause.

Co-occurrence restrictions and transformations are the same as that of the statement clause.

5.2.3.4 Alternation Questions
The alternation question gives the listener two choices of form, and the speaker expects one of those choices as the listener’s reply.
The alternation question is formed by putting /cu^R1/ 'or' as a conjunction between the alternatives.

The intonation is high at the point of /cu^R1/ then rises at the clause final position.

The elements of alternation questions are:

Alternative Questions = + Alt_1 : Cl + Conj : /cu^R1/ + Alt_2 : Cl

The normal order of the element is Alt_1 - /cu^R1/ - Alt_2

1. /miʔ^R1 nəŋ^R1 raʔ^R1 cu^R1 miʔ^R1 nəŋ^R2 ʔiʔ^R1 /
   you will play or you will sleep
   'Will you play or sleep?'

2. /miʔ^R1 nəŋ^R2 həl^R1 cu^R1 ʔoŋ^R1 həl^R1 /
   you will go or not go
   'Will you go or not?'

3. /sum^R1 cu^R1 ʔoŋ^R1 jaŋ^R1 sum^R1 /
   eat or not yet eat
   'Have you eaten yet (or not)?'

4. /sum^h^um^R1 cu^R1 ʔoŋ^R1 sum^h^um^R1 /
   hungry or not hungry
   'Have you been hungry yet?'

5. /miʔ^R1 nəŋ^R2 sum^R1 cu^R1 nəŋ^R2 ʔiʔ^R1 /
   you will eat or will sleep
   'Will you eat or sleep?'
CHAPTER VI
SENTENCE

A sentence is a grammatical unit formed by having at least one independent main clause with an optional subordinate clause. It may also be temporal or location setting.

Sentences may be divided according to their semantic structures and surface structure as follows;

6.1 The semantic structure

The semantic structure of a sentence includes a nuclear type (see 6.1.1), with or without compounding (sec. 6.1.2), peripheral elements (sec 6.1.3), speech act types (sec 6.1.4) psychological mood types (sec. 6.1.5) reality types (sec. 6.1.6), Semantic prosodies (sec 6.1.7), and presuppositions (sec 6.1.8).

6.1.1 Nuclear types

Sentences may be semantically divided into the following subtypes: one action sentence, temporal sequence sentence, covarying sentence, conditional sentence, purposeful sentence and deductive sentence. These subtypes differ from each other in the different relations between their component parts, as indicated by different connectors and different transformation potential.

6.1.1.1 One action sentence

A one – action sentence contains no structural implication for other nuclear sentence level slots. It shows only one action of the actor.

1. / θen^R1 pøj^R1/

   he       run
   S         P

   ‘He ran.’
2. / maʔ R1 pəʔ R1 ʔuʔ R2 /
   mother   hit   I
   S      P      O
   'Mother hit me'

3. / kəŋ R1 muk R1 naŋ R1 mər R1 /
   father   stay   at  field
   S      P      Loc
   'Father stays at the field.'

4. / ʔuʔ R2 naŋ R2 ʔəŋ R1 ʔəŋəŋ R1 /
   I   will   come   today
   S      P      Temp
   'I will come today.'

6.1.1.2 Temporal sequence sentence

Temporal sequence sentence have temporal linkage without logical or
causative relationships.

A temporal sequence sentence in Plang is composed of two or
more clauses which are linked in several ways. That is / saklet R1 / 'finish then' or
/ ʔət R1 / 'and' and / ʔət R1 ʔət R1 / 'and then'. These three linkers signify the
completion of the previous action and their temporal relation to the following action.

1. / ʔuʔ R2 sum R1 ʔəp R1 saklet R1 ʔit R1 /
   I   eat   rice   finish   then   sleep
   'I had eaten rice then I slept.'

2. /ʔəŋ R1 nəh R1 nhəm R1 saklet R1 hər R1 naʔ R1 /
   he   do   work   finish   then   go   home
   'He had worked then he went back home.'
3. / ʔuʔ R² sum R¹ ʔep R¹ ʔet R¹ let R¹ nuh R¹ nhom R¹ /
   I eat rice and then do work
   'I had ate rice and then I worked.'

4. / ʔuʔ R² nuh R¹ nhom R¹ ʔet R¹ let R¹ ʔiʔ R¹ /
   I do work and then rain
   'I worked and then the rain fell.'
Sometimes, no linker is used between the clause.

5. / ʔuʔ R² ʔen R¹ naŋ R¹ məsaj R¹ ʔen R¹ naŋ R¹ huajkʰaj R¹
   I come at Mae Sai come at Huajkhaj
   ʔen R¹ naŋ R¹ huajnamkʰun R¹ nəsəʔ R¹/
   come at Huay Namkhun Fp
   'I had come to Mae Sai, and I came to Huaykhaj, then I came to
   Huay Namkhun.'

6.1.1.3 Convarying Sentence
A convarying sentence is used to describe two or more events whose
intensities or actions vary together. The first event is the conditioning variable and the
following event is the resulting variable.
A covariance in Plang can be a covariance of simple degree which is
linked by /təcʰən R¹......təcʰən R¹/ 'the more... the more'

1. / ʔuʔ R² təcʰən R¹ sətəən R¹ hən R¹ təcʰən R¹ sum R¹ hən R¹/
   I more tried much more eat much
   'The more tried I am, the more (I) eat a lot.'
2. / kon⁸⁰ inf⁸⁰ techan⁸⁰ koten⁸² techan⁸⁰ nam⁸⁰ /
   child we more big more beautiful
   'The more our children grow, the more beautiful they are.'

3. / techan⁸⁰ ri⁸⁰ nuh⁸⁰ nhom⁸⁰ hen⁸⁰ techan⁸⁰ ron⁸⁰ /
   more we do work much more rich
   'The more we work the more rich we become.'

4. / techan⁸⁰ muk⁸⁰ nαn⁸⁰ lōn⁸⁰ techan⁸⁰ kot⁸⁰ /
   more stay at high more cold
   'The more you stay at the high place the more (you) are cold.'

5. / ru⁸² techan⁸⁰ tom⁸⁰ konri⁸⁰ hen⁸⁰ techan⁸⁰ /
   I more teach child Poss much more
   mēh⁸⁰ kəncaHit⁸⁰ /
   be good man
   'The more I teach my child, the more he is a good man.'

6.1.1.4 Conditional Sentence

A conditional sentence in Plang is composed of two events which are a condition and the resulting action. They are conjoined by placing / ju²⁸⁰ / 'if' at the beginning of the conditional clause.

1. / ju²⁸⁰ rēn⁸⁰ rāh⁸⁰ se²⁸⁰ rēn⁸⁰ tar⁸⁰ saj⁸⁰ /
   if he rob Fp he must pay
   'If he robs, he must pay.'
2. / ju² R¹ pī² R¹ pun R¹ sip R¹ nēm R¹ nājō R¹ pī² R¹
   if we get ten year Fp we
tāpni₂ katkat /
   begin wear as a turban.
   'If we are ten years old, we begin to wear a turban.'

3. / ju² R¹ pī² R¹ kuj R¹ kʰō R¹ pēn R¹ kah R² pī² R¹
   if we have boyfriend he give we
taj R¹ pāk R¹ tuhri₂ R¹
   flower slip in our head
   'If we have a boyfriend, he gives us flowers to slip in our hair.'

4. / ju² R¹ lī² R¹ ụu² R² pōn R¹ hēl R¹ /
   if rain I not go
   'If it rains, I will not go.'

5. / ụu² R² nān R² jēm R¹ ju² R¹ pū R² pōn R¹ sum R¹ /
   I will die if I not eat
   'I will die if I don’t eat.'

6.1.1.5 Purposeful Sentence
   A purposeful sentence in Plang is composed of two or more events, of
   which the previous event is the cause and the following event is purpose.
   The action position is usually filled by a transitive or a motion clause.
   The purpose position is filled by a clause, which indicates the purpose or motivation of
   the action. Frequently, there are the verbs / swē R¹ / 'keep'/ lānāŋ R¹ / 'in order to'
   Purpose clause in the clause type. These verbs imply the meaning of 'in order to'. If
   the subjects of the two clauses are the same, the subject of the second clause may be
   omitted.
1. /ʔuʔ R2 rian R1 puŋ R1 plan R1 naŋ R2 swət R1 ʔaʔ R1 naʔ R1 /
   I learn speak Plang will keep it Fp
   ‘I learned the Plang language in order to keep the Plang language.’

2. /ʔuʔ R2 hər R1 naŋ R1 mər R1 lanaŋ R1 nsəm R1 nuʔ R1 /
   I go at field in order to plant rice
   ‘I go to the field in order to grow rice.’

3. /maʔ R1 ʔuʔ R2 muk R1 naŋ R1 naʔ R1 lanaŋ R1
   mother I stay at house in order to
   nok R1 konriʔ R1 /
   look child Poss Mk
   ‘My mother stays at home in order to look after her child.’

4. /ʔuʔ R2 nuh R kənow R1 lanaŋ R1 kuj R1 mər R1 hən R1 hən R1 /
   I do work in order to have money much much
   ‘I worked in order to have a lot of money.’

5. /ʔeŋ R1 hər R1 naŋ R1 kuŋt həp R1 lət R1 kuj R1 sum R1 /
   he go at Bangkok then have eat
   ‘He went to Bangkok in order to make a living.’

6.1.2 Compounding

There are four types of compounding in Plang, they may occur within
the nucleus of a sentence: contrastive, equivalent, alternative, and additive.

6.1.2.1 Contrastive Compounding

In contrastive compounding there are two clauses in which the previous
and the following are contrasts. Some pattern of these clauses is a simple statement.
The contrast is marked by / te'R/ 'but', which is a Thai loan word, before the second clause, or by / sakta'R/ 'although' before the first clause.

1. / ?en'R / ?on'R / non'R / meh'R / ?u'R / 
   he not know be I
   te'R / ?u'R / non'R / ki'R / /
   but I know he
   Nu
   'He doesn’t know me but I know him.'

2. / sakta'R / ki'R / tuk'R / ?en'R / ?on'R / ra'R / pej'R / /
   although he poor he not steal people
   Nu
   'Although, he is poor, he does not steal from anyone.'

   child Poss want sleep but he not sleep.
   Nu
   'My child wants to sleep but he has not slept yet.'

   although he die I not cry
   Nu
   'Although he died, I did not cry.'
The contrastive markers may be deleted such as

5. /ʔuʔ² kok⁹¹ ʔen⁹₁ ʔen⁹₁ ʔon⁹₁ ʔon⁹₁ ʔon⁹₁ /
   I call he he not hear
   Nu
   ‘I called him, but he did not hear me.’

If the two clauses have the same subject, the subject of the second clause will be deleted such as

6. /ʔuʔ² sətmy⁹¹ təʔ⁹₁ ʔon⁹₁ ʔit⁹₁ /
   I tried but not sleep
   Nu
   ‘I’m trying but (I) don’t sleep.’

A restriction on the co-occurrence of elements within a contrastive compounding is that the two clauses must be in contrast. The actions of the two clauses are not the same.

6.1.2.2 Equivalent Compounding

Equivalent compounding is two simple sentences placed together. The subjects of the two simple sentences are the same person, and the subject of the second clause can be deleted, when the subject is obviously understood.

1. /kən⁹₁ ʔuh⁹₁ nhom⁹₁ kən⁹₁ nəm⁹₁ ləʔ⁹₁/
   father do work father plant tea
   Nu
   ‘The father works, he plants tea.’
2. / ທໍາ n R1 ປາ n R1 ນໍ້ ນ R1 ປາ n R1 ນໍ້ ນ R1 ນໍ້ ນ R1 ນໍ້ ນ R1 /
   he not eat he not want eat
   Nu
   ‘He does not eat, he is not hungry.’

3. / ທໍາ n R1 ຊ້າວ n R1 ທໍາ n R1 ປຶ້ ບ R1 /
   he tried he sleep
   Nu
   ‘He is tired, he is sleeping.’
   The subject of the second clause can be deleted when the subject is oneself.

4. / ທໍາ n R2 ນໍ້ ນ R1 ປຶ້ ບ R1 ນໍ້ ນ R2 ປຶ້ ບ R1 /
   I want sleep will sleep
   Nu
   ‘I’m sleepy, (I) will sleep.’

5. / ທໍາ n R2 ນໍ້ ນ R2 ເອາ n R1 ເອາ n R1 ເອາ n R1 ປຶ້ ບ R1 ນໍ້ ນ R1 ນໍ້ ນ R1 ນໍ້ ນ R1 /
   I will return to house not stay here
   Nu
   ‘I will return at home, (I) will not stay here.’

6.1.2.3 Alternative Compounding

Alternative compounding gives a pair of alternatives in a given situation. In Plang this can be shown by using / ທໍາ n R1 / ‘or’.

1. / ທໍາ n R2 ນໍ້ ນ R1 ນໍ້ ນ R1 ນໍ້ ນ R1 /
   you will go or not go
   Nu
   ‘You go or don’t you go.’
2. / ṭan^{R1} naŋ^{R2} ʔit^{R1} cu^{R1} naŋ^{R2} heŋ^{R1}/
    he will sleep or will go
    Nu
    ‘Will he sleep or will he go.’

3. / miʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} sum^{R1} cu^{R1} naŋ^{R2} nuh^{R1} nhom^{R1}/
    you will eat or will do work
    Nu
    ‘Will you eat or will you work.’

4. / ṭan^{R1} ʔit^{R1} cu^{R1} nam^{R1}/
    he sleep or cry
    Nu
    ‘He sleeps or he cries.’

- 6.1.2.4 Additive Compounding

Additive compounding adds a second situation to a first. Both clauses fill in the same position in the sentence nucleus. It is marked by / maj^{R1} / ‘and’ before the second clause.

1. / ṭan^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} heŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} mecan^{R1} sənən^{R1}/
    he and I go at Maecan today
    ‘He and I go to Maecan today.’

2. / maʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} som^{R1} pon^{R1} maj^{R1} fum^{R1} naŋ^{R1} kətum^{R1}/
    mother I put on pork and water at pot
    ‘My mother put some pork and some water in the pot.’
3. /ʔiʔ R1 nəm R1 ʔŋkuʔ R1 maj R1 priʔamən R1 laʔŋ R1 sum R1 /
   we plant rice and fruit in order to eat
   'We plant the rice and fruit in order to eat.'

Sometime additive compounding sentence may be delete the additive
marker as follow.

4. /ʔuʔ R2 sum R1 ʔəp R1 nəʔ R1 sum R1 /
   I eat rice drink water
   'I eat rice and drink some water.'

6.1.3 Setting

A sentence may have a time and a location setting.

6.1.3.1 Time setting

The time setting of a sentence may be indicated by words such as
/ənən R1 / 'today', /pansaʔ R1 / 'tomorrow' / nəmkuʔ R1 / 'yesterday',
/hansaʔ P₁/ 'next days' / nəmkuʔəŋ R1 / 'previous day', /nəmtiʔ R₁ / 'year
before' or indicated by phrases such as /ch iʔ R₁ hot R₁ / 'next moth', /nəmpol R₁
ənən R₁ / 'tonight' or clauses such as /nəm R₁ pun R₁ sipha R₁ / 'at 15 year olds.'

Time setting normally occurs after a sentence nucleus. It can also be
drawn to the front of a sentence nucleus by topicalization.

1. /ʔən R₁ nəŋ R₂ ʔəŋ R₁ ənən R₁ /
   he will come today
   'He will come today.'

2. /ʔuʔ R₂ hər R₁ nəŋ R₁ koŋʰəp R₁ nəmkuʔ R₁ /
   I go at Bangkok yesterday
   'I went to Bangkok yesterday.'
3. / pánsaʔ R1 ?uʔ R2 n̄aŋ R2 hər R1 n̄aŋ R1 mār R1 /
   tomorrow I will go at field
   'Tomorrow, I will go to the field.'

4. / hānsaʔ R1 miʔ R1 sum R1 pəriʔ R1 t̚em R1 /
   next day you eat together again.
   'The next day you eat together again.'

5. / ?uʔ R2 muk R1 n̄aŋ R1 n̄aʔ R1 ?ən R1 n̄əm R1 ?uʔ R2 pun R1 /
   I stay at house this when I get
   siphā R1 n̄əm R1 /
   fifty year
   'I stayed in this house when I was 15 years old.'

6. / n̄əm R1 ?uʔ R2 məh R1 kən R1 ?uʔ R2 muk R1 n̄aŋ R1 l̚u R1 /
   when I be child I stay at Sipsongpanna
   'When I was just a child, I stay at Sipsongpanna.'

6.1.3.2 Location setting

The location setting of a sentence may be indicated by place words
such as / chьŋraj R1/ 'Chiang Rai' / kən t̚ep R1/ 'Bangkok', a prepositional phrase
such as / n̄aŋ R1 ?um R1/ 'in the water' / n̄aŋ R1 n̄aʔ R1/ 'at the house', / n̄aŋ R1
māl R1/ 'at the field', or clauses such as / n̄aŋ R1 məʔ R1 ?uʔ R2 sum R1 t̚ep R1 /
'where my mother eat rice.'

1. / ?ən R1 muk R1 n̄aŋ R1 kənt̚o j R1 /
   he live at Kontoj
   'He lives in Kontoj.'
2. / kaŋ²₂ muk⁰¹ naŋ⁰¹ ᵆum⁰¹ /
   fish live at water
   ‘Fish live in the water.’

3. / ʔen⁰¹ ʔen⁰¹ naŋ⁰¹ naʔ⁰¹ ʔuʔ² /
   he come at house I
   ‘He comes to my house.

4. / ʔen⁰¹ hər⁰¹ naŋ⁰¹ mar⁰¹ /
   he go at field
   ‘He goes to the field.’

5. / ʔuʔ² hər⁰¹ naŋ⁰¹ maʔ⁰¹ ʔuʔ² ʃum⁰¹ ʔəp⁰¹ /
   I go at mother I eat rice
   ‘I go where my mother eats rice.’

6.1.4 Speech act types (Model types)

There are three major kinds of speech acts; declarative, imperative and interrogative, and two minor kinds of speech act: social and self-expression.

6.1.4.1 Declarative speech act

A declarative act is a statement whose assurance may vary from certainty to uncertainty. If a statement is certain the maker /tunəʔ⁰¹/ ‘certainly’ will be used at sentence final. The sources of knowledge may be the first-hand or second-hand. Each sentence or clause has an intonation pattern which is a mid level pitch with a slight fall on the last syllable in the sentence or clause.

1. / ʔuʔ² keʔ⁰¹ ʔen⁰¹ naŋ²² kuʃ⁰¹ mər⁰¹ hən⁰¹ /
   I think he will have money much
   ‘I think that he will have a lot of money.’
2. / ʔuʔ R2 kət R1 dəŋ R1 naŋ R2 ʔəŋ R1 tuŋəʔ R1 /  
I think Daeng will come certainly  
'I think that Daeng will certainly come.'

3. / seŋən R1 ʔəŋ R1 naŋ R2 həɾ R1 tuŋəʔ R1 /  
today he will go certainly  
'Today he will certainly go.'

4. / ʔəŋ R1 nok R1 seŋ R1 naŋ R2 roŋ R1 ʔaʔ R1 /  
he look like will rich Fp  
'He seems to be rich.'

5. / miʔ R1 nok R1 seŋ R1 pəj R2 calit R1 ʔaʔ R1 /  
you look like people good Fp  
'You seem to be a good man.'

6.1.4.2 Interrogative speech act

An interrogative act is a question. Interrogatives may be broadly divided into yes/no (or polar, truth value, true/false) questions and content (or wh-questions).

Yes/No questions are asked about the truth of sentences. They are manifested by question final particles / kəʔ R1 / and often end with the falling intonation. The question marker comes at the end of the main clause.
   mother I will glad Qfp if I
   ʔen R1 naŋ R1 naŋ R1 /
   come at house
   'Will my mother be glad if I return home?'

2. / mi? R1 naŋ R2 ʔer R1 naŋ R1 jen R1 ʔi? R1 tunʔ R1 ka? R1 /
   you will go at village we certainly Qfp
   'Is it true that you will go to our village?'

3. / mi? R1 puŋ R1 plan R1 puŋ R1 thaj R1 ka? R1 /
   you speak Plang speak Thai Qfp.
   'Are you a native speaker of Plang and Thai?'

Content questions ask for information that is from a phrase, clause or sentence. They are manifested by question words such as / ʔanoʔ R1 / 'who' / kanʔ R1 / 'what' / ʔenŋəʔ R1 / 'when' / naŋəʔ R1 / 'where' etc. The question marker come at the end of the main clause whether that is before or after a subordinate clause, and often end with falling intonation

1. / peʔ R2 kiʔ R1 pok R1 ʔakʰlak R1 muk R1 naŋəʔ R1 /
   man who ride buffalo live where
   'Where is the man staying who rides a buffalo?'
2. /ʔənʰ¹ nuhʰ¹ kanoʔʰ¹ nəmʰ¹ʔənʰ¹ mukʰ¹ naŋʰ¹ kʊŋ tʰəpʰ¹/
   he do what when he live at Bangkok
   'What did he do when he stayed in Bangkok?'

3. /miʔʰ¹ nuhʰ¹ nhomʰ¹ nuhʰ¹ majʰ¹ʔanʔʰ¹ /
   you do work do with who
   'With whom do you work?'

4. /ʔənʰ¹ʔəŋʰ¹ naʔʰ¹ʔəɾʰ¹ʔəŋʰ¹ nəmnoʔʰ¹ /
   he come house I come when
   'When did he come to my house?'

6.1.4.3 Imperative speech act

An imperative act is a statement of desired action, whose force may vary from a mild wish to a strong command. It is manifested by rising intonation or a final particle (sec. 4.2.1.13) such /tənəʔ/, /səʔ/, /nəʔ/, /pəʔ/.

1. /mukʰ¹ teʔʰ¹ nəʔʰ¹ mukʰ¹ sumʰ¹ periʔʰ¹ /
   sit here Fp sit eat together
   'Sit here please, sit to eat together.'

2. /sumʰ¹ʔəpʰ¹ səʔʰ¹ /
   eat rice Fp
   'Do eat rice!'
3. / ku?^R1 ?u?^R2 nəf^R1 /
   help   I   Fp
   'Would you like to help me?'

4. / pa?^R1 hər^R1 /
   not   go
   'Don't go'

5. / sum^R1 ʔum^R1 tənəʔ^R1 /
   eat   water   Fp
   'Please, drink some water.'

6.1.4.4 Social speech act
A social act establishes, maintains or terminates a communication
relationship between two speakers. It includes greetings, responses, and farewells, etc.
When the speakers meet each other, they will greet each other:

Greeting:
1. A: / mī?^R1 nāŋ^R2 hər^R1 nənəʔ^R1 /
   you   will   go   where
   'Where will you go?'

Responses:
B: / hər^R1 nāŋ^R1 ʔaɾ^R1 /
   go   at   farm
   'Go to the farm.'
2. A: /miʔ\(^R1\) muk\(^R1\) jok\(^R1\) kaʔ\(^R1\)/
   you stay good Qfp
   ‘How are you?.’

   B: / muk\(^R1\) jok\(^R1\) /
   stay good
   ‘Fine.’

Farewell:

1. / ?uʔ\(^R2\) leh\(^R1\) naŋ\(^R1\) nariʔ\(^R1\) /
   I return at house Poss
   ‘I’ll return home.’

2. / muk\(^R1\) jok\(^R1\) nəʔ\(^R1\) /
   stay good Fp
   ‘Good luck.’

When the speakers meet someone who is intimate, they will call him with / həj\(^R1\) /

/ həj\(^R1\) hər\(^R1\) - naŋnəʔ\(^R1\) /

Ip go where
‘Hey! Where are you going?’

When they are eating and someone walks past their house, they will invite that person to eat with them:

1. / miʔ\(^R1\) sum\(^R1\) kaʔ\(^R1\) /
   you eat Qfp
   ‘Do you eat some rice?’
2. / sum$^R_I$ ʔəp$^R_I$ neʔ$^R_I$ laʔ$^R_I$ kaʔ$^R_I$ /
   eat    rice    drink     tea  QfP
   ‘Do you eat rice and drink tea?’

It seems like an Simple Yes/No question, however the speaker doesn’t really want the listener to eat with him. It is only a social act.

6.1.4.5 Self-expression speech act

A Self-expression act is an expression of the speaker’s feeling, addressed to nobody in particular. It takes rising pitch on the self-expression words.

1. / ʔəj / when hurt, frightened
2. / ʔoʔ / when excited
3. / ʔeʔ / when suspicious
4. / ʔuʔ / when frightened
5. / ʔuʔ / when excited, glad
6. / ʔoʔoʔ / when surprised
7. / ʔaw / when surprised and question
8. / tənʔoʔ / when invited, please
9. / ʔaʔoʔ / when surprised, puzzled

Example in the sentence

1. / ʔoʔoʔ$^R_I$ miʔ$^R_I$ ʔam$^R_I$ palaparuʔ$^R_I$ /
   Exp  you  beautiful  the most
   ‘Oh! you are the most beautiful’

2. / leh$^R_I$ sum$^R_I$ maj$^R_I$ miʔ$^R_I$ ʔenəʔ$^R_I$ /
   come  eat  with  we  Fp
   ‘Would you like to eat with us?’
3. / ?aw\textsuperscript{R1} mi?\textsuperscript{R1} ?on\textsuperscript{R1} h\textsuperscript{R1} maj\textsuperscript{R1} ?u?\textsuperscript{R2} laf\textsuperscript{R1} /

Exp you not go with I Fp

‘ Why don’t you go with me?’

6.1.5 Psychological mood types

Psychological moods give the attitude or evaluation of the speaker to what is being talked about. They include pleasure, displeasure, surprise, hope, and disappointment.

A) Pleasure

This type contains degrees of pleasure, from pleasing to displeasing. They are shown by the verb / mak\textsuperscript{R1} / ‘like’ / ?on mak\textsuperscript{R1} / ‘don’t like’

1. / ?u?\textsuperscript{R2} mak\textsuperscript{R1} muk\textsuperscript{R1} naŋ\textsuperscript{R1} mesaj\textsuperscript{R1} /

I like stay at Mea Sai

‘ I like to stay at Mae Sai.’

2. / ju?\textsuperscript{R1} k\textsuperscript{R1} onri\textsuperscript{R1} h\textsuperscript{R1} maj\textsuperscript{R1} ?u?\textsuperscript{R2} ?u?\textsuperscript{R2} /

if child Poss go with I I
mak\textsuperscript{R1} həŋ\textsuperscript{R1} həŋ\textsuperscript{R1} /

like much much

‘ If my child goes with me, I will feel happy very much.’

3. / ?u?\textsuperscript{R2} ?on\textsuperscript{R1} mak\textsuperscript{R1} kətət\textsuperscript{R1}/

I not like same

‘ I don’t like, this.’
B) Surprise

This type shows the speaker’s feeling of surprise which normally has /?on\textsuperscript{R1} kot\textsuperscript{R1}/ ‘don’t think’ as indicator.

4. /?u\textsuperscript{R2} ?on\textsuperscript{R1} kot\textsuperscript{R1} mi\textsuperscript{R2} naŋ\textsuperscript{R2} ?əŋ\textsuperscript{R1}/
   I not think you will come
   ‘I don’t think that you will come.’

5. /mi\textsuperscript{R1} ?on\textsuperscript{R1} kot\textsuperscript{R1} ?u\textsuperscript{R2} meh\textsuperscript{R1} ?acan\textsuperscript{R1}/
   you not think I be teacher
   ‘You don’t think that I will be a teacher.’

6.1.6 Reality types

The reality status of a sentence gives the relationship between the subject and the assumed real word. These types may be factual, contractual, or uncertain.

Factual: Factual shows the fact or normal state.

1. /naŋi\textsuperscript{R1} ləh\textsuperscript{R1} kʰawəŋʔək\textsuperscript{R1}/
   sun rise east
   ‘The sun rises in the east.’

2. /?aʔ\textsuperscript{R1} liʔ\textsuperscript{R1} ?iʔ\textsuperscript{R1} naŋ\textsuperscript{R2} kot\textsuperscript{R1}/
   it rain we will cold
   ‘It’s rains, so we are cold.’

Contrafactual: Contrafactual speaks of events which are contrary to the fact. It is noticed this type is usually expressed as a conditional negative sentence.

3. /juʔ\textsuperscript{R1} coraka\textsuperscript{R1} ?on\textsuperscript{R1} nən\textsuperscript{R1} ?ən\textsuperscript{R1} naŋ\textsuperscript{R1} jəm\textsuperscript{R1}/
   if crocodile not bit he not die
   ‘If the crocodile had not bitten him, then he would not die.’
4. / juʔ¹⁰ rum²⁰ meh⁰ kon⁰ sim⁰ ṭuʔ¹⁰ ṭuʔ²⁰ nəŋ⁰²⁰ \\
   if I be bird I will \\
   pʰrum⁰ hɛl⁰ səŋa⁰ / \\
   fly go far \\
   ‘If I were a bird, I would fly far.’

Uncertain: Uncertain status speaks of events which may or may not take place. It usually manifested by a conditional sentence.

5. / juʔ¹⁰ ʔaʔ⁰ liʔ⁰ kii²⁰ nan⁰ ʔəŋ⁰ / \\
   if it rain he not come \\
   ‘If it rains he may not come.’

6. / juʔ¹⁰ rən⁰ ṭuʔ²⁰ nəŋ⁰ ʔəŋ⁰ nən⁰ nhəm⁰ / \\
   if hot I will not do work \\
   ‘If the weather is hot, I will not work.’

6.1.7 Semantic prosodies

There are at least six types of information that flow through a sentence without being the sentence structures discussed above: time movement, information flow, reference, assertion, topicalization, and cohesion structure.

6.1.7.1 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.
‘Pluck the lace of the tea and take it to dry; when it is dried, it can be planted and three years latter it can picked.’

In the above example, there are relationships among time1, Time2, Time3, Time4, Time5 and Time6. They occur consecutively and the actions are linear.

6.1.7.2 Information flow

A sentence is a mixture of new information and old information. The rules regarding the presence or deletion of old information and the introduction of new information are:

1. A subject which is old information is usually deleted because it is already known.
   
2. Sometime a subject which is old information is replaced by a pronoun.

3. Elements of old information can’t be deleted if their meaning is not clear.

4. The introduction of new information is not specific. A subject which is new information can’t be manifested as a pronoun and can’t be deleted.

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text{(new)} & \text{(new)} & \text{(old)} & \text{(new)} \\
/ \text{pej} \ R1 \text{can} \ R1 \text{na} \ R2 \text{2um} \ R1 & \text{dej} \ R1 \text{me} \ R1 \text{pej} \ R1 & \text{2on} \ R1 \text{na} \ R2 \text{2um} \ R1 \\
\text{man must drink water} & \text{Deang be man} & \text{not drink water} \\
\text{(delete subject)}
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
\text{(old)} & \text{(new)} \\
\text{na} \ R1 & \text{nan} \ R2 \text{jom} \ R1 / \\
\text{he will die}
\end{array}
\]
'A man must drink some water. Daeng is a man who did not drink some water, so he will die.'

6.1.7.3. Reference structure

The participants in a sentence may be referred to in various ways. Usually pronouns are used to refer to nouns which repeated.

1. / maʔ R1 ʔuʔ R2 sum R1 ʔeʔ R1 hοʔ R1 ʔeʔ R1 kiʔ R1 let R1 /
   mother I eat rice finish and she then
   hər R1 naŋ R1 ʔaŋ R1
   go at field
   'My mother eats rice, and then she goes to the field.'
   kiʔ R1 / 'she' in the second clause is used to refer to / maʔ R1
   ʔuʔ R2 / 'my mother.'

   If using a pronoun would make the sentence ambiguous, it is necessary
   to repeat the noun instead of using the pronoun

   2. / deŋ R1 ʔeʔ R1 dam R1 dam R1 jam R1 /
   Daeng hit Dam Dam cry
   'Daeng hit Dam and Dam cried.'
   / kiʔ R1 / 'he' cannot be used instead of / dam / in the second clause
   because if the speaker uses / kiʔ R1 / the hearer won't know if / kiʔ R1 / refers to
   / deŋ R1 / or / dam R1 /.

6.1.7.4 Assertion structure

At least one clause in a sentence must bear the speech act asserted, questioned, or commanded. Other clauses may remain in the background. The rule governing which clause may be asserted is that, there is no word marker among the clauses in a sentence. A clause can be asserted in a sentence without any marker. A pause is an important feature to show the assertion clause in a sentence.
1. / məʔ R1 həl R1 naŋ R1 maʔ R1 || swt R1 səcəŋ R2 paŋ R1 /
   mother go at farm (pause) keep ginger sell
   'It was in order to sell ginger that the mother went to the farm.'

2. /ʔuʔ R2 naʔ R1 mpaŋ R1 || naʔ R1 mpaŋ R1 ᵚəŋ R1 ᵚŋŋəŋəŋ R1 /
   I drink medicine (pause) drink medicine not sick
   'My purpose to drink the medicine is not to get sick.'

6.1.7.5 Topicalization

A sentence frequently highlights one participant as the topic of the sentence. This topicalization is manifested by putting the noun at the beginning of the sentence.

1. / kəŋ R1 nəm R1 kɔŋʔer R1 kah R2 maʔ R1 kuʔ R1 ʔəp R1
   father kill chicken give mother cook rice
   ʔəp R1 kɔŋrɨʔ R1 /
   feed child Poss
   'The father killed the chicken for the mother to cook to feed their children.'

   / kəŋ R1 / is the main topic

2. / dəŋ R1 hər R1 naŋ R1 ʔər R1 /
   Daeng go at field
   'Daeng goes to the field.'

   / dəŋ R1 / is the main topic.

3. /ʔuʔ R2 ʔəʔ R1 kɔŋsuʔ R1 tuʔ R1 maʔ R1 rah R1 təʔ R1 /
   I hit dog which like steal food
   'I hit the dog which likes to steal food.'

   /ʔuʔ R2/ is the main topic.
6.1.8 Presupposition

Certain things are normally expected in a sentence as a result of universal experience, local culture, or the discourse context. Presuppositions are usually not marked or stated in a sentence. They are things that the speaker expects the hearer to already know.

1. / ʔənR1 ʔəʔR1 ʔəjR1 ʔənR1 ʔənR1 jəkR1 /
   he drink alcohol much he not good
   ‘He drank a lot of alcohol, he was not well.’
   Presupposition = People who drink a lot of alcohol was not well.

2. / ʔuʔR2 həR1 ʔəwR1 ʔəʔR1 /
   I go find doctor
   ‘I went to see the doctor.’
   Presupposition = The people who go to see the doctor was sick.

6.2 The Surface Structure

The surface structure (meaningful forms) of a sentence includes nuclear forms types, with or without peripheral slots with intonation, stress and completeness characteristics.

6.2.1 Nuclear forms types

The surface form of a sentence may be simple, juxtaposed or conjunction – linked.

6.2.1.1 Simple form

A simple form consists of just a single simple clause and manifests a simple statement sentence or temporal sequence of other types.

1. / ʔuʔR2 ʔəmR1 ʔəpR1 /
   I eat rice
   ‘I eat rice.’
2. / ʔən^R1 ʔəʔ^R1 ʔuʔ^R2 /
    he    hit    I
    'He hits me.'

3. / maʔ^R1 ʔəŋ^R1/
    mother    come
    '(My) mother comes.'

6.2.1.2 Juxtaposed form

A juxtaposed form consists of two or more clauses simply put side by side. The second clause modifies the first clause. It may manifest a covarying sentence, a purposeful sentence or a compounding.

1. / ʔən^R1 ʔən^R1 jok^R1 | ʔən^R1 ʔəʔ^R1 ʔəʔ^R1 paj^R1 hən^R1 /
    he          not       good          he    drink    alcohol    much
    Nu          Mod
    'He was not well, he drank a lot of alcohol.'

2. / ʔuʔ^R2 ʔəŋ^R1 nəŋ^R1 naʔ^R1 | ʔəŋ^R1 ʔəʔ^R1 ʔəʔ^R1 nəʔ^R1 naʔ^R1 /
    I          come     at    house    come    sleep    at    house
    Nu          Mod
    'I returned home, I returned to sleep at home.'

3. / ʔən^R1 njəm^R1 kəŋʔər^R1 | njəm^R1 nuh^R1 təʔ^R1 /
    he          kill    chicken    kill    do    food
    Nu          Mod
    'He killed the chicken, he killed to make food.'
6.2.1.3 Conjunction – linked form

A conjunction – linked form consist of two or more clause linked by conjunctions. These are conjunctions such as / ʔətʰ / lətʰ / ‘and then’ / cuʰ / ‘or’ / jʊʔʰ / ‘if’. This may manifest the contrastive, alternative, additive compounding, a temporal sequence sentence, or a conditional sentence.

1. / ʔənʰ nuhʰ nthomʰ ʔətʰ lətʰ sumʰ ʔəpʰ /
   he do work and then eat rice
   ‘He had worked and then he ate.’

2. / miʔʰ nɑŋʰ həɾʰ cuʰ nɑŋʰ ʔəŋʰ /
   you will go or will come
   ‘You will go or will come.’

3. / ʔənʰ nɑŋʰ ʔiʔʰ jʊʔʰ ʔuʔʰ nuhʰ nthomʰ /
   he will sleep if I do work
   ‘He will sleep if I work.’

6.2.2 Peripheral forms

Sentence peripheral slots include adverbials, initial particles, final particles, vocatives, etc.

6.2.2.1 Adverbials

Adverbials are words, or phrases, or clauses which modify verbs. They manifest location setting, time and manner settings. Usually these adverbs occur after the sentence nucleus. However, they can precede the nucleus in order to emphasize these adverbs.
1. pansaə̃ R1 ʔuʔ R2 her R1 naŋ R1 mar R1 teʔ R1 ʔən R1
tomorrow I go at farm but he
her R1 ʔəj R1 ʔakhlak R1/
go feed buffalo
‘Tomorrow, I will go to the farm but he will go to feed the buffaloes.’

2. / kon R1 mak R1 her R1 ləjʔum R1 teʔ R1 ʔuʔ R2
child like go swim but I
mak R1 her R1 met R1 kaʔ R2 naŋ R1 ʔumketen R2 /
like go fishing fish at river
‘The children like to go to swim but I like to go to fishing at the river.

3. / konˈsiːm R1 pəɾəm R1 ləŋ R1 meh R1 konˈsiːm R1
bird fly high be bird
tuʔ R1 kətəŋ R2/
body big
‘The bird flies high because it is big.’

6.2.2.2 Initial particles

Initial particles occur very frequently in narrative texts and in conversations. These particles have no meaning if used by themselves. They usually occur at the beginning of a sentence. These initial particles are / ʔəʔ R1/ ‘a marker of a certain act’, / paʔ R1/ ‘a marker of a negative’ / ʔəʔ R1/ ‘markers of a sequence act’ and / joʔ / shows a speaker’s mood.
1. /ʔəʔᵊ ᵁʔᵊ ʰɛrᵊ ˢumᵊ ᵐajᵊ ʔuʔᵊ ᵇəŋ̩ɛnᵊ/  
   Ip he go eat with I today  
   ‘Surely, he will go to eat with me today.’

2. /paʔᵊ jəmᵊ/  
   not cry  
   ‘Don’t cry.’

3. /ʔaʔᵊ piʔᵊ ʰɛrᵊ ⁿaŋⁿɔʔᵊ ᵇəʔᵊ thᵉmᵊ/  
   Ip you go where drink again  
   ‘Where are you going to drink again?’

4. /jəʔᵊ ʰɛrᵊ səʔᵊ/  
   Ip go Fp  
   ‘(Yes, I’ll) go.’

6.2.2.3 Final particles  
A final particle functions in the periphery of a sentence. There are a lot of final particles in Plang. These final particles have no concrete meanings by themselves. These final particles are /səʔᵊ/ a marker of a command, /təŋ̩əʔᵊ/ a marker of an invitation and please /jɛnᵊ/ a marker of a certainly, /nəʔᵊ/ to marker of an invitation.

1. /wəjᵊ səʔᵊ/  
   quick Fp  
   ‘Be quick!’

2. /ʰɛrᵊ majᵊ ʔuʔᵊ təŋ̩əʔᵊ/  
   go with I Fp  
   ‘Go with me please.’
3. / ɲum<sup>R1</sup> jɛn<sup>R1</sup> /

delicious  Fp

'Surely, it’s delicious.’

6.2.2.4 Vocative

Semantically, vocatives function on a paragraph rank but are often manifested on a sentence rank.

1. / naŋŋɔ<sup>R1</sup> kɛn<sup>R1</sup> ʔaŋhʊlɛŋ<sup>R1</sup> /

where  father  buffalo

'Where is the buffalo, father?'

2. / mɛj<sup>R1</sup> ʔɛn<sup>R1</sup> somsən<sup>R1</sup> ɛŋ<sup>R1</sup> cuʔ<sup>R1</sup> tɛʔ<sup>R1</sup> jɛn<sup>R1</sup> /

Mie j  she  hungry  must  cook  food  Fp

'Mie j, she is hungry, must cook some food.'

3. / ʰɛr<sup>R1</sup> naŋ<sup>R1</sup> ɛŋ<sup>R1</sup> ɪəʔ<sup>R1</sup> ɛŋ<sup>R1</sup> ɛŋ<sup>R1</sup> paŋ<sup>R1</sup> ʔep<sup>R1</sup> sum<sup>R1</sup> /

go  at  market  Fp  grandmother  buy  rice  eat

'Go to the market, grandmother, to buy some rice to eat.'

6.2.3 Completeness

A sentence may be grammatically intact or it may have ellipsis or it may be an incomplete form. Ellipsis involves the deletion of certain elements. Elements tend to be deleted under the circumstance that they are obviously understood or already known from general knowledge.

1. / ʔuʔ<sup>R2</sup> ɲuŋ<sup>R1</sup> nhɔm<sup>R1</sup> [.........] ʔɛn<sup>R1</sup> ʔiʔ<sup>R1</sup> /

I  do  work  [.........]  he  sleep

'I worked but he sleeps.'

(deleted: conjunction / tɛʔ<sup>R1</sup> / 'but')
2. / kəŋ⁴⁷₁ sum⁴⁷₁ ʔəp⁴⁷₁ ʔət⁴⁷₁ lət⁴⁷₁ ... hər⁴⁷₁ naŋ⁴⁷₁ 
father eat rice and then go at
məɾ⁴⁷₁ nəm⁴⁷₁ kuʔ⁴⁷₁ /
farm plant rice
'The father had eaten rice, then he went to the field to grow rice plants.
(deleted: subject of the second clause.)
Incomplete sentence are not normal ellipses but are sentence broken off in mid – utterance by an interruption or by a pause to think

3. / juʔ⁴⁷₁ ʔən⁴⁷₁ ʔən⁴⁷₁ hər⁴⁷₁ .......... If he not come
'If he doesn't come .......... The speaker leaves the hearer for his own conclusion that what will happen if he doesn't come.
CHAPTER VII
CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

7.1 Research conclusion

This thesis is a description of the Plang language which is spoken in Huay Namkhan village, Mae Fa Luang district, Chiang Rai province, Thailand. It includes the phonological and syntactical structure of the Kontoj dialect. The data was collected from the Plang people who have been living in this village.

7.1.1 Phonology

There are 25 consonant phonemes (table 12), and 9 vowel phonemes (table 13) and two registers in Kontoj dialect as shown in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of articulation</th>
<th>Point of articulation</th>
<th>Labial</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stop</td>
<td>unaspirated</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>aspirated</td>
<td>pʰ</td>
<td>tʰ</td>
<td>cʰ</td>
<td>kʰ</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>voided</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n̄</td>
<td>n̄</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>m̄</td>
<td>n̄</td>
<td>n̄</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>voiceless</td>
<td>s</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td>voiced</td>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td>voiced</td>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>l̄</td>
<td></td>
<td>j̄</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi - Vowel</td>
<td>voiced</td>
<td>w</td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>w̄</td>
<td></td>
<td>j̄</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12: Plang consonant phoneme
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tongue position</th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>ũ</td>
<td>u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>θ</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>ε</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: Plang vowel phonemes

There are two contrastive registers, the first register ($R^1$) represents a clear voice quality and the second register ($R^2$) represents a breathy voice.

7.1.2 Syntax

The Plang syntax is described in terms of morphology, word, phrase, clause and sentence.

There are two prefixes:

/1ə-/ used with pronouns to make single pronoun plural.

/ni-/ used with verbs to make verb negative.

There are two suffixes:

/-riʔ/ used with nouns with one syllable to make possessive and can be used after verbs to make verb reflexive.

/...niʔ...niʔ/ used with compound nouns with two syllables, each syllable having its own meaning, to make plural nouns possessive.

In Plang there are 13 word classes: noun, pronoun, demonstrative, quantifier, classifier, preposition, conjunction, auxiliaries, verb, adverb, question word, intensifier, and final particle, word types: compounding, reduplication, and onomatopoeia. At phrase level, the researcher presented the nominal phrase, verbal phrase, prepositional phrase and adverb phrase. At clause level, the researcher presented 13 statement clauses; transitive, intransitive, ditransitive, descriptive, equational, motion, quotative, ambient, existence, possessive, cognitive, evaluation, and comparative; these subtypes...
of clause differ from each other in the verb classes which they take, Imperative clause and Interrogative clause. In sentence level the researcher described the semantic structure sentence and surface structure sentences. The semantic structures are composed of nuclear sentence types, compounding, setting, speech act types (Model types), psychological mood types, reality types, semantic prosodies, and presupposition. In surface structures the researcher described the nuclear forms, peripheral forms and completeness.

7.2 Discussion

The Plang phonology presented in this study is similar to that of Pijitra’s 1986 study in the description of Plang’s segmental feature because both consist of 9 vowel phonemes and 25 consonant phonemes. However for the suprasegmental feature this study describes Plang is having 2 registers: high clear or normal voice quality (R1) and low breathy or breathy voice quality (R2) which as Pijitra’s 1986 study describes Plang is having 3 registers: High clear and Mid clear or normal voice quality and Low breathy or breathy voice quality.

For the normal voice quality (R1), the researcher has found 3 pitches: High pitch which occurs in monosyllabic words and the final syllable of the disyllabic and trisyllabic words, Mid pitch occurs in the first open syllable of disyllabic word, in the first syllable of trisyllabic words and syllabic nasal. Low pitch occurs in the first closed syllable of disyllabic words and the second syllable of trisyllabic words. The researcher does not described Plang as a tone language as Paulsen & Hopple (1993) because the researcher has found the minimal pair of different voice quality from my main informants as shown in example 3.3.3. However, the researcher rechecked the register again with the younger Plang who live in Huay Namkhun village. and found that the words containing /ɛ,a,o,ə/ which are pronounced with breathy voice quality with low-rising pitch by the older generation are pronounced as a clear voice with low pitch by speaker of younger generation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Older generation</th>
<th>Younger generation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>['tém]</td>
<td><em>to write, draw:</em> → ['tém]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>['těm]</td>
<td><em>under, down:</em> → ['tém]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>['káʔ]</td>
<td><em>fish:</em> → ['káʔ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>['kāʔ]</td>
<td><em>car:</em> → ['kāʔ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>['kótʔ]</td>
<td><em>to cold:</em> → ['kótʔ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>['kōtʔ]</td>
<td><em>old:</em> → ['kótʔ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>['pēj]</td>
<td><em>to run:</em> → ['pēj]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>['pēj]</td>
<td><em>man:</em> → ['pēj]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the breathy voice occurs with another vowel, it will change the vowel from High level to Mid level / i / → / e / such as: [ˌkəʔ'tiʔ] _one:_ → [ˌkəʔ'teʔ] _one_ , and Mid level to Low level / o / → / o / such as: [ˌtʰoj] _spit:_ → [ˌtʰoj] _spit_ , or / u / → / o / such as: [ˌʔoʔ] _I:_ → [ˌʔoʔ] _I_ , [ˌpūk] _calf:_ → [ˌpōk] _calf_. In the normal voice quality the young speakers pronounce with High pitch as follows:

[ˌkəʔ'tiʔ] _one:_ → [ˌkəʔ'teʔ] _one_  
[ˌtʰoj] _spit:_ → [ˌtʰoj] _spit_  
[ˌʔoʔ] _I:_ → [ˌʔoʔ] _I_  
[ˌpūk] _calf:_ → [ˌpōk] _calf_

From the above data, the researcher concludes that Plang is a register language with two registers. The older generation informants, still use the Kontoj dialect of Plang in life without much interference from Thai language structure. The Phonological system in this study therefore shows that Plang is still a register language. Plang might become a tonal language since its breathy voice register is now weakening among the younger Plang generation.

For Plang grammar, at word level there are Thai loan word such as the numerals [síp] _ten_ , [sípʔet] _eleven_ , [sǎw] _twenty_ , and [riān] _study_ , [rūp] _picture_ , [cōrāka] _crocodile_ , [côn] _spoon_ , [wát] _temple_ , [nām] _beautiful_. In the part of The older generation usually uses suffix markers to show possessive more often than using the possessive verb / kʰoʔ / of in possessive clauses. But the younger generation uses only the possessive verb / kʰoʔ / such as:
Older generation → /ʔuʔ R2 sum R1 ʔep R1 maj R1 mariʔ R1 /
I eat rice with my mother
‘I eat some rice with my mother.’
or → /ʔuʔ R2 sum R1 ʔep R1 maj R1 maʔ R1 kʰ oʔ R1 ʔuʔ R2 /
I eat rice with mother of I
‘I eat rice with my mother’

Younger generation → /ʔoʔ R1 sum R1 ʔep R1 maj R1 maʔ R1 kʰ oʔ R1 ʔoʔ R1 /
I eat rice with mother of I
‘I eat rice with my mother’

7.3 Suggestion for further studies

This study is concentrated on the grammar of Kontoj dialect of Plang language in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai province. There are, however, a few useful suggestions for further studies as follows:

1) A comparative syntax of Kontoj Plang and other dialects
2) A comparative phonology of Kontoj Plang with other dialect or between the old and young generation.
3) A comparison between Plang and other languages.
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APPENDIX A
WORD LIST

The entries in these wordlists are listed according to the following orders:

1. The entries are listed according to their initial consonants which are grouped into Stop, Nasal, Fricative, Flap, Lateral and Semi – Vowel, Unaspirated consonants come before aspirated consonants, and voiced consonants come before voiceless consonants. So the full order is p, pʰ, t, tʰ, c, cʰ, k, kʰ, ʔ, m, n, n̩, ɲ, ɨ, s, h, r, l, ɾ, w, w̩, j, Ʉ. The entries which are consonant clusters are listed after the single initial consonants.

2. The vowel order is ʰi, ə, e, a, o, u, w, ɷ and normal voice register (RI) come before breathy voice register (R2) in that order.
pija?RI
pit RI
pi? RI
pi?ca wRI
pir RI
pin RI
pih RI
pik R2
pi? R2
pet RI
pch RI
palo? RI
pasa? RI
pasa? RI
palaparu? RI
palok RI
pap RI
paptém RI
pap?an RI
patte? RI
par RI
pa? RI
pam RI
panit RI
pansa? RI
pansarumku? R1
panlo? R1
pan R1
pan R1
pantém R2
panlon R1
pan R1

shoulder bag
pen, pencil
to win
Buddha image
to forget
to hold
to sweep
curtain
flute
to close
to slice
bamboo
pile up
sky
great many
mortar
book, note book
note book
book
to turn around
bald
cover, don’t
to chew
little
tomorrow
future
for a while
to sell
chair
a small chair
reclining chair
to carve

paj RI
pan R2
pole n RI
poc RI
pon RI
pon RI
pon RI
pon RI
pon RI
pon RI
pon RI
ponne? RI
ponpon RI
pu? RI
pu?u? RI
puk R1
pu? RI
pun RI
puy RI
puypuy RI
puk R2
put RI
puc R1
pun RI
pe ten RI
pe ta RI
pe tahleh RI
pe ton RI
pe tuh RI
pe buj RI
pecen R2
pesak RI
pesck RI

alcohol
white
the Chinese
owner of shop
to harvest
meat
seeds
shoot
ankle bracelet
to release
to carry on
shoulder
may
small gong
friend
hemp
calf
to shoulder
to get
bruise
gong
to dig
hoe
to fall
to shoot
aunt
to turn up
to turn
pot
to stick, hard
to spit
sun hat
to spear
charcoal
together, dust, rainbow, ashes, cinders, king, to pick, pluck, to hit, desk, to carry on the shoulder, to run

merchant, to blow, man, fruits, old, to build, pepper, fly, wing, crop, produce, rambutan, spear, prick, to open one's eyes, lalang grass, cogon

phapuk, from bamboo, to turn of head, to clean, parsley, morning - glory, cover, land

lamp, to smoke, to rice, five, forest, eat (polite), roof, blouse, skirt, underwear, hand, to throw, to inject, to take, to have, to have (come here), this, tidy, this, to draw, to draw the picture, bed, drama, sweet, down, under, great - grandfather, have not, bang, tight, compare, to pop, to roast, greeting, to weave
to push north, there to be virtue 20 liters different a sword, a saber to kick a butterfly to kill to relax, to take flower keep to lay to teach bar kitchen bed room (at) dawn Adam’s apple shallow betel palm to jump to tell one’s fortune by luck to burn that smoke certainly hut to suck spill out bottom to take a photograph head
tuhmar to have a headache to boil to feed book certainly to gore to tow alone vegetable, to be eaten with rice the more to hide uncle, aunt
groggy
tum to add enameled, bowl tank jar to breathe to rub bag chopstick to interrupt to send to ask
cip to go after to tear to soak salt
ceta? R1
cēp R1
cēnka? R2

cēn R2
cēm R1
capon R1
calit R1
calof R1
cap R1
can R1
can R1

can R2
caj R1
caw R1
can R1
caj R1
cop R1
cop R1

cōphaala? R1

con R1
cōnep R1
consapec R1
cōn R1
cēraka? R1

cokklīk R1
con R1
cu R1
cu R1

cunama? R1
eyebrow
to cut
travelling expenses
to saw
to carry
to spend the night, extended period
good
kilogram
to step on
to offer
to can
woodworker
midwife
to take
employment usually
nail
customer usually
to sing
correct
to dig up
shelf
spoon
rice spoon
silverware
school
crocodile
armpit
to invite
or
cook
formerly
cuk R1
cum R1
cun R1
cen R1
cēn R1
cēn R1
cējītī? R1
cē R2

to stop
glass
foot
to smile
don’t forget
diligently
monk
seedlings
to laugh
thumb
lineage

ch

chī R1
chīmpunktī R2
chīf R2
chīn R2
chēcēφ R1
chēcēφet R1
chēg R1
chāw R1

chōn R1

k

ki R1
ki?etcum R1
khi R1
kapaco? R1
kapuŋ R1
katit R1
katam R1
katōŋ R1
katīŋ R1
kaci R2

who
all of them
to cook
climbing perch
to swell
aforementioned
crab
dark
chub mackerel
snakehead
kacin
kano?
kajum
kasot
kase
kahara?
kare?
kawa?
kwapoŋ
kawai
kajin
ka?
kap
kapso?
kakkhu?
kanli?
kah
kaw
kawli?
kajćun
kap
kapōt
ka?
ka?koteŋ
kah
korakkore?
kok
kot
kon
konkuj
konacak
konkaŋ
kon?im
kon?er
konśim
konśu?
konlaŋ
konlik
konloŋ
konwaj
konwa?
kon
kor
koj
kot
kotnaŋkotjun
kon
kokaj
kokla?
kutì?
kuc
kuk
kukla?
ku?
ku?aker
kuŋ
kuh
kuj
kujŋomcu
kum
kum?ien
kumpr
kwtnema?
kun
kepur
kotit
kotī?
mud
one
big
surface fill, topsoil
stomach
egg
dark
jar
earlobe
clouds
stomach
pouch, bladder
expensive
to suck
ring
husband
banana
to dream
elephant
like that, too
hollow
tree
... to shrink
slippery
lung
born, think
jealous
not
paper
father
city
air
storm
group
to roll, to gather
up one's hair
to spin cotton
lazy
pot
wrong
fat
to resist
to hunt
eagle
to stir
plate
glad
help
channel
near
to lie
drum
than
to beckon
to bark
east, north
east, south
blanket
to rent
evening
cost, amount
to cross over
to beg
to request
to sit cross-legged
pot
to ask
to confine, cage
a curved spade
help
elderly people
remnant
of
rag
dirty
pillow
pestle
doctrine
to wash one’s
face
thing, which
gip
fruit
socks, socking
appropriate
to marry

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{k}^h \text{li}^h & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{k}^h \text{lap} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{k}^h \text{lop} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{k}^h \text{lo}^2 & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{k}^h \text{lu}^2 & \text{R}^1 \\
\end{align*}
\]

woman
to chase
to seize
cheap
to stop

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{?it} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?ik} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?ik}^h \text{lo}^2 & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?i}^2 & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?i}^2 \text{etcum} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?e}^2 & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?en} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?ew} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?ewra}^h \text{ri}^h & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?apop} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?apop} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?apam} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?apu}^2 & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?atep} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?ata}^2 & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?atom} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?atomnem} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?atom} & \text{R}^1 \\
\text{?atur} & \text{R}^2 \\
\text{?aturm}^2 & \text{R}^1 \\
\end{align*}
\]
to sleep
brother
older brother
we both
we (two)
this, it
to come
to arrive (at), to
reach
duck
small
there
this
to wander
sweet – talk a
girl
a kind of tree
bamboo shoot
turnip, lettuce,
Chinese mustard
son – in-law
flea
man
right
cricket
palm
grasshopper
to have a
stomachache
to have a digestion
musk melon
cucumber
teacher
story
father
threshing basket
buffalo
who
basket
in the future
arrow
abbot
forefinger, middle finger, ring finger
litle finger
thump
to hold up
The Buddhist Lent
here
that

river
tear
dew
sweat
rain water
mole
I
to give up
salty
to be finished
trunk
through
throughout one’s life, forever
all
finished
cooked rice
sticky rice
him, her, it
feed

stem
broom
to grill, to burn
to spill
drug, tobacco
pharmaceuticals
ladder
face
to fell
bridge
woman
carring
dawn
to blow
man

man

can
to gape
heart
nose
temple
to broken
angry
to climb
to sneeze
you
racing
widow, widower
to dress
to purse the lips
to massage
fishhook
to tie
alms bowl
clearly, like
coconut
watermelon
motorcycle
orange
guava
pomelo
earth worm
pine apple
pumpkin
papaya
longan
lemon
mother
to borrow
intoxicated

with, and
can
mouth
to counter, beam
to ordain
overcast
fumble
to sit
lotus
to look up
about
name
wife
silver
betal palm

farm
betrothed
belt
hut
rope
to sad
to hear
to be painful

near
to be finished
moldy
tongue
pot
wall
tube skirt
to hammer ntum
to kick
nthér R1
nthér R2
ncañ R1
ncor R1
ncot R2
ncuk R1
ncor R1
ncercuŋ R1
nchok R1
nkat R1
nkakk³la? R1
nkojhuŋ R1
nkòj R1
nkup R1
nkuŋ R1
nkuk R1
nkuŋ R1
nkuntiŋ R1
nkwuŋ R1
nkhoŋ R1
nkhoŋ R1
nkhaŋ R1
nk³la? R1
nnaŋ R1
nnaŋ R1
nnum R1
nnon R1
nner R1
nusat R1
nsañ R1
nsañ R1
nsor R1
nsun R1
bamboo section
to snore
act prematurely
to sit on the floor
with one's legs
tucked back
to bow the head
cone
heel
heel
crippled
turban
lane
alone
alone
thin
rice
mountain
chameleon
finger
toes
flick
to pound
frightened
spoiled
sour
listen
child
center
gun
to increase
rake
bamboo
to press
chopping
nsəm R1
nhec R1
nheŋ R1
nhër R1
nhap R1
nhom R1
nrieŋ R1
nra? R1
nran R1
nrok R1
nron R1
nla? R1
nluŋ R1
nluŋ R1
nlun R1
nwa? R1
njut R1
njuk R1
nac R1
nak³um² R1
nam R1
namketan R1
namkoŋ R1
nang R1
nang R1
nangkoŋ R1
nangkoŋ R1
naj R1
nok R1
nokan R1
nuk R1
neti? R1
to plant
nail
to count, to read
to become
pregnant
to exhale
work
mat
robber
to prepare
to throw
to pull
raised deck (of house)
tick
to shake
diaper
to be broken
ceiling
to push
earwax
knife
meet
bank
procession
sugar
not
will, at
where
here
knitting, wool,
yarn
out
look
floor joist
both
nec^RI
to massage
nem^RI
year, time
nempor^RI
night, evening
nemti^RI
previous time
nemku?sa?on^RI
yesterday
nemnu?^RI
when
nemnop^RI
in the morning
nempi?^RI
today
nem^RI
month
nej^RI
in (loan word)

nata?^RI
to touch
na?^RI
chest
qali?^RI
clock
nam^RI
blood
num^RI
young

ni?^RI
day
na?^RI
house
nait^RI
to stretch
nok^RI
good
noq^RI
know
nu?^RI
see
nunhnom^RI
to work
num^RI
delicious
nuh^RI
to do
ne?^RI
drink

nap^RI
to differ

nak^RI
to give birth
nakon^RI
to have a baby

na?^RI
to itch
nam^RI
beautiful
naj^RI
eye
naj?qap^RI
knee
najntok^RI
blind
najsani?^RI
sun
nok^RI
bent
nuk^RI
to bend
no^RI
neck
noq^RI
to be firm
nor^RI
top, peak
nort^RI
bush knife
oet^RI
fire
ne^RI
to be on top (of)
true

s
sip^RI
ten
sik^RI
to pick up
si?^RI
house
sir^RI
gold
sek^RI
wear down
sen^RI
line, influence
set^RI
mischiefous
sem^RI
Tai Yai people
sapoc^RI
to brush
satip^RI
eight
satim^RI
nine
sata?^RI
tail
satum^RI
to press the hand
together in
satu?^R2
espect
sak^buttan^RI
threshing basket
sak^brop^RI
to remind
sa?an^RI
to bite
to twitch
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<td>sa?wun</td>
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<td>sa?wur</td>
<td>to warm the</td>
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<td>curry</td>
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<td>samok</td>
<td>seeds</td>
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<td>samu?</td>
<td>cannon</td>
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<td>samu?</td>
<td>to hide</td>
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<td>sanat</td>
<td>stone</td>
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<td>gun</td>
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<td>sano?</td>
<td>quiet</td>
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<td>how</td>
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<td>sa?nah</td>
<td>labor</td>
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<td>sanaj</td>
<td>clear</td>
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<td>salek</td>
<td>far</td>
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<td>sala?</td>
<td>cigarette</td>
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<td>salaj</td>
<td>to be sickness</td>
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<td>salu?a?</td>
<td>from the pregnant</td>
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<td>sappali?</td>
<td>eat</td>
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<tr>
<td>sac</td>
<td>stake</td>
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<td>sachek</td>
<td>funny</td>
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<td>sak</td>
<td>to comb</td>
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<td>sakta?</td>
<td>comb</td>
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<tr>
<td>sanp?luk</td>
<td>bored</td>
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<td>sa?nhek</td>
<td>although</td>
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<td>saj</td>
<td>rib</td>
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<td>so?</td>
<td>hairpin</td>
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<td>som</td>
<td>to reimburse</td>
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<td>sommac</td>
<td>violet</td>
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<td>sonnimæh</td>
<td>wear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sonj</td>
<td>to worship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soj</td>
<td>may, as it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sop</td>
<td>bitter</td>
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<tr>
<td>soksa?x</td>
<td>to cut up</td>
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<tr>
<td>so?san</td>
<td>handful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so?seaj</td>
<td>tangled</td>
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<tr>
<td>su?uh</td>
<td>rough</td>
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<tr>
<td>sumaciçæ</td>
<td>to doubt</td>
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<td>suwar</td>
<td>withered</td>
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<td>suk</td>
<td>thank you</td>
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<td>su?</td>
<td>garden</td>
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<td>sum</td>
<td>arm</td>
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<td>sumpor</td>
<td>dog</td>
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<td>sumpʰum</td>
<td>want</td>
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<td>sum?it</td>
<td>dinner</td>
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<td>sumn?</td>
<td>want</td>
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<tr>
<td>su?</td>
<td>sleepy</td>
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<td>su?</td>
<td>lunch</td>
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<td>su?</td>
<td>new</td>
</tr>
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<td>sut</td>
<td>mosquito net</td>
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<tr>
<td>su?wunna?</td>
<td>house lizard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>su?</td>
<td>to ache</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>su?</td>
<td>straight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>su?</td>
<td>keep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>se?pic</td>
<td>sharp</td>
</tr>
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<td>se?pin</td>
<td>bicycle</td>
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<td>se?pa?</td>
<td>cheek</td>
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<tr>
<td>setwæ</td>
<td>city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secit</td>
<td>to point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seceŋ</td>
<td>ginger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seceŋ</td>
<td>heavy</td>
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<td>sechæn</td>
<td>basket</td>
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<td>seku?</td>
<td>wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sekwæ</td>
<td>cloudy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seker</td>
<td>to teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sekʰroc</td>
<td>shell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sekʰlak</td>
<td>red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sekʰlu?</td>
<td>lemon grass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seo?u?</td>
<td>dry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>se?u?</td>
<td>to smell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>se?uŋ</td>
<td>rotten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>se?umn</td>
<td>warm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>se?wur</td>
<td>sugar cane</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
semah
semannahwacah
senah
senatatah
senan
senaf
senar
senawrap

senaj
senom
selif
selaj
selum
son
senpererap

h

hina
hanen
hareh
hac
hak
haj
hat
hot
hotkap
hotchum
hoc
hoc
hok
hon
hona
hok
hak

star
Venus
cool
hour
today
clean
green
wooden tongs
used for
holding fish
over the fire
far
wear
corn
soft
blue
same
the same as

hon
huk
hum
hu
hur
hum
huw
huw
het
hek
hekpan
hekkap
hekmon
hekjev
hemne?
hen
henhen
her

h

bright
How much
seven
to scrape, scratch
skin
stem, pole
to hat
lawsuit
meal
afternoon
to end
paddy
to dance
to hear
to dry
Chinese

to give a name
to go up
to kiss
to steam
to vomit
to kiss
meat
to pour
to smell
hair
gray hair
beard
moustache
topknot
take a bath
many
a great many
to walk, go

custom
here
there
for
taproot, fibrous
root
to shout
to keep the rules
a numerical
designation for
books
to fold
arrive
until
rich
wound
rot $^{R_2}$ wrinkled
ron $^{R_2}$ hot
rot $^{R_1}$ to water
rum $^{R_1}$ to scent

liŋkla $^{R_1}$ ghost
lih $^{R_1}$ to go down
leh $^{R_1}$ go out
lêh $^{R_1}$ six
lêw $^{R_1}$ up
lapur $^{R_1}$ four
laʔar $^{R_1}$ two
laʔor $^{R_1}$ three
laʔuʔ $^{R_1}$ fat
lakpaŋ $^{R_1}$ under
lakpwuk $^{R_1}$ spatula
laktuʔ $^{R_1}$ behind, the back
laktuʔ $^{R_1}$ way
laktuʔ $^{R_1}$ ladle
lakcor $^{R_1}$ out
lakŋaʔ $^{R_1}$ in front (of)
lakŋanaʔ $^{R_1}$ in front of the
lakhoc $^{R_1}$ house
laʔ $^{R_1}$ late
lan $^{R_1}$ tea
lançiʔ $^{R_1}$ long
lah $^{R_1}$ moon
lar $^{R_1}$ tell, say
lar $^{R_1}$ marketlaj
designed
lah $^{R_2}$ because
lot $^{R_1}$ pull
lom $^{R_1}$ smell
ləŋ $^{R_1}$ black
ləŋtəŋtiw $^{R_1}$ to be overcast, dark

loh $^{R_1}$ loud
lor $^{R_1}$ to keep in the
lojʔum $^{R_1}$ mouth
lolih $^{R_1}$ swim
toloʔ $^{R_1}$ to flex
lok $^{R_1}$ uncultivated
lokcoŋ $^{R_1}$ salty
lumkewon $^{R_1}$ stand up
luŋ $^{R_1}$ uncle
luŋ $^{R_1}$ horn
lumluk $^{R_1}$ banana
lec $^{R_1}$ listen
ləiʔ $^{R_1}$ all of us
to tickle
ləŋc $^{R_1}$ entrance
ləŋ $^{R_1}$ Sipsongpanna

lìʔ $^{R_1}$ rain
liʔ $^{R_1}$ hailstone
liʔʔap $^{R_1}$ some, thin
liŋ $^{R_1}$ fear
lat $^{R_1}$ late
lak $^{R_1}$ sheet
laʔ $^{R_1}$ banana leaf
laʔkawon $^{R_1}$ leaf
laʔkhoŋ $^{R_1}$ banana leaf
ləŋ $^{R_1}$ high
ləu $^{R_1}$ skin
ləc $^{R_1}$ little
ləŋ $^{R_1}$ deep

wi $^{R_1}$ yellow
wiʔ $^{R_1}$ fan
wiʔkot $^{R_1}$ season
wilaʔ $^{R_1}$ winter, cold
wilaron $^{R1}$
season
summer, hot season

wilali $^{R1}$
rain season

to buy

win $^{R1}$
to close
to wave (one’s hand)
bowels
to be angry
to hook, to certain
to lost
to bob along, to
covered covered
quick
to be anxious, ring

werc $^{R1}$

wern $^{R1}$

weq $^{R1}$
to hold up

wer $^{R1}$

werkhaq $^{R1}$
to stand

to abandon

to tiptoe
good

wejtak $^{R1}$

wor $^{R1}$

wektor $^{R1}$

ju $^{R1}$
deaf

to close the eyes
cry

w $^{R1}$

wat $^{R1}$

baht
centipede
earth worm
rattan

wakla $^{R1}$

worm

wakmor $^{R1}$

spider
to salute
goodness

waj $^{R1}$

j $^{R1}$

ju $^{R1}$

ear

wajkuq $^{R1}$


wajluq $^{R1}$


wey $^{R1}$


wejmec $^{R1}$


jep $^{R1}$

to paternal
great-grandmother

ja $^{R1}$


jalpolq $^{R1}$

Plang women

jate $^{R1}$

grandmother

jam $^{R1}$

cry

janweq $^{R1}$

not

janjut $^{R1}$
to pull down

jah $^{R1}$
maternal

jaj $^{R1}$
grandmother

jet $^{R1}$
fresh

jotjet $^{R1}$
to tiptoe

jok $^{R1}$
good

jononj $^{R1}$
waist

jokcor $^{R1}$
to hold up

jokan $^{R1}$
to stand

juk $^{R1}$
to abandon

jum $^{R1}$
prey

juklet $^{R1}$
if

village

die
APPENDIX B
1. Narrative I

nem^R^1  zi^R^1  kuj^R^1  kon^R^1
when we have child

lah^R^1  rikoen^R^1  plan^R^1  nem^R^1  zi^R^1  kuj^R^1  kon^R^1
tall tradition Plang when we have child

nemma^R^1  meh^R^1  khu^R^1  lah^R^1  so^R^1  zi^R^1
previous time be man say Fp we

muk^R^1  nay^R^1  kujekej^R^1
stay at mountain

nemma^R^1  so^R^1  ju^R^1  mi^R^1  tanin^R^1  sala^R^1  tet^R^1  ne?
previous time Fp if you begin sickness from pregnant already Fp

kraw^R^1  tet^R^1  chei^R^1  zar^R^1  chei^R^1  tet^R^1  zi^R^1  tet^R^1  zew^R^1  mun^R^1
about one month two months already we then find keep

kute^R^1  ziri^R^1  mun^R^1  kro^R^1  pro^R^1  tetri^R^1
old cloth our Poss keep enough cloth old Poss

zet^R^1  zej^R^1  ro^R^1  a^R^1  mun^R^1  nay^R^1  hom^R^1  konri^R^1
and come prepare it keep at diaper child Poss
rit plan nemma so maklet mun hom konri
traditional Plang previous time Fp until keep diaper child Poss
ju? di tatw pun por pon leh chif
if we pregnant get four five six month
i let tagni? sw paj
we then begin wander medicine
et di kuen kuj pon i kuen pun pon pon already we not have meat we not get eat meat
i nan phra kano
we will eat what
inon i nan huh sano
not know we will do how
i ej likri ke? i nan ponri
we feed pig Poss so we will meat Poss
ju? di ej erri ke? i nan pon erri
if we feed chicken Poss so we will eat chicken Poss
maklet nak set se? dii takuj paj
until give birth and Fp we not have medicine
and we not have doctor

we not get not visit doctor

give birth and call man be midwife

be midwife that call man come stay with you

and give birth with husband

we alone give birth with mother with father Poss

until give birth finish and Fp and find preserve charcoal

and then pull silk black take charcoal and

turn way sky way sky
?ɔt R₁ leʔ R₁ tih R₁ pasɔ R₁ ?ɔt R₁ leʔ R₁ mat R₁ katintuŋriʔ R₁ and then take charcoal and then bind navel Poss

?ɔt R₁ ?um R₁ ?aʔ R₁ pæŋtem R₂ pasɔ R₁ ?ɔt R₁ ?iʔ R₁ leʔ R₁ peʔ R₁ and keep it under charcoal and we then slice

peʔ R₁ ?aʔ R₁ ?eʔ R₁ leʔ R₁ pek R₁ ?um R₁ həm R₁ kiʔ R₁ slice it and then draw water bathe he

pek R₁ ?um R₁ həm R₁ kiʔ R₁ juʔ R₁ kiʔ R₁ tacaŋ R₁ jam R₁ soʔ R₁ draw water bathe he if he not can cry Fp

leʔ R₁ pin R₁ cuŋ R₁ kiʔ R₁ ?ew R₁ ?aker R₁ leʔ R₁ pawk R₁ then hold leg he find air then turn

tuh R₁ kiʔ R₁ ?ew R₁ ?ew R₁ pæŋtem R₂ ?eʔ R₁ kiʔ R₁ kok R₁ canʔon R₁ head he up find under and he - call - midwife

kiʔ R₁ leʔ R₁ həm R₁ kiʔ R₁ teʔeʔ R₁ soʔ R₁ who then bathe he like that FP

rit R₁ plan R₁ ?iʔ R₁ soʔ R₁ leʔ R₁ pun R₁ leh R₁ niʔ R₁ tradition plang we Fp Then get six day

leʔ R₁ kah R₂ ?iʔ R₁ jʊŋjəŋ R₁ ?um R₁ kʰut R₁ tiʔ R₁ kʰut R₁ canrɪʔ R₁ then give we hold by finger water clean hand clean foot Poss
naŋ⁰¹ ṭumketep⁰² ju⁰¹ ri⁰¹ ?i?⁰¹ ta⁰¹ pun⁰¹ kʰut⁰¹ rʰemri⁰¹
at river if we must get clean bathe Poss

naŋ⁰¹ ṭumketep⁰² so⁰² ri⁰¹ let⁰¹ rʰ lah⁰¹ ju⁰¹ ri⁰¹ ?i?⁰¹ jem⁰¹ so⁰² ri⁰¹
at river Fp then say if we die Fp

ju⁰¹ ri⁰¹ ?i?⁰¹ jem⁰¹ let⁰¹ rʰ lah⁰¹ ?i?⁰¹ naŋ⁰² rʰ on⁰¹ pun⁰¹ rʰ
if we die then say we will not get

muk⁰¹ maj⁰¹ pej⁰¹ ri⁰¹ ?i?⁰¹ nkuj⁰¹ pej⁰¹ let⁰¹ rʰ
stay with man we lonely man then

lah⁰¹ ?i?⁰¹ rʰ on⁰¹ kuj⁰¹ tʰon⁰¹ rʰ hem⁰¹ rʰ
say we not have locate bathe

?i?⁰¹ meh⁰¹ kʰu⁰¹ rʰ on⁰¹ sot⁰¹ rʰ on⁰¹ sêj⁰¹ rʰ
we be person not fresh not beautiful

ju⁰¹ ri⁰¹ ?i?⁰¹ let⁰¹ rʰ harah⁰¹ ni?⁰¹ so⁰² ri⁰¹ ju⁰¹ ri⁰¹ ?i?⁰¹ let⁰¹ rʰ
if we then seven day Fp if we then

pun⁰¹ kʰutri⁰¹ rʰ so⁰² ri⁰¹ pej⁰¹ let⁰¹ rʰ kah⁰² ?i?⁰¹ rʰ
get clean Poss Fp man then give we

muk⁰¹ maj⁰¹ leʔen⁰¹ rʰ et⁰¹ rʰ pun⁰¹ sipsi⁰¹ rʰ
stay with them and get forty
siphaⁿⁱⁿˡᵉᵗʳᵏⁿᵒʳⁱᵐᵉʳⁱ
fifty      day    then    child Poss  name Poss

jᵘʳᵏⁱⁿᵃʳᵐᵉʳᵃⁿᵒʳⁱʳⁱˢᵉʳⁱ
if     he      will     name     what     Fp

ʔʼᵳᵗʳᵗᵘᵏˢᵃˡᵃᵏʰʳᵳˡᵉᵗʳⁿᵒᵏʳᵳˡᵉʳᵃｌᵃᵏʳᵳˡ
and  tell  one's  fortune  finish  then  look  prediction  by  lots

jᵘʳ⁰ ᵒˢᵉ飏ʳ¹  jʳᵏʳ¹  ᵒˢᵉ飏ʳ¹  kʳᵏʳ¹  ᵒᵃᶜᵃⁿʳ¹  kⁱʳ¹  ᵒᵉƞʳ¹
if  predict  good  Fp  call  teacher  who  come

teʳⁱʳᵏⁿᵒᵗᵢʳ¹ʳᵉʳⁿᵉʳᵗʳᵏⁱʳ¹ʳᵉʳⁿᵉʳᵗʳᵢʳᵗراع

take    child    Poss  name    give  he  name  finish  already

Free Translation

Giving Birth

For Plang people, when a woman is pregnant, she will fine a used diaper for her baby. This is their tradition. During the 4 – 6 months of pregnancy, her husband finds an obstetrician to take care of his wife. When she gives birth, her husband will be with her and help the obstetrician. At that time, no one is allowed to be with her except her husband and parents. The obstetrician takes a black cloth and charcoal and then points them into the sky following Plang tradition. After that, she ties the baby’s placenta together. If the baby doesn’t cry, it will be shaken to help it breathe. The parents of the baby have to clean their hands and feet in the river within six days after it was born. For the Plang, it’s believing that they will die soon if they do not clean them. Moreover, after they die, they cannot stay with people. And they do not have a place to take a bath. It’s also believed that they will not have a happy life after death. If they take a bath, they can stay with Plang people after they died. The parents have to name their baby have 15 days. If they do not find the suitable name for their baby, they have to draw lost at the Buddhist Temple. If they can get a good lot, they will ask a monk to name their baby.
2. Narrative II

moj\textsuperscript{RI} mu?\textsuperscript{RI}

sowing seeds

n\textsuperscript{n}\textsuperscript{s}sam\textsuperscript{RI} \textsuperscript{2}t\textsuperscript{RI} t\textsuperscript{a}n\textsuperscript{n}i\textsuperscript{RI} h\textsuperscript{e}r\textsuperscript{RI} m\textsuperscript{o}k\textsuperscript{RI} m\textsuperscript{a}r\textsuperscript{RI} m\textsuperscript{a}r\textsuperscript{RI}

third month already begin go chop farm Poss

m\textsuperscript{o}k\textsuperscript{RI} m\textsuperscript{a}r\textsuperscript{RI} \textsuperscript{2}t\textsuperscript{RI} p\textsuperscript{e}j\textsuperscript{RI} \textsuperscript{2}t\textsuperscript{RI} se\textsuperscript{RI} t\textsuperscript{a}n\textsuperscript{n}i\textsuperscript{RI} \textsuperscript{2}a\textsuperscript{RI}

chop farm Poss then person come heap it

r\textsuperscript{o}t\textsuperscript{RI} c\textsuperscript{h}i\textsuperscript{RI} n\textsuperscript{e}m\textsuperscript{h}a\textsuperscript{RI} se\textsuperscript{RI} p\textsuperscript{e}j\textsuperscript{RI} t\textsuperscript{a}n\textsuperscript{n}i\textsuperscript{RI} k\textsuperscript{u}t\textsuperscript{RI} t\textsuperscript{a}t\textsuperscript{RI}

until month five month Fp Person begin watch it

p\textsuperscript{e}j\textsuperscript{RI} \textsuperscript{2}t\textsuperscript{RI} t\textsuperscript{a}n\textsuperscript{n}i\textsuperscript{RI} \textsuperscript{R}u\textsuperscript{RI} m\textsuperscript{a}r\textsuperscript{RI} m\textsuperscript{a}r\textsuperscript{RI}

person then begin furrow farm Poss

p\textsuperscript{l}i\textsuperscript{RI} \textsuperscript{R}u\textsuperscript{RI} \textsuperscript{M}a\textsuperscript{R}i\textsuperscript{RI} \textsuperscript{R}u\textsuperscript{RI} k\textsuperscript{u}t\textsuperscript{RI} n\textsuperscript{u}m\textsuperscript{R}i\textsuperscript{RI} p\textsuperscript{l}i\textsuperscript{RI} t\textsuperscript{u}p\textsuperscript{RI} t\textsuperscript{R}i\textsuperscript{RI}

built furrow with mine go burn wood Poss build hut Poss

r\textsuperscript{o}t\textsuperscript{RI} c\textsuperscript{h}i\textsuperscript{RI} n\textsuperscript{e}m\textsuperscript{h}o\textsuperscript{k}\textsuperscript{RI} \textsuperscript{2}t\textsuperscript{RI} t\textsuperscript{a}n\textsuperscript{n}i\textsuperscript{RI} s\textsuperscript{O}m\textsuperscript{RI} m\textsuperscript{u}2\textsuperscript{RI}

Until month month six then begin put on rice seeds

\textsuperscript{2}t\textsuperscript{RI} t\textsuperscript{a}\textsuperscript{RI} s\textsuperscript{a}m\textsuperscript{R}i\textsuperscript{RI} s\textsuperscript{a}m\textsuperscript{R}i \textsuperscript{n}\textsuperscript{a}n\textsuperscript{RI} t\textsubscript{h}e\textsubscript{J} R\textsuperscript{I}

we must soak soak at pot
pansanoro ʔsamaj ʔet ʔii ʔan ʔer ʔmarri
up to here soak already, we will go farm Poss

kuj saw pej klom ʔhalok samaj
have twenty person carry on back mortar soak

ʔer nup pun teʔ cen ʔet kah ʔeri sum nup
go morning get one patch and give together eat morning

ʔotle ʔet pej muʔ ʔet kok
until seven eight clock already call

ʔeri sum sumnup so
together eat breakfast Fp

sumnup sak ʔet se tari ʔe ʔuml ʔa
breakfast full already ·Fp · relax · drink tea

takraw ʔet se tanji ʔajni leh moj mu
for a while already Fp begin move down sow seeds

ʔi p’ra paj ʔet se tanji ʔajni lew moj ʔet
we smoke cigarette already Fp begin move up sow already

juʔ ʔii ʔuh nhom ʔet ʔe ʔal ʔpra paj
if we do work already drink tea smoke cigarette
Sowing Rice Grains

In the 3rd month, Plang people will clear fields. After that, the weeds are collected together. When the 5th month begins, they start to dig up the ditches. Next, they go into the forest, they burn it in order to get wood to build their houses. In the 6th month, the grains are put in water first. Then they are sown in the fields. In the morning they take mortars of grains with them. There are about twenty people working in the fields. They will have breakfast about 7 or 8 o’clock after they finish one field. Then, they will take a rest. Some of them drink tea or smoke cigarettes. After that, they will move to the other places to sow their rice grains unit noon. They lunch together. Then, they sleep. After they wake up, they will return home and take all sowing equipment with them.
3. Procedural I

\textit{nsød}^{\text{RI}} \textit{la}^{\text{RI}}

\textit{plant tea}

\textit{poc}^{\text{RI}} \textit{plik}^{\text{RI}} \textit{?a? poc}^{\text{RI}} \textit{plik}^{\text{RI}} \textit{?a?}^{\text{RI}} \textit{?en}^{\text{RI}}

\textit{pluck lace it pluck lace it come}

\textit{?et}^{\text{RI}} \textit{se}^{\text{RI}} \textit{let}^{\text{RI}} \textit{?a?}^{\text{RI}} \textit{?en}^{\text{RI}} \textit{hok}^{\text{RI}} \textit{?a?}^{\text{RI}}

\textit{and Fp then it come dry it}

\textit{hok}^{\text{RI}} \textit{?a?}^{\text{RI}} \textit{makkho?}^{\text{RI}} \textit{hok}^{\text{RI}} \textit{?et}^{\text{RI}}

\textit{dry it until dry already}.

\textit{?et}^{\text{RI}} \textit{se}^{\text{RI}} \textit{te?}^{\text{RI}} \textit{?en}^{\text{RI}} \textit{nsød}^{\text{RI}} \textit{?a?}^{\text{RI}}

\textit{and Fp bring come plant it}

\textit{nsød}^{\text{RI}} \textit{?a?}^{\text{RI}} \textit{teenem}^{\text{RI}} \textit{tanem}^{\text{RI}} \textit{tonnem}^{\text{RI}} \textit{se?}^{\text{RI}}

\textit{plant it one year two year three year Fp}

\textit{?et}^{\text{RI}} \textit{pun}^{\text{RI}} \textit{pet}^{\text{RI}} \textit{la}^{\text{RI}} \textit{naŋ}^{\text{RI}} \textit{luw}^{\text{RI}} \textit{laso?}^{\text{RI}}

\textit{and get keep tea at Sipsongpanna Fp}

\textit{poc}^{\text{RI}} \textit{?et}^{\text{RI}} \textit{se?}^{\text{RI}} \textit{pəh}^{\text{RI}} \textit{naŋ}^{\text{RI}} \textit{tak}^{\text{RI}} \textit{rep}^{\text{RI}}

\textit{pluck and Fp. carry on back at basket}
kah\textsuperscript{R1}\textsubscript{her} som\textsuperscript{R1} naŋ\textsuperscript{R1} pija\textsuperscript{R1}
take go put on at bag

tuk\textsuperscript{R1} a?\textsuperscript{R1} naŋ\textsuperscript{R1} t\textsuperscript{h}r\textsubscript{ep}\textsuperscript{R1}
pour off it at basket

poc\textsuperscript{R1} po\textsuperscript{R1} a?\textsuperscript{R1} et\textsuperscript{R1} kun\textsuperscript{R1} tik\textsuperscript{R1} a?\textsuperscript{R1} naŋ\textsuperscript{R1} nnon\textsuperscript{R1} na\textsuperscript{R1}
pluck come it and pile up throw it at middle house

et\textsuperscript{R1} pasa\textsuperscript{R1} a?\textsuperscript{R1} pojo\textsuperscript{R1} a?\textsuperscript{R1} k\textsuperscript{hrmp}\textsuperscript{R1} kuc\textsuperscript{R1}
and stir it do not it touch sun

panlo\textsuperscript{R1} let\textsuperscript{R1} nken\textsuperscript{R1} mok\textsuperscript{h}an p\textsuperscript{en}\textsubscript{R1} a?\textsuperscript{R1} naŋ\textsuperscript{R1} nnon\textsuperscript{R1}
in a few minutes then establish big pan blow it at fire

s\textsuperscript{en}\textsuperscript{R1} p\textsuperscript{ej}\textsuperscript{R1} rum\textsuperscript{R1} sum\textsuperscript{R1} lik\textsuperscript{R1} t\textsuperscript{en}\textsubscript{e}\textsuperscript{R1}
like person warm rice pig like-that

let\textsuperscript{R1} n\textsuperscript{ec}\textsuperscript{R1} n\textsuperscript{ec}\textsuperscript{R1} a?\textsuperscript{R1} n\textsuperscript{uh}\textsuperscript{R1} a?\textsuperscript{R1} l\textsuperscript{en}\textsubscript{e}\textsuperscript{R1}
then massage massage it do it like that

n\textsuperscript{ec}\textsuperscript{R1} la?ar\textsuperscript{R1} la?or\textsuperscript{R1} pok\textsuperscript{R1} a\textsuperscript{ale}\textsuperscript{R1}
massage two three Clas like this

n\textsuperscript{ec}\textsuperscript{R1} a?\textsuperscript{R1} se\textsuperscript{R1} nkrc\textsuperscript{R1} a?\textsuperscript{R1}
massage it Fp flutter it
in a few minutes tomorrow bring dry it

let[r] se[r] hok[r] ¿a[r] teni[r]
then Fp dry it one day

if we will take drink it Fp

we don’t dirty Fp massage it

put on at winnowing we massage it separate Fp

Free Translation

Growing tea
They will dry tea seeds after they pick them. Then, they take all the dry seeds to plant in the field. They have to wait for three years unit they grow up. Then, they can pick the tea leaves. In Sip – Song – Panna, tea leaves will be kept in the basket or the shoulder bag after they are picked. Then, those leaves are piled up in the middle of the house. They thresh them into the air indooors for a moment. They light a fire and prepare a pan to heat the tea leaves for a moment and then let them cool down. Then they dry them with sunlight again the following day. If they want to keep some for themselves, they will clean and thresh them in a separate threshing basket.
4. Procedural II

Katkat $^{RI}$ kō $^{RI}$ pēn $^{RI}$
wear as a turban of woman

kū $^{RI}$ mēh $^{RI}$ numpēn $^{RI}$ hī $^{RI}$ se $^{RI}$
thing be girl we Fp

numpēn $^{RI}$ hū $^{RI}$ kūkōtpēn $^{RI}$ hī $^{RI}$ jū $^{RI}$ hī $^{RI}$ klin $^{RI}$ hēkri $^{RI}$
girl we old woman we if we put up hair hair Poss

hī $^{RI}$ se $^{RI}$ ma $^{RI}$ hī $^{RI}$ kāti $^{RI}$
and Fp mother we like that

jū $^{RI}$ hū $^{RI}$ nū $^{RI}$ hū $^{RI}$ pun $^{RI}$ satim $^{RI}$ sipnēm $^{RI}$ nājō $^{RI}$
if age we get nine ten years Fp

hī $^{RI}$ tānī $^{RI}$ katkat $^{RI}$ hū $^{RI}$
we begin wear as a turban Fp

katkat $^{RI}$ nūhri $^{RI}$ hū $^{RI}$ kum $^{RI}$ hēk $^{RI}$ nūhri $^{RI}$
wear as a turban do Poss we roll hair do Poss

hī $^{RI}$ kum $^{RI}$ hēk $^{RI}$ hī $^{RI}$ nūhri $^{RI}$ hī $^{RI}$ pin $^{RI}$ nūhri $^{RI}$
we roll hair already do Poss we hair pin do Poss
juʔRI ʔiʔRI kujRI kʰoʔRI ʔiʔRI ʔetRI swtRI tajRI
if we have boy friend we then keep flower

swtRI tajRI təwasaʔRI
keep flower one rainy season

ʔetRI seʔRI ʔuʔRI ʔetRI kujRI kʰoʔRI ranuʔRI
and Fp if then have boy friend truly

kʰoʔRI naŋRI kahRIʔiʔRI tajRI ʔatchiʔRI ʔətəməmRI
boy friend will give we flower all months all years

ʔetRI seʔRI tənniʔRI pəkRI tajRI ʔaŋəʔRI
and Fp begin slip in flower Fp

pəkRI tajRI naŋRI tuhriʔRI pəkRI naŋRI kumRI ʔəkriʔRI seʔRI
slip in flower at head Poss slip in at roll hair Poss Fp

juʔRI mehRI kʰuʔRI lahRI naŋRI makRI kʰoʔRI
if be man say will love man

naŋnaʔRI seʔRI təʔRI kʰumkʰumRI tuhRI ʔiʔRI ʔəʔRI
where Fp must responsible head we Fp

saktaʔRI ʔənRI pəkRI tajRI seʔRI ʔənRI ʔetRI
even if not slip in flower Fp he then
wander buy we slip in flower
man do head we full many flowers Fp
if we then not have boyfriend say we
then not get slip in flower stay Sipsongpanna
previous time Fp some time if
we not have boyfriend Fp get we
slip flower one raining season
then not get slip in flower like person and
be young woman became an old maid
meh⁸⁸ khrir⁸⁸ ron⁸⁸ kuj⁸⁸ kho⁸⁸ ron⁸⁸ ajen⁸⁸
be yang woman not have boyfriend Fp

Free Translation

Wearing the Turban of a Woman
Every Plang woman wears turban. When she is 4 – 6 years old, she will wear a
traditional hat instead of a turban. When she is 9 – 10 years old, she has to put on a
turban by herself. She will roll up her hair and then stick the hairpin inside the rolled
hair. If she has a boyfriend during the Khaw – Pna – sa (Buddhist Lent), she and her
boyfriend will go to pick flowers together. If he is her boyfriend, he will bring her
flowers every month. She will stick all flowers for her. If he cannot find one, he has
to buy them for her. If she doesn’t have a boyfriend, her head will not be covered
with flower. She has only a hairpin sticking in her hair. In Sip – Song – Panna, a
widow can stick flowers in to her hair only in Khaw - pan - sa (Buddhist Lent).
5. Hortatory I

nuh\textsuperscript{R1} turi?\textsuperscript{R1} calit\textsuperscript{R1}
do body Poss Good

nemm\textsuperscript{R1} mak\textsuperscript{R1} ?i?\textsuperscript{R1} ca\textsuperscript{R1} tom\textsuperscript{R1} ?i?\textsuperscript{R1} la?\textsuperscript{R1}
previous time parents we usually teach we Fp

kaso?\textsuperscript{R1} mak\textsuperscript{R1} ?i?\textsuperscript{R1} ca\textsuperscript{R1} se?\textsuperscript{R1} lah\textsuperscript{R1} ?i?\textsuperscript{R1} jen\textsuperscript{R1}
however parent we usually Fp say we Fp

kah\textsuperscript{R2} ?i?\textsuperscript{R1} her\textsuperscript{R1} nhom\textsuperscript{R1} teni?\textsuperscript{R1}
give we go work everyday

?i?\textsuperscript{R1} her\textsuperscript{R1} nhom\textsuperscript{R1} teni?\textsuperscript{R1} lah\textsuperscript{R1} ?i?\textsuperscript{R1} tew\textsuperscript{R1} la?\textsuperscript{R1}
we go work everyday say we not Fp

jam\textsuperscript{R1} ?i?\textsuperscript{R1} her\textsuperscript{R1} pan\textsuperscript{R1} her\textsuperscript{R1} pan\textsuperscript{R1}
when we go sell go sell
jam\textsuperscript{R1} ?i?\textsuperscript{R1} nuh\textsuperscript{R1} nhom\textsuperscript{R1} ?i?\textsuperscript{R1} let\textsuperscript{R1} ron\textsuperscript{R1}
when we do work we then rich

jam\textsuperscript{R1} ?i?\textsuperscript{R1} tasum\textsuperscript{R1} sor\textsuperscript{R1} lah\textsuperscript{R1} ?i?\textsuperscript{R1} let\textsuperscript{R1} tuk\textsuperscript{R1}
when we not eat Fp say we then poor
maken\textsuperscript{R1}  zi?\textsuperscript{R1} let\textsuperscript{R1} can\textsuperscript{R1} lah\textsuperscript{R1} katit\textsuperscript{R1} te?\textsuperscript{R1}

parent we then usually say like this

\textit{?anlo?\textsuperscript{R1} na?\textsuperscript{R1} let\textsuperscript{R1} meh\textsuperscript{R1} samaj\textsuperscript{R1} su?\textsuperscript{R1} zi?\textsuperscript{R1} ta?\textsuperscript{R1}}

this time Fp then be period new we must

\textit{he\textsuperscript{R1} hen\textsuperscript{R1} ke\textsuperscript{R1} ?a?\textsuperscript{R1} ?on\textsuperscript{R1} sen\textsuperscript{R1} nemma?\textsuperscript{R1} ?an?\textsuperscript{R1}}

go many city it not like previous time Fp

\textit{?e?\textsuperscript{R1} meh\textsuperscript{R1} k\textsuperscript{R1} ?ap\textsuperscript{R1} tanten\textsuperscript{R1}}

this be thing story remind

\textit{?anlo?\textsuperscript{R1} la?so\textsuperscript{R1} pi?\textsuperscript{R1} lah\textsuperscript{R1} ?a?\textsuperscript{R1} meh\textsuperscript{R1} k\textsuperscript{R1} ?uri\textsuperscript{R1} ?ajen\textsuperscript{R1}}

now Fp you say it be joke Fp

\textbf{Free Translation}

\textbf{Good Citizens}

Parents always tell their children to work hard if they don’t want to be poor. If they work hard, they will be rich. Someone may be considered poor on the condition that he doesn’t have enough food for each meal. Nowadays, they have to work in town. It’s different from the past. They went into the forest to work. But for the new generation there is no need for them to be concerned about the forest at all. Now, they think that working in the forest is not an important thing. However, parents always teach them that hard working is the most important thing if you want to be a good citizen.
6. Hortatory II

pej Ri nuh Ri klet Ri
person do wrong

kuRi mehRi ritkonRi ajayRi planRi iRi nemmaRi
thing be tradition people Plang we previous time

naRi lahRi anRi soRi nemmaRi juRi iRi swRi rahRi
will say he Fp previous time if we wander steal

pejRi iRi swRi hukRi naRi pejR2
person we wander go up house person

juRi iRi swRi rahRi opRi teRi pejR2 rahRi
if we wander steal rice food person steal

sarRi rahRi merRi pejR2 hemRi tepokR1 mehRi enRi seRi
gold steal silver person again one time be he Fp

pejR2 leRi metRi punRi enRi leRi kahR2 enRi sajR1 aRi
person then catch get he then give he pay damages it

mehRi huptawRi ajenRi towatR1 sajR1
be double Fp one bath pay damages
son Ri m wat RI nuh Ri kaloi Ri ten Ri let Ri ten Ri kui Ri hrokujmer Ri
two bath do like this he then not have valuable

sun RI tikson RI ten RI let RI cun RI peri RI khoj RI ten RI saj RI
if so brother and sister he then invite together help he pay

ansa RI mi RI nuh RI them RI naj RI katit RI pasah RI naj RI pa hah RI
now you do again at like this sky will cleave

hatju RI ten RI ta RI huk RI rah RI then RI far RI pok RI se RI
although if he still up steal again two time Fp

ten RI ta RI nuh RI them RI se RI tu RI nangno RI tu RI naj RI
he still do again Fp body where body at

ansa RI ken RI nono RI ta RI
who not know it

Free Translation

Violating the Law

For Plang people, burgling a house or stealing the possessions of someone such as food, money and gold more than once is a very bad thing. If he was caught, he has to pay twice as much. For example, if he steals a golden necklace worth one baht (a Thai’s measurement of gold), he has to pay for the victim two baht. If he doesn’t pay for it, his brother or sister have to pay for him. It’s believed that the thunderbolt will strike whoever commits a bad thing again such as stealing and burgling. Moreover, people in the village do not help him when he was in trouble. They do not consider him as a member of their village.
7. Tale I

ʔajur

Gibbon

ʔajur  muk  naŋ  mwat  let  picaw  kah  ʔajur

Gibbon stay at temple then monk give gibbon

phak  mat  let  phak  phak  let  nuh  ʔa?  mwah

clean alms bowl and clean clean then do it broken

ʔet  se?  picaw  let  ʔon  ʔarijat  ʔa?  leh  naŋ  keti?

And Fp monk then not allow which stand at ground

let  kah  ʔew  ne?  ʔumli?  

then give look for drink rain water

ne?  ʔumli?  ʔet  let  her  naŋ  kakkhu?

drink rain water already and go at branch of tree.

let  mon  mon  kakkhu?  her  her  naŋ  kakkhu?

then eat eat branch of tree go go at branch of tree

let  ʔon  som  ne?  ʔum  so?

then not want drink water Fp
Thê Folktale of a Gibbon

For Plang people, it’s believed that gibbons in a temple. The gibbon helped a monk clean his alms bowl. While the gibbon was cleaning the bowl, it broke the bowl. The monk got angry so he cursed it. It could not walk on the earth ever since. After that, it has to live only on trees. Moreover, it has to drink water from the rain because it cannot walk on the earth. It has to climb from one branch of a tree to the others. It always chatters on the tree “ook - ook”.
8. Tale II

konwa?R1
monkey

?u?R1 naŋR2 lahR1 ?aconlajR1 konwa?R1 kahR2 lemii?R1 so?R1
I will tell tale monkey give all of you

nēmma?R1 makeŋR1 ?i?R1 canR1 lahR1 leʔi?R1
previous times parents we usually tell all of us

nēmma?R1 so?R1 nēmma?R1 lahR1 mēhR1 konwa?R1
previous time Fp previous time say be monkey
taja?R1 ?i?R1 canR1 lahR1 leʔi?R1
elderly people we usually tell all of us
canR1 lahR1 ?a?R1 mēhR1 ?aconlajR1 plan?R1 kontojR1 nēmma?R1
usually tell which be tale Plang Kontoj previous time

let?R1 ʔeŋR1 muk?R1 naŋ?R1 pHriʔR1 muk?R1 naŋ?R1 pHriʔR1
and look for stay at forest stay at forest

makletR1 rotR1 kiʔR1 letR1 kokR1 konriʔR1
until finally arrive who and call child Poss

meʔR1 ?iʔukR1 ketiʔR1 ?iʔamR1 ketiʔR1
name Ouŋ one Oam one
tajaj. i?i? can? lah? pa? nemma? sc? elderly people we usually tell which previous time Fp
ho? kok? konri?
and go call child Poss
u? kuj? sata? ?et? i? i? ke? kuj? hek? I have tail already we then have hairs
 lah⁸ mani⁸ kən̪ni⁸ rat⁸ lemaken⁸ ki⁸ ʔeŋ⁸
tell mother Poss father Poss until all of parents who go

lah⁸ ki⁸ ʔon⁸ ʔeŋ⁸ se⁸ lah⁸ ki⁸ muk⁸ ʔri⁸⁸
tell who not go Fp tell who stay forest

leki⁸ let⁸ kutet⁸ meh⁸ konwɑ⁸ ʔet⁸ ʔo⁸
they then became be monkey finish Fp

**Free Translation**

The Folktale of a monkey

I will tell you about the folktale of a monkey. My parent told me about children who went into a forest. They didn’t want to return home. Those children would turn to monkeys. Their parents tried to find them. They called their names and asked them to return home. Those children could not go home because they have tails. Their bodies were covered with long hair. They also felt embarrassed because everyone would laugh at them. Moreover, along the way home they met dogs. The dogs barked and frightened them. Therefore, they told their parents that they would not go home. They have to live in live in the forest because they turned into monkeys.
9. Dialogue I

A: miʔ R1 jaŋ R1 sum R1 kaʔ R1
    you still eat (rice) Qfp
    ‘Have you had lunch yet?’

B: ?uʔ R2 sum R1 sak R1 ʔət R1
    I eat (rice) full already
    ‘Yes, I have.’

A: piʔ R1 ʔəʔ R1 kənɔʔ R1
    you eat (with) what
    ‘What did you eat?’

B: ʔəʔ R1 tan R1 ʔkloŋ R1 kan R1 kʰəsɔm R1
    eat (with) pound hot shrimp-paste sauce tomato
    ‘I had rice with Nam – Prig – Ma – Kaew – Som (spicy sauce).’

A: num R1 kaʔ R1
    Delicious Qfp
    ‘Was it delicious?’

B: num R1 jɛn R1
    Delicious Fp
    ‘Sure, very delicious.’
A:  mi? R1 sum R1 hən R1 ka? R1
   You eat much Q fp
   ‘Did you eat a lot?’

B:  sum R1 hən R1 jən R1
   Eat much Fp
   ‘Yes, a lot.’

A: hansar R1 naŋ R2 klon R1 naŋ R2 kin R1 thəm R1 leh R1
   Next day will pound will eat again. come

   sum R1 maj R1 mi? R1 ?ə? R1
   eat with you Fp

   ‘Tomorrow, I will eat rice with Nam – Prig – Ma – Kaew – Som again.’
   Would you like to join us?

B:  leh R1 sum R1 kʰəm R1 ?ə? R1
   come eat together Fp
   ‘Oh, sure. I will.’

A:  pi? R1 hər R1 naŋə? R1
   You, two go where
   ‘By the way, where are you going?’

B:  hər R1 mər R1 sipʰənərəj R1
   go field specific name
   ‘To “Se – pan - Rai”’
10. Dialogue II

məj: miʔ R1  teʔ R1 por R1 kanoʔ R1
     you   eat    evening    what
Mey: 'What did you have you for dinner?'

khot: teʔ R1 kalo R1
     eat    name of vegetable
Khot: 'I had rice with Ka - Ler (one kind of vegetable).'

məj: khot R1 nannoʔ R1 soʔ R1
     harvest    where    Fp
Mey: 'Ka - Ler: Were did you get it?'

khot:khot R1 nang R1 lammotip R1 soʔ R1
     harvest    at    Lammotip    Fp
Khot: 'I got it from Rum - Mor - Thip.'

məj:khot R1 lammotip R1 tcʔ R1 sum R1 han R1 lekaʔ R1
     harvest    Lammotip    those    eat    much    Fp
Mey: 'Oh, Rum - Mor - Thip! It's far from here. OK, enjoin your meal.

məj: R1 pansaʔ R1 nang R2 toʔ R1 thcm R1 titsoʔ R1
     tomorrow    will    visit    again    Fp
Mey: 'Tomorrow I will visit you again.'
BIOGRAPHY

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