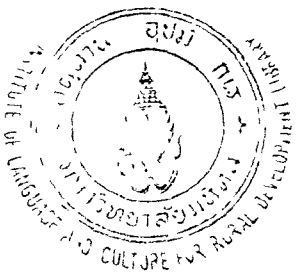

KASONG SYNTAX

SUNEE KAMNUANSIN

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This thesis is a study of Kasong syntax. Kasong language belongs to the Pearic branch of Mon-Khmer subfamily within the Austroasiatic language family which is spoken in Trat province of Thailand. This language is generally known as Chong of Trat. It was believed to be the same language as Chong which is spoken mainly in Chanthaburi province in previous studies. This study covers five ranks of the grammatical hierarchy – morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence. In addition, the language situation of Kasong is discussed in this study so that it will be useful for further work on this language.

The researcher found that Kasong and Chong are different. At the present there are only few Kasong speakers and most of them are elderly people over 55 years old. The data were elicited from the Kasong informants who live in Ban Khlong Saeng, Ban Padaw and Ban Danchumphon, Borai district, Trat province during field works between 2000-2001. The focus was on folktales, daily life communication and various kinds of text materials. The data analysis was based on the Tagmemics and the grammatical approach adopted in this study mainly follows David Thomas (1993).

The findings in this study show that the syntactic structure of Kasong language is more like Thai structure though some Mon-Khmer characteristics can still be observed. Affixation that is a significant feature in Mon-Khmer languages, is no longer productive in this language. There are a lot of Thai loanwords in Kasong, especially the grammatical words. The study reveals that Kasong is heavily influenced by Thai since Kasong speakers are bilingual in Kasong and Thai. Moreover, most of them speak Thai more than their own ethnic language. Kasong is now in the serious stage of endangerment. It is predicted that in the next few generations if nothing is done, the Kasong language will disappear when the current speakers die.

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วิทยานิพนธ์ฉบับนี้เป็นการศึกษาลักษณะไวยากรณ์ของภาษากะซอง ซึ่งเป็นภาษาที่จัดอยู่ในตระกูลออสโตรเอเชียติก ตระกูลภาษาย่อยมอญ-เขมร สาขาเพียริก พบมีพูดที่จังหวัดตราดของประเทศไทย โดยคนทั่วไปเรียกว่าชอง ทำให้เข้าใจว่าเป็นภาษาเดียวกับกลุ่มชองซึ่งมีพูดส่วนใหญ่ในจังหวัดจันทบุรี การศึกษาแต่เริ่มแรกบันทึกภาษานี้ว่าชองของตราด การศึกษานี้ครอบคลุมลำดับขั้นทางไวยากรณ์คือ หน่วยคำ คำ วลี อนุพากย์ และประโยค นอกจากนี้ยังศึกษาสถานการณ์การใช้ภาษากะซองซึ่งจะเป็นประโยชน์ต่องานวิจัยในอนาคตสำหรับภาษานี้

ผู้วิจัยพบว่ากะซองกับชองเป็นภาษาที่แตกต่างกัน ปัจจุบันผู้พูดภาษากะซองมีจำนวนน้อยและผู้พูดส่วนใหญ่มีอายุมากกว่า 55 ปี ข้อมูลในการวิเคราะห์รวบรวมจากผู้บอกภาษากะซองซึ่งอยู่ที่บ้านคลองแสง บ้านปะเดา และบ้านด่านชุมพล ต.ด่านชุมพล อ.บ่อไร่ จ.ตราด โดยผู้วิจัยปฏิบัติงานภาคสนามระหว่างปี ค.ศ. 2000-2001 การเก็บข้อมูลเน้นเก็บข้อมูลระดับข้อความได้แก่ เรื่องเล่า นิทาน วิธีทำ ตลอดจนบทสนทนา การวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลใช้ทฤษฎีแทกมีมิคซึ่งวิเคราะห์ภาษาโดยพิจารณาหน้าที่หรือตำแหน่งของหน่วยภาษา กรอบการทำงานตามแนวทางการวิเคราะห์ของเดวิด โทมัส (David Thomas, 1993)

ผลการศึกษาพบว่าภาษากะซองแม้จะมีลักษณะของภาษามอญ-เขมร แต่ลักษณะโครงสร้างทางไวยากรณ์คล้ายกับภาษาไทยมาก การสร้างคำด้วยการเติมวิภัตปัจจัย (affixation) ซึ่งเป็นลักษณะสำคัญของภาษากลุ่มมอญ-เขมรกำลังจะสูญหายไปจากภาษานี้ มีคำยืมภาษาไทยจำนวนมากในภาษากะซองโดยเฉพาะคำไวยากรณ์ แสดงให้เห็นว่าภาษากะซองได้รับอิทธิพลอย่างมากจากภาษาไทย ทั้งนี้เนื่องมาจากผู้พูดกะซองเป็นบุคคลทวิภาษาระหว่างภาษากะซองกับภาษาไทยและมีการใช้ภาษาไทยมากกว่าภาษาของตนเอง กะซองปัจจุบันเป็นภาษาในภาวะวิกฤตซึ่งโอกาสที่จะฟื้นฟูให้ภาษาคงอยู่ต่อไปเป็นไปได้ยาก คาดได้ว่าอีกหนึ่งหรือสองช่วงอายุภาษานี้คงจะสูญหายไป

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ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

A	Accompaniment
add	additive
adj	adjective
Adj P, adj p	Adjective phrase
adv	adverb
Adv P, adv p	Adverb phrase
Ag	agent
Alt	alternative
amb	ambient
Approx	approximate
aux	auxiliary
B	Beneficiary
bi	bitransitive
caus	cause
Cl, cl	clause
clf	classifier
com	comparative
Compl	complement
cond	conditional
conj	conjuantive
cont	contrastive
cor	correlative
cov	covarying
ded	deductive
dem	demonstrative
des	descriptive
Dest	Destination
dif	different
Dir	Direction
DO	Direct object
eg	equational
el	element
emb	embedding
eq	equational
equi	equivalent
Ex	Example
exist	existential

ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS (cont.)

FP, fp	final particle
Gp	Group
H	Head
HN	Head noun
I, inst	Instrument
Iden	Identifier
imp	imperative
Inten	Intensifier
intr	intransitive
IO	Indirect object
jux	juxtaposed
L, loc	Location, locative
Lk	Linker
mer	merged
mk	marker
Mod	Modifier
mot	motion
MV	Main verb
N, n	noun
Neg	Negative
NP, np	Nominal/noun phrase
Nuc	Nucleus
num	numeral
num p	numeral phrase
O	Object
p	particle
P	Predicate
Pass, pass	Passive
pCl	passive clause
Per, per	peripheral
po	positive
Poss	Possessor
PP, pp	Prepositional phrase
prep	preposition
pron	pronoun
prop	propulsion
pur	purposeful

ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS (cont.)

Qual	Ouality
quant	quantity
ques	question word
quot	quotative
reci	reciprocal
ref	reflexive
Rel	Relator
rel. cl	relative clause
res	result
S	Subject
Sec	Section
Sent	Sentence
seq	sequential
sim	simple
Sou	Source
T	Time
tm	time word
tr	transitive
V	Verb
Voc	Vocative
VP, vp	Verb phrase
Ø	zero
+	obligatory
±	optional
~	free variation

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

1.1.1 Rationale

In Borai district, Trat province of Thailand there is a group of people who call themselves and their language Kasong but outsiders call them and their language Chong. From the previous documents (Isarangura, 1935; Martin, 1974; Headley, 1978, 1985 and Kunwadee (กุลวดี, 2539)) this language is presented as Chong of Trat. The authors believe that it is the same language as Chong which is spoken mainly in Chanthaburi province. In 1998 during the Field Methods course in Linguistics, I had an opportunity to study this language from a native speaker who came from Khlong Saeng village. At that time some Chong speakers from Chanthaburi province and a Samre speaker from Trat province also came in order to teach their ethnic languages to other linguistic students. That the first time I knew from my informant that her language is 'Kasong' because the word Kasong has never been recorded as a language. She also mentioned that her language is different from Chong of Chanthaburi. She mentioned that she could not understand Chong spoken by Chong speakers from Chanthaburi. She could recognize only some words which are the same as those in her language. The result of the comparison between Kasong (Chong of Trat) from my study with Chong from previous studies shows that these two languages are different in phonological system, lexicon and some syntactical structure (discussed in 1.2.1). Kasong (Chong of Trat) and Chong spoken in Chanthaburi should therefore be different languages, but they are closely related. According to Suwilai's recent report (สุวิไล, 2543), she records this language as Kasong language. Also, she mentions that Kasong is similar to Samre which is found in the same district.

Linguistic studies specifically on Kasong are few and there is confusion between this language and Chong of Chanthaburi. One article is merely a collection of

about 275 vocabularies by Isarangura (1935). The other is Kunwadee's study (กุลวดี, 2539) which provides a phonological system and a general structure of the language. So far there is no other complete study of Kasong grammar.

From my first field trip to the Kasong area in Borai district, Trat province, I found that there are only a small number of the Kasong speakers. Most of the speakers are elderly people. They are bilingual in Thai and their ethnic language. Most of them speak more Thai language than Kasong. The young cannot speak their ethnic language at all. It is therefore predictable that this language will disappear in the next few generations.

Since there is no complete record of the language and there are only few speakers, urgent detailed study of this language is urgently needed, especially the structure of language so that it will be a linguistic evidence for further works. More reliable descriptive study would undoubtedly lead to the clear understanding of this language.

1.1.2 Objective of the study

The objective of this study is to present the syntactical structure of Kasong language in order to (1) fill a gap in the linguistic study on one specific dialect of the Pearic branch and (2) to provide the basic information about the situation of Kasong language.

1.1.3 Benefit of the study

The expected benefits received from this study are as follow.

1. To be a documentary record on Kasong grammar which contribute to the knowledge of Pearic languages, a little known sub-branch of the Austroasiatic language family.
2. To provide useful linguistic data for further works on Kasong language and comparative studies of Pearic languages.
3. To provide basic research that contribute to maintenance and possible revitalization of this language which is considered to be an endangered language.

4. To provide a characteristic of an endangered language which will be useful for the study on other endangered languages in Thailand and in Southeast Asia.

1.1.4 The Scope of the study and Theoretical approach

1.1.4.1 Scope of the study

The term 'syntax' refers to the grammatical rules governing the way words are combined to form sentences in a language and how their relate to each other. This thesis studies the syntactic structure of Kasong language. It covers morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence. Some semantic component will be discussed together with the description of surface forms in each level. The grammatical level beyond the sentence rank – paragraph and discourse, are not described here. However, the text materials on narratives, procedures, dialogues, etc. are mainly used for analyzing Kasong syntax and some of them are also provided in Appendix.

1.1.4.2 Theoretical approach

The Tagmemics developed by Kenneth L. Pike is used for analyzing the language data in this study. It is simple and efficient for describing unwritten languages. The concept of Tagmemic analysis is that the basic grammatical unit consists of a functional slot within a construction frame, and a class of substitutable items that can fill this slot (fillers). There are various descriptions of tagmemic model applied by the linguists. However, the grammatical approach adopted in this study mainly follows Thomas (1993).

Grammatical units are organized hierarchically into ranks – morpheme, word, phrase, clause, sentence, etc. (figure1). It seems that semantics can be adequately and appropriately handled by these ranks. The description may theoretically starts from any rank or level, and works up or down from there. This study starts with clause then go down to morpheme, word and phrase then go up to sentence.

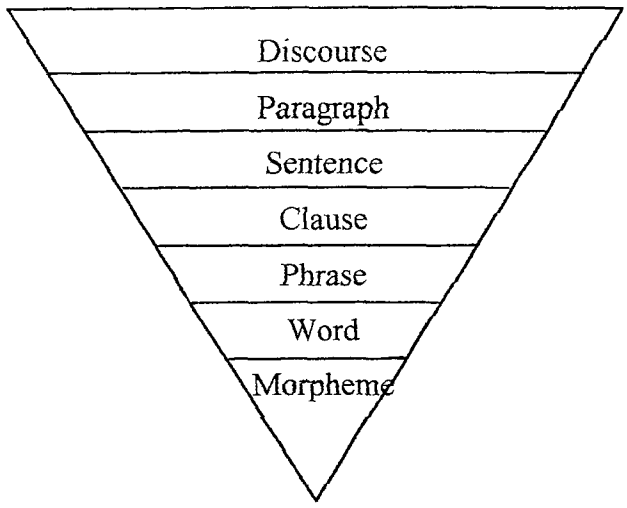


Figure1: The Grammatical hierarchy (Thomas, 1977 cited by Somsonge (สมทรง,2536:9))

1.2 Linguistic overview

1.2.1 The name of the language and some differences between Kasong and Chong

Kasong speakers call themselves and their language 'Kasong' [kasɔ̤ːŋ^{21}], but they no longer know the original meaning of the word. My informants told me that /saː pen kasɨ̀m kasɔ̀ːŋ ɲaːj phaːsáː kasɔ̀ːŋ/ 'We are Kasong people and speak Kasong language'. This minority language is generally known as Chong of Trat in previous linguistic and ethnological studies. The Kasong people also accept the name Chong other people call them.

Since Kasong is generally known as Chong of Trat, it is misunderstood to be the same language as Chong which is spoken mainly in Chanthaburi province. I compared a number of Kasong words collected by myself with Chong words from previous studies (Table1 below shows some words). There are great differences in vocabulary between Kasong and Chong of various varieties spoken in Chanthaburi.

Table 1 The lexical comparison between Kasong (Chong of Trat) and Chong spoken in Chanthaburi.

Meaning	Kasong (my data)	Chong in Takhian Thong (Surekha, 1982)	Chong in Thung Ta-In (Sirikarn, 1987)	Chong in Nam Khun (Saifon, 1991)	Chong in KhlongPhlu (Siripen, 2001)
'mother'	mɨɲ	mee^{R3}	mee^{R3}	mee^{R3}	mee^{R3}
'sleep'	thɛ:k	p^{h}ic^{R3}	pic^{R3}	pic^{R3}	p^{h}ic^{R3}
'he/she'	nak	dak^{R1}	dak^{R1}	dak^{R1}	dak^{R1}
'mouth'	ranɛ:ŋ	pakaa^{R1}	pa^{R1}kaa^{R1}	kaa^{R1}	kəka:^{R1}
'field'	ma:l	baaj^{R1}	baaj^{R1}	baaj^{R1}	ba:j^{R1}
'rice'	kloŋ	plɔŋ^{R1}	plɔŋ^{R1}	plɔŋ^{R1}	plɔŋ^{R1}
'bite'	khát	tap^{R1}	tap^{R1}	tap^{R1}	tap^{R1}
'come'	jip	ceen^{R1}	ceen^{R1}	ʔeen^{R1}	ce:n^{R2}
'ride'	cɨ́h	thəət^{R3}	taat^{R3}	təət^{R3}	t^{h}i:t^{R3}

It is also observed that the final consonant /-l/ and the cluster /sr-/ found in Kasong words do not occur in Chong phonological system recorded by Huffman (1985), Surekha (สุเรขา, 2525), Sirikarn (สิริกาญจน์, 2530), Saifon (สายฝน, 2534) and Siripen (2001).

Apart from that there are grammatical difference in the position of the negative word in Kasong and Chong as shown in the following examples. The negative word in Chong occurs after the verb or in the final position of a clause or sentence whereas in Kasong it appears before the verb.

Chong : c^{h}ɔɔ^{R1} keew^{R1} ʔih^{R1}
dog *bark* *not*
'A dog doesn't bark.' (Sirikarn, 1987 written in Thai: 145)

Kasong : chó: kóh ke:l
dog *not* *bark*
'A dog doesn't bark.'

Chong : c^han^{R1} $c^ho{:}p^{R3}$ $c^ha{:}^{R1}$ lac^hiw^{R1} $\underline{?ih}^{R1}$

I *like* *eat* *vegetable* *not*

'I don't like to eat vegetables.' (Siripen, 2001: 30)

Kasong : chan <u>kɔ́h</u> cɔ̀:p cha: khlá: se:w

I *not* *like* *eat* *vegetable*

'I don't like to eat vegetables.'

According to Siripen (2001), Chong may also have double negative words in a negative clause but Kasong does not.

Chong : c^han^{R1} $(\underline{?i}^{R1})$ k^hah^{R1} dak^{R1} $\underline{?ih}^{R1}$

I *(not)* *know* *he/she* *not*

'I don't know him/her.' (Siripen, 2001: 30)

Kasong : chan <u>kɔ́h</u> kháh nak

I *not* *know* *he/she*

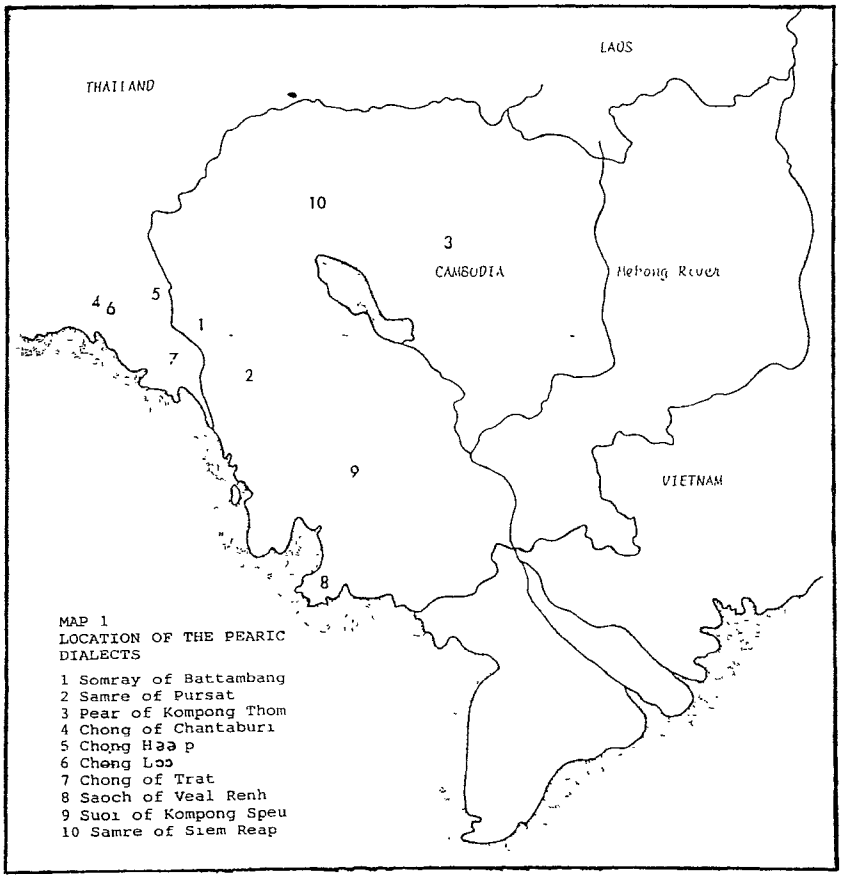
'I don't know him/her.'

From the lexical and grammatical characteristics of the language and the name they call themselves Kasong, this language is considered to be different language from Chong according to Suwilai (สุวิไล, 2543, 2544). As of yet, there is no comparative study between these two languages which could lead to a more precise language classification.

1.2.2 Language affiliation

According to Martin (1974) and Headley (1985), Kasong language (which is called Chong of Trat) belongs to the Pearic branch of Mon-Khmer subfamily within Austroasiatic language family. Other languages in the Pearic grouping generally known are Pear, Chong, Samre, Angrak and Sa'och (Thomas and Headley, 1970; Diffloth, 1974). The following classification of the Pearic is suggested by Headley (1985: 462). Kasong (Chong of Trat) is considered to be in the South Central group of Pearic branch.

1. NORTHEASTERN – Pearic of Kompong Thom
2. SOUTHEASTERN
   - 2.1 Suoi of Kompong Speu
   - 2.2 Saoch of Veal Renh
3. WESTERN
   - 3.1 Chong of Chantaburi
   - 3.2 Chong Həəp
   - 3.3 Chong Lɔɔ
4. SOUTH CENTRAL
   - 4.1 Samre of Pursat
   - 4.2 Chong of Baradat (northeastern Trat Province)
   - 4.3 **Chong of Trat**
5. NORTH CENTRAL – Somray of Battambang



Map 1: Location of the Pearic dialects (Headley, 1985: 430)

In Suwilai's recent report (สุวิไล, 2544), she also shows the relationship between Kasong and other Pearic languages in the chart form. The following chart is adapted from her.

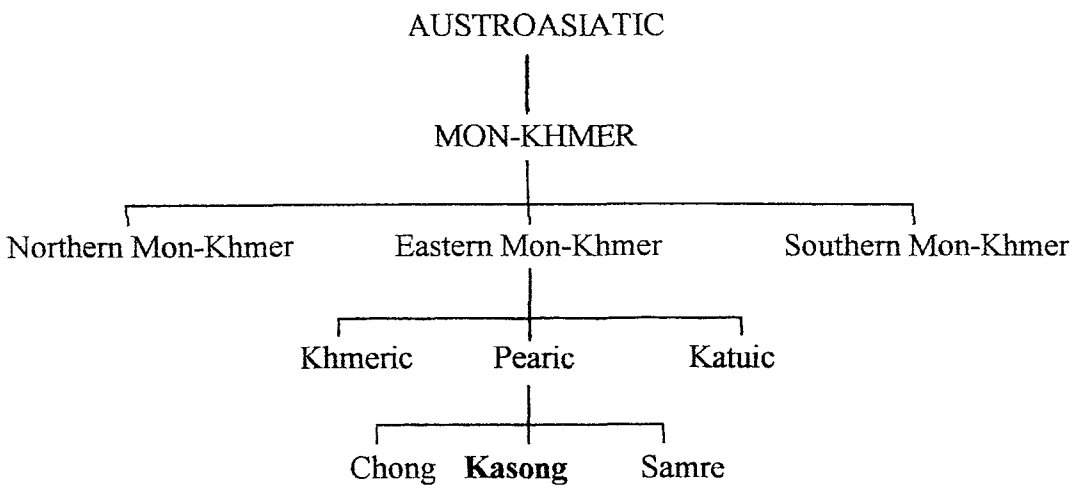


Chart 1: The relationship between Kasong and other Pearic languages found in Thailand (adapted from Suwilai (สุวิไล, 2544: 4))

Pearic languages are indigenous languages of Southeast Asia spoken in Cambodia and Thailand. Headley (1985) proposes that Pearic seem to be well-established as a language isolate in the Mon-Khmer family. According to Matisoff (1991), many languages in the Pearic branch are in danger of extinction because of low number of their speakers. Suwilai (สุวิไล, 2543) reports that Kasong is one of endangered languages of Thailand.

1.2.3 Related research

The only two previous documents specifically on Kasong language found are Noe Isarangura's article and Kunwadee's thesis in which the language is both considered as Chong/Chawng.

1. **Noe Isarangura (1935)** "Vocabulary of Chawng words collected in Krat province" This article presents about 275 words which Noe collected in Ban Danchumphon*, Trat province. It includes numerals and general words written in Thai

*Ban Danchumphon at that time had not been subdivided into Ban Khlong Seang and other villages yet.

(Siamese) letters. The English and Thai (Siamese) translations are provided for each Kasong word as in examples below.

English	Chawng	Siamese
House	ตง	เรือน
Sky	พลิง	ฟ้า
Orange	จอ	ส้ม
Fish	เม้ส์	ปลา
Boy	ขะเน้ส์สำลอง	เด็กผู้ชาย
Mother	มินย์	แม่
Eat rice	ฮอบปลอง	กินข้าว
Coat	สะโล้บ	เสื้อ

This is a valuable article because it is the earliest linguistic source of Kasong (which is known as Chong here). It is an essential data for diachronic study. Most of words provided in this article are the same as words I collected. Only a few words differ totally from I found such as the word เทว้า 'cloth' (Noe's data) and /thal/ 'cloth' (my data). Noe gives words in a Thai transcription which can be converted into an IPA form according to my transcription based on Thai orthography as in examples below.

Meaning	Noe's transcription	My transcription
'field'	มาส์	ma:l
'to be drunk'	ปูส์	pu:l
'plank'	กะตาล์	kata:l
'father'	คูนย์	khu:ɲ
'mother'	มินย์	miɲ

However, Noe does not provide detail about this group of speakers and he misunderstands this language to be the same group as Chong in Chanthaburi.

2. Kunwadee Patpitak (1996) "A Description of Chong Language in Klongseng Village, Borrai District, Trat Province" M.A. thesis of Silpakorn university (written in Thai).

In this study, Kunwadee summarized the phonology of language. There are 21 consonant phonemes /p, t, c, k, ʔ, ph, th, ch, kh, b, d, s, h, m, n, ɲ, ŋ, l, r, w, j/ in which all of them can occur as initial consonants and 13 among them /p, t, c, k, ʔ, h, m, n, ɲ, ŋ, l, w, j/ can occur as final consonants. The initial clusters are /pr, pl, tr, cr, kr, kl, kw, phr, phl, chj, khr, khl, sr/. There are 18 single vowels /i, ii, e, ee, ɛ, ɛɛ, ɯ, ɯɯ, ə, əə, a, aa, u, uu, o, oo, ɔ, ɔɔ/ and 3 diphthongs /ia, ɯa, ua/. The three contrastive registers are clear voice /R1/, clear voice followed by glottal constriction /R2/, and breathy voice /R3/. Most of the words are monosyllabic. There are nine types of syllable structure.

For the word structure she concludes that word in this language consists of one or more free morphemes, or a free morpheme with bound morpheme. Only two bound morphemes are provided. They are /ma^{R1}/ 'causative prefix' as in /ma^{R1}hoot^{R2}/ 'to kill' and prefix /kha^{R1}/ 'side' in such as /kha^{R1}liŋ^{R1}/ 'above'. Words are classified into fourteen classes (noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, auxiliary, adverb, classifier, numeral, time word, negation word, preposition, conjunction, demonstrative and final particle). There are four types of phrase (noun phrase, verb phrase, place phrase and time phrase) and three types of sentence (statement, imperative and interrogative sentences).

Kunwadee's study is a most linguistic material on Kasong language up to now. However, about syntax she provides the rough structure of Kasong and there is a confusion between this language and Chong in her study. Kunwadee's two informants are also my informants. Many lexicons Kunwadee transcribed are different from my transcription. The following examples are some words provided by her and me respectively.

/mɯɯn^{R1}/	/miɲ/	'mother'
/ʔɯk^{R2}/	/ʔɨh/	'to give'
/kii^{R1}/	/lakɨ́ː/	'thin'
/lak^{R2}/	/khlák/	'to fall'
/moj^{R1}/	/moːl/	'classifier of fruit'
/moj^{R1}/	/móːj/	'one'

A classifier of animal /mo:l/, Kunwadee presents a word /khɯp [R3]/ 'body' that it is a noun. I have also found more details from several text materials of pronoun word class, grammatical words and others that are missing in Kunwadee's description.

1.2.4 Kasong phonology sketch

1.2.4.1 Syllable and word structure

The majority of the words in Kasong are either monosyllabic or disyllabic. The trisyllabic words are rare. The syllable structure in the word can be summarized as:

C(C) V (C). ' C(C) V (C)

There is only one main stress which occurs on the major syllable at the end of word. The presyllable is always unstressed and the pitch level is neutral. The initial consonant of the presyllable is mostly a stop consonant, as in [ka.'toŋ[332]] 'rabbit', [kʰa.'mo:[451]] 'stone', [ta.'ŋɔ:[451]] 'kind of worm', but /m/, /n/, /l/, /r/ or /s/ have been found too, as in [ma.'tu:t[45]] 'nose', [la.'wa:j[332]] 'tiger', [sa.'mɨk[45]] 'sweat'. It is noticeable that there are many cases of fluctuation among the phonemes which occur in this position. For example, /s/~/th/ as in [sa.'ŋi:[451]]~[tʰa.'ŋi:[451]] 'sun', /k/~/m/ as in [ka.'paŋ[332]]~[ma.'paŋ[332]] 'guava'.

1.2.4.2 Consonants

Kasong has 21 consonant phonemes as shown in the following consonant inventory chart.

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

Chart 2: Kasong consonant phonemes

All consonants can occur as initial consonants. Only 13 of them can occur as final consonants: /p, t, c, k, ʔ, m, n, ɲ, ŋ, h, l, w, j/. The initial clusters are /pr, pl, phr, phl, tr, thr, cr, kr, kl, kw, khr, khl, sr/.

1.2.4.3 Vowels

There are nine short vowels, nine long vowels, and three diphthongs as shown in the following vowel inventory chart.

Single vowels						*Diphthongs*		
i	iː	ɨ	ɨː	u	uː	iə	ɨə	uə
e	eː	ə	əː	o	oː			
ɛ	ɛː	a	aː	ɔ	ɔː			

Chart 3: Kasong vowel phonemes

It should be noted that /iə/ and /ɨə/ are mainly found in Thai loanwords, such as /liəŋ/ 'to feed', /thiəŋ/ 'to argue', /phɨən/ 'friend' (These loanwords are pronounced without tone in Thai).

1.2.4.4 Suprasegmental phonemes

The suprasegmental features in Kasong are complex since this language is in a transitional stage of becoming a tone language. From my data, the pitch contrasts (low, mid and high) are found as well as the voice quality contrasts (clear and breathy). However, it is obvious that the breathy voice quality pronounced by Kasong speakers is rather weak*. The voice quality therefore is considered as the phonetic characteristic which cooccurs with specific pitch. That is the breathy voice cooccurs with low pitch and clear voice cooccurs with mid and high pitch. In this study I decided that Kasong is a language with three tones as follows.

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*This is quite different from the Chong speakers from Khlong Phlu village, Chanthaburi province who pronounced Chong words with strong breathy voice quality.

1. *Clear Mid tone* The clear mid tone occurs in all syllable structures. It is unmarked in my phonemic transcription. A lot of Kasong words have the mid tone with clear voice quality, as in /miɲ/ [miɲ^{332}]'mother', /waːŋ/ [waːŋ^{332}] 'a back', /lawaːj/ [lawaːj^{332}] 'tiger', /priː/ [priː^{332}] 'monitor' etc.

2. *Clear High tone* There are two allotones of this type. The high rising allotone occurs mainly in the closed syllable with short vowel and final stop or final glottal fricative. The high rising-falling allotone occurs in the open syllable or the closed syllable with long vowel, or in the closed syllable with short vowel and final sonorant. A word with the high pitch and clear voice quality is symbolized as v́ in my phonemic transcription, as in /samɨ́k/ [samɨk^{345}] 'sweat', /níh/ [nih^{345}] 'wood', /móːj/ [moːj^{451}] 'one', /chɔ́ː/ [tɕ^{h}ɔː^{451}] 'dog', etc.

3. *Breathy Low tone* The lax/breathy voice quality normally occurs in a syllable with low tone. A word with the breathy low tone is symbolized as v̀ in my phonemic transcription, as in /plèːw/ [plẹːw^{21}] 'fire', /prìː/ [prịː^{21}] 'forest', /pòːt/ [pọːt^{21}] 'corn', /tùː/ [tụː^{21}] 'to flee', etc. Even though the lax/breathy voice quality in Kasong is rather weak but it is quite distinctive for the native speakers and they explain it as "low, unclear voice".

Contrastive pairs are found between (1) clear mid tone and breathy low tone, (2) clear mid tone and clear high tone, and (3) clear high tone and breathy low tone. Some contrastive pairs are provided as follows.

Clear mid tone and breathy low tone

priː	[priː^{332}]	'monitor'	prìː	[prịː^{21}]	'forest'
tuː	[tuː^{333}]	'to hit'	tùː	[tụː^{21}]	'to flee'
klɔːŋ	[klɔːŋ^{332}]	'bone'	klɔ̀ːŋ	[klọːŋ^{21}]	'husband'
teːw	[teːw^{332}]	'right'	tèːw	[tẹːw^{21}]	'buy'
saŋ	[saŋ^{332}]	'to hear'	sàŋ	[sạŋ^{21}]	'to roast'

Clear mid tone and clear high tone

thuː	[t^{h}uː^{332}]	'to rub'	thúː	[t^{h}uː^{451}]	'hot'
khoːj	[k^{h}oːj^{332}]	'tooth'	khóːj	[k^{h}oːj^{451}]	'chameleon'

katiɲ	[katiɲ^{332}]	'gum'	katíɲ	[katiɲ^{451}]	'clear'
ka:k	[ka:k^{332}]	'to carry way with both arms full'	ká:k	[ka:k^{451}]	'crow'

Clear high tone and breathy low tone

poí t	[po:t^{451}]	'young (of plant)'	pò:t	[po̤:t^{21}]	'corn'
plɔ́:k	[plɔ:k^{451}]	'mud'	plɔ̀:k	[plɔ̤:k^{21}]	'tusk'
tók	[tok^{345}]	'to pull up'	tòk	[to̤k^{21}]	'boat'
mó:j	[mo:j^{451}]	'one'	mò:j	[mo̤:j^{21}]	'the day after tomorrow'

The complexity of the suprasegmental features in Kasong still needs a detailed study.

1.3 General information about Kasong people

1.3.1 Population and settlement

The Kasong or Chong of Trat nowadays are found in Ban Khlong Saeng (บ้านคลองแสง), Ban Padaw (บ้านปะเดา), Ban Dan Chumphon (บ้านด่านชุมพล) and some in Ban Thang Klang (บ้านทางกลาง), Danchumphon subdistrict, Borai district, Trat province. There is no clear evidence about the origin or homeland of their ancestors. According to available documents which refer to Chong people in Trat province, (Kannika et al (กรรนิการ์ เกนิกานนท์ และคณะ, 2522), Surekha (สุเรขา, 2530), Sributsara (ศรีบุษรา, 2534)) and a documentary cultural study of this minority group by Trat Provincial Education Office and Trat Cultural Council (สำนักงานศึกษาธิการจังหวัดตราดและสภาวัฒนธรรมจังหวัดตราด, 2541), it is assumed that the Kasong people (Chong of Trat) is a minority group inhabited in the area near the Banthat mountain in Trat province (in Borai district area now) for a long time.

Map 2: Geographical location of Kasong villages in Borai district, Trat province.

The Kasong know only that they have been living there since their parents were alive. A 63 years old Kasong woman speaker in Ban Khlong Saeng told me that Kasong people are the indigenous inhabitants of the land which they live now. People from other places who are Khmer, Thai, Lao (northeastern Thai), etc. came later. In the old days, there were a large number of Kasong speakers living in several villages. Only Kasong language was spoken among their group. But now there are Thai people more than Kasong people here.

Owing to marriage (either inter-group or outer-group) and occupation, the Kasong has been socially isolated. When I visited Khlong Saeng village in late 1998, I was informed by Mr. Thawin Ketthuk, a village headman who is a Kasong descendant that there are about 45 Kasong families in Ban Khlong Saeng, 15 families in Ban Danchumphon, 7 families in Ban Padaw and one family in Ban Thang Klang. However from my survey, there are now not more than 50 Kasong people who still speak their ethnic language.

Kasong people are legally Thai citizens. At the present time they are intermingled with Thai population. Ban Khlong Saeng is seem to be centre among the Kasong because the majority of them live here and the headman of this village, Mr. Thawin, is a Kasong descendant. He is one of the Kasong people who recognizes the value of Kasong culture and wants to preserve it.

1.3.2 Livelihood and culture

The Kasong people are rather dark-skinned and shorter than the average Thai. Their hair is mostly curly. They have squarish face, wild forehead, largish nostril and thick mouth. The persons over forty years (both women and men) have black teeth because they chew the betel. Kasongs now dress themselves like general Thai people in the countryside.

Nowadays, most of Kasong work on their gardens and some are laborers in someone else's garden. Mostly they grow pineapple, rambutan, durian, rubber trees and other plants like other people in that local. Some also have rice fields in which they grow rice only for eating. They have a few income from collecting things from the forest nearby such as bamboo shoot, rattan, forest fruits (Samrong seed, cashew nut, etc.), small animals, etc. to sell to merchants who go to buy it at their house. Some

families have charcoal burnt to keep for cooking and selling the neighbors The middle aged and the old Kasong also make a variety of utensils (such as mat, grain basket, traps etc.) from Khum (คลุ่ม), bamboo or rattan. They hunt for food from the forest, canal or swamp close to their community Their basic food is the chili paste and vegetables. Most Kasong are rather poor

In the past, Kasong houses were made of bamboo. The bamboo stem was cut into halves to make the floor and wall The roof was made of Som (โสม) leaf or Salacca wallichiana leaf. At the present, their houses are similar to Thai houses in that area. The wall and floor are made of wood. The roof is made of galvanized iron sheets. There are only some houses that still have bamboo wall or floor.

Figure 2: Kasong speakers and their house

The Kasong are animists. They respect the ancestor spirit and various kinds of spirits in natural environments apart from house spirit. They occasionally worship the ancestor spirit by providing the food and drink. Kasong people are also Buddhists. They go to the temple to make merit and offer food to the monks on special Buddhist days. Some Kasong men are ordained as Buddhist monks. Belief in merit and sin are revealed in many Kasong folktales.

The ancient tradition performed and practiced among them is "Phii Mae Mot", a special kind of spirit worshiping ceremony. They believe that there are many kinds of spirits around them, especially spirits from the forest which maybe follow somebody came. If a spirit dwells in anybody, he or she often gets a sickness and bad luck. When that has happens the victim will provide an oblation for the spirit then the spirit becomes friend and wants to play with him. They call this worship as playing Phii Mae Mot*. Kasong group usually join together to organize this spirit worship ceremony in the third lunar month every year. Singing and drumming are the main activities of Phii Mae Mot ceremony.

Besides that, the Kasong have their own wedding ceremony in which they are proud and want to preserve it. Both the wedding ceremony and Phii Mae Mot ceremony were demonstrated at the Trat Community Center for promoting the culture of their group. Apart from this, they join all the Thai religious ceremonies and cultural activities, such as Songkarn festival. These contribute to the Kasong minority group's assimilation to the Thai way of living and speaking

*The Samre who live in Ban Ma-muang and Ban Nonsi, Nonsi subdistrict, Borai district, Trat province also have a ceremony called Phii Mae Mot (Pornsawan, 2001), but it may differs from that of Kasong in detail (informed by the Kasong).

Figure 3: A Kasong woman is making Chanaang, a kind of fish trap.

Figure 4: A Kasong man is demonstrating of drumming in "Phii Mae Mot" ceremony.

1.4 Research Methodology

1.4.1 Source of Data

The data used in this study were collected from the Kasong speakers in Ban Khlong Saeng, Ban Padaw and Ban Danchumphon, Borai district, Trat province from direct elicitation and observations of daily life communication. The two groups of informants are chosen to provide the language data.

The first group is a group of main informants who can speak Kasong language well. They are able to remember most Kasong vocabulary and communicate with each other on various topics. They can also tell the stories or explain something with their own language and still often use their language in daily life. All of them are over 50 years old.

1. Mrs. Sawaat Bungbua (สวาท บึงบัว) is 59 years old. She has been living in Ban Khlong Saeng since birth. Her parents who had already died, are both Kasong. She studied in school about 10 days because her mother died and she had stayed home to look after her young siblings. She speaks the language with her husband and elder brothers who live nearby and come to her house frequently. When she meets someone who can speak the language, she always speaks Kasong to him or her. All of five her children cannot speak Kasong and do not want their parents to speak the language with them. She therefore speaks only Thai to her children.

Mrs. Sawaat was my main informant and Kasong teacher in my Field Methods class at Mahidol University. She has very proficiency in the language. She is a bilingual of Kasong and Thai. She is able to remember most Kasong vocabulary and can talk in a long text form (such as explaining an event or thing, telling stories). At first, she refused to tell story to me because she cannot remember them. Later I found that she is quite a good story- teller. She introduced me to other speakers. She is proud that she can remember most of her language and would like to preserve it.

2. Mrs. Watchari Eknikorn (วัชรี เอกนิกร) is 64 years old who lives in Ban Khlong Saeng now. Her father who was a Kasong moved from Ban Danchumphon to Ban Khlong Saeng since she was 12 years old. She had a short study with the teacher who seldom came to her house when she was a child. She cannot read and write Thai. Her husband is Kasong too. She usually speaks Kasong with her husband but speaks

Thai with her children. Her fluency and pronunciation in Kasong are quite good. She always told me when I pronounce a word in a wrong way. She can explain an event and thing but she cannot tell a story.

3. Mr. Chuan Eknikorn (ฉวน เอกนิกร), Mrs. Watchari's husband, is 65 years old. He has no education. His fluency in the language is as good as his wife. He can talk to other speakers on all topics. However, he cannot tell a story. Mr. Chuan can also speak a little Khmer. His ear is not good, it hardly hear.

4. Mr. Saw Samli (เสา สำลี) is 65 years old. He has been living in Ban Danchumphon since birth. He is unmarried. He has been living with his younger brother and younger brother's wife who is a Kasong. Their house is on the hillock far away from the others. He speaks Kasong with his younger brother and speaks mixed Thai and Kasong to young brother's wife. His eyesight is bad since he was a child thus he could not study. Now he has almost lose his sight. He cannot walk away from his house. Then he rarely has chances to meet and speaks the language with others.

He speaks Kasong fluently as well as Thai. Besides, he can also speak a little Khmer language. He has the abiĭity in telling stories better than other speakers. He can tell many tales in Kasong and he enjoyed telling them to me. He said he remembered them from his parents and grandparents, but now some stories has been forgotten. Mr. Saw can also tell story about the Kasong in the former times. He can sing 'Pheng Unchoen',.a song for performing Phii Mae Mot ceremony.. In the old days, he used to join in this ceremony as a singer and drummer.

5. Mr. Chun Eknikorn (จุน เอกนิกร), Mr. Chuan's younger brother, is 61 years old. He lives in Ban Padaw. His house is rather far away from other Kasong people. However, he often has contact with his group. He graduated at Prathom 4 level. His former wife is a Kasong but he divorced her and remarried with a Thai woman. He usually speaks Kasong with other speakers but not in his family because nobody speaks with. He always joins in the Phii Mae Mot ceremony as a drummer. He is rather talkative.

The second group is a group of informants who are chosen to provide the language data for comparison with the first group in order to observe whether there are

any changes within the language between different generations. They can speak and understand the language and they are about 35-50 years old.

1. Mr. Thawin Ketthuk (ถวิล เกตุถึก), Mr. Chuan's relative, is 52 years old*. He is a head of Khlong Saeng village. His parents are both Kasong. His education is Matthayom 6. He speaks Thai with his children and wife who is a Thai, but he would like to speak Kasong with other speakers. He helped me bring other Kasong speakers to interview. He invited many old Kasong people to meet me at his house in my first field trip. Mr. Thawin is rather enthusiastic to preserve his ethnic culture.

2. Mrs. Somphong Saenban (สมพงศ์ แสนบาน) is 39 years old. He lives with his wife who is a Kasong. He does not speak Kasong with his wife because she cannot speak the language. He sometimes speaks the language when he meets other speakers.

3. Mr. Yot Hanchan (ยศ หาญจันทร์) is 49 years old. He lives in Ban Padaw. He seldom speaks the language when he meets his group who can speak it. He speaks Thai more Kasong in daily communication.

4. Mrs. Siri Ketthuk (ศิริ เกตุถึก), 49 years old is a relative with Mr. Thawin. She can speak and understand Kasong but she rarely speaks it. She usually speaks Thai in her family. She sometimes speaks Kasong with her mother.

1.4.2 Data collection

Collecting data at Kasong villages was conducted after I had studied the documents and literatures relevant to the Kasong language. I prepared the lists of basic clauses and sentences in various patterns for direct elicitation. The data collected was then rechecked with the text data. The initial data of Kasong basic vocabulary I had collected during my Field Methods class were also used. They were rechecked with the informants again.

The data elicited from informants include lexical items according to various semantic groups, such as body parts, animals, plants, kinship terms, verbs, cultural words, etc. through various types of phrase, clause and sentence which are commonly

*I had collected the data from him in 1999, that time he was 50 years old.

used in daily life. They were recorded in IPA phonetic symbols. Various kinds of text materials (narratives, procedural expositions, hortatory, dialogues, etc.) were also collected. More than 10 folktales were investigated from the story-tellers by tape recording and transcribing with the help of a fluent Kasong speaker.

For this research I have carried out three field trips for collecting data. They were in January 2000, April 2000 and April 2001(about three weeks in each field trip). The data was mainly rechecked in the last field trip.

1.4.3 Data analysis

Syntactic analysis had been done after collecting data in each fieldwork. Later, all of the data was analyzed and described. The analysis started from the clause and phrase level, then proceeded down to the morpheme and up to the sentence level. In a written description for presentation, I started with the clause, as it is immediately useful for understanding the structure of the language.

Some problems and restriction regarding the data collection

Data collection in Kasong was difficult. Firstly, there is no public transportation in Kasong area and the Kasong speaker's houses are far away from each other. Secondly, most of Kasong who can speak their ethnic language fluently are elderly. Some people hardly hear. I taped their speech but had to find other people who could listen to the tape and relate the content of the tape for me in their own words. Thirdly, most of Kasong speakers refused to tell stories when asked because they are not used to speak long or tell stories. Some of them said that they did not want to think hard about what they had already forgotten. I had to try very hard to have each story told and transcribed. Though Mr. Saw Samli, my informant could tell many stories, he hardly hears. Transcription of the tapes needed help from other speaker. My helper sometimes could not relate all the statements from tape records. In addition, most of Kasong speakers work in their orchards or fields all day. I could collect mainly data from them in the evening after they returned from their fields.

CHAPTER II

CLAUSES

A clause is a minimum sentence which describes participants interrelating in action or state (Thomas, 1993: 63). It is the threshold of speech communication.

Clauses are constructions of phrases which consist of words and morphemes strings. They normally function as the main elements in sentences, but may be embedded in nominal phrases as relative clause or used at the same rank. They are usually manifested by clause structures.

2.1 Clause structure

A clause consists of the obligatory nuclear segment (main part) and optional peripheral segment. The nuclear segment is the more independent part of construction whereas the peripheral segment is the dependent part.

Structurally the clause nucleus consists of a Predicate (usually a verb phrase) plus nominal phrases filling slots such as Subject, Object, Complement, etc. in S-V-O order. The clause periphery that is considered to be additional element to the clause nucleus includes time setting, locative setting, instrument, beneficiary, accompaniment and final particle. It may precede or follow the nucleus.

The structure of clause elements can be diagrammed generally as:

$$Cl = \pm Per_1 : \text{per el} \quad \pm \mathbf{S} \quad +\mathbf{P} \quad \pm \left\{ \begin{matrix} \mathbf{O} \\ \mathbf{Compl} \end{matrix} \right\} \quad \pm Per_2 : \text{per el}$$

That is the clause nucleus, having a normal order of an optional Subject, an obligatory Predicate, an optional Object or Complement. It may be preceded or followed by the optional peripheral clause elements.

There are various ways in which clauses may differ among themselves. It may be different in specific structure for each clause type, variant or transformation potential. These will be dealt in detail.

2.1.1 Basic clause types

Clause types are defined by their nuclei. If there are differences in the nuclear structure between a pair of clauses at least one, they should be considered different types.

Structural clause types usually correlate fairly closely with the semantic characteristics of the main verbs in the Predicate, so semantic names can often be used for structural types (Thomas 1993: 63).

According to the statement mentioned above, clauses in Kasong can be divided into transitive, bitransitive, intransitive, descriptive, ambient, existential, equational, motion, locative, propulsion, quotative, quantitative, and comparative clauses. These types are different in fillers (especially verb classes in the Predicate), positions, obligatoriness, or transformation potential.

It should be noted that the same verb may occurs in the different types of clauses. For instance a typically "quotative verb" occurs not only in the quotative clause but also sometimes in the intransitive clause.

The following are the basic types in Kasong defined by separate formula for each type. Some elements of each clause type may be omitted in the speech situation. Omission of clause elements will be discussed in 2.1.2.4.

2.1.1.1 Transitive clause

A transitive clause normally requires the presence of the object. The transitive clause nucleus consists of a Subject, a Predicate and an Object. It can be formulated as:

Cl_{tr} = +S : np +P : vp_{tr} + O : np

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with a transitive main verb (See 4.2.1.4.1), and an obligatory Object positions filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral Temporal and Location are fairly common.

The semantic role of the Subject, Predicate and Object are Actor, Action or Perception and Undergoer respectively. So the Subject is usually any animate noun.

Examples

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1.	nak	tá:l	tà:k		'He drinks water.'
	He	*drink*	*water*		
2.	chó:	khát	mɛ̀:w		'The dog bites a cat'
	dog	*bite*	*cat*		
3.	samkhin	ten	káh	paːŋ níh	'That woman plucks the flower.'
	woman	*that*	*pluck*	*flower*	
4.	ʔiɲ	tàŋ	céh	ták	'I saw a big deer.'
	I	*see*	*deer*	*big*	
5.	nak	tó:ŋ	khamú:c		'He is afraid of ghosts.'
	he	*afraid*	*ghost*		

An inanimate noun can also function as the Subject of a transitive clause, but it is infrequent found, for example

6.	ròt	thap	chó:	'The car ran over a dog.'
	car	*be on top of*	*dog*	

In some transitive construction the Object is not the undergoer of the action, but it refer to the purpose or result of the action, for example

7.	nak	khút	lum		'He digs a hole.'
	he	*dig*	*hole*		
8	ʔiɲ	lɔ:ŋ	tú:t	plè:w	'I will light a fire.'
	I	*will*	*to light*	*fire*	

The normal order of transitive clause is S-P-O. However, the Object may be placed in clause initial for emphasis. The O-S-P order is therefore also used.

1.	saló:p	ʔan	chan	cɔ̀:p	'This is the shirt I like.'
	shirt	*this*	*I*	*like*	
2.	se:w	hal	nak	tɔ̀:	'She cooked the hot curry.'
	curry	*hot*	*she*	*do*	

2.1.1.2 Bitransitive clause

A bitransitive clause usually takes two objects. The bitransitive clause nucleus consists of a Subject, a Predicate, a Direct object and an Indirect object. It can be formulated as:

Cl_{bi} = +S : np +P : vp_{bi} +DO : np +IO : np

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with a bitransitive main verb (See 4.2.1.4.2), an obligatory Direct and Indirect object positions filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral Temporal and Location are fairly common.

The semantic role of the Subject, Predicate, Direct object and Indirect object are Actor, Action, Undergoer and Recipient respectively. The direct object is usually an inanimate.

Examples

1. miɲ ʔɨ̀h kloŋ lɛ́ːk
   mother give rice chicken
   'Mother feeds chickens.'
2. nak cheːm kloŋ kheːn samlɔ̀ːŋ
   she feed rice child male
   'She feeds her son.'
3. ʔiɲ loːm ŋɨn khuːɲ
   I beg money father
   'I asked for money from my father.'
4. chót jɨ̀ːm pɛ́ːt chan
   Chot borrow knife I
   'Chot borrowed me a knife.'

Some transitive verbs like /tèːw/ 'buy' sometimes occurs as the main verb of bitransitive type, for example

nak tèːw khlâː seːw chan
he buy vegetable I
'He bought vegetables from me.'

The Direct object may be a full noun phrase which contains a numeral. When it precedes the Indirect object, a numeral quantity is usually placed after the Indirect object or the whole of the Direct object come after the Indirect object.

nak ʔɨ̀h salóːp ŋal chan pàː moːl
he give shirt red I two clf.
or nak ʔɨ̀h chan salóːp ŋal pàː moːl
'He gave me two red shirts.'

2.1.1.3 Intransitive clause

The intransitive clause nucleus consists of a Subject and a Predicate. It can be formulated as follows. This clause type never has an object and never has a passive counterpart.

Cl_{intr} = +S : np +P : vp_{intr}

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1) an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec.3.1.2) with a transitive main verb (See 4.2.1.4.3). Peripheral Temporal and Location are fairly common.

The semantic role of the Subject and Predicate are Actor and Action or Perception respectively.

Examples

1. tà:k thók 'The water is dropping.'
   water drop
2. lɛ́:k te:l tóh ŋè:t 'The cock crows every early morning.'
   cock crow every early morning
3. he:n thɛ:k sǫ̀:n lə:j na: 'It sleeps quietly.'
   it sleep quietly fp
4. ʔiŋ cap kàt 'I am sick.'
   I sick

Some transitive verbs may occur in the intransitive clause structure as well as in the transitive clause structure.

1. nak pè:k 'He laughs.' (intransitive clause)
   he laugh
   nak pè:k khané:w ten 'He laughs at that child.'(transitive clause)
   he laugh children that

2. chan hiw 'I am hungry.'(intransitive clause)
   I hungry
   chan hiw tà:k 'I am thirsty.' (transitive clause)
   I hungry water

2.1.1.4 Descriptive clause

The descriptive clause nucleus consists of a Subject and a Predicate. It can be formulated as follows. The Subject is simply being described; it does not initiate any action.

Cl_{des} = +S : np +P : vp_{des}

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1) and an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with a descriptive main verb (See 4.2.1.4.4). The possible peripheral element is Temporal.

The semantic role of the Subject and Predicate are Statant and State respectively.

Examples

1. saló:p tà:k 'The shirt is wet.'
   shirt wet
2. samkhǐn ten lakǐ: kə́:p 'That woman is very thin.'
   woman that thin very
3. khanam ʔan kɔ́h ŋát 'This medicine is not bitter.'
   medicine this not bitter
4. khané:w ten kasíc le:w le:w 'That child is really lazy.'
   children that lazy really really
5. tà:k ré: trók chá:ŋ kliət 'The water in the swamp is very cold'
   water in swamp cold expressive word

The descriptive clause differs from the intransitive clause in their verb class which they take, in their transformational potential; that is, the descriptive clause cannot transformed into imperative. Besides, the semantic roles of their nuclear elements are different.

2.1.1.5 Ambient clause

An ambient clause refers to the weather or the natural phenomena. The ambient clause nucleus may consist of only a Predicate or of a Subject and a Predicate. It can be formulate as:

Cl_{amb} = ±S : np +P : $vp_{amb/intr}$

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1) and an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with an ambient main verb (See 4.2.1.4.5) or an intransitive main verb which is particularly used for any natural phenomenon. Peripheral Temporal and Location are fairly common.

The semantic role of the Subject and Predicate are Natural Phenomenon and State respectively.

Normally, an ambient clause has only the Predicate as nucleus signifying weather.

Examples

1. lá:c 'There is lightning.'
   lightning
2. ʔawan thú: le:w le:w 'Today it is really hot.'
   today hot really really
3. na:n kɔ́h sá:p 'It is not dawn yet.'
   Yet not bright
4. khamá: khlák 'It is raining.'
   rain fall
5. khamá: phî:t hɔ́:j 'It stops raining.'
   rain lost/get well fp.
6. thú: laʔú:c hɔ́:j 'The sunlight has already lost.'
   sunlight shady fp.

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

2.1.1.6 Existential clause

An existential clause affirms or denies the existence of something. It is mainly used to introduce persons or objects into a discourse. The existential clause nucleus consists of a Predicate and a Complement (also called a Subject). It can be formulated as:

Cl_{exist}= +P : vp_{exist} +Compl : np / cl

That is, an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with a existential main verb (See 4.2.1.4.6) and an obligatory Complement position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.3.1.1) or a clause. The peripheral Location is common.

The semantic role of the Predicate is State of existence of Statant, and of the Complement is Statant.

The existential verbs which characterize this clause type include only /ʔiːn/ 'to have' and /tòŋ/ 'to remain, to be left'.

Examples

1. ré: sruŋ ʔiːn srók phóːn moːl
   in sty have pig four clf.
   'There are four pigs in the sty.'
2. srúk ʔan ʔiːn kasɨ́m kɔ́ːp
   village this have people many
   'There are many people in this village.'
3. tòŋ méːl sɔːŋ phé: moːl
   remain serpent-head three clf.
   'There are three serpent-head fishes left.'

In the following examples, the Complement position of an existential clause is filled by a clause.

4. ʔiːn kasɨ́m thɛːk liŋ toŋ
   have- person sleep on- house-
   'There is a person sleeping in the house.'
5. kɔ́h ʔiːn ʔajpì: kɨl jak ʔan
   not have who stay here
   'There is nobody here.'

In natural speech, the Predicate can occasionally be omitted, for examples

ré: prì: ø chɨ́ːm kɔ́ːp
in forest bird many
'There are many birds in the forest.'

toŋ chan ø chɔ́: cóh
house I dog fierce
'There is a fierce dog at my house.'

Sometimes, the Subject of an existential clause may be placed before the existential main verb when the speaker wants to emphasize it, for example

mɛ̀:w ʔi:n káːŋ mo:l tih toŋ (chan)
cat have many clf. at house (I)
'There are many cats at my house.' (Subject emphasis)

2.1.1.7 Equational clause

The equational clause nucleus consists of a Subject, a Predicate and a Complement. It can be formulated as follows. The Complement indicates the character or identity of the Subject.

Cl_{equat} = +S : np ±P : vp_{equat} +Compl : np

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an optional Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with an equational main verb (See 4.2.1.4.7), and an obligatory Complement position filled by a nominal phrase. The order of the nuclear elements cannot be reversed.

The copula /pen/ 'to be', /kla:j pen/ 'to become' and /cì:/ 'to name' characterize this clause type.

Examples

1. mùː hɛːŋ pen kasɨ̀m kasɔ̀ːŋ
   group we be people Kasong
   'We are Kasong people.'
2. nak pen klə: chan
   he be friend I
   'He is my friend.'
3. klɔ̀ːŋ paː waːt cɨ̀ː cuəp
   husband aunt Wat name Juap
   'The name of Aunt Wat's husband is Juap.'
4. lúk (kla:j)pen tàːk hɔ́ːj
   salt to become water already
   'The salt has dissolved into liquid.'

Chong : c^han^{R1} $c^ho{:}p^{R3}$ $c^ha{:}^{R1}$ lac^hiw^{R1} $\underline{ʔih}^{R1}$

I *like* *eat* *vegetable* *not*

'I don't like to eat vegetables.' (Siripen, 2001: 30)

Kasong : chan kɔ́h cɔ̀:p cha: khlá: se:w

I *not* *like* *eat* *vegetable*

'I don't like to eat vegetables.'

According to Siripen (2001), Chong may also have double negative words in a negative clause but Kasong does not.

Chong : c^han^{R1} $(\underline{ʔi}^{R1})$ k^hah^{R1} dak^{R1} $\underline{ʔih}^{R1}$

I *(not)* *know* *he/she* *not*

'I don't know him/her.' (Siripen, 2001: 30)

Kasong : chan kɔ́h kháh nak

I *not* *know* *he/she*

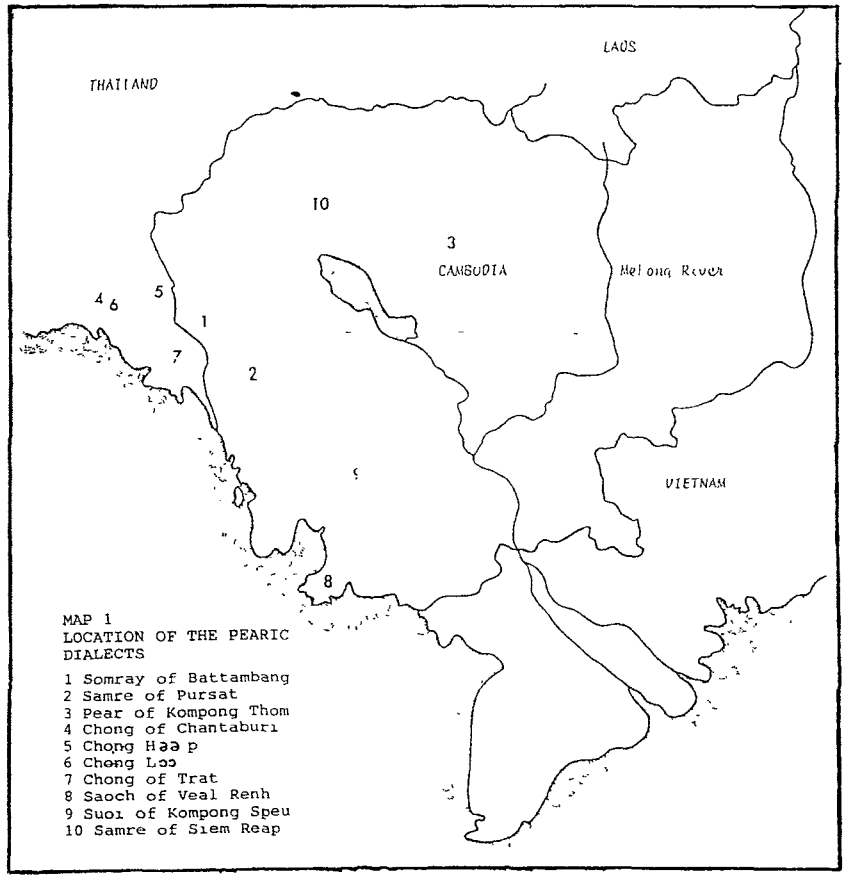
'I don't know him/her.'

From the lexical and grammatical characteristics of the language and the name they call themselves Kasong, this language is considered to be different language from Chong according to Suwilai (สุวิไล, 2543, 2544). As of yet, there is no comparative study between these two languages which could lead to a more precise language classification.

1.2.2 Language affiliation

According to Martin (1974) and Headley (1985), Kasong language (which is called Chong of Trat) belongs to the Pearic branch of Mon-Khmer subfamily within Austroasiatic language family. Other languages in the Pearic grouping generally known are Pear, Chong, Samre, Angrak and Sa'och (Thomas and Headley, 1970; Diffloth, 1974). The following classification of the Pearic is suggested by Headley (1985: 462). Kasong (Chong of Trat) is considered to be in the South Central group of Pearic branch.

1. NORTHEASTERN – Pearic of Kompong Thom
2. SOUTHEASTERN
   - 2.1 Suoi of Kompong Speu
   - 2.2 Saoch of Veal Renh
3. WESTERN
   - 3.1 Chong of Chantaburi
   - 3.2 Chong Həəp
   - 3.3 Chong Lɔɔ
4. SOUTH CENTRAL
   - 4.1 Samre of Pursat
   - 4.2 Chong of Baradat (northeastern Trat Province)
   - 4.3 **Chong of Trat**
5. NORTH CENTRAL – Somray of Battambang



Map 1: Location of the Pearic dialects (Headley, 1985: 430)

In Suwilai's recent report (สุวิไล, 2544), she also shows the relationship between Kasong and other Pearic languages in the chart form. The following chart is adapted from her.

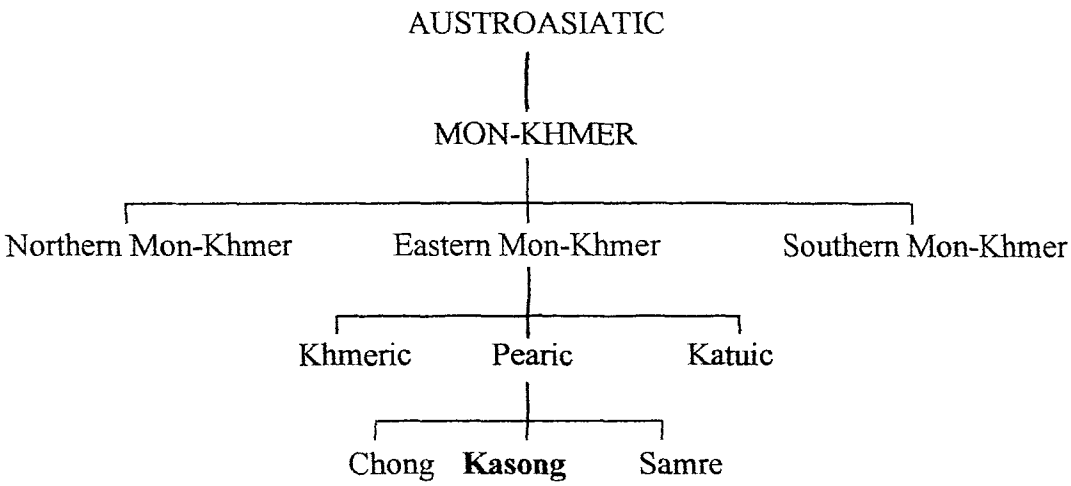


Chart 1: The relationship between Kasong and other Pearic languages found in Thailand (adapted from Suwilai (สุวิไล, 2544: 4))

Pearic languages are indigenous languages of Southeast Asia spoken in Cambodia and Thailand. Headley (1985) proposes that Pearic seem to be well-established as a language isolate in the Mon-Khmer family. According to Matisoff (1991), many languages in the Pearic branch are in danger of extinction because of low number of their speakers. Suwilai (สุวิไล, 2543) reports that Kasong is one of endangered languages of Thailand.

1.2.3 Related research

The only two previous documents specifically on Kasong language found are Noe Isarangura's article and Kunwadee's thesis in which the language is both considered as Chong/Chawng.

1. Noe Isarangura (1935) "Vocabulary of Chawng words collected in Krat province" This article presents about 275 words which Noe collected in Ban Danchumphon*, Trat province. It includes numerals and general words written in Thai

*Ban Danchumphon at that time had not been subdivided into Ban Khlong Seang and other villages yet.

(Siamese) letters. The English and Thai (Siamese) translations are provided for each Kasong word as in examples below.

English	Chawng	Siamese
House	ตง	เรือน
Sky	พลิง	ฟ้า
Orange	ขอ	ส้ม
Fish	เม้ส์	ปลา
Boy	ขะเน้ส์สำลอง	เด็กผู้ชาย
Mother	มินย์	แม่
Eat rice	ฮอบปลอง	กินข้าว
Coat	สะโล้บ	เสื้อ

This is a valuable article because it is the earliest linguistic source of Kasong (which is known as Chong here). It is an essential data for diachronic study. Most of words provided in this article are the same as words I collected. Only a few words differ totally from I found such as the word เทว้า 'cloth' (Noe's data) and /thal/ 'cloth' (my data). Noe gives words in a Thai transcription which can be converted into an IPA form according to my transcription based on Thai orthography as in examples below.

Meaning	Noe's transcription	My transcription
'field'	มาส์	ma:l
'to be drunk'	ปูส์	pu:l
'plank'	กะดาล์	kata:l
'father'	คูนย์	khu:ɲ
'mother'	มินย์	miɲ

However, Noe does not provide detail about this group of speakers and he misunderstands this language to be the same group as Chong in Chanthaburi.

2. Kunwadee Patpitak (1996) "A Description of Chong Language in Klongseng Village, Borrai District, Trat Province" M.A. thesis of Silpakorn university (written in Thai).

In this study, Kunwadee summarized the phonology of language. There are 21 consonant phonemes /p, t, c, k, ʔ, ph, th, ch, kh, b, d, s, h, m, n, ɲ, ŋ, l, r, w, j/ in which all of them can occur as initial consonants and 13 among them /p, t, c, k, ʔ, h, m, n, ɲ, ŋ, l, w, j/ can occur as final consonants. The initial clusters are /pr, pl, tr, cr, kr, kl, kw, phr, phl, chj, khr, khl, sr/. There are 18 single vowels /i, ii, e, ee, ɛ, ɛɛ, ɯ, ɯɯ, ə, əə, a, aa, u, uu, o, oo, ɔ, ɔɔ/ and 3 diphthongs /ia, ɯa, ua/. The three contrastive registers are clear voice /R1/, clear voice followed by glottal constriction /R2/, and breathy voice /R3/. Most of the words are monosyllabic. There are nine types of syllable structure.

For the word structure she concludes that word in this language consists of one or more free morphemes, or a free morpheme with bound morpheme. Only two bound morphemes are provided. They are /ma^{R1}/ 'causative prefix' as in /ma^{R1}hoot^{R2}/ 'to kill' and prefix /kha^{R1}/ 'side' in such as /kha^{R1}liŋ^{R1}/ 'above'. Words are classified into fourteen classes (noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, auxiliary, adverb, classifier, numeral, time word, negation word, preposition, conjunction, demonstrative and final particle). There are four types of phrase (noun phrase, verb phrase, place phrase and time phrase) and three types of sentence (statement, imperative and interrogative sentences).

Kunwadee's study is a most linguistic material on Kasong language up to now. However, about syntax she provides the rough structure of Kasong and there is a confusion between this language and Chong in her study. Kunwadee's two informants are also my informants. Many lexicons Kunwadee transcribed are different from my transcription. The following examples are some words provided by her and me respectively.

/mɯɯn^{R1}/	/miɲ/	'mother'
/ʔɯk^{R2}/	/ʔɨh/	'to give'
/kii^{R1}/	/lakɨ́ː/	'thin'
/lak^{R2}/	/khlák/	'to fall'
/moj^{R1}/	/moːl/	'classifier of fruit'
/moj^{R1}/	/móːj/	'one'

A classifier of animal /mo:l/, Kunwadee presents a word /khɯp ^{R3}/ 'body' that it is a noun. I have also found more details from several text materials of pronoun word class, grammatical words and others that are missing in Kunwadee's description.

1.2.4 Kasong phonology sketch

1.2.4.1 Syllable and word structure

The majority of the words in Kasong are either monosyllabic or disyllabic. The trisyllabic words are rare. The syllable structure in the word can be summarized as:

C(C) V (C). ' C(C) V (C)

There is only one main stress which occurs on the major syllable at the end of word. The presyllable is always unstressed and the pitch level is neutral. The initial consonant of the presyllable is mostly a stop consonant, as in [ka.'toŋ^{332}] 'rabbit', [k^{h}a.'mo:^{451}] 'stone', [ta.'ŋɔ:^{451}] 'kind of worm', but /m/, /n/, /l/, /r/ or /s/ have been found too, as in [ma.'tu:t^{45}] 'nose', [la.'wa:j^{332}] 'tiger', [sa.'mik^{45}] 'sweat'. It is noticeable that there are many cases of fluctuation among the phonemes which occur in this position. For example, /s/~/th/ as in [sa.'ŋi:^{451}]~[t^{h}a.'ŋi:^{451}] 'sun', /k/~/m/ as in [ka.'paŋ^{332}]~[ma.'paŋ^{332}] 'guava'.

1.2.4.2 Consonants

Kasong has 21 consonant phonemes as shown in the following consonant inventory chart.

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

Chart 2: Kasong consonant phonemes

All consonants can occur as initial consonants. Only 13 of them can occur as final consonants: /p, t, c, k, ʔ, m, n, ɲ, ŋ, h, l, w, j/. The initial clusters are /pr, pl, phr, phl, tr, thr, cr, kr, kl, kw, khr, khl, sr/.

1.2.4.3 Vowels

There are nine short vowels, nine long vowels, and three diphthongs as shown in the following vowel inventory chart.

Single vowels						*Diphthongs*		
i	iː	ɨ	ɨː	u	uː	iə	ɨə	uə
e	eː	ə	əː	o	oː			
ɛ	ɛː	a	aː	ɔ	ɔː			

Chart 3: Kasong vowel phonemes

It should be noted that /iə/ and /ɨə/ are mainly found in Thai loanwords, such as /liəŋ/ 'to feed', /thiəŋ/ 'to argue', /phɨən/ 'friend' (These loanwords are pronounced without tone in Thai).

1.2.4.4 Suprasegmental phonemes

The suprasegmental features in Kasong are complex since this language is in a transitional stage of becoming a tone language. From my data, the pitch contrasts (low, mid and high) are found as well as the voice quality contrasts (clear and breathy). However, it is obvious that the breathy voice quality pronounced by Kasong speakers is rather weak*. The voice quality therefore is considered as the phonetic characteristic which cooccurs with specific pitch. That is the breathy voice cooccurs with low pitch and clear voice cooccurs with mid and high pitch. In this study I decided that Kasong is a language with three tones as follows.

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*This is quite different from the Chong speakers from Khlong Phlu village, Chanthaburi province who pronounced Chong words with strong breathy voice quality.

1. *Clear Mid tone* The clear mid tone occurs in all syllable structures. It is unmarked in my phonemic transcription. A lot of Kasong words have the mid tone with clear voice quality, as in /miŋ/ [miŋ^{332}]'mother', /waːŋ/ [waːŋ^{332}] 'a back', /lawaːj/ [lawaːj^{332}] 'tiger', /priː/ [priː^{332}] 'monitor' etc.

2. *Clear High tone* There are two allotones of this type. The high rising allotone occurs mainly in the closed syllable with short vowel and final stop or final glottal fricative. The high rising-falling allotone occurs in the open syllable or the closed syllable with long vowel, or in the closed syllable with short vowel and final sonorant. A word with the high pitch and clear voice quality is symbolized as v́ in my phonemic transcription, as in /samɨ́k/ [samɨk^{345}] 'sweat', /nɨ́h/ [nɨh^{345}] 'wood', /móːj/ [moːj^{451}] 'one', /chóː/ [tɕʰɔː^{451}] 'dog', etc.

3. *Breathy Low tone* The lax/breathy voice quality normally occurs in a syllable with low tone. A word with the breathy low tone is symbolized as v̀ in my phonemic transcription, as in /plèːw/ [pl̤eːw^{21}] 'fire', /prɨ̀ː/ [pr̤ɨː^{21}] 'forest', /pòːt/ [p̤oːt^{21}] 'corn', /tùː/ [t̤uː^{21}] 'to flee', etc. Even though the lax/breathy voice quality in Kasong is rather weak but it is quite distinctive for the native speakers and they explain it as "low, unclear voice".

Contrastive pairs are found between (1) clear mid tone and breathy low tone, (2) clear mid tone and clear high tone, and (3) clear high tone and breathy low tone. Some contrastive pairs are provided as follows.

Clear mid tone and breathy low tone

priː	[priː^{332}]	'monitor'	prɨ̀ː	[r̤ɨː^{21}]	'forest'
tuː	[tuː^{333}]	'to hit'	tùː	[t̤uː^{21}]	'to flee'
klɔːŋ	[klɔːŋ^{332}]	'bone'	klɔ̀ːŋ	[kl̤ɔːŋ^{21}]	'husband'
teːw	[teːw^{332}]	'right'	tèːw	[t̤eːw^{21}]	'buy'
saŋ	[saŋ^{332}]	'to hear'	sàŋ	[s̤aŋ^{21}]	'to roast'

Clear mid tone and clear high tone

thuː	*[tʰuː^{332}]*	*'to rub'*	*thúː*	*[tʰuː^{451}]*	*'hot'*
khoːj	[kʰoːj^{332}]	'tooth'	khóːj	[kʰoːj^{451}]	'chameleon'

katiŋ	[katiŋ^{332}]	'gum'	katíŋ	[katiŋ^{451}]	'clear'
ka:k	[ka:k^{332}]	'to carry way with both arms full'	ká:k	[ka:k^{451}]	'crow'

Clear high tone and breathy low tone

poí t	[po:t^{451}]	'young (of plant)'	pò:t	[po̤:t^{21}]	'corn'
plóːk	[plɔ:k^{451}]	'mud'	plɔ̀:k	[plɔ̤:k^{21}]	'tusk'
tók	[tok^{345}]	'to pull up'	tòk	[to̤k^{21}] -	'boat'
móːj	[mo:j^{451}]	'one'	mò:j	[mo̤:j^{21}]	'the day after tomorrow'

The complexity of the suprasegmental features in Kasong still needs a detailed study.

1.3 General information about Kasong people

1.3.1 Population and settlement

The Kasong or Chong of Trat nowadays are found in Ban Khlong Saeng (บ้านคลองแสง), Ban Padaw (บ้านปะเดา), Ban Dan Chumphon (บ้านด่านชุมพล) and some in Ban Thang Klang (บ้านทางกลาง), Danchumphon subdistrict, Borai district, Trat province. There is no clear evidence about the origin or homeland of their ancestors. According to available documents which refer to Chong people in Trat province, (Kannika et al (กรรนิการ์ เกนิกานนท์ และคณะ, 2522), Surekha (สุเรขา, 2530), Sributsara (ศรีบุษรา, 2534)) and a documentary cultural study of this minority group by Trat Provincial Education Office and Trat Cultural Council (สำนักงานศึกษาธิการจังหวัดตราดและสภาวัฒนธรรมจังหวัดตราด, 2541), it is assumed that the Kasong people (Chong of Trat) is a minority group inhabited in the area near the Banthat mountain in Trat province (in Borai district area now) for a long time.

Map 2: Geographical location of Kasong villages in Borai district, Trat province.

The Kasong know only that they have been living there since their parents were alive. A 63 years old Kasong woman speaker in Ban Khlong Saeng told me that Kasong people are the indigenous inhabitants of the land which they live now. People from other places who are Khmer, Thai, Lao (northeastern Thai), etc. came later. In the old days, there were a large number of Kasong speakers living in several villages. Only Kasong language was spoken among their group. But now there are Thai people more than Kasong people here.

Owing to marriage (either inter-group or outer-group) and occupation, the Kasong has been socially isolated. When I visited Khlong Saeng village in late 1998, I was informed by Mr. Thawin Ketthuk, a village headman who is a Kasong descendant that there are about 45 Kasong families in Ban Khlong Saeng, 15 families in Ban Danchumphon, 7 families in Ban Padaw and one family in Ban Thang Klang. However from my survey, there are now not more than 50 Kasong people who still speak their ethnic language.

Kasong people are legally Thai citizens. At the present time they are intermingled with Thai population. Ban Khlong Saeng is seem to be centre among the Kasong because the majority of them live here and the headman of this village, Mr. Thawin, is a Kasong descendant. He is one of the Kasong people who recognizes the value of Kasong culture and wants to preserve it.

1.3.2 Livelihood and culture

The Kasong people are rather dark-skinned and shorter than the average Thai. Their hair is mostly curly. They have squarish face, wild forehead, largish nostril and thick mouth. The persons over forty years (both women and men) have black teeth because they chew the betel. Kasongs now dress themselves like general Thai people in the countryside.

Nowadays, most of Kasong work on their gardens and some are laborers in someone else's garden. Mostly they grow pineapple, rambutan, durian, rubber trees and other plants like other people in that local. Some also have rice fields in which they grow rice only for eating. They have a few income from collecting things from the forest nearby such as bamboo shoot, rattan, forest fruits (Samrong seed, cashew nut, etc.), small animals, etc. to sell to merchants who go to buy it at their house. Some

families have charcoal burnt to keep for cooking and selling the neighbors The middle aged and the old Kasong also make a variety of utensils (such as mat, grain basket, traps etc.) from Khum (คลุ่ม), bamboo or rattan. They hunt for food from the forest, canal or swamp close to their community Their basic food is the chili paste and vegetables. Most Kasong are rather poor

In the past, Kasong houses were made of bamboo. The bamboo stem was cut into halves to make the floor and wall The roof was made of Som (โสม) leaf or Salacca wallichiana leaf. At the present, their houses are similar to Thai houses in that area. The wall and floor are made of wood. The roof is made of galvanized iron sheets. There are only some houses that still have bamboo wall or floor.

Figure 2: Kasong speakers and their house

The Kasong are animists. They respect the ancestor spirit and various kinds of spirits in natural environments apart from house spirit. They occasionally worship the ancestor spirit by providing the food and drink. Kasong people are also Buddhists. They go to the temple to make merit and offer food to the monks on special Buddhist days. Some Kasong men are ordained as Buddhist monks. Belief in merit and sin are revealed in many Kasong folktales.

The ancient tradition performed and practiced among them is "Phii Mae Mot", a special kind of spirit worshiping ceremony. They believe that there are many kinds of spirits around them, especially spirits from the forest which maybe follow somebody came. If a spirit dwells in anybody, he or she often gets a sickness and bad luck. When that has happens the victim will provide an oblation for the spirit then the spirit becomes friend and wants to play with him. They call this worship as playing Phii Mae Mot*. Kasong group usually join together to organize this spirit worship ceremony in the third lunar month every year. Singing and drumming are the main activities of Phii Mae Mot ceremony.

Besides that, the Kasong have their own wedding ceremony in which they are proud and want to preserve it. Both the wedding ceremony and Phii Mae Mot ceremony were demonstrated at the Trat Community Center for promoting the culture of their group. Apart from this, they join all the Thai religious ceremonies and cultural activities, such as Songkarn festival. These contribute to the Kasong minority group's assimilation to the Thai way of living and speaking

*The Samre who live in Ban Ma-muang and Ban Nonsi, Nonsi subdistrict, Borai district, Trat province also have a ceremony called Phii Mae Mot (Pornsawan, 2001), but it may differs from that of Kasong in detail (informed by the Kasong).

Figure 3: *A Kasong woman is making Chanaang, a kind of fish trap.*

Figure 4: *A Kasong man is demonstrating of drumming in "Phii Mae Mot" ceremony.*

1.4 Research Methodology

1.4.1 Source of Data

The data used in this study were collected from the Kasong speakers in Ban Khlong Saeng, Ban Padaw and Ban Danchumphon, Borai district, Trat province from direct elicitation and observations of daily life communication. The two groups of informants are chosen to provide the language data.

The first group is a group of main informants who can speak Kasong language well. They are able to remember most Kasong vocabulary and communicate with each other on various topics. They can also tell the stories or explain something with their own language and still often use their language in daily life. All of them are over 50 years old.

1. Mrs. Sawaat Bungbua (สวาท บึงบัว) is 59 years old. She has been living in Ban Khlong Saeng since birth. Her parents who had already died, are both Kasong. She studied in school about 10 days because her mother died and she had stayed home to look after her young siblings. She speaks the language with her husband and elder brothers who live nearby and come to her house frequently. When she meets someone who can speak the language, she always speaks Kasong to him or her. All of five her children cannot speak Kasong and do not want their parents to speak the language with them. She therefore speaks only Thai to her children.

Mrs. Sawaat was my main informant and Kasong teacher in my Field Methods class at Mahidol University. She has very proficiency in the language. She is a bilingual of Kasong and Thai. She is able to remember most Kasong vocabulary and can talk in a long text form (such as explaining an event or thing, telling stories). At first, she refused to tell story to me because she cannot remember them. Later I found that she is quite a good story- teller. She introduced me to other speakers. She is proud that she can remember most of her language and would like to preserve it.

2. Mrs. Watchari Eknikorn (วัชรี เอกนิกร) is 64 years old who lives in Ban Khlong Saeng now. Her father who was a Kasong moved from Ban Danchumphon to Ban Khlong Saeng since she was 12 years old. She had a short study with the teacher who seldom came to her house when she was a child. She cannot read and write Thai. Her husband is Kasong too. She usually speaks Kasong with her husband but speaks

Thai with her children. Her fluency and pronunciation in Kasong are quite good. She always told me when I pronounce a word in a wrong way. She can explain an event and thing but she cannot tell a story.

3. Mr. Chuan Eknikorn (ฉวน เอกนิกร), Mrs. Watchari's husband, is 65 years old. He has no education. His fluency in the language is as good as his wife. He can talk to other speakers on all topics. However, he cannot tell a story. Mr. Chuan can also speak a little Khmer. His ear is not good, it hardly hear.

4. Mr. Saw Samli (เสา สำลี) is 65 years old. He has been living in Ban Danchumphon since birth. He is unmarried. He has been living with his younger brother and younger brother's wife who is a Kasong. Their house is on the hillock far away from the others. He speaks Kasong with his younger brother and speaks mixed Thai and Kasong to young brother's wife. His eyesight is bad since he was a child thus he could not study. Now he has almost lose his sight. He cannot walk away from his house. Then he rarely has chances to meet and speaks the language with others.

He speaks Kasong fluently as well as Thai. Besides, he can also speak a little Khmer language. He has the ability in telling stories better than other speakers. He can tell many tales in Kasong and he enjoyed telling them to me. He said he remembered them from his parents and grandparents, but now some stories has been forgotten. Mr. Saw can also tell story about the Kasong in the former times. He can sing 'Pheng Unchoen', a song for performing Phii Mae Mot ceremony. In the old days, he used to join in this ceremony as a singer and drummer.

5. Mr. Chun Eknikorn (จุน เอกนิกร), Mr. Chuan's younger brother, is 61 years old. He lives in Ban Padaw. His house is rather far away from other Kasong people. However, he often has contact with his group. He graduated at Prathom 4 level. His former wife is a Kasong but he divorced her and remarried with a Thai woman. He usually speaks Kasong with other speakers but not in his family because nobody speaks with. He always joins in the Phii Mae Mot ceremony as a drummer. He is rather talkative.

The second group is a group of informants who are chosen to provide the language data for comparison with the first group in order to observe whether there are

any changes within the language between different generations. They can speak and understand the language and they are about 35-50 years old.

1. Mr. Thawin Ketthuk (ถวิล เกตุถึก), Mr. Chuan's relative, is 52 years old*. He is a head of Khlong Saeng village. His parents are both Kasong. His education is Matthayom 6. He speaks Thai with his children and wife who is a Thai, but he would like to speak Kasong with other speakers. He helped me bring other Kasong speakers to interview. He invited many old Kasong people to meet me at his house in my first field trip. Mr. Thawin is rather enthusiastic to preserve his ethnic culture.

2. Mrs. Somphong Saenban (สมพงศ์ แสนบาน) is 39 years old. He lives with his wife who is a Kasong. He does not speak Kasong with his wife because she cannot speak the language. He sometimes speaks the language when he meets other speakers.

3. Mr. Yot Hanchan (ยศ หาญจันทร์) is 49 years old. He lives in Ban Padaw. He seldom speaks the language when he meets his group who can speak it. He speaks Thai more Kasong in daily communication.

4. Mrs. Siri Ketthuk (ศิริ เกตุถึก), 49 years old is a relative with Mr. Thawin. She can speak and understand Kasong but she rarely speaks it. She usually speaks Thai in her family. She sometimes speaks Kasong with her mother.

1.4.2 Data collection

Collecting data at Kasong villages was conducted after I had studied the documents and literatures relevant to the Kasong language. I prepared the lists of basic clauses and sentences in various patterns for direct elicitation. The data collected was then rechecked with the text data. The initial data of Kasong basic vocabulary I had collected during my Field Methods class were also used. They were rechecked with the informants again.

The data elicited from informants include lexical items according to various semantic groups, such as body parts, animals, plants, kinship terms, verbs, cultural words, etc. through various types of phrase, clause and sentence which are commonly

*I had collected the data from him in 1999, that time he was 50 years old.

used in daily life. They were recorded in IPA phonetic symbols. Various kinds of text materials (narratives, procedural expositions, hortatory, dialogues, etc.) were also collected. More than 10 folktales were investigated from the story-tellers by tape recording and transcribing with the help of a fluent Kasong speaker.

For this research I have carried out three field trips for collecting data. They were in January 2000, April 2000 and April 2001(about three weeks in each field trip). The data was mainly rechecked in the last field trip.

1.4.3 Data analysis

Syntactic analysis had been done after collecting data in each fieldwork. Later, all of the data was analyzed and described. The analysis started from the clause and phrase level, then proceeded down to the morpheme and up to the sentence level. In a written description for presentation, I started with the clause, as it is immediately useful for understanding the structure of the language.

Some problems and restriction regarding the data collection

Data collection in Kasong was difficult. Firstly, there is no public transportation in Kasong area and the Kasong speaker's houses are far away from each other. Secondly, most of Kasong who can speak their ethnic language fluently are elderly. Some people hardly hear. I taped their speech but had to find other people who could listen to the tape and relate the content of the tape for me in their own words. Thirdly, most of Kasong speakers refused to tell stories when asked because they are not used to speak long or tell stories. Some of them said that they did not want to think hard about what they had already forgotten. I had to try very hard to have each story told and transcribed. Though Mr. Saw Samli, my informant could tell many stories, he hardly hears. Transcription of the tapes needed help from other speaker. My helper sometimes could not relate all the statements from tape records. In addition, most of Kasong speakers work in their orchards or fields all day. I could collect mainly data from them in the evening after they returned from their fields.

CHAPTER II

CLAUSES

A clause is a minimum sentence which describes participants interrelating in action or state (Thomas, 1993: 63). It is the threshold of speech communication.

Clauses are constructions of phrases which consist of words and morphemes strings. They normally function as the main elements in sentences, but may be embedded in nominal phrases as relative clause or used at the same rank. They are usually manifested by clause structures.

2.1 Clause structure

A clause consists of the obligatory nuclear segment (main part) and optional peripheral segment. The nuclear segment is the more independent part of construction whereas the peripheral segment is the dependent part.

Structurally the clause nucleus consists of a Predicate (usually a verb phrase) plus nominal phrases filling slots such as Subject, Object, Complement, etc. in S-V-O order. The clause periphery that is considered to be additional element to the clause nucleus includes time setting, locative setting, instrument, beneficiary, accompaniment and final particle. It may precede or follow the nucleus.

The structure of clause elements can be diagrammed generally as:

$$Cl = \pm Per_1 : \text{per el} \quad \pm S \quad +P \quad \pm \left\{ \begin{matrix} O \\ Compl \end{matrix} \right\} \quad \pm Per_2 : \text{per el}$$

That is the clause nucleus, having a normal order of an optional Subject, an obligatory Predicate, an optional Object or Complement. It may be preceded or followed by the optional peripheral clause elements.

There are various ways in which clauses may differ among themselves. It may be different in specific structure for each clause type, variant or transformation potential. These will be dealt in detail.

2.1.1 Basic clause types

Clause types are defined by their nuclei. If there are differences in the nuclear structure between a pair of clauses at least one, they should be considered different types.

Structural clause types usually correlate fairly closely with the semantic characteristics of the main verbs in the Predicate, so semantic names can often be used for structural types (Thomas 1993: 63).

According to the statement mentioned above, clauses in Kasong can be divided into transitive, bitransitive, intransitive, descriptive, ambient, existential, equational, motion, locative, propulsion, quotative, quantitative, and comparative clauses. These types are different in fillers (especially verb classes in the Predicate), positions, obligatoriness, or transformation potential.

It should be noted that the same verb may occurs in the different types of clauses. For instance a typically "quotative verb" occurs not only in the quotative clause but also sometimes in the intransitive clause.

The following are the basic types in Kasong defined by separate formula for each type. Some elements of each clause type may be omitted in the speech situation. Omission of clause elements will be discussed in 2.1.2.4.

2.1.1.1 Transitive clause

A transitive clause normally requires the presence of the object. The transitive clause nucleus consists of a Subject, a Predicate and an Object. It can be formulated as:

$$Cl_{tr} = +S : np \quad +P : vp_{tr} \quad + O : np$$

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with a transitive main verb (See 4.2.1.4.1), and an obligatory Object positions filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral Temporal and Location are fairly common.

The semantic role of the Subject, Predicate and Object are Actor, Action or Perception and Undergoer respectively. So the Subject is usually any animate noun.

Examples

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1.	nak	tá:l	tà:k		'He drinks water.'
	He	*drink*	*water*		
2.	chó:	khát	mè:w		'The dog bites a cat'
	dog	*bite*	*cat*		
3.	samkhi:n	ten	káh	pa:ŋ níh	'That woman plucks the flower.'
	woman	*that*	*pluck*	*flower*	
4.	ʔiɲ	tàŋ	céh	ták	'I saw a big deer.'
	I	*see*	*deer*	*big*	
5.	nak	tó:ŋ	khamú:c		'He is afraid of ghosts.'
	he	*afraid*	*ghost*		

An inanimate noun can also function as the Subject of a transitive clause, but it is infrequent found, for example

6.	ròt	thap	chó:	'The car ran over a dog.'
	car	*be on top of*	*dog*	

In some transitive construction the Object is not the undergoer of the action, but it refer to the purpose or result of the action, for example

7.	nak	khút	lum		'He digs a hole.'
	he	*dig*	*hole*		
8.	ʔiɲ	lɔ:ŋ	tú:t	plè:w	'I will light a fire.'
	I	*will*	*to light*	*fire*	

The normal order of transitive clause is S-P-O. However, the Object may be placed in clause initial for emphasis. The O-S-P order is therefore also used.

1.	saló:p	ʔan	chan	cɔ̀:p	'This is the shirt I like.'
	shirt	*this*	*I*	*like*	
2.	se:w	hal	nak	tɔ̀:	'She cooked the hot curry.'
	curry	*hot*	*she*	*do*	

2.1.1.2 Bitransitive clause

A bitransitive clause usually takes two objects. The bitransitive clause nucleus consists of a Subject, a Predicate, a Direct object and an Indirect object. It can be formulated as:

Cl_{bi} = +S : np +P : vp_{bi} +DO : np +IO : np

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with a bitransitive main verb (See 4.2.1.4.2), an obligatory Direct and Indirect object positions filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral Temporal and Location are fairly common.

The semantic role of the Subject, Predicate, Direct object and Indirect object are Actor, Action, Undergoer and Recipient respectively. The direct object is usually an inanimate.

Examples

1. miɲ ʔɨ̀h kloŋ lɛ́ːk
   mother give rice chicken
   'Mother feeds chickens.'
2. nak cheːm kloŋ kheːn samlɔ̀ːŋ
   she feed rice child male
   'She feeds her son.'
3. ʔiɲ loːm ŋɨn khuːɲ
   I beg money father
   'I asked for money from my father.'
4. chót jɨ̀ːm pɛ́ːt chan
   Chot borrow knife I
   'Chot borrowed me a knife.'

Some transitive verbs like /tèːw/ 'buy' sometimes occurs as the main verb of bitransitive type, for example

nak tèːw khlâː seːw chan
he buy vegetable I
'He bought vegetables from me.'

The Direct object may be a full noun phrase which contains a numeral. When it precedes the Indirect object, a numeral quantity is usually placed after the Indirect object or the whole of the Direct object come after the Indirect object.

nak ʔɨ̀h saló:p ŋal chan pàː moːl
he give shirt red I two clf.
or nak ʔɨ̀h chan saló:p ŋal pàː moːl
'He gave me two red shirts.'

2.1.1.3 Intransitive clause

The intransitive clause nucleus consists of a Subject and a Predicate. It can be formulated as follows. This clause type never has an object and never has a passive counterpart.

Cl_{intr} = +S : np +P : vp_{intr}

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1) an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec.3.1.2) with a transitive main verb (See 4.2.1.4.3). Peripheral Temporal and Location are fairly common.

The semantic role of the Subject and Predicate are Actor and Action or Perception respectively.

Examples

1. tàːk thók 'The water is dropping.'
   water drop
2. léːk teːl tóh ŋèːt 'The cock crows every early morning.'
   cock crow every early morning
3. heːn thɛːk sə̤ːn ləːj naː 'It sleeps quietly.'
   it sleep quietly fp.
4. ʔiŋ cap kàt 'I am sick.'
   I sick

Some transitive verbs may occur in the intransitive clause structure as well as in the transitive clause structure.

1. nak pèːk 'He laughs.' (intransitive clause)
   he laugh
   nak pèːk khanéːw ten 'He laughs at that child.'(transitive clause)
   he laugh children that

2. chan hiw 'I am hungry.'(intransitive clause)
   I hungry
   chan hiw tàːk 'I am thirsty.' (transitive clause)
   I hungry water

2.1.1.4 Descriptive clause

The descriptive clause nucleus consists of a Subject and a Predicate. It can be formulated as follows. The Subject is simply being described; it does not initiate any action.

Cl_{des} = +S : np +P : vp_{des}

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1) and an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with a descriptive main verb (See 4.2.1.4.4). The possible peripheral element is Temporal.

The semantic role of the Subject and Predicate are Statant and State respectively.

Examples

1. saló:p tà:k 'The shirt is wet.'
   shirt wet
2. samkhĭn ten lakî: kɔ́:p 'That woman is very thin.'
   woman that thin very
3. khanam ʔan kɔ̀h ŋát 'This medicine is not bitter.'
   medicine this not bitter
4. khané:w ten kasîc le:w le:w 'That child is really lazy.'
   children that lazy really really
5. tà:k ré: trók chá:ŋ kliət 'The water in the swamp is very cold'
   water in swamp cold expressive word

The descriptive clause differs from the intransitive clause in their verb class which they take, in their transformational potential; that is, the descriptive clause cannot transformed into imperative. Besides, the semantic roles of their nuclear elements are different.

2.1.1.5 Ambient clause

An ambient clause refers to the weather or the natural phenomena. The ambient clause nucleus may consist of only a Predicate or of a Subject and a Predicate. It can be formulate as:

Cl_{amb} = ±S : np +P : $vp_{amb/intr}$

That is, an optional Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1) and an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with an ambient main verb (See 4.2.1.4.5) or an intransitive main verb which is particularly used for any natural phenomenon. Peripheral Temporal and Location are fairly common.

The semantic role of the Subject and Predicate are Natural Phenomenon and State respectively.

Normally, an ambient clause has only the Predicate as nucleus signifying weather.

Examples

1. lá:c 'There is lightning.'
   lightning
2. ʔawan thú: le:w le:w 'Today it is really hot.'
   today hot really really
3. na:n kɔ́h sá:p 'It is not dawn yet.'
   Yet not bright
4. khamá: khlák 'It is raining.'
   rain fall
5. khamá: phî:t hɔ́:j 'It stops raining.'
   rain lost/get well fp.
6. thú: laʔú:c hɔ́:j 'The sunlight has already lost.'
   sunlight shady fp.

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

2.1.1.6 Existential clause

An existential clause affirms or denies the existence of something. It is mainly used to introduce persons or objects into a discourse. The existential clause nucleus consists of a Predicate and a Complement (also called a Subject). It can be formulated as:

Cl_{exist} = +P : vp_{exist} +Compl : np / cl

That is, an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with a existential main verb (See 4.2.1.4.6) and an obligatory Complement position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec.3.1.1) or a clause. The peripheral Location is common.

The semantic role of the Predicate is State of existence of Statant, and of the Complement is Statant.

The existential verbs which characterize this clause type include only /ʔiːn/ 'to have' and /tòŋ/ 'to remain, to be left'.

Examples

1. ré: sruŋ ʔiːn srók phóːn moːl
   in sty have pig four clf.
   'There are four pigs in the sty.'
2. srúk ʔan ʔiːn kasɨ́m kɔ́ːp
   village this have people many
   'There are many people in this village.'
3. tòŋ méːl sɔːŋ phé: moːl
   remain serpent-head three clf.
   'There are three serpent-head fishes left.'

In the following examples, the Complement position of an existential clause is filled by a clause.

4. ʔiːn kasɨ́m thɛːk liŋ toŋ
   have- person sleep on - house -
   'There is a person sleeping in the house.'
5. kɔ́h ʔiːn ʔajpì: kɨl jak ʔan
   not have who stay here
   'There is nobody here.'

In natural speech, the Predicate can occasionally be omitted, for examples

ré: prì: ø chǐːm kɔ́ːp
in forest bird many
'There are many birds in the forest.'

toŋ chan ø chɔ́: cɔ́h
house I dog fierce
'There is a fierce dog at my house.'

Sometimes, the Subject of an existential clause may be placed before the existential main verb when the speaker wants to emphasize it, for example

mɛ̀:w ʔi:n káːŋ mo:l tih toŋ (chan)
cat have many clf. at house (I)
'There are many cats at my house.' (Subject emphasis)

2.1.1.7 Equational clause

The equational clause nucleus consists of a Subject, a Predicate and a Complement. It can be formulated as follows. The Complement indicates the character or identity of the Subject.

Cl_{equat} = +S : np ±P : vp_{equat} +Compl : np

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an optional Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with an equational main verb (See 4.2.1.4.7), and an obligatory Complement position filled by a nominal phrase. The order of the nuclear elements cannot be reversed.

The copula /pen/ 'to be', /kla:j pen/ 'to become' and /cɨ:/ 'to name' characterize this clause type.

Examples

1. mùː hɛːŋ pen kasɨ̀m kasɔ̀ːŋ
   group we be people Kasong
   'We are Kasong people.'
2. nak pen klə: chan
   he be friend I
   'He is my friend.'
3. klɔ̀ːŋ paː waːt cɨ́ː cuəp
   husband aunt Wat name Juap
   'The name of Aunt Wat's husband is Juap.'
4. lúk (kla:j)pen tàːk háːj
   salt to become water already
   'The salt has dissolved into liquid.'

The negation is indicated by /náːk/ 'to be not'.

5. chan náːk cawkhoːŋ toŋ
   I be not owner house
   'I am not the owner of the house.'
6. salóːp ʔan náːk khoːŋ chan
   shirt this be not of I
   'This shirt is not mine.'

In some cases the Predicate may not appear. Clauses then consist of two juxtaposed nominal phrases of the Subject and the Complement. This is possible only when the clause has /pen/ 'to be' as the Predicate.

7. samlòːŋ ten khuːn chan
   man that father I
   'That man is my father.'
8. ʔiʔan sanîp heːn
   this one lid it
   'This one is its lid.'

2.1.1.8 Motion clause

The motion clause nucleus consists of a Subject, a Predicate, and a Destination or Source. It can be formulated as:

Cl_{mot} = +S : np +P : vp_{mot} ±Sou : (ca:k + np) ±Dest : np / pp

Thai is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with a motion main verb (See 4.2.1.4.8), an optional Source position filled by a prepositional phrase which is introduced by /caːk/ 'from' plus a locative nominal phrase, and an optional Destination position filled by a nominal phrase or a prepositional phrase (Sec. 3.2.4). Peripheral Temporal and Accompaniment are fairly common.

The semantic role of the Subject, Predicate, Source and Destination are Actor, Action, Source of action and Destination of action respectively.

Examples

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1. nak jip toŋ chan móːj naːn
   he come house I just a moment
   'He came and stayed at my house just a moment.'
2. hɛːŋ lɔːŋ ceːw maːl
   we will go field
   'We will go to the field.'

In the Predicate of clause, the main verb may have the directional word modifying it. The directional word itself is subset of the motion verbs (See 4.2.1.4.8) that functions to indicate the direction of action or moving. It always occurs after the main verb.

3. nak klap jip caːk prîː
   he return come from forest
   'He returned from the forest.'
4. khanéːw póp ceːw loːŋliən
   children run go school
   'The children run to school.'
5. chîːm hóː klap pasúːm
   bird fly return nest
   'The bird flies back to (its) nest.'
6. tàːk calóːŋ jip caːk nɔːŋ
   water flow come from mountain
   'The water flows from the mountain.'

The Source and the Destination sometimes occur together in the same clause. In this case, the clause always takes a Directional verb (DV) in S-P-Sou-DV-Dest order. However, when the Destination is filled by a prepositional phrase introduced by /phlaŋ/ 'to', the Directional verb does not usually occur (Ex. 9).

7. nak ceːw caːk toŋ jip jak ʔan
   he walk from house come here
   'He walked from (his) house to here.'
8. heːn póp caːk toŋ chan ceːw toŋ nak
   it run from house I go house he
   'It ran from my house to his house.'

9. chan ce:w ca:k toŋ phlaŋ tala:t
I walk from house to market
'I walked from (my) house to the market.'

It is observable that some verbs of motion do not always signal motion clauses; they also occur in intransitive clauses (Sec. 2.1.1.3).

2.1.1.9 Locative clause

A locative clause attributes a location to Subject. The locative clause nucleus consists of a Subject, a Predicate and a Location. It can be formulated as:

Cl_{loc} = +S : np +P : vp_{loc} +Loc : np / loc.pp

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with a locative main verb /kɨl/ 'to stay, to live, to locate', and an obligatory Locative position filled by a nominal phrase or a prepositional locative phrase (Sec. 3.2.4). Peripheral Temporal and Accompaniment are fairly common.

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

Examples

1. khlɨŋ samkhɨn chan kɨl jak ʔan
older sibling woman I live here
'My older sister lives here.'
2. crɛ:ŋ kɨl pata: mɔ:n
ring stay under pillow
'A ring is under the pillow.'
3. toŋ nak kɨl ká:t toŋ ʔiŋ
house he locate near house I
'His house is near my house.'
4. tà:k khlák kɨl lɨŋ nɔ:ŋ
waterfall stay on mountain
'The waterfall is on the mountain.'

This clause type is different from other clause types in that the Location slot is obligatory.

2.1.1.10 Propulsion clause

The propulsion clause nucleus consists of a Subject, a Predicate, an Object, a Direction and a Destination or Source. It can be formulate as follows. In this clause type, the Object is moved because of Subject.

Cl_{prop}= +S : np +P : vp_{prop} +O : np +Dir : dir.v + Dest/Sou : np/pp

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with a propulsion main verb (See 4.2.1.4.10), an obligatory Object position filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory Direction position filled by a directional verb (See 4.2.1.4.8), and an obligatory Destination or Source position filled by a nominal phrase or a prepositional phrase which introduced by /ca:k/ 'from'. Peripheral Temporal is fairly common.

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

Examples

1. ʔaj phoŋ cu:ŋ kapa:w ce:w nà:
   address Phong lead buffalo go paddy field
   'Mr. Phong leads a buffalo (to go) to the rice field.'
2. nak té:k chan jip jakʔan
   she bring I come here
   'She took me to come here.'
3. khané:w mù: ten tə:ŋ khamó: loŋ tà:k
   children group that toss stone down water
   'Those children are throwing the stone into the water.'
4. khu:ɲ ce:n ròt kháw toŋ
   father push car enter house
   'Father pushes a car into (the opening of) the house.'

Some transitive verbs can be filled in the Predicate position of a propulsion clause as in:

5. miŋ jòk takhó: pa:k toŋ
mother lift mortar up house
'Mother lifts the mortar away up in the house.'
6. pa: wa:t jòk kɛ̂h se:w loŋ ca:k panáh
aunt Wat lift pot curry down from stove
'Aunt Wat took a curry pot down from the stove.'

And some verbs of propulsion do not always signal propulsion clauses but they also occur in transitive clauses.

2.1.1.11 Quotative clause

A quotative clause contains one of a small group of quotative verb repeating the exact words of a person as they were said. This clause type can be analyzed into two subtypes.

Subtype I The direct quotative clause nucleus can be formulated as:

Cl_{quot} = +S : np +P : vp_{quot} ±O : np ±Quot Link. : lîc +Quot : cl

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2) with a quotative main verb (See 4.2.1.4.11), an optional Object position filled by a nominal phrase, an optional Quotative Linker position filled by /lîc/ 'that' and an obligatory Quotative position filled by a clause. Peripheral Temporal is fairly common.

Examples

1. khu:n srɔ́:ŋ chan lîc pa: sun cap kàt kɔ́:p
father tell I that aunt Sun sick very
'(My) father told me that aunt Sun was very sick.'
2. lù:ŋ cuəp ku: lîc tà:k pùh hɔ́:j
uncle Juap shout that water boil already
'Uncle Juap shouted that the water is boiling.'
3. nak sri: lîc chɔ́: ten khɔ:ŋ ʔajpì:
he ask that dog that of who
'He asked who is the owner of that dog.'

Subtype II The indirect quotative clause nucleus can be formulated as:

Cl_{quot} = +S : np +P : { srɔ́:ŋ / saŋát } +Lk. : ʔɨ́h ±O : np +Quot Comp : cl

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by /srɔ́:ŋ/ 'tell' or /saŋát/ 'leave one's word (to order)', an obligatory Linker position filled by /ʔɨ́h/ 'give (indicate the Object and the quotative action)', an optional Object position filled by a nominal phrase and an obligatory Quotative Complement filled by a clause.

Examples

1. nak srɔ́:ŋ ʔɨ́h chan jip jak ʔan
   he tell give I come here
   'He told me to come here.'
2. nak srɔ́:ŋ ʔɨ́h saŋin nak thɨm kloŋ
   he tell give wife he cook rice
   'He told his wife to cook rice.'
3. khu:ŋ srɔ́:ŋ ʔɨ́h-hɔ́:p kloŋ tɔ́:j
   father tell give eat rice before
   'Father told (us) to eat rice first. (Don't wait)'
4. miŋ saŋát ʔɨ́h chan chɨ́h mé:l saj lúk
   mother order give I expose fish put salt
   'Mother told me to expose the salted fish to the sun.'

2.1.1.12 Quantitative clause

The quantitative clause nucleus consists of a Subject, a Predicate and a Quantitative item. It can be formulated as:

Cl_{quant} = +S : np ±P : vp_{quant} +Quant : num.p

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an optional Predicate position filled by a verb phrase with a quantitative main verb (See 4.2.1.4.12), and an obligatory Quantitative position filled by a numeral phrase (Sec. 3.2.1).

Examples

1. saló:p ʔan la:khá: kati: se: ba:t
   shirt this cost eighty baht
   'This shirt costs eighty baht.'
2. pa: wát ʔajú: kadɔ:ŋ se: pó:n nɨm
   aunt Wat age sixty four year
   'Aunt Wati is sixty-four years old.'

Some descriptive verbs can function as Predicate of a quantitative clause. There are /ŋál/ 'weighty', /rɔ̀:/ 'tall', /kóŋ/ 'long' as in:

3. ʔiɲ ŋál phó:n se: phé: kilo:
   I weigh forty three kilogram
   'I weigh forty-three kilograms.'

In some case the absence of a verb /la:khá:/ 'to cost' is normal, so there is no Predicate. However, it is semantically understood that the clause implies a quantitative verb /la:khá:/.

4. thíɲ mó:j kilo: phó:n ba:t
   bamboo shoot one kilogram four baht
   'One kilogram of bamboo shoot costs four baht.'
5. (phli:) má:k phó:n mo:l phram ba:t
   (fruit) areca four clf. five baht
   'Four areca nuts cost five baht.'

2.1.1.13 Comparative clause

The comparative clause contains the comparative essence. It may be comparison of quality, degree or quantity. The comparative clause is manifested by having a comparative verb or by having other verb with a comparative modifier as the Predicate. The comparative clause nucleus can be formulated as:

Cl_{com} = +S : np +P : vp ±Approx : kɨəp ±Com Mk : {ja:ŋ}

+Com Item : np ±Dif. Quant : num.p

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2), an optional Approximate position filled by /kɨəp/ 'almost, nearly', an optional Comparative

marker position filled by /ja:ŋ/ 'like, same', /tiɲ/ 'equal (size)', /tháw/ 'equal (quantity)', /kwa:/ 'than' or /mó:j/ 'one', an obligatory Comparative Item position filled by a nominal phrase, and an optional Different quantity position filled by a numeral phrase (Sec. 3.2.1).

Examples

1. nak méɲ ja:ŋ miɲ
   she beautiful like mother
   'She is as beautiful as her mother.'
2. mè:w ták kiəp tiɲ chó:
   cat big almost equal dog
   'The cat is almost as big as a dog.'
3. khané:w póp lè:w kwa: kasîm chîh
   children run fast than person old
   'The children run faster than old people.'
4. pò: ʔi:n ŋin kó:p kwa: ʔiɲ rà:j ba:t
   you have money much than I ten clf.
   'You have ten baht more than I.'

The comparative marker /ja:ŋ/ and /tiɲ/ themselves are the comparative verbs (Sec. 4.2.1.4.13). They also function as the clause Predicate. If the Predicate is manifested by a comparative verb, any comparative marker never occurs in a clause. So the comparative clause has the order of S-P-Com Item.

5. (mat ŋa:l) nak ja:ŋ miɲ
   (eye face) she like mother
   'Her face looks like her mother.'
6. ʔíc mat tiɲ mèt laŋó:
   excrement eye equal seed sesame
   'The eye-wax is as big as a sesame.'

The comparison of equality may be formed in various ways. The use of the reciprocal marker /sa:/ 'each other' is very common when the Subject refers to two or more comparative items.

7. niːl pàː phīːn ten jaːŋ saː
mat two clf. that like reci.mk
'Those two mats are the same.'

8. hɛːŋ ʔaːjúː móːj saː
we age one reci.mk
or hɛːŋ ʔaːjúː tháw saː
we age equal reci.mk
'We have the same age.'

9. nak ròː móːj khuːɲ
he high one father
or nak ròː tháw khuːɲ
he high equal father
'He is as tall as his father.'

10. ʔiɲ mɔːŋ pòː kəːt ʔaːw móːj saː
I and you born day one rec.mk
ʔiɲ kəːt ʔaːw móːj saː mɔːŋ pòː
I born day one rec.mk with you
'You and I have the same birthday'

The expression of non-equality may be formed by placing the negation /kɔ́h/ 'not' before the Comparative marker.

11. niːl pàː phīːn ʔan kôŋ kɔ́h tháw saː
mat two clf. this long not equal reci.mk
'These two mats do not have the same length.'

The superlative comparison is marked by a comparative marker / kwaː/ 'than' followed by all thing or person to be compared.

12. nàːŋ saːw chī́h kwaː ʔajteːw réː srúk ʔan
grandmother(title) Saw old than another in village this
'Mrs. Saw is the oldest in this village.'

13. muək ʔan pèːŋ kwaː nak
hat this expensive than he/she
'This hat is the most expensive.'

2.1.2 Variant structures

Apart from the basic clause patterns, each of the Kasong clauses may have certain variants.

2.1.2.1 Focus variant (passive)

Basic clauses normally have active constructions that tend to focus on the Actor. However, the transitive clause can be transformed into passive construction when the speaker wants to focus on the Undergoer.

There is always the presence of a passive marker /tɔ̀ːn/ in a passive clause. An agent may be present as well. The passive clause nucleus can be diagrammed as:

pCl = +S : np +Pass. Mk : /tɔ̀ːn/ ±Ag : np +P : vp ±O : np

That is, an obligatory Subject position filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1), an obligatory Passive marker position filled by /tɔ̀ːn/ 'undergo', an optional Agent position filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory Predicate position filled by a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2), and an optional Object position filled by a nominal phrase.

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

Commonly, /tɔ̀ːn/ precedes a transitive verb that has an unpleasant or unfavorable meaning as the following examples.

1. krùː saːmaːt tɔ̀ːn cák
   teacher Samat pass.mk shoot
   'Teacher Samat was shot.'
2. chan tɔ̀ːn phrɔːt suːc
   I pass.mk bee(kind of) stung
   'I was stung by the bee.'
3. nak tɔ̀ːn tuː tóh
   He pass.mk hit head
   'He was hit on the head.'
4. nak tɔ̀ːn kuːŋ top ŋal
   he pass.mk father slap face
   'He was slapped in the face by his father.'

2.1.2.2 Speech act variants

2.1.2.2.1 Imperative

Clause types – except descriptive clause, ambient clause, existential clause, equational clause and quantitative clause – may be transformed into imperative.

The imperative clause functions primarily in the nucleus of imperative sentence (Sec. 5.2.2.2). It is used only in direct speech to command somebody to do something or to forbid him to do something.

The imperative has degree of compulsion and request expressing by some final particle or simply by intonation. It varies from mild imperative to strong command depending on the degree of force or stress the whole clause takes.

The imperative clauses are divided into two subtypes: positive imperative and negative imperative. There is no Subject in the imperative construction, but the vocative may occur in the clause initial or final.

(1) Positive imperative

Positive imperative clauses are indicated by an imperative final particle (See 4.2.16.2) and/or falling intonation. A simple positive imperative clause may be described as follows.

$Cl_{imp\text{-}po}$= ±Voc: address term +P: vp ±O/Compl: np ±FP : fp ∓Voc: address term

The Vocative position is manifested by an address term which may be a name, kinship term or a second personal pronoun. It may come before or after the clause nucleus.

Examples

1.	jip	ʔan				'Come here!'
	come	*here*				
2.	hɔ́:p	ce:w	sih			'Eat!'
	eat	*go*	*fp.*			
3.	ʔɔ:ɲ	troŋ	ten			'Place (it) there!'
	place	*there*				
4.	lu:ŋ	jip	lè:w	lè:w	na:	'Uncle, come quickly (please)'
	uncle	*come*	*quick*	*quick*	*fp.*	

The normal order of the clause elements P-O can occur as O-P for emphasizing the object. A short pause is required before P.

5. kapoŋ nóŋ . ʔóːc jip ʔan

young part gourd take come here

'Take the young part of gourd here'

(2) Negative imperative

Negative imperatives are signaled by a negative word /máːj/ 'don't' before the main verb.

$Cl_{imp\text{-}neg}$ = ±Voc: address term +Mk: máːj +P: vp ±O/Compl: np ±FP: fp ∓Voc: address term

The Vocative position is manifested by an address term which may be a name, kinship term or a second personal pronoun. It may come before or after the clause nucleus.

Examples

1. máːj cháp 'Don't touch (it).'

   don't catch

2. máːj ceːw nah 'Don't go.'

   don't go fp.

3. máːj thɛːk saŋíː ròː 'Don't wake up late.'

   don't sleep sun late

The Object in the imperative clause is frequently omitted when it is previously understood.

2.1.2.2.2 Interrogative

Clause types may be transformed into interrogative by the used of distinctive question words. The interrogative clause functions primarily in the nucleus of an interrogative sentence, but may also functions in the nucleus of social sentence or self-expression sentence.

Structurally, interrogative clauses can be divided into yes/no question and content question. These two subtypes differ from each other mainly in the type of question words.

(1) Yes/no question

This type of interrogative is a question which requires a simple 'yes' or 'no' answer, as indicated by its name. It is formed by adding a question word /hɔ́:/, /hi: hɔ́:/, /mɛ:n hɔ́:/, /hi: na:n/ or a question particle /ʔah/ to the end of a clause which takes the same syntactic form as a statement.

Examples

1. bɔ́:p hi: hɔ́:
   tired ques.(or not)
   'Are you tired?'
2. tɔ̀: ja:ŋ ʔan mɛ:n hɔ́:
   do like this ques.
   'Is it right to do this?'
3. pɔ̀: hɔ́:p kloŋ hi: na:n
   you eat rice ques. (not yet)
   'Have you eaten rice?'
4. (pùək) nak pen mɔ́:t khliŋ sa: ʔah
   group he be relatives reci.mk ques.
   'Are they relatives?'

The Subject in the interrogative clause is usually omitted when the interlocutors understand it. The omission of other elements is the same as those in the statement clause.

A question particle /ʔah/ also occurs immediately after the subject when the subject is focus. This may be considered as an interrogative clause and it may imply the different meanings depending on the situation of use, for example

chu: pɔ̀: ʔah → 'Is this your grandchild?'
grandchild you ques. → 'Was it your grandchild (who helped you make that)?'

From an example above, /ʔah/ is used to express a real question when the speaker does not know a person who is asked. In other case, /ʔah/ is used when the speaker is not sure (that a person who helped him/her make something is his/her grandchild) and wants to reaffirm from the interlocutor.

(2) Content question

The content question clause demands an answer that gives information. It is marked by a question word such as /ʔajpì:/ 'who', /m̩pì:/ 'what', /tɔ̀: m̩pì:/ 'why', /nì:/ 'where, which', /kachi:/ 'when', /ja:ŋnì:/ 'how', /mó:jʔi:/ 'how much, how many', etc. (See 4.2.15).

The content question words substitute the unknown elements in the interrogative clause. If the subject is unknown and we want to know who the subject is, the question word /ʔajpì:/ 'who' will be placed in the Subject position. Or if the object is unknown, the question word /ʔajpì:/ 'whom' will then be placed in the Object position instead. The word /m̩pì:/ 'what' also occurs in the Subject and Object position, sometimes as Complement position. The question word /nì:/ or /jak nì:/ or /tíh nì:/ 'where' occurs in Location, Source and Destination position and /nì:/ 'which' may immediately occurs after the unknown element in the Subject or Object position. /kachi:/ 'when' occur in Temporal position. Therefore, the normal order of elements cannot be generally diagrammed.

Examples

1. ʔajpì: jip 'Who come?'
   who come
2. khin m̩pì: klòŋ 'What kind of insect is making that noise?'
   insect what cry -
3. kɛ: ce:w nì: jip 'Where did you go?'
   you go where come
4. toŋ pò: laŋ nì: 'Which house is yours?'
   house you clf. which
5. pò: ʔa:jú: mó:jʔi: 'How old are you?'
   you age how much

The question word /ja:ŋ nì:/ 'how' occurs only in the final position of the interrogative clause.

6. nak lɔ:ŋ klap ja:ŋnì: 'How will she go back?'
   she will go back how

The question word /tɔ̀ː mpì ː/ 'why' may occurs in the initial or final position of an interrogative clause, sometimes, follow the Subject when the Subject is emphasized. It has been observed that it occupies the initial position mostly when the clause Predicate takes a negative word /kɔ́h/ 'not'.

7. pòː jaːm tɔ̀ː mpìː 'Why do you cry?'
   you cry why
8. tɔ̀ː mpìː kɔ́h ceːw thɔ́ːc mɔ̀ː 'Why don't you go to see a doctor?'
   why not go seek doctor

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

2.1.2.3 Non-modifying form (relative clause)

A clause may be transformed into a relative clause functioning as a modifier of noun in a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1).

Kasong relative clause takes clause which is in reduced form, that is, either subject or object of relative clause has been deleted. The relative clause is placed next to the head noun in the Modify position of a nominal phrase with (see Ex.4) or without the relative marker. However, the relative clauses found tend to have no relative marker.

Examples

1. kasɨ̀m ceːw nam takáː pen mɔ̀ː
   person walk lead in front of be doctor
   'A person who walks in the front is a doctor.'
2. kɔ́h ʔiːn ʔajpìː chaː khanom nak tɔ̀ː
   not have whom eat sweets she do
   'Nobody eats sweets which she made.'
3. kaːŋkeːŋ miŋ tèːw ʔɨ̀h chan thak hɔ́ːj
   trousers mother buy give I torn fp.
   'The trousers which my mother bought for me are torn.'
4. heːn jip jak lamɔ̀ːŋ deː kɨ̀l kìː naː
   it come at grandfather who stay dem. fp.
   'It comes to the old man who stays there.' (from a narrative)

2.1.2.4 Omission

Clauses may not occur in full forms. Each element of each clause type can be omitted if it is obviously understood. The missing element is known from the context or some verb if it is not actually present in a clause.

The Subject and the Object are normally left out in the speech situation when the interlocutors know whom or what they are talking about.

Examples

1. pò: hó:p kloŋ tòŋ wíc jó:j ⇒ hó:p tòŋ wíc jó:j
   you eat rice remain again fp. *eat remain again fp.*
   '(You) could not eat all (the rice) again.'
2. chan kat thɛ:k ⇒ kat thɛ:k
   I sleepy(hurt+sleep) *sleepy*
   '(I) feel sleepy.'

When a different participant begins to act or speak, or when one wishes to emphasize the subject participant, there is normally no omission of the clause Subject.

The Predicate is obligatorily present, except in responding to a content interrogative clause that takes some question word, for example

A: ʔajpî: kók cɔ̀:sɔ́:k
   who gather mango
   'Who gathered the mangos?'
B: khanéːw ten
   children that
   'That child'

2.1.2.5 Permutation

The permutation of the clause nuclear elements is mainly due to emphasis. It may be emphasized on a participant or on the action. In Kasong, shifting any element to the first position of clause marks the emphasis.

The normal word order of clause S-P-O may be changed into O-S-P in case of the Object emphasis. A slight pause is required between the Object and Subject position.

Examples

1. lɔ:ŋ piɲ . wa: cɔ̀:p cha:
   banana ripe monkey like eat
   'The monkey likes eating ripe banana.'
2. saló:p ʔan . mɔ̀: sa:w ʔɨ́h ʔiɲ
   shirt this doctor Saw give I
   'Doctor Saw gave me this shirt.'

For the Predicate emphasis, the Predicate element will be permuted to the first or presubject position. This is common in the intransitive clause and descriptive clause.

3. ɲa:j lè:w le:w le:w . ʔaj saw
   speak quick really really address Saw
   'Mr. Saw speaks very fast.'
4. jéh mot hɔ́:j . má:k ré: thuŋ
   dry all fp. betel in bag
   'All betel nuts in the bag are dry.'
5. jip wíc jó:j . lu:ŋ suən
   come again fp. uncle Suan
   'Uncle Suan comes again.'

2.1.3 Clause periphery

Besides the nuclear elements, clauses may also have optional peripheral elements that add more detail to the clause as a whole, but they are not required by the Predicate. Clause peripheral elements include time and location settings, instrument, accompaniment, beneficiary and final particle.

These peripheral elements usually come before or after the clause nucleus, but some of them may sometimes occur inside the clause nucleus. The most common order of peripheral elements in a clause can be generally diagrammed as follow. However, peripheral clause positions are not rigid in order.

Cl = (T) – (L) – SVO – (I) – (A) – (B) – (L) – (T) – (FP)

Most clause types can take possible peripheral elements.

2.1.3.1 Time setting

Temporal element may present either the time at which the action takes place or the duration time of the action.

Subtype I Temporal element states the point of time of the action. It may occur either before or after the clause nucleus. It can be filled by a time phrase (Sec.3.2.5) or a clause.

Examples

1. nak jip jak maʔaːw
   he come at the day before yesterday
   'He came the day before yesterday.'
2. nɨm jɔ̀ːh khamáː khlák kɔ́ːp
   last year rain fall very
   'Last year it rained very hard.'
3. jak péːtóː ʔiɲ thɛːk kɔ́h laŋéː
   at last night I sleep not asleep
   'Last night, I couldn't sleep.'
4. náːŋ lamɔ̀ːŋ hɔ́ːc taŋtɛː chan naːn kǐc
   grandmother grandfather die since I yet small
   'My grandparents died when I was a child.'

Clauses may have more detail in the point of time. Therefore the temporal position is complex or it may be separated by the clause nucleus (Ex. 6b).

5. nak jip ʔaːsiː tɔːn saŋíː laː
   he come yesterday when evening
   'He came yesterday evening.'
6. (a) pàːŋ ŋèːt ʔiɲ lɔːŋ phúh thal (emphasize /pàːŋ ŋèːt/)
   tomorrow morning I will wash cloth
   (b) pàːŋ ʔiɲ lɔːŋ phúh thal tɔːn ŋèːt (emphasize /pàːŋ/)
   tomorrow I will wash cloth when morning
   'I will wash the clothes tomorrow morning.'

Subtype II Temporal element indicates the duration of the action, which with a repeated action, may include the number of times. It normally follows the clause nucleus.

This temporal position can be filled by a numeral phrase (Sec. 3.2.1) or a temporal prepositional phrase (Sec. 3.2.4) as seen in the examples below.

7. he:n kɔ́h ʔi:n hɔ́:p kloŋ pà: ʔa:w hɔ́:j
   it not get eat rice two day fp.
   'It has not had anything to eat for two days.'

8. nak ce:w tɔ̀: ka:n thùk ʔa:w
   he go do work every day
   'He goes to work every day.'

9. khané:w lîŋ sa: (taŋtɛ: ŋè:t) kataŋ chíp
   children play reci. mk (since morning) until dark
   'The children play with each other (in the morning) until dark.'

Both subtype I and subtype II of Temporal may occasionally occur together in the same clause. In this case, the temporal subtype I usually come before the clause nucleus.

10. ʔawan nak jip thɔ́:c chan pà: tí:
    today she come seek I two time
    'Today she came to see me twice.'

2.1.3.2 Location setting

The Locative usually occurs after the clause nucleus, but may occasionally precede the nucleus when it is emphasized. If the Locative cooccurs with the Temporal after the clause nucleus, it always comes before the Temporal.

The Locative position is filled by a prepositional phrase (Sec. 3.2.4) or a place name.

Examples

1. khané:w pà: nak thal jak takrɔ́:ŋ
   children two clf. stand at staircase
   'Two children stand on the staircase.'

2. nak thɛ:k pakáːj toŋ
he sleep outside house
'He sleeps outside the house.'

3. takáː toŋ ʔiːn théːm níh phéː théːm
in front of house have tree three clf.
'There are three trees in front of the house.'

4. nak ceːw thóːc thîɲ réː prìː
he go seek bamboo shoot in forest
'He went to look for bamboo shoots in the forest.'

The Locative is considered to be the nuclear element in the locative clause and also in the motion clause and propulsion clause, though it is not obligatorily present in the motion and propulsion clauses.

2.1.3.3 Instrument

Instrument is commonly expressed in the transitive clause, very rarely in other clauses. It can occur only after the clause nucleus, usually before the Locative and Temporal.

The Instrument position is filled by a prepositional phrase which introduced by /mɔːŋ/ 'with, by'.

Examples

1. miɲ chan cɔ̀ːp hóːp kloŋ mɔːŋ tiː
mother I like eat rice with hand
'My mother often eats rice with her hand.'

2. nak plàːk ʔúh mɔːŋ kraːn
he split firewood with axe
'He splits the firewood with an axe.'

3. pùək nak jip mɔːŋ tòk
group he come by boat
'They came by boat.'

The Instrument element may be expressed by using a verb /ʔóːc/ 'take' or /céː/ 'use' introduce it and it occurs inside the clause nucleus. In this case, the Instrument is emphasized, for examples

4. nak ʔóːc rà:ŋ tuː tóh chóː
he take trough hit head dog
'He took a trough and hit a dog on its head.'

5. lampha: cé: khlá: pì:k pók kloŋ laméc
Lampha use leaf kind of plant wrap glutinous rice
'Lampha used a Prik leaf to wrap glutinous rice.'

2.1.3.4 Accompaniment

The Accompanying element refers to associated actor. It occurs after the clause nucleus, but before the Instrument. It is filled by a prepositional phrase which introduced by /moːŋ/ 'with'.

Examples

1. kheːn nak cɔ̀ːp lîɲ moːŋ chóː
child she like play with dog
'Her child likes to play with a dog.'

2. nak ceːw phliɲ méːl moːŋ somphoŋ
he go fishhook fish with Somphong
'He went fishing with Somphong.'

3. chan hɔ́ːp kloŋ moːŋ miɲ moːŋ khuːɲ
I eat rice with mother with father
'I eat rice with my parents.'

A clause may be filled by /moːŋ saː/ 'together' in the same position with Accompaniment. It expresses that two or more actors perform the action together.

4. chan moːŋ miɲ thɛːk moːŋ saː
I and mother sleep together
'My mother and I sleep together.'

The Accompaniment is commonly used in the transitive, intransitive and motion clauses.

2.1.3.5 Beneficiary

The Beneficiary element indicates a person who benefits from the action. It occurs after the clause nucleus.

The Beneficiary position is usually marked by /ʔɨh/ 'give (recipient indicator)' plus a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1).

Examples

1. chan lɔ:ŋ ce:w tè:w khanam ʔɨh khu:ŋ
   I will go buy medicine give father
   'I will go to buy medicine for my father.'
2. nà:ŋ tɛ:ŋ ca:k sapparòt ʔɨh chu:
   address Taeng peel pineapple give grandchild
   'Mrs. Taeng peels the pineapple for her grandchild.'

When the Object contains a numeral, the Beneficiary can also occur between the Object and a numeral phrase.

3. nak tè:w thal kapɨ̀l pà: phɨ:n ʔɨh miŋ
   she buy traditional skirt two clf. give mother
   or nak tè:w thalpɨ̀l ʔɨh miŋ pà: phɨ:n
   'She bought two traditional skirts for her mother.'

A clause may take the Beneficiary element indicating the benefit which is expected from the action. The Beneficiary position is marked by a Thai loan /phɨə/ 'for' plus a reduced clause, for example

4. ʔiŋ tɔ̀: ka:n phɨə ʔi:n ŋɨn
   I do work for get money
   'I work for money.'

2.1.3.6 Final particle

The final particles occur in the clause or sentence final expressing the speaker feeling, sometimes grammatical meaning (See 4.2.1.16.2). A clause usually takes only one final particle.

Examples

1. pa:ŋ nɨ́h ʔan mɛ́ŋ nah
   flower this beautiful fp.
   'This flower is beautiful.'

2. pò: ce:w thəh
you go fp.
'Please go.'
3. khamá: lɔ:ŋ khlák hó:j
rain will fall fp.
'It will be raining.'
4. lé:k kɔ́h jɔ:m tuŋ lé:w
chicken not allow lay fp.
'The hen doesn't lay (eggs).'

Co-occurrence of the clause peripheral elements

Clause may have more than one peripheral element. The co-occurrence of two or three peripheral elements within a single clause is common, but more than three is rarely found. Some examples are provided below.

1. ʔa:sí: nak kɔ́h ɲa:j mɔ:ŋ chan
yesterday she not speak with I
'Yesterday she didn't speak with me.'
2 jak kató: he:n thɛ:k krìp toŋ
at a moment ago it sleep area under the floor house
'It slept under the house just a moment ago.'
3. pà:ŋ ŋè:t nak lɔ:ŋ jip thác sûk ʔíh pò:
tomorrow morning he will come cut hair give you
'Tomorrow morning, he will come to cut your hair.'
4. jak ŋè:t chan hɔ́:p kloŋ mɔ:ŋ khu:n pata: thé:m níh
at morning I eat rice with father under tree
'In the morning, I ate rice with my father under the tree.'

2.2 Modifications

2.2.1 Transitivity modifications

Each of the basic clause types has its own set of relations between participants, here called transitivity or nuclear relations (Thomas, 1993:74). These

transitivity relations may be modified in several ways: by combining (reflexive, reciprocal), or addition (causative). The Kasong marks these with some particles.

2.2.1.1 Reflexive

The clause Subject may perform action on self or for self. Reflexivity therefore has the same person as clause Actor and as clause Undergoer or Recipient. The reflexive construction is formed by placing the reflexive marker /nɔ́ːn/ 'self' after an organic noun or a pronoun or both in the Object position.

Examples

1. nak cák kɨ̀p nɔ́ːn
   he shoot body ref.mk
   'He shot himself.'
2. nak tóp ranɛːŋ nɔ́ːn
   she slap mouth ref.mk
   'She slaps her own mouth.'
3. ʔiŋ tɔ̀ː (kɨ̀p) nɔ́ːn hɔ́ːc
   I do (body) ref.mk die
   'I pretended to be dead.'

The reflexive marker /nɔ́ːn/ is finally placed in the Beneficiary position in the case that the Subject performs the action for self.

4. nak wók kloŋ ʔ íh {nak / kɨ̀p} nɔ́ːn
   he ladle rice give ref.mk
   'He ladles some rice for himself.'

It is observed that /kɨ̀p/ 'body' may be added to emphasize that the actor and the undergoer are the same person.

2.2.1.2 Reciprocal

Two or more participants in an action may be doing the action to each other. The reciprocal marker /saː/ 'each other' is used.

Examples

1. chɔ́ː khát saː

   dog bite reci.mk.

   'The dogs are fighting each other.'

2. khanéːw pàː nak ten chút súk saː

   children two clf. that pull hair reci. mk

   'Those two children pull each other's hair.'

3. saŋɨn klɔ̀ːŋ pasúk saː

   wife husband quarrel reci. mk

   'The husband and the wife quarrel.'

Verbs expressing reciprocal action may occur between the actor and the accompanying actor, for example

nak pasúk mɔːŋ saŋɨn 'He quarrels with his wife.'

he quarrel with wife

The particle /saː/ may function as a reciprocal final particle in an example below.

ceːw saː thə̀h 'Let's go.'

go reci.mk fp.

2.2.1.3 Causative

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

The Causative position occurs before the nuclear clause. Causer and causative verb are placed in the Causative position respectively. The causative marker /ʔɨ́h/ is usually used to link the Causative to a clause. There may be a chain of causers filled in the Causative position.

Causative verbs are any verbs that can function in the Causative position. Some causative verb which frequently used is /tɔ̀ː/ 'do, to make'.

Examples

1. nak lɔː ʔɨ́h chan jip

   she deceive caus. mk I come

   'She deceived me to come.'

2. kheːn samɔ̀ːk nak tɔ̀ː ʔɨ́h nak cóh
child son-in-law he do caus. mk he angry
'His son-in-law makes him angry.'

3. nak ɲaːj ʔɨ́h klɔ̀ːŋ saŋɨn pasúk saː
she speak caus.mk husband wife quarrel reci. mk.
'She speaks in the way that the couple quarrels.'

2.2.2 Modality modification

Modality presents the Actor's viewpoint about the action. The clause nucleus describes what the Actor actually does, but his volition, obligation, necessity, or ability to do the action is the modality. The Kasong usually manifest these modals as Predicate with some auxiliary verbs.

2.2.2.1 Volition

Volition includes a range from deliberate to involuntary action. The actor in a clause may exercise volition.

Examples

1. ʔiŋ lɔːŋ ceːw thɔ́ːc mɔ̀ː tih ʔanaːmaj
I will go seek doctor at public health center
' I will go to see the doctor at the public health center.'

2. ʔaj jaːw kɔ́h ɲaːj nak jɔːm tɔ̀ːn tuː
address Yaw not say he allow pass.mk. hit
'Yaw didn't say anything. He lets (his mother) hit him.'

3. ʔiŋ kìt lɔːŋ ceːw
I think will go
'I may go.'

2.2.2.2 Obligation and necessity

Obligation and necessity range from free choice by the Actor to total compulsion by a cause or causer. Obligation implies a moral compulsion, necessity, a physical compulsion.

Examples

1. nak kat phlu: ø tó:ŋ cha: khanam thùk ʔa:w
   she hurt leg (she) must eat medicine every day
   'Because she has a pain in her leg, she has to take medicine everyday.'
   (necessity by a cause)
2. pò: tó:ŋ ce:w mɔ:ŋ ʔiɲ
   you must go with I
   'You must go with me.' (compulsion)

2.2.2.3 Ability

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

Examples

1. nà:ŋ sa:w ɲa:j/tɔ̀: mí: kɔ́h ʔi:n lé:w
   grandmother Saw say / do tale not can fp.
   'Grandmother Saw cannot tell stories any more.'
2. kɛ: cam ʔi:n ma:ŋ kɔ́h ʔi:n ma:ŋ
   she remember can some not can some
   'She cannot remember everything.'
3. kasɨm kamlɔ́h kasɨm salɛ:ŋ ɲa:j kasɔ̀:ŋ kɔ́h ʔi:n lə:j
   person young man person young woman speak Kasong not can fp.

   or kasɨm kamlɔ́h kasɨm salɛ:ŋ kɔ́h khâh ɲa:j pha:sá: kasɔ̀:ŋ
   person young man person young woman not know speak language Kasong
   'Young people can't speak Kasong language.'

2.3 Transformations

Clauses can be transformed into various forms depending on the requirements of the context or the desire to emphasize various parts of the clause. Any form which slightly varies from the basic clause pattern is considered to be transformational form. The unchanging parts of the clause we call the clause root, that is, the nuclear participants and actions and their roles.

For example, the clause root of a transitive clause: /Actor: **khɔ́ːn** 'mouse', Undergoer: **salóːp** 'shirt', Action: **khát** 'bite'/ This clause may be transformed into various forms as below.

1. khɔ́ːn khát saló:p — Actor focus (basic form)
   'The mouse chewed a shirt.'
2. saló:p tɔ̀ːn khɔ́ːn khát — *Undergoer focus*
   'The shirt was chewed by the mouse.'
3. saló:p || khɔ́ːn khát — Object emphasis
   'It is a shirt that the mouse chewed.'
4. (mi̯n súən) saló:p khɔ́ːn khát — Relative form
   '(Mother sews) the shirt that was chewed on by the mouse.'
5. khɔ́ːn khát mi̯pì: — Interrogative form
   'What did the mouse bite/chew?'

Each clause type differs from each other in the transformation potential in the same way as mentioned above.

CHAPTER III

PHRASES

Phrases are descriptive units which normally function as components of clauses, but may be embedded in other phrases or be used at the higher rank. A phrase may contain one or more words.

Phrases may be divided into nominal phrase, verb phrase, numeral phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, prepositional phrase and time phrase. These phrase types differ each other in their elements and functions.

The nominal phrase and verb phrase are major phrases, other phrase types are minor phrases.

3.1 Major phrases

Major phrases mainly function as the clause nucleus. Only nominal and verb phrases belong to major phrases.

3.1.1 Nominal phrase (NP)

Nominal phrases describe the participants (people, thing) that are taking part in events. They function as the Subject, Object and Locative position in clauses, and as Head in the prepositional phrases (Sec. 3.2.4). They are characterized by having a noun or noun substitute in their head positions.

Structurally nominal phrases can be subdivided into simple nominal phrases (noun phrase, pronoun phrase) and nominal compounding (additive compounding phrase, appositional compounding phrase, and alternative compounding phrase).

3.1.1.1 Noun phrase

A noun phrase consists of a noun as Head and may or may not have modifiers. A noun standing by itself in a clause is a minimum noun phrase. The structure of noun phrase can be generally diagramed as:

$$NP = +HN : n \quad \pm Qual : \left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ adj. \\ np \\ pp \end{matrix} \right\} \quad \pm Quant : \left\{ \begin{matrix} clf. \\ num.p \end{matrix} \right\} \quad \pm Iden : \left\{ \begin{matrix} dem. \\ rel.cl \end{matrix} \right\}$$

$$\pm Poss . (\pm \underline{khɔ:ŋ} + np)$$

That is, an obligatory Head position filled by a noun (Sec. 4.2.1.1), an optional Quality position filled by a noun or an adjective (Sec. 4.2.1.7) or a noun phrase or a prepositional phrase (Sec. 3.2.4), an optional Quantity position filled by a sole classifier or a numeral phrase (Sec. 3.2.1), an optional Identifier position filled by a demonstrative (Sec. 4.2.1.3) or a relative clause, and an optional Possessor position filled by an optional Thai loan possessive marker /khɔ:ŋ/ with an obligatory nominal phrase. The possessive marker /khɔ:ŋ/ is usually omitted when the Possessor position occurs immediately next to the Head noun.

A. Basic structure of noun phrase

(a) A basic noun phrase may consist of a noun (simple or complex noun) or a proper name.

jà:ŋ	'gibbon'
khlá: se:w	'vegetable'
sé:m	'Thai'
chun	'Mr. Chun'

(b) A basic noun phrase may be modified by another noun to identify the specific being.

tuŋ da:	'duck egg'
egg duck	
khe:n chó:	'puppy'
child dog	

(c) A basic noun phrase may be modified by (1) an adjective, (2) a noun phrase, (3) a prepositional phrase, (4) a quantity, (5) a demonstrative, or (6) a possessor.

1.	saló:p na:ŋ	'old shitr'
	shirt old	

2. katoŋ pháh caŋ 'a rabbit with a black tail'
rabbit tail black

3. khanéːw réː srúk 'the children in the village'
children in village

4.a kanaːj pɨ̀l ten 'that group of elephants'
elephant clf. that

4.b haːl phram kacɨ̀ː 'five baskets of paddy'
paddy five grain-baskets (clf.)

5. samlɔ̀ːŋ ʔan 'this man'
man this

6. kraːn (khɔːŋ) khuːŋ 'father's axe'
axe (of) father

It is noticeable that the classifier used without a numeral as Quantity position of a noun phrase indicates the unit of quantity. The collective classifier (Sec. 4.2.1.9.3) and the measure classifier (Sec. 4.2.1.9.4) can be used in this way as seen in an example 4a above.

(d) A noun phrase may consist of a head noun with more modifiers as provided in the following examples.

7. paːŋ níh méŋ ʔan
flower beautiful this
HN Qual Iden
'this beautiful flower'

8. trɔːj jak/tih toŋ thùk moːl
cow at house every clf.
HN Qual : pp Quant
'every cows at home'

9. toŋ kɨ́c phóːn laŋ ten
house small four clf. that
HN Qual Quant Iden
'those four small houses'

10. lɔːŋ piɲ phéː katɔ̀ːŋ ʔan khɔːŋ chan
banana ripe three clf. this of I
HN Qual Quant Iden Poss
'those three bunches of ripe bananas of mine'

In the Quality position of a noun phrase may has complex modifiers, especially with more than one adjective. The order of these modifiers depends on the importance of the modifier. The modifier that indicates the inherent physical quality (such as color) usually comes before the non-inherent physical modifier (such as size).

11. chɔ́ː caŋ ták
dog black big
HN $Qual_1$ $Qual_2$
'a small black dog'

12. samkhǐn méɲ rà:k súk ɲén
woman beautiful white hair curly
HN $Qual_1$ $Qual_2$ $Qual_3$: np
'a beautiful white woman with curly hair'

13. kasǐm chǐh lakí: rɔ̀ː kadɔːŋ nak
person old thin tall six clf.
HN $Qual_1$ $Qual_2$ $Qual_3$ Quant
'the six old thin and tall persons'

Some noun phrase has a comparative adjective phrase in the Quality position, for example

14. mɛ̀ːw klɔ̀ːŋ ǀ súk kóŋ ǀ siː phrúh ǀ kǐp ták ǀ kiəp tiɲ chɔ́ː
cat male hair long color white body big nearly equal dog
HN $Qual_1$ $Qual_2$: np $Qual_3$: np $Qual_4$: np $Qual_5$: comp adj p
'the white male cat with long hair which is almost as big as a dog'

In a noun phrase that has the multiple qualifiers, the order of the multiple Quality slots may be adjoin each other or they may be separated by the quantity. The examples are provided as follows.

súːc	caŋ	kíc	pàː	moːl
ant	*black*	*small*	*two*	*clf.*
HN	**$Qual_1$**	**$Qual_2$**	**Quant**	
súːc	caŋ	pàː	moːl	kíc
HN	**$Qual_1$**	**Quant**		**$Qual_2$**

'two small black ants'

B. Embedded structure of noun phrase

A noun phrase may be embedded by an element from the higher rank; that is the relative clause (Sec. 2.1.2.3.). The embedded relative clause is used to identify the Head noun.

Generally, a noun phrase has the relative clause in the Identifier position. The relative clause is placed after the Head noun in reduced form, with or without the relative marker as in the following examples.

1. (ʔiɲ kɔ́h cɔ̀ːp) toŋ kɨl liɲ nɔːŋ
   (I not like) *house* *stay* *on* *mountain*
   HN **Rel Cl**
   '(I don't like) the house which is located on the mountain.'
2. lapàːw miɲ choːl (ʔiːn paːŋ hóːj)
   pumpkin *mother* *plant* *(have* *flower* *already)*
   HN **Rel Cl**
   'The pumpkin which the mother plants (has blossomed).'
3. khanéːw pàː nak thaːl troŋ ten (pen móːt khliɲ saː)
   children *two* *clf.* *stand* *there* *(be* *relatives* *reci.mk)*
   HN **Quant** **Rel Cl**
   'The two children who stand there (are relatives.)'
4. salóːp ŋal pàː phɨːn khɔːŋ miɲ chíh tih raːw (khlák hóːj)
   shirt *red* *two* *clf.* *of* *mother* *expose* *at* *clothesline* *(fall* *fp.)*
   HN **Qual** **Quant** **Poss** **Rel Cl**
   'The mother's two shirts that are exposed (to the sun) on the clothesline (fell.)'

The order of modifying elements of a noun phrase can be changeable. The position of Quality, Quantity and Possessor, they may interchange with each other. It is observed that the modifier that is emphasized usually come before. The interchange between the Quantity position and the Possessor position is common.

1. toŋ tâk phó:n laŋ
   house big four clf.
   HN Qual Quant

   or toŋ phó:n laŋ tâk
   HN Quant Qual
   'four big houses'

2. cò:sô:k piɲ phé: mo:l ʔan kho:ŋ ʔiɲ
   mango ripe three clf. this of I
   HN Qual Quant Iden Poss

   or cò:sô:k piɲ kho:ŋ ʔiɲ phé: mo:l ʔan
   HN Qual Poss Quant Iden
   'these three ripe mangoes of mine'

3. mὲ:w khǐn si: caŋ jak toŋ nak pà: mo:l
   cat female color black at house he two clf.
   HN $Qual_1$ $Qual_2$ $Qual_3$: pp Quant

   or mὲ:w khǐn si: caŋ pà: mo:l jak toŋ nak
   HN $Qual_1$ $Qual_2$ Quant $Qual_3$: pp

   or mὲ:w khǐn jak toŋ nak si: caŋ pà: mo:l
   HN $Qual_1$ $Qual_3$: pp $Qual_2$ Quant
   'two black female cats in his house'

Restrictions on the co-occurrence of the elements are:

1. The Head noun is normally in the first position.
2. All modifiers follow the Head noun.

However, the Head noun may be preceded by a word of group quantity /mùː/ (for group of animals or people) or /pɨ̀l/ (for group of animals).

mùː waː 'a group of monkeys'

pɨ̀l kanaːj 'a group of elephants'

In addition, an obligatory Head noun may be deleted if it is obviously understood by both the speaker and listener. This case usually happens when a number or a classifier is present.

kapi̱c	ták	khɔːŋ	nàːŋ	'grandmother's big hand (of bananas)'
clf.	*big*	*of*	*grandmother*	
pàː	nak	ten		'those two (people)'
two	*clf.*	*that*		

3.1.1.2 Pronoun phrase (NP_{pron})

Pronoun phrases are manifested by having a pronoun as Head. The elements of a pronoun phrase are :

$$NP_{pron} = \pm GpQuant : \left\{ \begin{matrix} pùək \\ mùː \end{matrix} \right\} +H : pron \ \pm Quant : (num + clf.) \ \pm Iden : dem$$

That is, an optional Group Quantity filled by /pùək/ 'group' or /mùː/ 'group', an obligatory Head position filled by a pronoun (Sec. 4.2.1.2), an optional Quantity position filled by a numeral plus a classifier, and an optional Identifier position filled by a demonstrative.

Examples

1. ʔiɲ 'I'
   H
2. mùː hɛːŋ 'we'
   GpQuant H
3. pùək heːn thùk moːl 'all of them'
   group it every clf.
   GpQuant H Quant

4. pùək pò: pà: nak ʔan 'this two of you'
group you two clf. this
QpQuant H Quant Iden

It is noticeable that when the Quantity position is a plural number, a group quantifier usually occurs together as seen in an example 4 above.

Some pronoun phrase may be embedded by the relative clause after the Head position as in

5. pùək pò: (de:) kɨl troŋ ten (jip ʔan)
group you (who) sit there (come here)
NP_{pron} Rel Cl
'You (plural) who sit there (Come here!)'

The form of the pronoun phrase is restricted. There are no variations in the order of the elements. A pronoun phrase normally consists of a pronoun only. Full pronoun phrase structure is infrequently used.

3.1.1.3 Additive compounding nominal phrase (NP_{ad})

An additive compounding nominal phrase consists of more than one nominal phrase functioning as a single unit and linked in an additive relationship with each other. It is normally marked by the linker which combine two or more simple nominal phrases together. The elements of an additive compounding nominal phrase are:

$$NP_{ad} = \pm Lk_1 : thaŋ \ +Item_1 : np \ (\pm Lk_2 : \begin{Bmatrix} thaŋ \\ mɔ:ŋ \end{Bmatrix} +Item_2 : np)^{n}$$

That is, an optional $Linker_1$ position filled by a Thai loan /thaŋ/ 'both', an obligatory $Item_1$ position filled by a nominal phrase which may be a noun phrase or a pronoun phrase, an optional $Linker_2$ position filled by /thaŋ/ 'both' or a conjunction /mɔ:ŋ/ 'and', and an obligatory $Item_2$ position filled by a nominal phrase as in $Item_1$. The exponent ^{n} over the parenthesis indicates that the additional items can also be added. There is actually no limit on the number of items that may occur.

1. chan mɔ:ŋ nak cóh sa:
I and he angry reci.mk
$Item_1$ Lk $Item_2$
'He and I do not get along well.'

2. ʔiŋ mɔ:ŋ miŋ lɔ:ŋ ce:w ma:l

I and mother will go field

Item$_1$ Lk Item$_2$

'My mother and I will go to the field.'

3. nak ʔi:n chó: klɔ̀:ŋ mɔ:ŋ mɛ̀:w khi:n

she has dog male and cat female

Item$_1$ Lk Item$_2$

'She has a male dog and a female cat.'

The linker$_1$ /thaŋ/ and linker$_2$ /thaŋ/ are always used together. They indicate both item$_1$ and item$_2$, for examples

4. thaŋ khli:ŋ thaŋ mó:t kɨl toŋ

both elder sibling both younger sibling stay house

Lk$_1$ Item$_1$ Lk$_2$ Item$_2$

'Both elder and younger siblings stay at home'

5. hó:c thaŋ miŋ thaŋ khe:n

die both mother both child

Lk$_1$ Item$_1$ Lk$_2$ Item$_2$

'Both mother and child are dead.'

If there are more than two items, the linker /mɔ:ŋ/ 'and' is placed before the last item, for example

6. chó: caŋ mɛ̀:w phrúh mɔ:ŋ chí:m ŋal

dog black cat white and bird red

Item$_1$ Item$_2$ Lk Item$_3$

'A black dog, a white cat and a red bird'

An additive complex nominal phrase is sometimes used without any linkers, a pause is required among each item, for example

7. khu:ŋ miŋ mó:t cew nà:

father mother younger sibling go paddy field

Item$_1$ Item$_2$ Item$_3$

'Father, mother and younger sibling go to the rice field.'

3.1.1.4 Appositional compounding nominal phrase (NP_{ap})

An appositional compounding nominal phrase composed of two nominal phrases functioning as a single unit, referring to the same thing or same person. The elements of an appositional compounding nominal phrase are:

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

That is, an obligatory $Item_1$ and $Item_2$ position filled by a simple nominal phrase. They are consecutively placed without any marker or linker, but there is always a pause between $Item_1$ and $Item_2$ for separating the constituents. The order of the elements shows the appositional relationship of elements to each other. The second element is an appositional information of the first element. Both have the same semantic referent.

Either element of an appositional compounding phrase is usually a proper name.

Examples

1. ʔaj dam . chó: ʔiɲ
   address Dam dog I
   'Dam, my dog'
2. khliɲ samlɔ̀:ŋ khɔ:ŋ miɲ . lu:ŋ suk
   elder brother of mother uncle Suk
   'mother's elder brother, Uncle Suk'
3. saw . klɔ̀:ŋ wa:t
   Saw husband Wat
   'Saw, Wat's husband'
4. mɔ̀: phit . mɔ̀: samkhǐn na:n salɛ:ŋ
   doctor Phit doctor woman yet young woman
   'Doctor Phit, female doctor who is young'

3.1.1.5 Alternative compounding nominal phrase (NP_{alt})

An alternative compounding nominal phrase consists of two or more nominal phrase items functioning as a single unit and linked in an alternative relationship with each other. The elements of its are:

NP_{alt} = +$Item_1$: np +Lk : hi: +$Item_2$: np

Example

ʔó:c	pé:t	hi:	kra:n	ʔî:h	chan	mɔ:ŋ
take	*knife*	*or*	*axe*	*give*	*I*	*also*

'Please bring me a knife or an axe.'

3.1.2 Verb phrase (VP)

A verb phrase normally functions as the Predicate of a clause describing actions or states. It is characterized by having verbs or verb-like elements in their Head position.

A verb phrase consists of the main verb with or without the modifying elements that are structurally bound to it. The structure of verb phrase can be generally diagramed as:

VP = ±Pre Mod_2 : pre aux_2 ±Neg : { kɔ́h / má:j } ±Pre Mod_1 : pre aux_1 +MV : v ±Dir : dir ±Neg : kɔ́h ±Post Mod : { post aux. / adv. } ±Inten : inten

That is, an optional Pre-$Modifier_2$ position filled by a preverbal $auxiliary_2$, an optional Negative position filled by a negative /kɔ́h/ 'not' or /má:j/ 'don't', an optional Pre-$Modifier_1$ position filled by a preverbal $auxiliary_1$, an obligatory Main Verb position filled by a verb (Sec. 4.2.1.4), an optional Directional position filled by a directional word (Sec. 4.2.1.4.8), an optional Negative position filled by /kɔ́h/ 'not', an optional Post-Modifier position filled by a postverbal auxiliary (Sec. 4.2.1.5.2) or an adverb (Sec. 4.2.1.6), and an optional Intensifier position filled by an intensifier (Sec. 4.2.1.12). The two Negative positions will be mutually exclusive in their occurrence. The negative word which occurs after the Main Verb position is bound to the Post-Modifier position.

The preverbal $auxiliaries_2$ which can fill in the Pre-$Modifier_2$ position are /lɔ:ŋ/ 'will', /na:n/ 'yet', /than tɛ:/ 'just', /kɨəp/ 'almost', and /kamlaŋ/ 'progressive'. The word /kamlaŋ/ and /lɔ:ŋ/ may occur together as /kamlaŋ lɔ:ŋ/ 'future

progressive'. The preverbal auxiliaries$_1$ which can fill in the Pre-Modifier$_1$ position are /khəːj/ 'used to', /thɔ́ːŋ/ 'must', /jɔːm/ 'willing', /náː/ 'should' and some verbs which are used as the preverbal auxiliaries for expressing mode, such as /péː/ 'want', /cɔ̀ːp/ 'like, often', /kláː/ 'dare', etc. (Sec. 4.2.1.5.1). There may has more than one preverbal auxiliaries in the same verb phrase. It is noticeable that many auxiliaries are Thai loanwords.

Examples

1. khanéːw jaːm 'A child is crying.'
   child *cry*
   MV

2. nak than tɛː jip 'He has just come.'
   he/she *just* *come*
   PreMod$_2$ MV

3. chíːm ten kɔ́h méɲ 'That bird isn't beautiful.'
   bird *that* *not* *beautiful*
   Neg MV

4. chan khəːj kɨl jak ʔan 'I used to stay here.'
   I *used to stay* *at here*
   PreMod$_1$ MV

5. nak kɔ́h klâː cháp siː 'He dare not catch the snake.'
   he *not* *dare* *catch* *snake*
   Neg PreMod$_1$ MV

6. chuː chan loːj tàːk kɔ́h ʔiːn
   grandchild I *swim* *not* *able*
   MV **Neg** **PostMod**
   'My grandchild can not swim.'

7. nak lɔːŋ jip leːw leːw
   he *will* *come* *certainly certainly*
   PreMod$_2$ MV **Inten**
   'He will certainly come.'

8. ʔiɲ kɔ́h pé: jip (jak ʔan) wíc
I not want come (at here) again
Neg PreMod$_1$ MV PostMod
'I don't want to come (here) again.'

9. he:n na:n kɔ́h ʔi:n hɔ́:p kloŋ
it yet not get eat rice
PreMod$_2$ Neg PreMod$_1$ MV
'It has not eaten rice yet.'

Sometimes, the main verb may require a directional word (Sec. 4.2.1.4.8) for indicating the direction of action.

10. lawa:j póp khaw prì: 'A tiger runs into the forest.'
tiger run enter forest
MV Dir

11. wa: póp pa:k théːm níh 'A monkey runs up the tree.'
monkey run go up tree
MV Dir

12. nak lɔ:ŋ klap jip wíc 'He will come back again.'
He will return come again
PreMod$_2$ MV Dir PostMod

Serial verbs occur in this language as they do in many languages of the region. A serial verb is a series of two or more verbs that occur together in the sequence and express several different activities. Verb phrases may contain a serial verb in the Main verb position to fill a single slot in a clause. Semantically this may be additive compounding (Ex. 14). The following are the examples of verb phrases which contains a serial verb. Two or three verbs in sequence are common.

13. khu:ɲ ce:w thác se:
father go cut rattan
'Father went to cut the rattan.'

14. khanéːw kìl thìt tòk hɔ:
child sit look airplane
'The child sits and looks at the airplane.'

15. chɔ́ː jip cam hɔ́ːp kloŋ
dog come wait eat rice
'The dog comes and waits to be fed.'

16. nak ʔɔ́ːc (ŋɨn) ceːw rɔ̀ːk
he take money go hide
'He took the money and hid it.'

17. miɲ lɔːŋ kɨl pɔ́ːm toŋ
mother will stay watch home
'Mother will stay and look after the house.'

18. nak kɔ́h khəːj jip thɔ́ːc chan
he not used to come seek I
'He never visits me.'

Normally, the verb phrase has a continuous structure of main verb and its modifiers, except when there is a nominal phrase come between them (Ex.16, 19, 20). However, other structural bounds still show it to be a verb phrase, though there is discontinuous of the main verb and its modifiers.

19. chan téːk nak jip kɔ́h ʔiːn
I carry he come not able
MV Dir Neg PostMod
'I am not able to carry him to come (here).'

20. nak cuːŋ kapaːw ceːw nàː
he lead buffalo go rice field
MV Dir
'He leads a buffalo to the rice field.'

3.2 Minor phrases

Minor phrases usually function as fillers in noun phrases or verb phrases and or as the clause periphery. They include numeral phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, prepositional phrase and time phrase.

3.2.1 Numeral phrase (Num P)

A numeral phrase normally functions in the Quantity position of a noun phrase and pronoun phrase (Sec. 3.1.1.1, 3.1.1.2). They consist of elements as follow:

Num P = ±Approx : {kɨəp} +Core : num. +Class : clf. ±Approx : {kwa: / khɨ̀ŋ}

That is, an optional Approximate position filled by /kɨəp/ 'nearly, almost', /rà:w/ 'about', /thaŋ/ 'all', '/kɔ́:p kwa:/ 'more than', /makî c kwa:/ 'less than', an obligatory Core position filled by a numeral (Sec. 4.2.1.8), an obligatory Classifier position filled by a classifier (Sec. 4.2.1.9), and an optional Approximate position filled by /kwa:/ 'than' or /khɨ̀ŋ/ 'half'.

Examples

1. kati: nak 'eight persons'
   eight clf.
2. (toŋ) ká:ɲ laŋ 'many houses'
   (house) many clf.
3. rà:w rà:w pà: se: ba:t 'about twenty baht'
   about about twenty clf.
4. (pɔ́:m kapa:w) phram kilo: kwa:
   (meat buffalo) five kilogram than
   'more than five kilograms of buffalo meat (not to six kilograms)'
5. (lakhɔ́:) kɨəp phɔ́:n takɔ́: khɨ̀ŋ
   (milled rice) nearly four clf. half.
   'nearly four and a half coconut shells (of milled rice)'

The approximate / kwa: / may be occurs between a numeral and a classifier means 'more than'. However, there is a restriction that the numeral is a decadal number.

6. (mé:l) rà:j kwa: mo:l
   (fish) ten more than clf.
   'more than ten fishes (but is not up to twenty)'

The two numerals closely co-occur in the same numeral phrase expressing the approximation.

7. kati: kasà:l nak '(about) eight or nine persons'
eight nine clf.

When a numeral phrase is manifested by an ordinal number, it usually function as deictic in the noun phrase, for example

8. (samlɔ̀:ŋ) thi: pé: 'the sixth man'
(man) sixth

A structural numeral phrase generally requires the presence of both a numeral and a classifier. Except when a numeral is /mó:j/ 'one' and a classifier is regular classifier (Sec. 4.2.1.9.1) or self-classifier (Sec. 4.2.1.9.2), the classifier is generally omitted, for example

ʔiŋ ʔi:n chɔ́: mó:j 'I have one dog'
I have dog one

3.2.2 Adjective phrase (Adj P)

An adjective phrase generally functions in the Quality position of a noun phrase. The following is the adjective phrase structure:

Adj P = +H : adj. ±Mod : kɔ́:p ±Comp Mod : (Comp Lk: {ja:ŋ} + Item: np)

That is, an obligatory Head position filled by an adjective (Sec. 4.2.1.7), an optional Modifier position filled by an intensifier /kɔ́:p/ 'very', and an optional Comparative Modifier position composed of Comparative Linker which filled by /ja:ŋ/ 'same, like', /tiŋ/ 'equal' or /kɨəp tiŋ/ 'nearly equal' plus Item which filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1).

Usually, the adjective phrase tends to have a sole adjective.

Examples

1. kloŋ wɛ́:ŋ
rice uncooked
'uncooked (rice)'

2. nak jip mɔ:ŋ samkhɨn mɛ́ŋ kɔ́:p
he come with woman beautiful very
'He came with a very beautiful woman.'

3. samlɔ:ŋ lakí: ja:ŋ lu:ŋ huən jip thó:c pò:
man thin like uncle Huan come seek you
'A man as thin as Uncle Huan went to see you.'

4. nak ʔi:n khɔ́:n ták kɨəp tiŋ mè:w
he get rat big nearly equal cat
'He get a rat which is almost as big as a cat.'

The co-occurrence of two or more adjectives in the same adjective phrase may take the meaning of additive.

5. (samkhin) lakí: rò: ˋ 'thin and tall woman'
(woman) thin tall

In some respects, the nominal phrase with an adjectival modifier resembles a descriptive clause as the following. It can be considered from context of the use. If it is told independently, it is usually a clause.

(nak saj) saló:p na:ŋ kɜ́:p (noun phrase)
he put shirt old very
'He wears a very old coat'

saló:p na:ŋ kɜ́:p (descriptive clause)
shirt old very
'The coat is very old.'

3.2.3 Adverb phrase (Adv P)

An adverb phrase functions in the Modifier position of a verb phrase. It is usually quite similar to an adjective phrase in their structure, except the Head adverb. Adverb, like adjective, may be modified for degree, emphasis or comparison. The following is the adverb phrase structure.

Adv P = +H : adv. ±Mod : inten. ±Comp Mod : (Comp Lk: {ja:ŋ} + Item: np)

That is, an obligatory Head position filled by an adverb (Sec. 4.2.1.6), an optional Modifier position filled by an intensifier /kɜ́:p/ 'very' or /le:w/ 'indeed, really', and an optional Comparative Modifier position composed of Comparative Linker which filled by /ja:ŋ/ 'same, like', /thaw/ 'equal', /kɨəp thaw/ 'nearly equal'

or /kwa:/ 'than' plus Item which filled by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1). However, the adverb phrase with full form is infrequently used.

Examples

1. (póp) lè:w '(run) quickly'
   (run) quickly
2. (ŋa:j) wé: ká:p '(speak) very loudly'
   (speak) loudly very
3. (ce:w) kɔ̀:j ja:ŋ kaja:ŋ '(walk) as slowly as a tortoise'
   (walk) slowly like tortoise
4. (hɔ:) rɔ̀: kɨəp thaw chî:m '(fly) as nearly high as a bird'
   (fly) highly nearly equal bird
5. (póp) lè:w kwa: ʔajte:w
   (run) quickly than another
   '(run) more quickly than another, fastest'

Two of the same adverb may occur together as Head position giving the moderate meaning.

6. (ŋa:j) kɔ̀:j kɔ̀:j '(speak) rather slowly'
   (speak) slowly slowly

3.2.4 Prepositional phrase (PP)

A prepositional phrase functions as Locative of the locative clause (see 2.1.1.9) and as Locative, Beneficial and Associative periphery. It may sometimes be embedded in noun phrases as the Modifier position. Prepositional phrases are marked by the presence of a preposition. The following is the prepositional phrase form.

$$PP = +Rel : prep \quad +H : \left\{ \begin{matrix} np \\ dem. \end{matrix} \right\}$$

That is, the prepositional phrase consists of an initial preposition (Sec. 4.2.1.10) as obligatory Relator followed by a nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1) or a demonstrative (Sec. 4.2.1.3) as obligatory Head.

(a) Prepositional phrases occurring as Locative of clauses or sentences.

1. khuːŋ kɨl jak toŋ
   father stay at home
   'The father stays home.'
2. nak cháp ŋɨn réː lóːŋ
   He catch money in earthen jar
   'He takes money from the earthen jar.'
3. ʔiŋ jip caːk toŋ
   I come from house
   'I come from (my) house.'

(b) Prepositional phrases occurring as Locative or Associative periphery

4. pùək nak hóːp kloŋ khaːtaː théːm níh
   group he/she eat rice under tree
   'They eat rice under a tree.' (Locative)
5. miŋ hóːp kloŋ mɔːŋ tiː
   mother eat rice with hand
   'The mother eats with (her) hands.' (Instrument)
6. ʔiŋ ceːw priˋː mɔŋ kuːŋ
   I go forest with father
   'I went to the forest with (my) father.' (Associated actor)

(c) Prepositional phrases function as fillers in noun phrases for indicating the Head noun and possessor.

7. seːw réː kéh ten 'soup in that pot'
   soup in pot that
8. mèːw liŋ kapòːk toŋ 'a cat on the roof'
   cat on roof house
9. chóː klɔ̀ːŋ khɔːŋ ʔiŋ 'my male dog'
   dog male of I

3.2.5 Time phrase (TP)

A time phrase functions as the clause or sentence periphery indicating time. It is marked by having a time word as Head. The following is the time phrase structure.

TP = ±Rel : prep +H : tm

That is, an optional Relative position filled by a preposition like /jak/ 'at', /tɔ:n/ 'when', etc. (Sec. 4.2.1.10), and an obligatory Head position filled by a time word (Sec. 4.2.1.14).

Time phrase differs from the prepositional phrase in obligatoriness of elements. Several time phrases may consist of only a time word without any preposition.

Examples

1. pà:ŋ ʔiɲ lɔ:ŋ ce:w prî:
   tomorrow I will go forest
   'Tomorrow, I will go to the forest.'
2. chó: lú: tɔ:n khlɛ́:ŋ
   dog howl when nighttime
   'The dog howls at night.'
3. jak ŋè:t khamá: khlák
   at morning rain fall
   'It was raining this morning.'

CHAPTER IV

MORPHEMES AND WORDS

Morphemes are minimum meaningful units 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 phrases and may also function at higher ranks, especially as particles or linkers.

4.1 Word formations

Word in Kasong 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 five main types of word formation in this language. They are affixation, compounding, reduplication, expressive formation and onomatopoeia.

4.1.1 Affixation

Affixation is a morphological process of word formation consisting of adding affix to a root. An affix is a type of bound morpheme which occurs with root (free morpheme) and modifies its basic meaning. Affixes in Kasong include prefixes and infixes. 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. However, affixes found in this language are not productive anymore.

prefixes

1. **/khlaː-/** 'so-called prefix' is added in front of a preposition to form an adverb of place.

liŋ	'on'	⇒	khlaːliŋ	'above'
pataː	'under'	⇒	khlaːpataː	'below'
takáː	'in front of'	⇒	khlaːtakáː	'in front of'
tamóːn	'behind'	⇒	khlaːtamóːn	'behind'
réː	'in'	⇒	khlaːréː	'inside'
pakáːj	'outside'	⇒	khlaːpakáːj	'outside'
teːw	'on the right'	⇒	khlaːteːw	'on the right'
tɛːŋ	'on the left'	⇒	khlaːtɛːŋ	'on the left'

It is observable that the prefix /khlaː-/ behaves like the word /khâːŋ/ 'side' in Thai, as in the word /khâːŋ bon/ 'above' but the word means 'side' in Kasong is /khaːŋ/ which is a Thai loan.

2. **/na-/** 'nominalized prefix' is added to a verb and makes it become a noun (V→N). Only one example is found.

hɔ́ːp	'to eat (rice)'	⇒	nahɔ́ːp	'food (things we eat)'

3. **/sam-/** is prefixed to an adjective and makes it become a noun (Adj→N). Two examples are found.

khǐn	'female (animal)'	⇒	samkhǐn	'woman'
klɔ̀ːŋ	'male (animal)'	⇒	samlɔ̀ːŋ	'man'

4. **/la-/** is prefixed to a preposition and makes it become a verb (Prep→V). Only one example is found.

liŋ	'on'	⇒	laliŋ	'turn up'

A verb phrase /thɛːk laliŋ puŋ/ means 'to lie flat on the back'

infixes

5. **/-an-/, /-ap-/** is infixed to a verb and makes it become an instrument noun ($V \rightarrow N_{inst}$).

khéːt	'to comb'	⇒	khanéːt	'comb'

kɛ́ːw	'to harvest'	⇒	khanɛ́ːw	'sickle'
pók	'to wrap'	⇒	panók	'package'
kɔ́ːk	'to carry on the shoulder'	⇒	kanɔ́ːk	'shoulder pole'
kók	'to gather (with a long stick)'	⇒	kapòk	'hook with a long handle'

There are some particles that occur before other words such as /ʔi-/, /ʔaj-/. They are different from the aforementioned affixes because they do not create new lexical items and do not indicate grammatical function. I consider that /ʔi-/ is added in front of a word to specify itself and /ʔaj-/ gives the meaning of human being as seen below.

ʔan	'this'	⇒	ʔiʔan	'this one'
ten	'that'	⇒	ʔiten	'that one'
teːw	'other'	⇒	ʔiteːw	'other one'
		⇒	ʔajteːw	'another (person)'

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. Most compounds found in Kasong have two segments. Compound nouns and compound verbs are common.

4.1.2.1 Compound noun

Two or more free morphemes compound together to be a single noun in various forms as follows.

(1) N+N → N

1.	klaːm	ʔic	'buttock'
	hip	*excrement*	
2.	klɔːŋ	matúːt	'bridge (of the nose)'
	bone	*nose*	
3.	théːm	nɨ̀h	'tree'
	trunk	*wood*	

4. khlá: se:w 'vegetable'
leaf curry

5. tà:k mat 'tear'
water eye

6. miŋ samɔ̀:k 'mother-in-law'
mother son-in-law

7. saŋɨn thé:m 'major wife'
wife trunk

(2) N+V → N

1. tòk hɔ: 'airplane'
boat fly

2. khɔ:ŋ cha: 'food, things for eating'
thing eat

3. kloŋ pók 'cooked glutinous rice with wrapping'
rice wrap

4. thal phûk 'blanket'
cloth cover (the body)

5. nîh kláh 'wood pin'
wood fasten

6. tà:k khlák 'waterfalls'
water fall

(3) N+Adj → N

1. kloŋ kɔ́:c 'rice gruel, soft-boiled rice'
rice soft

2. mé:l cɔ́: 'pickled fish, preserved sour fish'
fish sour

3. lɔ:ŋ khɔ́:l 'kind of banana'
banana fragrant

4. kasɨm ták 'adult'
person big

5.	khe:n salɛ:ŋ	'daughter (who is young)'
	child young (for woman)	
6.	khe:n ták	'first child'
	child big	
7.	khanéːt reŋ	'fine-toothed comb'
	comb closely spaced	

(4) Adj+N → N

khi:n tà:k	'river'
female water	

There are a few compound nouns that consist of three segments (morphemes), for examples

1.	khaja:k (tɔ:) nà:	'farmer'
	person (do) paddy field	
2.	saló:p ti: kóŋ	'long-sleeved shirt'
	shirt hand long	
3.	ka:ŋke:ŋ siŋ kéːn	'shorts'
	trousers foot short	
4.	có: só:k mèt paká:j	'cashew'
	mango seed outside	
5.	lɔ:ŋ só:l katî:	'a kind of sweetmeat (whole
	banana boil coconut cream	bananas boiled in coconut cream)'

4.1.2.2 Compound verb

Two or more free morphemes which are syntactically inseparable and function together as a simple verb are regarded as 'compound verbs'.

(1) V+V → V

1.	póp tù:	'to run away'
	run flee	
2.	póp phanan	'to race'
	run bet	

3.	mɔ̀ːp	thɨ́t	'to peep at'
	crouch	*look*	
4.	mɔ̀ːp	nɛː	'to peep at (stare at)'
	crouch	*watch*	
5.	kat	thɛːk	'to be sleepy'
	hurt	*sleep*	
6.	thɛːk	lìŋ	'to lie down for a rest'
	lie	*play*	
7.	thɔ́ːc	chaː	'to earn one's living'
	seek	*eat*	

(2) V+N → V

1.	kat	tóh	'to have a headache'
	hurt	*head*	
2.	kat	khúːm	'to be impelled to urinate'
	hurt	*urine*	
3.	tók	katáːk	'to stick out the tongue'
	pull up	*tongue*	
4.	lawiː	tóh	'to shake one's head'
	blow	*head*	
5.	huːm	tàːk	'to take a bath'
	bathe	*water*	

(3) V+Prep → V

1.	kɨ̀t	phlaŋ	'to miss'
	think	*to*	
2.	kɨ́h	lìŋ	'to get up'
	get up	*on*	
3.	ŋaːj	tamɔ́ːn	'to say or blame in one's absence'
	speak	*behind*	

Some compound verbs consist of two morphemes, one of which is dependent and may never stand alone as the Head in a verb phrase (the underlined part), such as:

1.	sɔ́ː	ranɛːŋ	'to whistle'
	whistle	*mouth*	
2.	cap	kat	'to be sick'
	have	*hurt*	
3.	haː	ranɛːŋ	'to open the mouth'
	open	*mouth*	
4.	loːj	tàːk	'to swim'
	swim	*water*	
5.	ceːw	thiəw	'to travel, go out on pleasure'
	go	*travel*	

It is common that the presyllable of the second segment of some compound words is reduced as in the following examples.

súk	'hair'	+	khamáːŋ	'chin'	→	súk máːŋ	'beard'
tóh	'head'	+	tapéː	'nightfall'	→	tóh péː	'late evening '
tapéː	'nightfall'	+	katóː	'just now'	→	péːtóː	'last night'

Dropping of syllable as in examples below naturally appears in rapid speech. The presyllable of the word may be deleted and make it a monosyllabic word.

kasɨ́m chɨ́h	⇨	sɨ́m chɨ́h	'old person'
saŋɨ́ː laː	⇨	ŋɨ́ː laː	'evening'

4.1.3 Reduplication

Reduplication refers to the morphological process whereby there is a repetition of a redical element or part of it. Reduplication is used to specialize or intensify the meaning of the base with a tendency to suggest plurality or emphasis. It has both stylistic and grammatical function. Reduplication constructions in Kasong can be divided into three main categories: repetitive reduplication, partial reduplication and semantic reduplication.

4.1.3.1 Repetitive reduplication

The repetitive reduplication refers to the simple reduplication in which free words (especially adjectives, adverbs, and sometime nouns) are repeated for emphasis or intensification. It therefore consists of a pair of identical words.

Some adjectives and adverbs are frequently repeated. The first member of reduplicative word is pronounced with higher pitch than normal to show intensification, for examples

kíc	kíc	'very small'	méɲ	méɲ	'very beautiful'
séc	séc	'very cold'	kɔ̀:j	kɔ̀:j	'very slow'
tú:	tú:	'very hot'	phrúh	phrúh	'very white'

The repetitive reduplication of adjective or adverb may sometimes be used to express the neutral value or diminution of the full force of them when the reduplicative word is pronounced with normal pitch.

méɲ	méɲ	'rather beautiful'	wè:t	wè:t	'rather green, greenish'
rùəj	rùəj	'rather rich'	kríɲ	kríɲ	'rather thin'
kɔ̀:j	kɔ̀:j	'somewhat slow'	ŋím	ŋím	'rather warm'

The repetition of the noun or indefinite pronoun indicates a generalization while the repetition of an adverbial (temporal adverbial) indicates a repeated action.

1. nak pen mɔ̀: tɔ̀: phithi: ʔajpì: ʔajpì: kɔ jip thɔ́:c nak
   he be doctor do ceremony who who then come seek he
   'He is a person who conduct the ceremony so most people whoever come to see him.'
2. jip bɔ:j bɔ:j náh
   come often often fp.
   'Come often, please!'

A construction consisting of more than one word can also be reduplicated. The examples below also indicate the prolongation or repetition of an action.

1. ta: khɔ́:n ce:w jip ce:w jip
   address Khon walk come walk come
   'Mr. Khon walks back and forth.'

2. he:n <u>ták ŋè:t ták pé: ták ŋè:t ták pé:</u>
it big morning big nightfall big morning big nightfall
'It grows up rapidly.'

4.1.3.2 Partial reduplication

Partial reduplication refers to a pair of morphemes or words whose the second member has been altered in some ways. Partial reduplication mainly has an effect of elaboration, providing stylistic features.

A reduplicative pair may be inseparable because of each part of them does not have a clear meaning. Examples are:

kaŋít kaŋó:k	'limpingly, hobblingly'
kadim kadum	'uneven, rough '
ŋók ŋan	'hastily, harried, precipitately (a manner)'
jap jó:j	'randomly, scattered (on the floor)'

<u>Examples</u>

1 nak ce:w <u>kaŋít kaŋó:k</u> klap toŋ lé:w
he walk limpingly return house fp.
'He walks limpingly back to his house.'

2. siŋ he:n pen <u>kadim kadum</u>
foot it be uneven
'Its feet are uneven.'

In some partial reduplicative pairs, the first member is a free form. This way may be called as partial reduplication of expressive.

makíc makú:j	'little, trifling'
ləlúk lələ́h	'fall off (fruit, leaf)'
lalɨ̀h lalə̀:ŋ	'fell down (tree)'

4.1.3.3 Semantic reduplication

Semantic reduplication repeats the meaning of a free morpheme but not its form. Each member of a semantic reduplicative pair has similar meaning and can occur by itself. Two examples are found:

kə́:p	ká:ŋ	'very much, amply'	(reveal plurality)
many	*several*		
thɨ́t	nɛ:	'look at'	(emphasize)
look	*look/watch*		

Example

pò:	kɔ́h	thɨ́t	nɛ:	pò:	lɔ:ŋ	kháh	bɔ́:
you	*not*	*look*	*look*	*you*	*will*	*know*	*ques.(or not)*

'If you don't look (into it), how will you know?'

4.1.4 Expressive formation

Expressives are added into other words (usually adjectives or adjectival verbs) to modify the meaning of them. An expressive by itself does not have any lexical meaning and never occur by itself. The native speaker can use them appropriately. An expressive always comes after the base word as examples below.

mɔ́:l	taru:ŋ	'perfectly round'	chá:ŋ	kliət	'very cold'
pa:l	kaliət	'very flat'	jɔ̀:	lí:t	'very yellow'
kɨ́c	chɨ́ət	'very small, tiny'	caŋ	pɨ́t	'very black'
na:ŋ	níh	'very old (things)'	ŋal	chɛ́h	'intensely red'
ŋá:m	chɨ́əp	'extremely sweet'	mé:t	lɨ́w	'very far'
cɔ́:	pra:t	'very sour'			

Expressives may occur with word groups of saying that "no" or "not" for something to express the feeling or emotion of the speaker. The underlined part of each example below is the expressive part. Their forms are not fixed, they may be different according to different speakers and times of speaking. This way of expressive formation may be considered to be in the type of partial reduplication.

kɔ́h	cha:	kɔ́h	chiə	'don't eat'
kɔ́h	taŋi:	kɔ́h	taŋɛ́:	'don't listen'
kɔ́h	méŋ	kɔ́h	múk	'isn't beautiful'
kɔ́h	ci:w	kɔ́h	ce:w	'don't go'
kɔ́h	le:w	kɔ́h	lák	'isn't certain'

4.1.5 Onomatopoeia

Onomatopoeia refers to the formation of the word in imitation of natural sound. Many of onomatopoetic words generally have reduplicative forms and may be repeated two or three times, but some are just single words.

kə́ːk kiː kəːŋ kə́ːk	'sound of a cock crowing'
woːm woːm	'sound of an elephant crying'
mɔː mɔː	'sound of a cow crying'
ŋaːw ʔuːm	'sound of a tiger crying'
hóːm hóːm	'sound of a dog barking'
buə buə	'sound of a gibbon crying'
kiw kiw	'sound of a hawk crying'
súː súː	'sound of raining'
tók tók	'sound of water dropping'
túŋ túŋ	'sound of a drum beating'
cap cap	'sound of chewing something'
póːŋ	'sound of gun shooting'

Apart from five main types of word formation as mentioned above, the morphological process of reduction is little found in this language. It may be considered to be a type of word formation according to Somsonge (สมทรง, 2536). A reductive word refers to the word in which its full form is reduced, so the word occurs in a reduced form. It is presumed that the bound morpheme may derive from a free morpheme. Some Kasong reductive words found are:

mɔːŋ pîː	→	m̥pîː	'what'
móːj nɨm	→	m̥nɨm	'one year'
one year			
móːj kîc	→	makîc	'little, few'
one little			

4.2 Classes and functions

4.2.1 Word classes

Words are classified depending on their grammatical properties or functions in phrases or sentences. A set of words that have the same function and can fill the same slot in a phrase is considered as the same class word.

Word classes in Kasong include noun, pronoun, demonstrative, verb, auxiliary, adverb, adjective, numeral, classifier, preposition, conjunction, intensifier, negation word, time word, question word and final particle.

4.2.1.1 Noun

A noun normally function in the Head position of a noun phrase (Sec. 3.1.1.1) referring to person, animal, thing or place. They may be simple or compound nouns.

Nouns are a large open class word and can be divided by their occurrence potential and semantic content into proper noun and common noun.

4.2.1.1.1 Proper noun

The proper noun subclass consists of names of an individual person, place, etc. functioning in the Head position of a noun phrase and also as vocative.

chót	'Mr. Chot'
sun	'Mrs. Sun'
kro:m	'Cambodia'
sɛ́:m	'Thai'
là:w	'Laos'
bá:n padaw	'Ban Padaw (Padaw village)'

4.2.1.1.2 Common noun

The common noun subclass may be subdivided (based on semantic type) into human noun and non-human noun.

(1) Human noun

Human nouns consist of nouns that semantically imply human and kinship terms.

kasɨm	'human being, person'	khanéːw	'children'
samlɔ̀ːŋ	'man'	kanaː	'friend'
samkhɨn	'woman'	kləː	'close friend'

Kasong kinship terms are:

khuːɲ	'father'	
miɲ	'mother'	
lamɔ̀ːŋ	'grandfather'	
nàːŋ	'grandmother'	
ʔɔk ʔun	'great-grandparent'	
ʔɔk	'great-grandmother'	
ʔun	'great-grandfather'	
luːŋ	'father/mother's elder brother'	(Thai loan word)
paː	'father/mother's elder sister'	(Thai loan word)
ʔaː	'father' s younger brother/sister'	(Thai loan word)
nàː	'mother' s younger brother/sister'	(Thai loan word)
khliɲ	'elder sibling'	
móːt	'younger sibling'	
kheːn	'child'	
chuː	'grandchild, great-grandchild'	
klɔ̀ːŋ	'husband'	
saŋɨn	'wife	
samɔ̀ːk	'son-in-law'	
lakhɨn	'daughter-in-law'	
khuːɲ samɔ̀ːk	'father-in-law'	
miɲ samɔ̀ːk	'mother-in-law'	
móːt khliɲ	'relatives, cousin, brothers'	

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(2) Non-human noun

Non-human nouns may be animate or inanimate.

Animate		**Inanimate**	
lé:k	'chicken'	ka:ŋ	'moon, month'
lakɔ̀:	'crocodile'	khajá:l	'wind'
kapa:w	'buffalo'	tuŋ	'egg'
latu:t	'bear'	ni:l	'mat'
chi:	'louse'	kéh	'pot'
sú:c	'ant'	há:m	'blood'

Non-human nouns may consist of a common noun plus a proper name which never stands alone, for examples

mé:l	lɛ:ŋ	(fish + proper name)	'catfish'
mé:l	klɛ́:w	(fish + proper name)	'scorpion fish'
chí:m	taní:t	(bird + proper name)	'dove'
chí:m	ʔe:t	(bird + proper name)	'parrot'
si:	saŋ	(snake + proper name)	'cobra'
si:	kapaʔ	(snake + proper name)	'pit viper'
wa:	cakɔ́:k	(monkey + proper name)	'a kind of short-tailed monkey'
sú:c	sü:	(ant + proper name)	'a kind of large red ant'
ʔo:l	tɛ̀h	(yam + proper name)	'sweet potato'

4.2.1.2 Pronoun

Pronouns are a closed word class functioning in the Head position of a pronoun phrase (Sec. 3.1.1.2) and as the Relator in relative clause. They are the personal pronoun, reflexive pronoun, demonstrative pronoun and relative pronoun.

4.2.1.2.1 Personal pronoun

Personal pronouns may substitute for, or refer back to, another noun. There is no gender distinction of pronouns in Kasong.

Table 2: Kasong pronouns

Number / Person	singular	plural	
		exclusive	inclusive
1st person	ʔiɲ chan	sa:	hɛ:ŋ
2nd person	pò: kɛ:	pùək pò: pùək kɛ:	
3rd person (human)	nak	pùək nak	
(non-human)	he:n	pùək he:n	

The first plural personal pronoun may be added by a plural word /pùək/ 'group' and /mù:/ 'group' which are Thai loanwords, as in /pùək sa:/ 'we', /mù: hɛ:ŋ/ 'we, our group' to express many plural numbers. Sometimes /pùək ʔiɲ/ or /pùək chan/ 'we' is used also.

First singular personal pronoun

/ʔiɲ/ 'I' is used for friend or younger person

/chan/ 'I' is used for older person (more polite than /ʔiɲ/)

The first plural person /sa:/ may sometimes be used as the first singular person when speaks to close friend or among husband and wife like /raw/ 'I' in Thai.

Husband: takó: namphrík kɨl tih toŋ he:n tíh

mortar chili paste stay at house it that

'The mortar for pounding chili paste is in his house.'

Wife: sa: kɔ́h káh sa: lîc nak ʔó:c jip hó:j

I not know I think that he take come already

'I don't know. I think he has already brought (it).'

Second singular personal pronoun

/pò:/ 'you' is used for younger person or friend

/kɛː/ 'you' is used for friend or the same aged person (more polite than /pòː/). It may be sometimes used as the third singular person to refer to the old person or to middle aged person, as in

1. kɛː ceːw nìː jip 'Where did you go?'
   you go where come
2. A: kɛː ten ceːw nìː 'Where does he go?'
   he that go where (interlocutor know who is referred to)
   B: jak toŋ nɔ́ːn '(He stay) at his house (does not leave anywhere.'
   at house fp.(emphasis)

Third singular personal pronoun

/nak/ 'he/she' is used to refer to person and it is also used as a classifier for a person

/heːn/ 'it' is used to refer to animals and things, sometimes refers to younger person (especially children)

Apart from the pronouns mentioned above, some kinship terms are also used as pronouns, especially as the second singular personal pronoun and the third singular personal pronoun. The common kinship terms used in this way are:

lamɔ̀ːŋ is used for addressing a respectable old man

nàːŋ is used for addressing a respectable old woman

luːŋ a general term for addressing a middle aged man who is older than the speaker and respected as an uncle

paː a general term for addressing a middle aged woman who is older than the speaker and respected as an aunt

These kinship terms may be followed by a proper name specifying person, as in /nàːŋ teːŋ/ 'Mrs. Taeng'.

4.2.1.2.2 Reflexive pronoun

The reflexive marker /nɔ́ːn/ 'self' is added to a noun another pronoun in the clause Object position to form a reflexive pronoun as in /kì̱p nɔ́ːn/ 'self-body'.

Examples

1. nak cák kɨp nɔ́:n hɔ́:c
   he shoot body self die
   'He shot himself to death.'
2. nak tu: tɔ́h nɔ́:n (common)
   he hit head self
   or nak tu: tɔ́h kɨp nɔ́:n (emphasis)
   or nak tu: tɔ́h nak nɔ́:n (sometimes)
   'He hit his own head.'
3. nak khɔ́:c kɔ́:k kɨp nɔ́:n hɔ́:c
   she tie neck body self die
   'She killed herself by hanging.'

The reflexive marker /nɔ́:n/ is placed after any performance to emphasize that the subject performs something by oneself.

4. ʔiŋ tɔ̀: nɔ́:n
   I do self
   'I do (something) by myself.'
5. ʔaj ja:w phúh thal nɔ́:n
   address Yaw wash cloth self
   'Yaw washed the clothes by himself.'

When the reflexive marker /nɔ́:n/ is used with a numeral /mɔ́:j/ 'one' as /mɔ́:j nɔ́:n/, it implies the meaning 'alone'.

6. nak jip mɔ́:j nɔ́:n 'She comes alone.'
   she come alone (one+self)
7. lu:ŋ suən kɨl jak ʔan mɔ́:j nɔ́:n 'Uncle Saun lives here by himself'
   uncle Saun live here alone (one+self)

Besides, /nɔ́:n/ may be put after the Subject to emphasize the actor or possessor, for examples

8. ʔiŋ nɔ́:n kep ʔɨh nak 'I myself cleared her things away.'
   I self keep give she

9. chɔ́ː chan nɔ́ːn khát nak 'My dog bit her.'
dog I self bite she

10. A: ʔajpìː thɨm seːw méːl 'Who make a fish curry?'
who cook curry fish

B: ʔiŋ nɔ́ːn 'I myself (make it).'
I self

4.2.1.2.3 Demonstrative pronoun

The demonstrative pronoun /ʔan/ ' this' and /ten/ 'that' can occur as single filler in the Head position of a noun phrase. They also function as Demonstrative words (Sec. 4.2.3).

Examples ʔan mpìː 'What is this?'
this what

ten toŋ phuːjaj 'That is a house of the headman of a village.'
that house headman of a village

The word /ʔiʔan/ 'this one' and /ʔiten/ 'that one' are used like wise. They specify the appearance of thing.

ʔiʔan khɔːŋ nak 'This one is hers.'
this one of she

4.2.1.2.4 Relative pronoun

It is found that there is a relative pronoun which function as Relator in the relative clause. It is:

deː 'who, whom'

However, this relative pronoun is not actively used. The relative clause without the Relator is more very common. Only two examples from the narrative text can be observed.

1. lamɔ̀ːŋ deː lieŋ heːn
address who feed it
'the old man who fed it'

2. he:n jip jak lamɔ̀:ŋ de: kɨl ki: na:
it come at address who stay dem. fp.
'It comes to the old man who stays there.'

4.2.1.3 Demonstrative

A demonstrative functions in the Demonstrative position of a noun or pronoun phrase (Sec. 3.1.1) and also in the Locative position of the clause. There are three basic degrees of proximity shown by demonstratives.

ʔan 'this'
ten 'that'
tɪ́h 'that (far away)'

Example

pɔ̀: ce:w ta:m khra: ʔan 'You go along this way.'
you go along way this

The farther degree from /tɪ́h/ is formed by repeating as /tɪ́htɪ́h/ and also pronounced with very high rising pitch.

toŋ nak kɨl tɪ́htɪ́h 'His house is over there.'
house he stay over there

When the demonstrative function in the Locative position, it usually incorporates with a preposition /jak/ 'at' (though may sometimes occur alone).

jak ʔan 'here'
jak ten 'there'
jak tɪ́h 'over there'

Example

nak kɔ́h kɨl jak ʔan 'He doesn't live here.'
he not live here

Besides, there is a demonstrative particle /ki:/ 'this/that'. It normally occurs at the end of a noun or noun phrase to give emphasis to an item, as in:

1. kho:j ki: na: kɔ́h di: 'This tooth is bad.'
tooth dem. p. not good

2. wa: ki: hó:c hó:j 'That monkey had already died.'
monkey dem. die already

/ki:/ is frequently used in telling story and it is simply seen in the tale ending.

còp mó:j ki: nó:n 'That is the end'
end one dem. fp.(emphasis)

4.2.1.4 Verb

A verb refers to a class traditionally defined as 'doing' or 'acting' words. It functions as the Head of a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2). There are various subclasses of verbs based on their occurrence in the Predicate position in each particular clause type previously discussed (Sec. 2.1.1).

4.2.1.4.1 Transitive verb

A transitive verb normally takes a direct object. It occurs in the Main position of a verb phrase in the transitive clause (Sec.2.1.1.1).

a) Active transitive verbs, such as:

cha:	'to eat'	thác	'to cut'
hó:p	'to eat (rice)'	tu:	'to hit'
tá:l	'to drink'	cho:l	'to plant'
khát	'to bite'	tàŋ	'to see'

b) Emotive transitive verbs, such as:

cɔ̀:p	'to like'	tó:ŋ	'to fear'
ràk	'to love'	mɨ́t	'to pity'

4.2.1.4.2 Bitransitive verb

A bitransitive verb can take both direct and indirect objects. It occurs in the Main position of a verb phrase in the bitransitive clause (Sec. 2.1.1.2). This subclass of verb includes a few members. Some examples are:

ʔɨ́h	'to give'	lo:m	'to beg'
jɨ́:m	'to borrow'	kúk	'to steal'

che:m 'to feed (by placing food in the mouth)'

4.2.1.4.3 Intransitive verb

An intransitive verb does not require an object. It occurs in the Main position of a verb phrase in the intransitive clause (Sec. 2.1.1.3).

a) Active intransitive verbs, such as:

thal	'to stand'	ja:m	'to cry'
thɛ:k	'to sleep, to lie'	kamók	'to cough'
sɔ:ŋ	'to dance'	ke:l	'to bark'
pè:k	'to laugh'	kòŋ	'to cry (animal)'

b) Emotive intransitive verbs, such as:

bɔ́:p	'to be tired'	phá:	'to be satiated'
khók	'to be frightened'	cóh	'to be angry'

4.2.1.4.4 Descriptive verb

A descriptive verbs (or adjectival verb) is a word that functions as an adjective or a verb. It occurs in the Predicate of the descriptive clause (Sec. 2.1.1.4). Some examples are:

dîk	'thick'	pè:	'delicious'
lakhé:t	'slippery'	chî:n	'cooked'
katɨŋ	'clear'	wɛ́:ŋ	'uncooked'
tá:k	'wet'	pó:t	'young (plant)'
chá:ŋ	'cool'	pu:l	'swelled up'

4.2.1.4.5 Ambient verb

An ambient verb occurs in the Main position of a verb phrase in the ambient clause (Sec. 2.1.1.5). Many of them are adjectives which function as verbs to describe the weather. Some members are:

sɛ́c	'cold'	chîp	'dark'
tú:	'hot'	chaŋé:t	'dim'
sá:p	'light'	laʔú:c	'shady'
lá:c	'to be lightning'	ràŋ	'to become dry (lacking rain)'

4.2.1.4.6 Existential verb

An existential verb expresses the existence of a thing. It occurs in the Main position of a verb phrase in the existential clause (Sec. 2.1.1.6). There are only two existential verbs.

ʔiːn 'to have'

tòŋ 'to remain, to be left'

The word /ʔiːn/ also functions as a transitive verb mean 'have' or 'get, receive' when occurs in the transitive clause (discussed in 4.2.2).

4.2.1.4.7 Equational verb

An equational verb expresses the relation within a statement. It occurs in the Main position of a verb phrase in the equational clause (Sec. 2.1.1.7). All members of this verb subclass are borrowed from Thai. They are:

pen 'to be'

klaːj pen 'to become'

cɨː 'to be called, name'

4.2.1.4.8 Motion verb

A motion verb is a verb of moving. It normally occurs in the Main position of a verb phrase in the motion clause (Sec. 2.1.1.8) and also in the intransitive clause. Some members are:

ceːw 'to go, to walk'

jip 'to come'

póp 'to run'

tùː 'to flee'

kh̀waːl 'to crawl (on knees)'

lamɔ́ːt 'to follow'

Many motion verbs can also function in the directional position of a verb phrase to modify other motion verb indicating the general direction of moving. Motions verbs used in this way are called directional verbals* or directional words. They are:

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*This word is found in Saul, Janice E. & Nancy Freiberger Wilson's study (1980).

khaw	'to enter, go in'	jip	'to come'
ʔɔ:k	'to go out'	loŋ	'to go down'
klap	'to return'	pa:k	'go up, to climb'
ce:w	'to go'		

4.2.1.4.9 Location verb

A locative verb occurs in the Main position of a verb phrase in the locative clause (Sec. 2.1.1.9). There is only one locative verb.

kɨl	'to live, to stay'

4.2.1.4.10 Propulsion verb

A propulsion verb refers to a verb caused moving of something. It occurs in the Main position of a verb phrase in the propulsion clause (Sec. 2.1.1.10). Some members are:

tɛ́:k	'to bring along , to lead'	tə:ŋ	'to toss'
cu:ŋ	'to lead by the hand'	là:k	'to drag'
ce:n	'to push (a cart)'	kasa:l	'to dislodge, to poke'
so:n	'to send'	cɨ̀h	'to ride'

4.2.1.4.11 Quotative verb

A quotative verb describes various ways of communicating. It mainly occurs in the Main position of a verb phrase in the quotative clause (Sec. 2.1.1.11).

ɲa:j	'to speak'	sanát	'to leave one's word (order)'
sró:ŋ	'to tell'	so:n	'to instruct, to teach'
sri:	'to ask'	thiəŋ	'to argue'
khe:w	'to call'	ka:l	'to give an answering call'
ku:	'to shout'	se:m	'to abuse (say bad thing to)'

4.2.1.4.12 Quantitative verb

A quantitative verb occurs in the Main position of a verb phrase in the quantitative clause (Sec. 2.1.1.12). There are only two quantitative verbs which are Thai loans.

la:khá:	'to cost'
ʔajú:	'to age'

4.2.1.4.13 Comparative verb

Normally, a comparative verb can function in the Predicate position of a comparative clause by itself. And it also functions as comparative marker when any verb is filled in the Predicate position of a comparative clause (Sec. 2.1.1.13).

The comparative verb class includes:

ja:ŋ	'to like'	tiɲ	'to be equal (size)'
khá:j	'to be similar' (a Thai loan word)		

Example

phli: khá:j trí̱p.phuəŋ

fruit similar eggplant (kind of)

'The fruit looks like an eggplant (a kind of)'

4.2.1.5 Auxiliary

An auxiliary functions in the Pre-verb position and the Post-verb position of a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2). This word class subordinate to the main verb in which it helps to make distinctions in aspect or mode. Kasong auxiliaries can be subdivided according to their positions into preverbal and postverbal auxiliaries.

4.2.1.5.1 Preverbal auxiliary

A preverbal auxiliary occurs before the Main verb position in a verb phrase. Most of preverbal auxiliary are borrowed from Thai language.

Preverbal auxiliaries specify the aspect of action. They are:

lɔ:ŋ	'will'
kamlaŋ	'progressive aspect (indicating action is going on)'

naːn	'yet, still'	
than tɛː	'just'	
káːt	'nearly'	(usually occur with /lɔːŋ/)
kɨəp	'almost'	(usually occur with /lɔːŋ/)
khəːj	'used to'	

Preverbal auxiliaries express the mode of action. They are:

péː	'want'	cɔ̀ːp	'like'
jɔːm	'allow'	cɔːj	'help'
tɔ́ːŋ	'must'	klâː	'dare'
náː	'should'	hɛ́ːk	'hurry'
maːna	'to try'	ʔiːn	'to get, have an opportunity'

The word /cɔ̀ːp/, /cɔːj/, /hɛ́ːk/ and /ʔiːn/ themselves are verbs functioning as preverbal auxiliaries. Examples of using the preverbal auxiliary are provided as follows.

1. ʔiɲ lɔːŋ thɛːk 'I will sleep.'
   I will sleep
2. nak naːn kɔ́h jip 'He has not come yet.'
   he yet not come
3. nàːŋ caːŋ péː chaː máːk 'Mrs. Jang wants to chew betel.'
   address Jang want eat betel
4. ʔiɲ kɔ́h ʔiːn ɲaːj mɔːŋ pòː
   I not get speak with you
   'I did not speak to you.'

Two or more preverbal auxiliaries may co-occur in the same verb phrase, fox example

5. ʔiɲ naːn kɔ́h khəːj jip jak ʔan
   I yet not used to come here
   'I have never come here.'
6. nak káːt lɔːŋ jip phlaŋ hɔ́ːj
   he nearly will come arrive fp.
   'He nearly arrives.'

4.2.1.5.2 Postverbal auxiliary

A postverbal auxiliary occurs after the Main verb position in a verb phrase. They are:

hó:j	'already'	(past or complete aspect)
hə́:j	'already'	(past or complete aspect)
wîc	'again, more'	(repeated aspect)
ʔi:n	'can, able'	

/ʔi:n/ can function both as preverbal and postverbal auxiliary. As a preverbal, it shows the opportunity. If /ʔi:n/ functions as postverbal, it shows ability or permission.

Commonly a verb phrase has only one postverbal auxiliary, for examples

1. ʔiɲ hɔ́:p kloŋ hó:j
   I eat rice already
   'I have already eaten rice.'
2. nà:ŋ sa:w rɔ̀:ŋ pè:ŋ larè: khe:n ʔi:n
   grandmother Saw sing song lull child can
   'Grandmother Saw can sing a lullaby.'
3. jak saŋî: la: chan pə̀:p nak wîc
   at evening I meet she again
   'I met her again in the evening.'

4.2.1.6 Adverb

An adverb functions in the Head position of an adverb phrase (Sec. 3.2.3) or in the Post-Modifier position in a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2).

Some of them are adverbs of manner, such as:

kɔ̀:j	'slowly'	wé:	'loudly'
lè:w	'quickly'	rɛ̀:ŋ	'hardly'
sɔ́:n	'silent, quietly'	rò:	'highly'
tɔ̀:n	'rightly (don't miss)'	ko:	'inactively, leisurely, empty'

Some of them indicate the completion of action

jɔ̀h 'finish, completely'

Some of them are adverbs of frequency, such as:

karáːk ruj 'again and again (manner or eating)'

bɔːj 'often' (a Thai loan word)

Some of them are adverbs of time, such as:

tóːj 'before' móːj naːn 'momentarily'

srɛ́ːŋ 'after' kɔ́ːj 'for a long time'

Some of them are adverbs of quantity, such as:

kɔ́ːp 'much, many' koː 'only'

makîc 'little' maːŋ 'some'

Other adverbs are:

mɔːŋ saː 'together' jaːŋ saː 'same, too'

jaːŋ ʔan 'like this' jaːŋ ten 'like that, in that manner'

jaːŋ diː* 'well'

Examples

1. miɲ thɨm kloŋ jɔ̀h hóːj

mother cook rice finish already

'Mother has finished her cooking already.'

2. kheːn pàː moːl pen mɛ̀ːw klɔ̀ːŋ koː

child two clf. be cat male only

'The two young cats are only male.'

3. ʔiɲ teːŋ kɨ̀p teːŋ pɔ̀ːŋ jaːŋ diː hɔ́ːj naː

I dress body dress full well already fp.

'I have already dressed up.'

4.2.1.7 Adjective

An adjective functions in the Head position of an adjective phrase (Sec. 3.2.2) or in the Modifier position of a noun phrase (Sec. 3.1.1.1). It modifies noun or noun phrase in size, shape, texture, color, flavor, value, and other qualities. They commonly have an antonymic pair.

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*This pattern is likely borrowed from Thai. In Thai /jàːŋ/ is occasionally placed before any verbal modifier to describe manner of the action, for instance /dəːn jàːŋ rew/ 'walk quickly'.

Some adjectives of size and shape are:

kǐc	'small'	lòːj	'pointed'
ták	'big'	móːl	'round'
kéːn	'short'	lakǐː	'thin'
kóŋ	'long'	pèc	'fat'

Some adjectives of manner are:

salɛːŋ	'young (woman)'	méɲ	'beautiful, handsome'
kamlɔ́h	'young (man)'	chɨ́h	'old (age)'
naːŋ	'old'	sawɨ́ːt	'withered'
plàː	'new'	pùk	'rotten, decayed'

Some adjectives of texture are:

kɔ́ːc	'soft, tender'	kál	'sharp'
kràh	'hard'	mɨn	'blunt'
ŋál	'heavy'	lahóŋ	'brittle'
sanɨ́c	'light (weight)'	jéh	'dry'

Some adjectives of color are:

phrúh	'white'	caŋ	'black'
ràːk	'white (skin)'	ŋal	'red'
wèːt	'green'	jɔ̀ː	'yellow'
wèːt cɨ́h	'dark green'	mɔ́ːk	'gray'
wèːt póːt	'light green'		

Some adjectives of flavor are:

ŋáːm	'sweet'	ŋát	'bitter'
kǐɲ	'nutty'	pláːc	'tasteless'
thát	'salty'	khóːl	'fragrant'
cɔ́ː	'sour'	saláːŋ	'bad-selling'
hal	'hot'	cáːp	'fishy'
chǐc	'astringent'		

Some adjectives of value are:

diː	'good'	samɔ̀ː	'diligent'

kasíc	'lazy'	khlé:	'bashful'

Adjectives are also called descriptive verbs or adjectival verbs. They function as adjective in a noun phrase and as descriptive verb in verb phrase as well. When there are two adjectival words occurring together in the descriptive clause, the first is always an adjective modifying the noun and the second is a descriptive verb as in:

cɔ́: sɔ́:k	wè:t	cɔ́:	'The green (unripe) mango is sour.'
mango	*green*	*sour*	
chɔ́:	caŋ	ták	'The black dog is big.'
dog	*black*	*big*	

4.2.1.8 Numeral

A numeral functions as Head of a numeral phrase (Sec. 3.2.1). The numeral class is divided into specific and nonspecific numerals.

4.2.1.8.1 Specific numeral

Specific numerals consist of cardinal and ordinal numbers.

(1) Cardinal number

A cardinal number is used for counting. They are:

mó:j	'one'	khanù:l	'seven'
pà:	'two'	kati:	'eight'
phé:	'three'	kasà:l	'nine'
phó:n	'four'	rà:j	'ten'
phram	'five'	chuh	'hundred'
kadɔ:ŋ	'six'		

The numbers from eleven to nineteen are the combination of ten and one to nine.

rà:j	mó:j	'eleven'	(usually pronounced as [ra̤:j^{21} mo:j^{332}])
rà:j	pa:l	'twelve'	(not /rà:j pà:/)
rà:j	phram	'fifteen'	(usually pronounced as [ra̤:j^{21} tam^{332}])
rà:j	kadɔ:ŋ	'sixteen'	

The group of decadal numbers (such as twenty, thirty, etc.) is consisting of two to nine plus /se:/ 'decadal marker –ty'

pà: se:	'twenty'
phé: se:	'thirty'
phram se:	'fifty'

Other numbers are the combination of basic numerals (one to ten) with decadal numbers, for examples

pà: se: móːj	'twenty-one'
pà: se: pà:	'twenty-two'
phram se: phóːn	'fifty-four'
móːj chuh	'one hundred'
móːj chuh móːj	'one hundred and one'
móːj chuh ràːj móːj	'one hundred and eleven'

The numbers beyond the hundreds are borrowed from Thai. They are:

pàn	'thousand'	sɛːn	'hundred thousand'
miːn	'ten thousand'	làːn	'million'

A cardinal number is also used with /kaːŋ/ 'month, moon' to designate the months February through November * as follows.

kaːŋ phé:	'February'	kaːŋ katiː	'July'
kaːŋ phóːn	'March'	kaːŋ kasàːl	'August'
kaːŋ phram	'April'	kaːŋ ràːj	'September'
kaːŋ kadɔːŋ	'May'	kaːŋ ràːj móːj	'October'
kaːŋ khanùːl	'June'	kaːŋ ràːj paːl	'November'

(2) Ordinal number

An ordinal number indicates the order. It simply proposes /thiː/ 'in order' to the cardinal one like Thai language. For example:

thiː móːj	'first'
thiː pà:	'second'

*/kaːŋ ʔáːj/, /kaːŋ jíː/ are December and January respectively like Thai language.

4.2.1.8.2 Nonspecific numeral

Nonspecific numerals include:

káːŋ	'many, several'	khìŋ	'half'
thùk	'every'	maːŋ	'some'
thaŋ	'all'		

Examples

1. nak ʔiːn lɛ́ːk káːŋ moːl
   he have chicken many clf.
   'He has many chickens'
2. méːl khìŋ moːl ʔan ʔɔːŋ thɨm seːw hal
   fish half clf. this keep cook curry hot
   'This one half of a fish is kept for making a hot curry.'
3. maːŋ phliː ʔiːn móːj mèt
   some fruit have one seed
   'Some fruit has one seed.'

Other words which can occur before the Head Numeral position in a numeral phrase (Sec.3.2.1), is called pre-numeral words. Pre-numeral words express the approximation. Most of them are Thai loans and some are Kasong-Thai words.

ràːw	'about'	kɔ́ːp kwaː	'more than'
kiəp	'almost'	makíc kwaː	'less than'
kwaː	'than'		

4.2.1.9 Classifier

A classifier functions in the Classifier position of a numeral phrase (Sec. 3.2 1) or in Quantity position of a noun phrase (Sec. 3.1.1). It is used to identify the shape or size of noun concerned when a number is cited.

There are four distinct subtypes of classifiers: regular classifier, self-classifier, collective classifier and measure.

4.2.1.9.1 Regular classifier

The regular classifier subclass is a set of words which merely functions as classifier and particularly used with each of nouns.

nak	- is used for a person
mo:l	- is used for an animals, fruit and thing with roundish shape (such as /tuŋ/ 'egg', /kɛ̀h/, 'pot', /takhó:/ 'mortar', /kriɲ/ 'drum', etc.)
laŋ	- is used for a house
kapi̍c	- is used for a hand of bananas
katɔ̀:ŋ	- is used for a bunch of bananas
lem	- is used for long-handled tools and some things with long shape (such as /pé:t/ 'knife', /kra:n/ 'axe', /naŋsi:/ 'book', etc.)
khan	- is used for a car, spoon, etc.
ʔoŋ	- is used for a monk
pi̍:	- is used for a saw
law	- is used for a flute
lam	- is used for a boat, a stalk of sugarcane and bamboo
khanó:t	- is used for a piece of wood
mók	- is used for a mouthful of food
sen	- is used for a string-like thing (such as /se:/ 'rope, rattan', /súk/ 'hair', /prà:j/ 'thread', /lapé:t/ 'thin bamboo-strips', etc.)
phi̍:n	- is used for a broad flat utensil and clothes (such as /ni:l/ 'mat', /saló:p/ 'shirt', /ka:ŋke:ŋ/ 'trousers', etc.)
woŋ	- is used for a ring
si̍:	- is used for a tooth
chi̍n	- is used for a piece of a thing
ki:p	- is used for an orange-like segment and petal
mèt	- is used for a seed and a small seed-like thing (such as /ha:l/ 'paddy', /khanam/ 'medicine', etc.)
sró:m	- is used for a part of plant which is a sheath

tóh - is used for a tuber, such as /tuŋ ʔoːl/ 'yam'

klɛːŋ - is used for a cigarette

kɔ́ːn - is used for a lump of everything, such as /khamóː/ 'stone', /khajah/ 'charcoal', etc.

phɛːn - is used for a flat object, such as /kataːl/ 'plank'

duəŋ - is used for a round thing, such as /kaːŋ/ 'moon', /sɨm/ 'star'

siŋ - is used for a fishing net

taː - is used for a fish-hook

Example

sombat ʔiːn kheːn samlɔ̀ːŋ pàː nak

Sombat have child man two clf.

'Sombat has two sons.'

4.2.1.9.2 Self-classifier

The self-classifier subclass is a set of nouns used to classify themselves. For examples:

paːŋ	'flower'	srúk	'village'
khláː	'leaf'	mat	'eye'
théːm	'trunk (of tree)'	ʔaːw	'day'
pasúːm	'nest'		

Examples

1. paːŋníh phram paːŋ

   flower five flower

   'five flowers'

2. ʔiːn pasúːm chǐːm phéː pasúːm khlaː liŋ théːm níh

   have nest bird three nest above tree

   'There are three bird nests on the tree.'

It is also noticeable that the self-classifier can substitute for the Noun Head, there therefore leave out the noun, for examples

3. tambon ʔan ʔi:n phó:n srúk
district this have four village
'This district has four villages.'

4. he:n ʔi:n pà: mat
it have two eye
'It has two eyes.'

4.2.1.9.3 Collective classifier

The collective classifier subclass is used to classify a group of nouns. There are a few collective classifiers as follows:

pɨl - is used for a group of animals, such as /kana:j/ 'elephant', /céh/ 'deer'

mù: - is used for a group of animals or people

khrɔ̀:k - is used for a litter of animals, such as /mé:l/ 'fish'

kɔ:ŋ - is used for a heap of things

krɨm - is used for a clump of plants

mát - is used for a bundle of things which are tied together, such as /ʔúh/ 'firewood'

Examples

1. kana:j pà: pɨl 'two herds of elephants'
elephant two clf.

2. kamu:c phó:n krɨm 'four clumps of lemon grass'
lemon grass four clf.

3. ʔúh phé: mát 'three bundles of firewood'
firewood three clf.

4.2.1.9.4 Measure classifier

The measure classifier subclass is used to indicate the size, weight, length, height and depth of objects or human. It may be subdivided into standard measure classifier and temporary measure classifier.

4.2.1.9.4.1 Standard measure classifier

A standard measure classifier is conventional units for the measurement rather than natural units. There are both old Kasong measure classifiers and borrowed classifiers of this type.

níw	'a unit of length or height equal to the length of an index finger'
thá:k	'a unit of length or height equal to an estimated distance from the tip of the thumb to the tip of the middle finger when one's hand is spread out'
hát	'a unit of length, height or depth equal to the estimated distance from the elbow to the extremity'
khɛ:n	'a unit of length based on a handful'
mé:t	'meter' is used for length or height
làh	'a unit of length equal to two meters'
kilo:	'kilogram' is used for weight
ràj	'a unit of area equal to 1,600 square meters'
kabiŋ	'a unit of area section'
kiən	'a unit of capacity equal to 2,000 liters' used for paddy
ba:t	'bath' (a unit of money)

Example

jak ŋè:t chan tè:w srók khɨ̌ŋ kilo:

at morning I buy pig half kilogram

'This morning I bought a half kilogram of pork.'

4.2.1.9.4.2 Temporary measure classifier

A temporary measure classifier is a set of container nouns which used temporarily as a measuring unit for classifying another noun. It may have no exact size. Examples are:

kacɨ́:	'a closely woven bamboo basket (formerly used as a measure of grain)'
kapó:	'winnowing basket'
takó:	'coconut shell capacity measure , an ancient capacity measure'

kɛ̀h	'pot'
patɨ̀l	'water bowl'
lɔ́:ŋ	'earthen jar'
kasɔ:p	'gunny bag'

Examples

1. kra:ɲ phé: lɔ́:ŋ 'three jars of liquor'
   liquor three jar
2. lakhɔ́: phɔ́:n takɔ́: 'four coconut shells of milled rice'
   milled rice four coconut shell

In Kasong when a numeral is used, the classifier is obligatory. Except the numeral is /mɔ́:j/ 'one', the regular or self-classifier normally no occur, for examples

1. nak ʔi:n mɛ̀:w rà:j mo:l 'She has ten cats.'
   she have cat ten clf.
2. ʔiɲ ʔi:n chɔ́: mɔ̀:j 'I have a dog.'
   I have dog one

4.2.1.10 Preposition

A preposition functions in the Relator position of a prepositional phrase (Sec. 3.2.4). It links noun and verb or among nouns together showing the position, accompaniment, and even possession.

Prepositions indicate the position or location as follows:

rè:	'in'	ká:t	'near'
liɲ	'on'	mé:t	'far'
pata:	'under'	tɛ:w	'right-hand side'
taká:	'in front of'	tɛ:ŋ	'left-hand side'
tamɔ́:n	'behind'	jak	'at'
pakâ:j	'outside'	phlaŋ	'to'
kanɛ́:ŋ	'side (farthest from the middle of something)'		

Some are Thai loans, but are commonly used too.

kla:ŋ	'in the middle of'	rɔ̀:p	'around'

khaːŋ	'beside'	taːm	'along'
tih	'at'	caːk	'from'

Examples

1. ʔajpìː kɨl tamóːn toŋ 'Who is at the back of the house?'
   who stay behind house
2. heːn thɛːk klaːŋ toŋ ləːj 'It sleeps at the center of house.'
   it sleep middle house fp.

Prepositions indicate the instrument, associated actor and possessor:

moːŋ	'and, with, by'	khɔːŋ	'of'

Example

ʔiŋ jip moːŋ miŋ 'I come with my mother.'
I come and mother

The word /khɔːŋ/ also functions as Predicate of clause meaning 'to belong'.

saló:p ŋal khɔːŋ khuːŋ → 'father's red shirt'
shirt red of - father → 'The red shirt belongs to (my) father.'

Prepositions signify the time as follows:

jak	'at'	kataŋ	'until'
tɔːn	'when, while'	thaŋteː	'since'

thaŋteː....kataŋ 'since...until'

Example

nak jip tɔːn chan laŋɛ́ː
she come while I asleep
'She came while I was sleeping.'

4.2.1.11 Conjunction

A conjunction functions in the Linker position of a compounding nominal phrase (Sec.3.1.1) and conjunctive sentences (Sec.5.1.1.3). According to its function, conjunctions can be subdivided into two subclasses: phrase conjunction and sentence conjunction.

4.2.1.11.1 Phrase conjunctive word

This subclass of conjunction normally functions as the Linker in an additive and alternative compounding nominal phrase (Sec. 3.1.1.3, 3.1.1.5) and may also function in sentence level. Its members are:

mɔ:ŋ	'and'	hi:	'or'

A Thai conjunction is also borrowed to use in Kasong language. It is:

thaŋ...thaŋ 'both...and'

Examples

1. ta: ma: ʔi:n saló:p mɔ:ŋ lakhó:
   address Ma get shirt and milled rice
   'Mr. Ma got a shirt and some milled rice.'
2. thaŋ chó: thaŋ mè:w lamó:t chan jip
   both dog both cat follow I come
   'Both dog and cat follow me.'

4.2.1.11.2 Sentence conjunctive word

In connected speech there are some conjunctions for linking the additive, alternative, contrastive, sequential or caused sentences. However, conjoining sentences without any conjunction are also frequently.

Most of sentence conjunctions used in Kasong are Thai loanwords. They are:

tɛ:	'but'	prɔ̀h	'because'
thá:	'if'	lə:j	'so'
con kwa:	'until'	kɔ	'then'

Only two sentence conjunctions found are non Thai loans. They are:

ʔi:n	'then'	mɔ:ŋ	'and, because'

The use of sentence conjunctions

1. **/ʔi:n/** indicates a rational action that will happen or an event that occurs in the next minute.

   nak hiw ʔi:n cha: kɔ́:p
   he hungry then eat many
   'He is hungry so he eats a lot.'

hɔ́ːp kloŋ jɔ̀h ʔiːn chaː khanam
eat rice finish then eat medicine
'Finish eating rice, then you take the medicine.'

huːm tàːk tɔ́ːj ʔiːn hɔ́ːp kloŋ
bathe water before then eat rice
'Take a bath first, then (later) you can eat rice.'

phɔː chan ceːw ʔiːn nak jip
when I go then he come
'He came when I had just left.'

2. **/mɔːŋ/** indicates additive action and may sometimes indicates cause.

jak ŋèːt ʔiŋ thuː toŋ mɔːŋ phúh thal
at morning I scour house and wash cloth
'This morning, I scoured the floor and washed the clothes.'

nak hɔ́ːc mɔːŋ siː khát
he die because snake bite
'He died because of a snake bite.'

3. **/tɛː/** indicates the contradiction.

chan jip thɔ́ːc nak tɛː kɔ́h pɔ̀ːp
I come seek she but not meet
'I come to see her, but I don't see her.'

4. **/thάː/** indicates a conditional relationship.

thάː pòː kheːw heːn jip ʔiŋ ʔíh pòː
if you call it come I give you
'If you call it and it comes , I will give it to you.'

5. **/con kwaː/** indicates conditional action related to time.

chan cam kɨl jakʔan con kwaː nak jip
I wait stay here until he come
'I will wait for her here until she comes.'

6. **/prɔ̀h/** indicates cause and result.

khanéːw jaːm prɔ̀h tɔ̀ːn tuː
children cry because pass.mk hit
'A child cries because he was hit.'

7 **/ləːj/** indicates rational action.

nak jip ɲaːj samphâːt ləːj kɔ́h ʔiːn ceːw nîː léːw
she come speak interview so not get go where fp.
'She comes to interview me so I don't go anywhere.'

8. **/kɔ/** is a preverbal conjunction that indicates the relationship inside conjoining sentences in various ways – mainly expresses continuous action. It has been actively used either alone and together with the other connectors as /phɔː...kɔ/ 'as...then', /jɔ̀h...kɔ/ 'after...then' and /kɔ ləːj/ 'then'. Some examples are provided below.

nak jip phlaŋ kɔ ceːw huːm tàːk
he come arrive then go bathe water
'He took a bath after arriving.'

heːn hɔ́ːp jɔ̀h kɔ thɛːk
it eat finish then sleep
'When it finished eating, it slept.'

pɔ̀ː kat thɛːk kɔ thɛːk ceːw
you be sleepy then sleep go
'If you are sleepy, then you should go to sleep.'

ɲaːj kə́ːp kɔ̄ bɔ́ːp kə́ːp
speak many then tired many
'The more (I) speak, the more I'm tired.'

phɔː nak jip heːn kɔ̄ ceːw
when he come it then go
'As soon as he arrives, it goes.'

pen klɔː saː kɔ̄ lə̄ːj ʔíh méːl kiː ceːw
be friend reci. mk then give fish dem. go
'Because he is my friend, I give him that fish.'

A preverb /kɔ/ is also considered to be a particle when it does not function as a conjunctor between clauses (discussed in 4.2.16).

4.2.1.12 Intensifier

An intensifier functions in the Intensifier position of an adverb phrase (Sec. 3.2.3) or in the Post-Modifier position of a verb phrase (Sec. 3.1.2). It gives a heightening effect on the meaning of another word, especially adverb. And it may be used to emphasize an action. There are only two intensifiers found.

kə́ːp 'very' leːw 'really, indeed, certainly'

Examples

1. nak ɲaːj wéː kə́ːp
   he speak loud very
   'He speaks very loud.'
2. ʔawan nak jip leːw leːw
   today he come certainly certainly
   'Today he will certainly come.'

Apart from the use of intensifier, adverbs or adjectives are reduplicated to show intensification (See 4.1.3). In this way, the duration of the reduplicative word is rather long and the first member of it is pronounced with higher pitch than normal, as in /kǐc kǐc/ 'very small'. Also, the intensification may be formed by using an expressive as in /kǐc chíət/ 'very small, tiny' (See 4.1.4).

4.2.1.13 Negative word

A negative word conveys the meaning of refusal. There are three negation words and each of them is different in the function.

kɔ́h 'not' - functions in the Negative position of a verb phrase.

má:j 'don't' - is a negative imperative marker to function in the imperative clause.

ná:k 'be not, no' - functions as the Main verb in an equational clause or used to respond the yes/no interrogative.

Examples

1. tà:k na:n kɔ́h pùh 'The water is not boiled yet.'
   water yet not boil
2. má:j ɲa:j khi:pot nah 'Don't tell a lie!'
   don't speak to lie fp.
3. he:n ná:k khamú:c 'It isn't a ghost.'
   It be not ghost

It is noticeable that the word /kɔ́h/ sometimes occur alone as Predicate of a clause to take the meaning like /kɔ́h ʔi:n/ 'have not', for example

1. thé:m kɔ́h salá: lɛ:w
   trunk not thorn fp.
   'The trunk is thornless.'
2. jakʔan kɔ́h le:w kasɔ̀:ŋ ʔi:n tɛ: sɛ́:m ko:
   nowadays not fp. Kasong have only Thai only
   'Nowadays there are no Kasong people, there are only Thai.'

4.2.1.14 Time word

A time words function in the clause peripheral position to indicate the time. It may be simple or compound words. It is obvious that there are some expressions of time during a day concerned with the position of the sun. Time words during the day include:

tɔ́h ŋè:t 'the very early morning'

ŋè:t 'morning'

saŋí: rò:	'the late morning (the sun is high)'
saŋí: troŋ	'at noon (the sun is straight over one's head)'
saŋí: ba:j	'afternoon (the sun is going down)'
saŋí: la:	'evening (the sun is disappearing)'
saŋí: khlák prì:	'the time of evening when the sun sets (at the forest)'
tóh pé:	'late evening, early in the night, dusk'
tapé:	'night'
khlɛ́:ŋ	'night-time'
khɨ̀ŋ lɛ:ŋ	'midnight'
saŋí: (to:n saŋí:)	'day-time'
khɨ̀ŋ saŋí:	'midday'
pé:tó:	'last night'

Other words in the time-cycle are:

ʔawan	'today'
pà:ŋ	'tomorrow'
ʔasí:	'yesterday'
maʔa:w	'the day before yesterday'
mo:j	'the day after tomorrow'
mo:jtì:	'two days after tomorrow'
mo:jtì: tíh	'more than two days after tomorrow'

ka:ŋ ʔan	'this month'	nɨ̀m jɔ̀h	'last year'
nɨ̀m ʔan	'this year'	nɨ̀m tɔ́:j	'the year before'
nɨ̀m plà:	'next year'	jak tɔ́:j	'the past'

khane:n/khane:n ʔan 'this time, at present, now, at once'

Time words for the day in a week are the same as Thai terms, such as /wan can/ 'Monday', /wan saw/ 'Saturday', etc.

Besides, there are words of duration which they may be also considered as adverb of time.

katóː	'just now, a moment ago'
tèːt	'instantly, soon (in a short time from now)'
móːj naːn	'for a while, in a moment'

Examples

1. nak jip jak katóː 'He has arrived just now.'
   he come at just now
2. nak jip móːj naːn 'He came for a while.'
   he come for a while
3. tèːt chan jip 'I will come soon.'
   instantly I come

4.2.1.15 Question word

A question word functions in the clause or sentence level as markers of interrogative construction. It is subdivided into yes/no question and content question. Some question words may be simple words while some are the combination of two or more morphemes.

(1) Content questions

mpîː	'what'	tɔ̀ː mpîː	'why'
ʔajpîː	'who'	jaːŋnîː	'how'
kachiː	'when'	móːjʔiː	'how much, how many'
nîː	'which, where'	chîː	'how much, how many'
tih nîː	'where'		

/chîː/ is probably borrowed from a Thai word /kîː/. It is always followed by a classifier, while /móːjʔiː/ does not.

Examples

1. pòː ʔiːn kheːn chîː nak
   you have child how many clf.
   'How many children do you have?'

2. sombat ʔajúː móːjʔiː
Sombat age how many
'How old is Sombat?'

(2) Yes/no questions

hɔ́ː	'or not'	mɛːn hɔ́ː	'yes or no'
hɨː hɔ́ː	'or not'	ʔah	'yes/no question particle'
hɨː naːn	'not yet'	bɔ́ː	'yes/no question particle'

Examples

1. nak lɔːŋ jip wíc hɨː hɔ́ː
he will come again ques.(or not)
'Will he come again?'
2. kɨl mɔːŋ ʔaj móːk ʔah
stay with address Mok ques.
'Are you staying with Mok?'
3. nak káːŋ ʔan bɔ́ː
she stay overnight here ques.
'Will she stay overnight here?'

Occasionally, /ʔah/ and /bɔ́ː/ may function only as particle, they express unreal question. The speaker does not expect a response. For example:

A: nan nìː
Nan which
'Which is Nan?'
B: nan bɔːraj naː pòː kɔ́h cam bɔ́ː
Nan Borai fp. you not remember ques.
'Nan who lives in Borai, you cannot remember, can you?'

4.2.1.16 Particle

Particles are a small closed class to function in the clause and at higher ranks. The preverbal particle and final particle are common in this language.

4.2.1.16.1 Preverbal particle

A preverbal particle /kɔ~kɔ́:/ 'then' is put before the Predicate of a statement clause like the word /kɔ̂:/ in Thai language. Its function is difficult to ascertain, but it apparently serves to link the events or action that go on. It is frequently used in the narrative text.

Examples

1. lamɔ̀:ŋ kɔ cɨ́h wa:ŋ he:n jip toŋ
   kintitle then ride back it come house
   'The old man then rode on its back to his house.'
2. rɔ́:n kɔ piɲ pɔ̀:ŋ ma:l
   melon then ripe full field
   'The melon are ripe all over the field.'
3. khɨ̀ŋ saŋí: nak kɔ jut hɔ́:j
   half day-time he then stop fp.
   'He stopped working at midday (after he had worked for half a day).'
4. thuŋ khanam ̩ mpì: kɔ kɔ́h kháh
   bag medicine what then not know
   'I don't know what medicine bag (it is).'

4.2.1.16.2 Final particle

Final particles occur in clause or sentence final position. They serve various semantic functions as noted below. Two final particles may co-occur but one is common. The final particle subclass include:

hɔ́:j	'already (affirmative particle)'
hɔ́:j	'already (affirmative particle)'
nɔ́:n	'emphatic particle'
jɔ́:j	'affirmative emphatic particle' (used together with /wîc/)
du:	'suggestive particle'

Some final particle forms like in the Thai language and commonly used also as follows:

lə:j	'affirmative particle'

thəh	'persuasive particle (implies persuasive or mild command)'
lé:w ~ le:w ~ lé:w	'affirmative particle'
nah	'affirmative particle'
sih	'imperative particle (implies a mild command)'
na:	'affirmative emphatic particle'
nɔ: ~ nó:	'affirmative emphatic particle (implies sympathetic feeling)

The meaning and prosodic characteristic of theses some final particles may be inconstant. The pitch may be change according to the emotion or feeling of speaker. The following are examples of using the final particles.

1. nak lɔ:ŋ ce:w hó:j
   she will go fp.
   'She will be leaving (going) now.'
2. he:n kɨl troŋ ten nó:n
   it sit there fp.
   'It sits there.'
3. nak kɔ́h jip wîc jo:j
   he not come again fp.
   'He won't come any longer.'
4. mé:l hó:c mot thùk mo:l lə:j
   fish die all every clf. fp.
   'All of the fishes are dead.'
5. pa:ŋ he:n kɔ́h khó:l le:w
   flower it not fragrant fp.
   'Its flower is not fragrant.'
6. hɛ:ŋ ce:w sa: thəh
   we go reci.mk fp.
   'Let's go!' (persuasive)
7. pò: jip cháp nɔ:n du:
   you come catch self fp.
   'You come to catch it by yourself.'

8. má:j hɔ́:p kloŋ tòŋ na:
don't eat rice remain fp.
'Don't eat rice with some leftover.'

The particle /hɔ́:j, hə́:j, lə:j, lɛ:w or le:w/ may co-occur with /na: or nɔ:/ in a statement clause, as in example below.

9. he:n thɛ:k sɔ́:n lə:j na:
it sleep silent fp.
'It sleeps soundly.'

10. cɔ̀: sɔ́:k nim ʔan kɔ́h phli: lé:w nɔ:
mango year this not fruit fp.
'The mango tree does not have any fruit this year.'

Apart from that, the particle class may refer to a responding word also, here called responding particle. They are:

le:w, le:w nɔ́:n 'yes / really'
ʔə: 'yes'

Example

A: ʔaj phoŋ ʔi:n pri: ták ʔah
address Phong get monitor big ques.
'Does Mr. Phong get a big monitor?'

B: le:w
'Yes.'

4.2.2 Overlapping classes

It is not unusual to find a morpheme being a member of more than one class or whole classes of morphemes may have more than one function (Thomas, 1993: 12). In Kasong some morphemes or words may be classified as a number of more than one class depending on their functions which relate to their meanings in a phrase or clause. They are:

/ʔiːn/ is classified to be a verb, an auxiliary and a conjunction.

ʔiŋ ʔiːn ŋɨn (as a transitive verb)
I have/get money
'I have money. / I get money.'

réː trók ʔiːn méːl kɛ́ːp (as an existential verb)
in swamp have fish very
'There are many fishes in the swamp.'

ʔiŋ ʔiːn ceːw priː moːŋ khuːŋ (as a preverbal auxiliary)
I get go forest with father
'I have an opportunity to go to the forest with my father.'

ʔiŋ loːj tàːk kɔ́h ʔiːn (as a postverbal auxiliary)
I swim not can
'I cannot swim.'

nak hiw ʔiːn chaː kɛ́ːp (as a conjunction)
h/she hungry then eat many
'He is hungry so he eats a lot.'

/moːŋ/ is classified to be a preposition and a conjunction.

nak kɨl moːŋ nàːŋ (as a preposition)
he/she stay with grandmother
'He lives with (his) grandmother.'

jak ŋèːt ʔiŋ thuː toŋ moːŋ phúh thal
at morning I scour house and wash cloth
'This morning, I scoured the floor and washed the clothes.'
(as a conjunction)

nak hɔ́ːc moːŋ siː khát
he die because snake bite
'He died because of a snake bite.' (as a conjunction)

In addition, the word /mɔːŋ/ may be used as a maker in the additive sentence to show the additive relationship (See 5.2.1.2).

chan thɨm kloŋ thuː toŋ mɔːŋ
I cook rice rub house also
'I cooked rice and scoured the floor.'

/kɨl/ is classified to be a location verb or an intransitive verb.

lawaːj kɨl réː priːˋ (as a location verb)
tiger stay in forest
'The tiger lives in the forest.'

luːŋ chun kɨl (as an intransitive verb)
uncle Chun sit
'Uncle Chun sits.'

/hóːj/, /hɔ́ːj/ is classified to be a postverbal auxiliary and a final particle.

ʔiŋ huːm tàːk hóːj (as a postverbal auxiliary)
I take a bath already
'I have already bathed.'

ʔiŋ lɔːŋ thɛːk hóːj (as a final particle)
I will sleep fp.
'I will be sleeping now.'

/kɔ/ is classified to be a conjunction and a preverbal particle.

pòː kat thɛːk kɔ thɛːk ceːw (as a conjunction)
you be sleepy then sleep go
'If you are sleepy, then you should go to sleep.'

rɔ́ːn kɔ piŋ pɔ̀ːŋ maːl (as a preverbal particle)
melon then ripe full field
'The melons are ripe all over the field.'

CHAPTER V

SENTENCES

A sentence is a grammatical unit represented by the clause and other constructions. A clause describes some event or state, but a sentence puts events and states together into some statement to communicate relationship between the events. A sentence thus composed of one ore more predications.

Sentences normally function as elements in a paragraph or sometimes constitute alone a paragraph.

5.1 Structure of sentence

A structural sentence consists of at least one independent main clause with or without subordinate clauses (nuclear part), and may or may not have non-clause utterances such as vocative or exclamation (peripheral part). The surface structure of sentence therefore contains a nucleus and an optional periphery, and there is obligatory sentence intonation.

5.1.1 Nuclear form types

A sentence nucleus is composed of clauses, either a single clause or clauses joined in various ways. According to their nuclear structures, sentences can be divided into four main types: simple sentence, juxtaposed sentence, conjunctive sentence and merged sentence.

5.1.1.1 Simple sentence

A simple sentence (also called one-clause sentence) consists of just a single independent clause manifesting a simple statement. It may also be an elliptical form of a longer sentence.

$Sent_{sim}$ = Main Cl : Cl

Examples

1. nak pen kasɨ̀m kúk
   he be thief (person+steal)
   'He is a thief.
2. katáːk heːn kóŋ móːj páːl tiː
   tongue it long one palm hand
   'Its tongue is as long as the length of one's palm.'
3. móːt naːn kɔ́h ʔiːn huːm tàːk
   younger sibling yet not get bathe water
   'The younger sibling hasn't taken a bath yet.'

5.1.1.2 Juxtaposed sentence

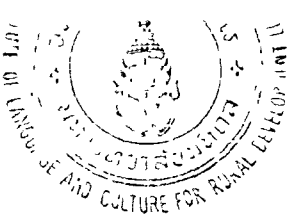
A juxtaposed sentence consists of two or more clauses (frequently two) simply placed side by side without any conjunctions or linkers. Both of clauses may be main clause, or one of them is a subordinate clause. The implied relationship between the clauses may be contrastive, conditional, resultant and other. Further information will be found in discussion of nuclear relationship types (Sec. 5.2.1).

$$Sent_{jux} = Cl_1 \parallel Cl_2{}^{n}$$

Examples

1. khlìŋ lakɨ́ː ‖ móːt pèc
   elder sibling thin younger sibling fat
   'The elder sibling is thin, but the younger sibling is fat.' (contrastive)
2. nak kɔ́h jip ràp ‖ chan kɔ́h ceːw
   he not come receive I not go
   'If he doesn't come to get me, I will not go.' (conditional)
3. nak jip kɔ́h ʔiːn ‖ nak kɔ́h sabaːj
   he come not can he not well/happy
   'He is not able to come because he is sick.' (reason)

Kasong procedure text style has a very high frequency of juxtaposed sentences. Strings of successive clauses without linkers express the sequential relationship. Intonation breaks play an important role in indicating sentence boundaries. For example:



ʔóːc lakóː laméc ceːw chèː jòh kɔ jòk ʔɨh tàːk
take glutinous milled rice go soak finish then lift give water

pɔ́h ($Sent_1$) ʔóːc jip chɔ́ːk ʔóːc jip katɨ́k pen makràː ($Sent_2$) ʔóːc
half-dry take come pound take come sift be rice flour take

tàːk jip saj khawkliŋ pon saː jòh tɔ̀ː pen kɔ́ːn tɔ̀ː khanom
water come put roll mix reci.mk finish do be lump do sweetmeats

thiən ($Sent_3$) tɛ́h rùːl khúːt ʔóːc jip khuə saj namʔóːj tɔ̀ː sáj
Thian split coconut scrape take come roast put molasses do filling

saj makràː ($Sent_4$) ʔóːc khláː rúːl ʔóːc jip pók ($Sent_5$) pók jòh
put rice flour take leaf Khum take come wrap wrap finish

ʔóːc ceːw niŋ ($Sent_6$).....
take come steam

'Take glutinous milled rice to soak (in the water) after that take it out to drain ($Sent_1$). Pound it, then separate husks to make rice flour ($Sent_2$). Put the water into rice flour and mix together, after that make lumps of rice flour to make Khanom Thian ($Sent_3$). Peel the coconut and grate its meat off and then fry coconut mixed with molasses to make the filling and put it into the lump of rice flour ($Sent_4$). Take Khum leaf and wrap (lump of rice flour which have filling) ($Sent_5$). After Khanom is wrapped, take it to steam ($Sent_6$).....'

Note: $Sent_1$, $Sent_6$ composed of clauses conjoined by linker /jòh kɔ/, /jòh/ respectively. $Sent_2$, $Sent_4$ and $Sent_5$ occur in juxtaposed forms. In $Sent_3$, the first and the second clause are linked without the linker followed by the third clause with a linker /jòh/.

5.1.1.3 Conjunctive sentence

A conjunctive sentence is composed of two or more clauses conjoined by conjunction. Clauses may be linked by a single conjunction occurring before or between clauses, or by a set of co-ordinate conjunctions occurring before each clause to express various semantic relationships.

1. $Sent_{conj} = Conj + Cl_1 \parallel Cl_2$
2. $Sent_{conj} = Cl_1 + Conj + Cl_2$
3. $Sent_{conj} = Conj_1 + Cl_1 + Conj_2 + Cl_2$

Conjunctive sentences are frequently in the first or second form, seldom in the third form above.

Examples

1. thá: ja:ŋ ròt kɔ́h pɛc kɔ́h ʔi:n kɨl le:w
   if rubber car not broken not get stay fp.
   'If the tyre has not burst, I won't have to stay home.'
2. nak samɔ̀: tɔ̀: ka:n ʔi:n nak rùəj
   he diligent do work then he rich
   'He works very hard, so he is rich.'
3. phɔ: tamluət ce:w pòn nak kɔ ʔɔ:k jip
   when police go pass beyond he then out come
   'When the police went away, he came out.'

5.1.1.4 Merged sentence

A merged sentence contains two or more clauses shared a clause constituent and refer to close-knit actions, merging the two clauses into a single sentence. The verb of first clause is usually an action verb, the verb of second clause refers to the purpose or result of the first action. The actions of both clauses are equally important. Two clauses have the same subject. This sentence type can be diagrammed as:

$Sent_{mer} = S\ [P_1\ (O)\ \ P_2\ (O)\ ]$

Examples

1. miŋ khut lum cho:l pò:t
   mother dig hole plant corn
   'Mother makes a hole to plant corn.'
2. pùək nak cák kana:j ʔó:c plɔ̀:k
   group he shoot elephant take tusk
   'They killed an elephant (by shooting) to get tusks.'

3. ʔiŋ lɔːŋ sóːl tuŋ chaː
I will boil egg eat
'I will boil an egg to eat.'

4. nak jɤ́ː tiː lɔːŋ tuː kheːn
she raise hand will hit child
'She raises up a hand to hit her child.'

Occasionally, two clauses in a merged sentence may have different subjects. If the subjects are different, the subject of the second clause is the object of the first clause and the first clause is usually a passive construction. For example:

5. theːm nîh tɔ̀ːn kát tɔ̀ː ʔúh
tree pass.mk fell do firewood
'The trees were cut down (by someone) to make firewood.'

Some complex merged sentences consist of more than two clauses. They may contain purposive or causative meanings as in:

6. miŋ súən saló:p ʔîh kheːn saj
mother sew shirt give child wear
'Mother sews a shirt for the child.'

7. nak ʔóːc ŋin ʔîh miŋ khuːŋ kep ʔɔːŋ
he take money give mother father keep keep
'He gave his parents the money to keep.'

5.1.2 Complexities and compounding

5.1.2.1 Embedding

One clause of a sentence may be structurally embedded inside another, often in the form of a relative clause (as discussed in section 2.1.2.3). The relative embedding modifies the subject or object.

1. samkhin kamlaŋ kɛːm máːk ten ɲaːj kasɔ̀ːŋ ʔiːn
woman aux. chew betel that speak Kasong can
'That woman who is chewing betel can speak Kasong language.'

2. nak ceːw cɔ̀ːp samlɔ̀ːŋ ʔiːn saŋin hɤ́ːj
she go like man have wife already
'She loves a man who has got married.'

3. samlɔ̀:ŋ jip jak ʔa:sí: nak pen krù:
man come when yesterday he be teacher
'The man who came yesterday is a teacher.'

Some sentences contain the embedded clause in the main clause required by some verbs of perception, cognition or communication, for examples

4. ʔiɲ tɔ́:ŋ lawa:j lɔ:ŋ jip wîc
I afraid tiger will come again
'I am afraid that the tiger might appear again.'

5. chan tàŋ khanéːw khlák tàːk
I see child fall water
'I saw a child fell into the water.'

6. ʔiɲ saŋ nak ɲa:j dəːm pòː
I hear she speak story you
'I heard her talk about you.'

7. chan lîc nak kɔ́h kɨl toŋ
I expect she not stay house
'I expect that she isn't at home.'

8. nak khiːpot mɔːŋ chan lîc nak ceːw talaːt
he lie with I that he go market
'He lied to me that he went to the market.'

9. chan ɲa:j lîc kasɨm diː diː kɔ́h náː hɔ́ːc ləːj
I say that person good good not ought die fp.
'I said that a good person shouldn't have been dead.'

5.1.2.2 Subordination and coordination

Structural conjoining usually manifests semantic compounding. In Kasong language, chaining of sentences may be subordination or coordination.

Subordination

Structural subordination usually has a nucleus with the form of an independent clause plus a subordinate clause that cannot stand by itself (dependent form). Subordinate clause tends to be marked by any conjunctions such as /thâ:/ 'if', /ʔiːn/ 'then', /mɔːŋ/

'because of' or by juxtaposition and the subordinate conjunction stays with the subordinate clause together when the main clause is deleted. The examples are provided as follows.

1. ʔaj ʔɔ́:t kɔ́h ce:w lo:ŋliən thá: khliŋ he:n kɔ́h ce:w mo:ŋ
   address Oeth not go school if elder sibling it not go also
   'Oeth doesn't go to school if his elder brother doesn't go with him.'
2. sa: chɨ́h hɔ́:j lə:j plà:ŋ kɔ́h di:
   we old already so ear not well
   'We are old so our ears are bad (to be hard of hearing).'

Coordination

In coordination both clauses have independent forms. Coordination is often the manifestation of semantic compounding and generally formed by juxtaposition or by conjunction /mo:ŋ/ 'and', /hi:/ 'or' or /tɛ:/ 'but'. The examples are provided as follows.

1. chan jip tɔ́:j nak jip srɛ́:ŋ
   I come before he come after
   'I came first but he came later '
2. ʔawan nak ce:w phlin mé:l mo:ŋ thɔ́:c thíŋ
   today he go to fish fish and seek bamboo shoot
   'Today, he goes fishing and looks for young bamboo shoots.'

5.1.3 Peripheral elements

All elements of sentences beyond the nuclear part are considered as periphery. A sentence periphery may include such things as vocatives, exclamations, introductory adverbials, and final particles*. Time and location setting are also often found in a sentence periphery. In a one-clause sentence there is no contrast between clause and sentence periphery.

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*According to Longacre (1964), these are outer periphery which can be elided. The inner periphery includes such things as Time and Location which exponents generally convey background or fill-in information and may inflect on verb.

5.1.3.1 Vocative

Vocatives are personal names or kinship terms or both (a kinship term followed by a personal name) used for starting a conversation or addressing a person. They occur either before or after a clause or independently.

Examples

1. lɔ:ŋ ce:w hĭ: kɔ́h ce:w ʔaj thɔ:j
   will go or not go address Thoy
   'Will you go or not, Thoy?'
2. miŋ ʔan khɛ:w líc mpì:
   mother this call that what
   'Mother, what is this called?'
3. ce:w mɔ:ŋ sa: hɔ́: lu:ŋ suən ce:w bɔ:raj
   go together ques. uncle Suan go Borai
   'Do you want to go with me, Uncle Suan? I will go to Borai.'

5.1.3.2 Exclamation

Exclamations are mainly 'initial particles' used for expressing speaker's feeling or attitude towards something. Occasionally, the exclamation is used when the speaker wants to change a topic. They usually precede the clause or sentence but may occur independently.

Examples

1.A: mot chî: ba:t
   lose how much clf. (baht)
   'How much did you spend?'
   B: ho: mot pàn
   Oh lose thousand
   'Oh! (I) spent about thousand baht.' (unexpected)
2. ʔo:j ʔiŋ kat tóh temthi: hó:j
   Ouch I hurt head extremely fp.
   'Ouch! I have a severe headache.' (pain)

3. ʔoː caːŋ rɔ̀t nak soːn
hmm employ car he send
'Hmm! ...hire a car to take you to (the temple).' (perceptive)

4. ʔəː tɔ̀ː kapɔːŋ jaːŋ diː nɔː
aye do can (n.) well fp.
'Aye! You made a good (tobacco)can.' (approval)

5. ʔəː nɔː kʰáːŋ ʔan bɔ́ː
hey stay overnight here ques.p.
'Hey! Do you stay overnight here?' (change topic)

Other exclamations used by the Kasong speaker are mainly similar to those in Thai language.

5.1.3.3 Introductory adverbial

Introductory adverbials are used for starting a story or some explanation. They usually precede the clause.

Examples

1. sréːŋ pòː máːj tɔ̀ː jaːŋ ten wíc
after you don't do like that again
'In the future you should not do that again.'

2. tɔ̀ː huːtîː téh tuŋ lɛ́ːk saj caːm
do first split egg chicken put bowl
'First, break a hen's egg and put it into a bowl.'

3. kʰáŋ tɔ́ːj chan cɔːj nak tɔ̀ː
time before I help she do
'Last time, I helped her to do (something).'

4. tɔːn ʔan nak lɔːŋ ɲaːj rɨ̂əŋ ....
now he will speak story
'Now he will talk about....'

5.1.3.4 Time and location setting

Like clauses, sentences may also have time and location setting as peripheral elements. In a one-clause sentence, Time and Location function as both clause and

sentence periphery, but in a conjoining sentence they may contrast between clause and sentence. That is, it is the time or location for all of the clauses of the sentence, or just for one of clauses in the sentence.

Time and location setting may occur before or after the clause or sentence nucleus.

Examples

1. nak saŋát ʔíh ʔiɲ ce:w thɔ́:c nak jak ba:n muəŋ tɔ:n saŋì:la:
   he order give I go seek he at Ban Muang when evening
   'He told me go to see him at Banmuang village in the evening.'
   (Time of both clause and sentence)
2. ʔawan chan kɔ́h ʔi:n ce:w nì: kɔ́h ʔajpì: kìl toŋ
   today I not get go where not who stay house
   'Today, I cannot go anywhere because nobody stays home.'
   (Time of all clauses of sentence)
3. jak ʔa:sì: nak ce:w thɔ́:c thiɲ ré: prì: ʔawan nak ce:w wíc
   yesterday he go seek bamboo shoot in forest today he go again
   'Yesterday he went to look for bamboo shoots in the forest and today he goes again.'
   (Time and Location of each clause in a sentence)
4. khu:ɲ plà:k ʔúh miɲ tók khlá: se:w tamɔ́:n toŋ
   father split firewood mother pull vegetable behind house
   'Father is chopping the firewood and mother is picking vegetables at the back of the house.'
   (Location of all clauses of sentence)

5.2 Semantic components

The semantic components in sentences will be described under the relationships inside nuclei of sentences (nuclear relationship types) and sentence modalities (illocution and psychological mood).

5.2.1 Nuclear relationship types

Twelve types of sentences according to the semantic relationships between their nuclear elements include one-action, additive (coordinative), conditional, contrastive, alternative, correlative, purposeful, sequential, covarying, equivalent, cause-result, and deductive sentences.

5.2.1.1 One-action sentence

An one-action sentence is normally a sentence with simple form describing a single action or state. Its sole clause has own grammatical independence without having another clause depending on it or correlating with.

Examples

1. mɛ̀ːw cɔ̀ːp lɔ́h kapɔ̀ːk toŋ
   cat like climb roof house
   'The cat often climbs up the roof of house.'
2. miɲ kamlaŋ chɔ́ːk lúk namphrík
   mother aux. pound pepper paste
   ' Mother is making chili paste.'
3. pòː lɔːŋ ceːw kuŋtheːp chîː ʔaːw
   you will go Bangkok how many day
   ' How many day will you go to Bangkok?'

5.2.1.2 Additive (Coordinative) sentence

An additive (or coordinative) sentence presents two or more parallel actions or events with the additive relationship. Two or more clauses of an additive sentence are conjoined by having a conjunction /mɔːŋ/ 'and' between them. In some case, an additive sentence is in juxtaposed form. Sentence may have the same subject throughout or have different subjects.

$Sent_{add}$ = $Statement_1$ - $Statement_2$

Examples

1. tih toŋ chan tɔ̀ː nàː mɔːŋ choːl ŋɔ́ʔ
   at house I do paddy field and plant rambutan
   'My family grows rice and plants for the rambutan.'

2. khu:ŋ ce:w tóh ŋè:t khlap jip saŋí:la:
father go very early morning return come evening
'Father left very early in the morning and came back in the evening.'

3. jak ʔa:sí: nak ce:w rù:c ma:l ʔawan nak ce:w wíc
yesterday he go clear field today he go again
'Yesterday he went to clear the field and today he has gone again.'

4. nak ʔa:n naŋsi: mɔ:ŋ hɔ́:p ce:w mɔ:ŋ
he read book and eat go also
'He is reading the book while eating rice.'

Two clauses may be placed together contributing this type of relationship by the used of the marker /mɔ:ŋ/ 'too, also'.

5. chan thim kloŋ thu: toŋ mɔ:ŋ
I cook rice rub house also
'I cooked rice and scoured the floor.'

6. miŋ ce:w phlin mé:l chan kɔ ce:w mɔ:ŋ
mother go to fish fish I then go too
'Mother went fishing and I went too.

5.2.1.3 Conditional sentence

A conditional sentence expresses a circumstance or conditional cause and its consequence. Clauses may be linked by having a conjunction /thá:/ 'if' before the conditional clause or by juxtaposition.

$Sent_{con}$ = Condition – Consequence

The normal order of the conditional sentence elements is Condition-Consequence, but it can also be in the order of Consequence-Condition. For the latter case, the conditional clause is always introduced by a conjunction /thá:/.

Examples

1. thá: ʔi:n tá:l kra:ŋ khuj ce:w ʔi:n lɨ̌əj nɔ:n
if get drink liquor talk go get continuously fp.
'If I drink liquor, I can talk all the time.'

2. ʔiɲ lɔːŋ ceːw thá: pòː ceːw mɔːŋ ʔiɲ
I will go if you go with I
'I will go if you go with me.'

3. (thá:) pòː tàŋ nak jip srɔ́ːŋ ʔiɲ mɔːŋ naː
(if) you see he come tell I with fp.
'If you see him come (here), please tell me.'

In addition, the use of a preverbal conjunction as in the following example also contributes to this type of semantic relationship.

4. pòː kɔ́h ceːw thɔ́ːc mɔ̀ː pòː kɔ kɔ́h phíːt
you not go seek doctor you then not get well
'If you don't go to see the doctor, you will not get well.'

5.2.1.4 Contrastive sentence

The contrastive sentence presents two statements having contents which are in contrast. It may be marked by a medial conjunction /tɛː/ between two clauses conjoined or both occur in juxtaposition. The latter seem to be frequently used.

$Sent_{con}$ – State – Contrast State

Examples

1. khlìɲ kɨ́h tóh ŋèːt mɔ́ːt thɛːk saŋíː rɔ̀ː
elder sibling get up very early morning younger sibling sleep late morning
'The elder sibling wake up very early in morning, but the young sibling wake up late.'

2. chan sriː nak nak kɔ́h srɔ́ːŋ
I ask he he not tell
'I asked him but he did not tell (me).'

3. ʔiɲ hiw tɛː kɔ́h péː chaː
I hungry but not want eat
'I am hungry but I don't want to eat.'

The use of a preverbal conjunction may also contributes to this type of sentence as in:

4. nak kɔ́h ʔi:n ŋɨn nak kɔ saba:j caj
he not have money he then happy mind
'Even though he doesn't have any money, he is happy.'
5. miŋ nak há:m nak kɔ ce:w
mother he forbid he then go
'Even though his mother told him not to go, but he went.'

5.2.1.5 Alternative sentence

An alternative sentence composes of two or more clauses presenting two or more alternate actions or states in a given situation. It is always marked by a medial conjunction /hɨ:/ 'or' between clauses. If there are more than two clauses conjoined in an alternative sentence, the conjunction usually occur only before the last clause.

$$Sent_{Alt} = Alternative_1 - Alternative_2^{n}$$

Examples

1. pò: lɔ:ŋ cha: hɨ: pò: lɔ:ŋ thɛ:k
you will eat or you will sleep
'Do you want to eat or want to sleep?'
2. pò: lɔ:ŋ ce:w hɨ: kɔ́h ce:w ta:m caj pò:
you will go or not go at will you
'Whether you will go or not is up to you.'
3. nak jɨp ʔɔ́:c nɔ́:n hɨ: pò: ʔɔ́:c ce:w ʔɨ́h nak
he come take self or you take go give he
'Did he come to take it by himself or did you take (it) to him?'

In the speech situation, the conjunctive marker that links some contrast between positive and negative alternative choices can be omitted. In several times that the speaker expresses a force, on conjunction is used.

4. pò: lɔ:ŋ ce:w kɔ́h ce:w
you will go not go
'Will you go or not?'

5.2.1.6 Correlative sentence

A correlative sentence expresses two or more actions or events which correlate each other. This type of relationship is signaled by conjunction like 'then', 'so' or 'so that' in English. Kasong usually mark it by a conjunction /ʔiːn/ 'then' before the correlative clause.

$Sent_{cor}$ = Event Grounds – Correlative Event

Examples

1. nak thuː ʔiːn ceːw huːm tàːk
   he hot then go bathe water
   'He feels so hot that he goes to take a bath.'
2. nak samòː tòː kaːn ʔiːn nak rùəj
   he diligent do work then he rich
   'He works so diligently that he is rich.'
3. saː plàːŋ kɔ́h diː ʔiːn saŋ mɔ́ːj khaːŋ
   we ear not well then hear one clf.
   'Our ears are bad, so we can hear only from the side of our ears.'

The correlative sentence may be complex. After two events have been stated, the result of both is given.

4. muː hɛːŋ kəːt jak ʔan ták jak ʔan ʔiːn ràk jak ʔan
   group we born here big here then love here
   'We were born and brought up here, so we love it here.'

5.2.1.7 Purposeful sentence

A purposeful sentence expresses an action and its purpose. The action is usually a transitive or motion clause.

$Sent_{pur}$ = Previous Action – Expected State (Purpose)

More examples can be found on merged sentences. Purpose is usually a reduced clause. If the Actor/Subject is the same as in the action clause, it is omitted.

1. saŋin kɨl toŋ liəŋ kheːn
   wife stay house feed child
   'The wife stays home to look after her child.'

2 nak ce:w thác thé:m rakam tɔ̀: sanɨ́p toŋ
he go cut trunk zalacca do lid/wall house
'He goes to cut the zalacca trunks to make the wall of a house.'

3. khu:ŋ ce:w nà: ce:w kɛ́:w ha:l
father go paddy field go reap paddy
'Father goes to the farm to harvest the rice.'

In the following examples, the word /ʔi:n/ 'get', /ʔɨ́h/ 'give', /ʔɔ:ŋ/ 'keep' occurs in the purposive clause implying the meaning of 'in order to'.

4. pò: tɔ́:ŋ cha: khanam thùk ʔa:w ʔi:n phí:t
you must eat medicine every day get get well
'You need to take medicine everyday in order to get well.'

5. ʔiŋ tá:l kra:ŋ ʔɨ́h ʔi:n rɛ̀:ŋ tɔ̀: ka:n
I drink liquor give have strength do work
'I drink liquor so that I have strength.'

6. kasɨ́m tɔ́:j kasɨ́m na:ŋ liəŋ khamú:c kɔ́h ʔɨ́h khe:n chu: kat
person before person old feed spirit not give child grandchild hurt
'People in the old days make an offering to the spirit to protect their children from illness.'

7. nak tɔ̀: khanom ʔɔ:n tɔ:k pà:ŋ
she do sweets keep sell tomorrow
'She makes sweets to sell tomorrow.'

Certain constructions conveying benefic meaning belong to this type of relationship as in:

8. miŋ ce:w ʔó:c kloŋ ʔɨ́h chó: cha:
mother go take rice give dog eat
'Mother goes to take rice to feed the dog.'

5.2.1.8 Sequential sentence

A sequential sentence presents two or more temporally ordered actions or events It has solely temporal linkage, without logical or causative relationship. The normal order of element of the sequential sentence is:

$Sent_{seq}$ = Prior Action – Subsequent Action ^{n}

That is, a Prior Action plus one or more Subsequent Actions, each of these position is filled by a clause, usually with a sentence conjunction (See 4.2.1.11.2). The Subsequent Action indicates an action or event which may start at that point or may have started earlier but with continuing or later results.

The conjunctions used in the sequential sentence are usually /kɔ/ 'then' or /ʔiːn/ 'then'. In many cases the word /jɔ̀h/ 'finish' occur as linker signifying the completion of the previous action and its temporal relation to the following action. It may be used together with a preverbal conjunction /kɔ/ or solely.

Examples

1. hɔ́ːp jɔ̀h heːn kɔ thɛːk
   eat finish it then sleep
   'After it has eaten, it sleeps.'
2. khuːɲ hɔ́ːp kloŋ jɔ̀h ceːw tɔ̀ː kaːn
   father eat rice finish go do work
   'When the father finished eating, he went to work.'
3. phɔː paːŋ heːn lalúk kɔ pen phliː
   when flower it fall then be fruit
   'After its flower has fallen, here come the fruit.'
4. paː chaː máːk jɔ̀h ʔiːn ɲaːj míː
   aunt (I) eat betel finish then speak tale
   'When I finish chewing betel, I will then tell a tale.'
5. sóːl tàːk ʔɨ́h pùh ʔiːn dak méːl loŋ ceːw
   to boil water give boil then put fish down go
   'Heat the water until it boils then put fish in the water.'

In some cases, there are no conjunctions or linker between clauses. The actions or events are juxtaposed in temporal order, especially verbs referring to similar action as an example below. A pause is required between clauses.

6. ʔóːc méːl jip thác kɨ̀l tɔ̀ː saːŋ plàːk puŋ
   take fish come cut fin do scale split stomach
   'Bring a fish, cut the fin, scale it, and split open the stomach.'

7. ʔóːc katah táŋ plèːw saj pɨ́h
take pan set up fire put oil
'Take a pan and set it on the stove, then put the oil into it.'

In some cases the meaning of certain words expressing by adverb of time indicates the temporal sequence.

8. ʔɨ́h khuːn miŋ hóːp tóːj hɛːŋ hóːp sréːŋ
give father mother eat before we eat after
'Let our parents eat rice first then we will eat.'

9. nak ceːw soːn kheːn tóːj ʔiːn ceːw maːl
he go send child before then go field
'He takes his child (to somewhere) after that he go to the plantation.'

10. sréːŋ nak ceːw chan nak ceːw kuŋtheːp wɨ̀c
after he go Canthaburi he go Bangkok again
'After he had gone to Canthaburi, he went to Bangkok.'

The Subsequent Event sometimes precedes the Prior Event. In this case, the word /jɔ̀h/ 'finish' is the linker between the two events and always occur in the second clause (Prior event).

11. miŋ ceːw nàː thɨm kloŋ jɔ̀h
mother go paddy field cook rice finish
'Mother goes to the farm after she has already cooked rice.'

5.2.1.9 Covarying sentence

The covarying sentence describes two events whose intensities of action vary together. It relates two clauses by a conjunction pair /jɨ́ŋ...jɨ́ŋ/ 'the more... the more' like in Thai language indicating that a conditioned variable follows a free variable.

$Sent_{cov}$ = Free Variable – Conditioned Variable

If both clauses have the same subject, it is named only in the first clause. And if the subject is obviously understood, it will be deleted in both clauses.

Examples

1. jɨ́ŋ chɨ́h jɨ́ŋ wiŋ
more old more forget
'The older (we) are, the more absent-minded (we) become.'

2. pò: jíŋ ták jíŋ ja:ŋ miɲ

you more big more like mother

'The more you grow up, the more you look like your mother.

Occasionally, the preverbal conjunction /kɔ/ is used to link this type of relationship as in:

3. ɲa:j ká:p kɔ bɔ́:p ká:p

speak many then tired many

'The more (I) speak, the more tired (I) will become.'

It is noticeable that the pattern of the covarying sentence is the same as Thai. It probably is borrowed from the Thai language.

5.2.1.10 Equivalent sentence

An equivalent sentence contains two or more clauses expanding the description of one action or state. The restatement clause may vary from a strict repetition to a loose paraphrase sentences sometimes adding more specific detail to the theme. Though the form changes, the situation being described remains the same.

$Sent_{equ}$ = *Action – Restatement*

There is no overt marker for this type of relationship. The two clauses are juxtaposed. Normally the subjects of the two clauses are the same. Sometimes, the subject in the second clause does not appear because it is obviously understood.

Examples

1. mé:l na:n rò:j (he:n) na:n kɔ́h hó:c

fish yet alive (it) yet not die

'The fish is still alive, it hasn't died yet.'

2. nak thɛ:k jak ʔan nak kɔ́h klap toŋ

he sleep here he not return house

'He will stay overnight here, he doesn't return back home.'

3. ʔiɲ kɨl toŋ ko: ko: kɔ́h ʔi:n tɔ̀: mpì:

I stay house empty empty not get do what

'I stay idly at home. I do nothing.'

4. he:n tɔ:n cák tɔ:n cák mɔ:ŋ khamsana:
it pass.mk shoot pass.mk. shoot with arrow
'It was shot. It was shot by an arrow.'

5.2.1.11 Cause-Result sentence

A cause-result sentence refers to the resultant event and its cause. It may be syntactically marked by the conjunction /prɔ̀h/ 'because' or /mɔ:ŋ/ 'because' between two clauses indicating that the first clause contains an effect or consequence of the cause or the reason expressed in the second clause.

$Sent_{cau\text{-}res}$ = Result – Cause/Reason

The Kasong speakers tend to use more a Thai loan conjunction /prɔ̀h/ than /mɔ:ŋ/. Form my data, the use of a conjunction /mɔ:ŋ/ is found only in some cause-result sentences that is spoken by some old people.

Examples

1. khané:w ja:m prɔ̀h tɔ:n tu:
children cry because pass.mk hit
'A child cries because he was hit.'
2. mù: hɛ:ŋ caŋ mɔ:ŋ tɔ: ka:n kla:ŋ tú:
group we black because do work middle hot
'We are dark because we work in the sun.'
3. mɔ́:t tɔ:n tu: prɔ̀h kɔ́h jɔ:m hɔ́:p kloŋ
young sibling pass mk hit because not allow eat rice
'The younger sibling was hit because he/she does not want to eat.'

In many cases, there are no conjunctions. Clauses are conjoined by juxtaposition as in:

4. nak jip kɔ́h ʔi:n nak kɔ́h saba:j
he come not can he not well
'He isn't able to came because he is sick.'
5. ʔiŋ kɔ́h ʔɔ́:c salɔ́:p ʔan he:n na:ŋ
I not take shirt this it old
'I don't want to take this shirt because it is old.'

6. ʔiŋ ceːw rùːc kɔ́h ʔiːn leːw tɔ́ːŋ nak cháp
I go clear not can fp. afraid he catch
'I can't go to clear (a forest/land) because I am afraid that the police will arrest me.'

The order of the cause-result sentence is usually Result-Cause, but it can also be in the order of Cause-Result. When Cause precedes Result, the resultant clause is introduced by /ləːj/ 'so that', /ʔiːn/ 'then'.

7. saŋíː rɔ̀ː ləːj kɔ́h ʔiːn ceːw nîː leːw
sun high so that not get go where fp.
'It is so late that I can't go anywhere.'

8. ʔiŋ wiŋ khraː ʔiːn jip kɔ̀ːj
I forget way then come slow
'Because I got lost (take the wrong way), I arrived late.'

5.2.1.12 Deductive sentence

The deductive sentence is a sequence of clauses which composed of a General Grounds, a Specific Grounds and Conclusion, usually in juxtaposed form.

$Sent_{ded}$ = General Grounds – Specific Grounds – Conclusion (Deduction)

The Specific Grounds may sometimes be not mentioned, however it can be understood from General Grounds (discussed in Sec. 5.3)

Examples

1. kasɨ́m chɨ́h kɔ́h ʔiːn rèːŋ jaːŋ kasɨ́m kamlɔ́h kasɨ́m
person old not have strength like person young man person
salɛːŋ ʔiŋ chɨ́h hɔ́ːj kɔ́h ʔiːn rèːŋ pen thammadaː
young women I old already not have power be natural
'The old are not as strong as the young. I am old now so I am not strong.'

2. kasɨ́m kasɔ̀ːŋ súk ɲeŋ keːn nak pen chɨə kasɔ̀ːŋ
person Kasong hair curly child she be lineage Kasong
ták liŋ khoŋ súk ɲeŋ jaːŋ saː
big on maybe hair curly like reci.mk

'Kasong people have curly hair. Her child is a Kasong descendant so he will probably have curly hair when he grows up.'

5.2.2 Sentence illocutions

The sentence may be considered in terms of illocutionary force (speech act), that is its function or truth value, in relation to the hearer. Three major kinds of sentences according to illocutionary types are declarative, imperative, interrogative, and two minor kinds are social and self-expression. They are different from one another in the expected response or reaction and also in the syntactic structure and intonation pattern. However, the intonation that is attached to the sentence as a whole is slightly different in each sentence illocutionary type.

5.2.2.1 Declarative

The declarative type is used in the expression of statements without expecting response or answer from the hearer. The assurance of a statement ranges from certain to uncertain, regarding the sentential relation as a whole. Its intonation pattern is generally a mid level with a slightly fall contour at the end of the sentence (simple, complex or conjoining construction).

Examples

1. cɔ̀ːsóːk káːt lɔːŋ ˙ piɲ hóːj
   mango nearly will ripe fp.
   'The mango is nearly ripen now.'

2. ʔiɲ naːn kɔ́h than phlaŋ toŋ khamáː kɔ khlák
   I yet not timely arrive house rain then fall
   'I has arrived home yet, the rain started before.'

3. tháː chan rùəj chan jɔ̀k toŋ laŋ ták ʔɨ̀h miɲ khuːɲ
   if I rich I lift house clf. big give mother father
   'If I am rich, I will build a big house for my parents.'

This sentence type is basic from the standpoint that it is more frequent than others. In each sentence the speaker is performing a declarative act which concerns the entire sentence although the sentence contains another embedded construction (interrogative or imperative). For reported speech, there usually appears an optional word /lîc/ 'that' as in the example below.

4. nak sri: lîc pò: lo:ŋ ce:w hi: na:n (interrogative embedding)
he ask that you will go ques.(or yet)
'He asked, 'Will you leave, now?'

5.2.2.2 Imperative

An imperative sentence express a statement of desired action, whose force may vary from a mild wish to a strong command. It is used when the speaker expects an action response from the hearer. There are two kinds of imperative: positive imperative and negative imperative which is signaled by a negative word /má:j/ 'don't'. The use of final particles varies in degree of politeness and forcefulness. The rising or rise-falling intonation is over general imperative. Real commands always have the falling intonation accompanied with high pitch, great loudness.

The absence of the subject is normal for the imperative sentence because it is mainly direct speech.

Positive imperatives:

1. ce:w mo:ŋ sa: thəh
go together fp.
'Let's go together'

2. hó:h khane:n ?an
eat now this
'Eat now!'

3. kep cɔ̀ː káːl ʔíh chan mɔːŋ
pick hog plum give I also
'Please pick the hog plum for me.'

4. hɔ́ːp kloŋ makîc makîc ʔɔːɲ ʔíh ʔajteːw nak mɔːŋ
eat rice little little keep give another he also
'Eat a little rice and keep it for others.'

Negative imperatives:

1. máːj jaːm nah
don't cry fp.
'Don't cry!'

2. máːj ceːw móːj nóːn
don't go one self
'Don't go alone!'

3. thâː mɔ̀h khát máːj tóp naː
if mosquito bite don't slap fp.
'If the mosquito bites you, don't hit it.'

5.2.2.3 Interrogative

The interrogative type is used when the speaker wishes to know information or verification on a certain matter and expects to receive a reply from the addressee. The classification of interrogatives is based on the type of expected response into yes/no interrogative, content and alternative interrogatives. They are marked by question words with distinctive intonation.

Yes/no interrogatives ask about the assurance or reality of a statement. They are manifested by a yes/no question word (See 4.2.15) in the sentence final position and usually the rise falling or rising intonation at the end of sentence.

1. nak jip hi: na:n 'Has he arrived yet?'
   he come ques.(or yet)

2. chan tè:w pa: lɔ:ŋ tɔ:k hɔ́:
   I buy address will sell ques.
   'If I want to buy (it), will you sell (it) to me?'

3. nak ce:w tɔ̀: ka:n hɔ́:j ʔah
   he go do work already ques.
   'Has he already gone to work?'

Content interrogatives ask for information. They are formed by a content question word (See 4.2.1.15) in the position of the missing information in sentence. When the question word occurs in the final position, the sentence always has rising intonation. When the question occurs somewhere else the intonation is normally falling especially immediately after the question.

1. ʔajpì: tɔ̀: ca:m pɛ́c
   who do bowl broken
   'Who broke the bowl?'

2. nak jip jak kachi:
   she come at when
   'When did she arrive?'

3. pɔ̀: ʔi:n chí:m chí: mo:l
   you get bird how many clf.
   'How many birds have you got?'

Alternative interrogatives give the addressee two or more things to choose from and the speaker expect one of these choices as the addressee's reply. They are

marked by a conjunction /hi:/ 'or' between two clauses conjoined. The intonation of this type is generally rising-falling at the end of each alternative.

1. pò: lo:ŋ ce:w nó:n hi: lo:ŋ ce:w mo:ŋ nak
you will go self or will go with he
'Will you go by yourself or go with him?'

2. khlip hi: mó:t tò:n cháp
elder sibling or younger sibling pass.mk catch
'Is the elder sibling or the younger sibling arrested (by the police)?'

In some case, the alternative question can be variant to the yes/no or content type conveying the same received response, for example

pò: lo:ŋ ce:w hi: kɔ́h ce:w 'Will you go or not?'
you will go or not go

pò: lo:ŋ ce:w hi: hɔ́: 'Will you go?'
you will go ques.

The answer of both interrogatives may be /ce:w/ 'go (yes)' or /kɔ́h ce:w/ 'not go (no)'.

5.2.2.4 *Social expression*

A social expression establishes, maintains or terminates a communication relationship between the interlocutors. It includes greeting, response, welcoming, farewell, etc., which are generally and conventionally accepted.

The structure and intonation pattern for this group cannot be clearly established. They do not seem to be different from those of the aforementioned sentence types. Some have interrogative and other declarative forms. For reason that makes the social expression belong to a separate category is its function in the language. It is used for particular situation mentioned above and it are limited in number.

Greeting: There is no particular pattern used in greeting. Kasong people normally greet each other by asking the question 'Where did you go?', 'Where are you going?' or sometimes 'How are you?' without seriously desiring to know the answer. They express only greeting.

1. ce:w nì: jip 'Where did you go?'
   go where come

2. ce:w nì: 'Where are you going?'
   go where

3. saba:j di: ʔah 'How are you / Are you well?'
   well good ques.

The greeting form may also according to the situation. For example, when you see someone doing something, you greet him with the question as in:

4. tɔ̀: mpì: 'What are you doing?'
   do what

Leave-talking and Farewell: Typically this highlights the departure of the participants. Usually, they are:

1. ce:w hɔ́:j na:
   go already(fp.) fp.
   'I'm leaving now.'

2. klap tɔ́:j na: ʔɔ:ɲ jip wíc/plà:
   return before fp. keep come again/new
   'I'm leaving. I will come again.'

3. ce:w di: jip di: na:
   go well come well fp.
   'Have a safe trip.'

5.2.2.5 Self-expression

A self-expression is an expression of pensiveness, hesitation, understanding, discontent, malediction, pain, or other speaker's feeling addressed to nobody in particular. These expressions are usually manifested by exclamation words. The general intonation pattern of this type cannot be established because it involves many types of emotional feeling and situations. However, the expression of pensiveness usually occurs with level intonation and of pain with falling intonation.

Examples

1. ʔoːj kat khoːj
   Ouch hurt tooth
   'Ouch! (I) have a toothache.'

2. hoː nɨk ʔɔ̀ːk hɔ́ːj
   Oh think out fp.
   'Oh! I can remember now.'

3. ʔiɲ loːŋ ceːw diː hɨː hɔ́ː
   I will go well ques.
   'I go whether it will be good or not. (Should I go or not.)'

4. capkat m̩pìː nɔ pɛ́ːk liəkəːn
   sick what fp. strange very
   'What ails her? It is very strange.'

5. kɔ́h káh loːŋ ɲaːj m̩pìː naː
   not know will speak what fp.
   'I don't know what to say.'

5.2.3 Psychological moods

Sentences may represent the speaker's emotional involvement (mood) with his subject matter talked about. The speaker may be pleased or displeased, favorable or

unfavorable, surprised or bored, concerned or unconcerned, and the like. These moods may be manifested in various ways, by verbs, by particles, exclamations, full clauses etc.

(1) Pleasure

The degree of pleasure ranges from pleasing to displeasing.

1. di: hó:j nak jip ràp
   well fp. he come receive
   'It is good that he comes to get (me).' (pleased)
2. nak ʔíh hɛ:ŋ mó:j kilo: mó:j ba:t nak ʔi:n kɔ́:p kɔ́h ʔaw le:w
   he give we one kilogram one baht he get many not want fp.
   'He gives us one baht per kilogram (of rambutan) but he gets a lot money (from selling it), I don't want to do it for him.' (displeased)

(2) Surprise

The degree of surprise ranges from unexpected to expected.

1. ʔiŋ kɔ́h kìt lîc nak jip le:w le:w
   I not think that he come really really
   'I don't think that he will be really to come.' (unexpected)
2. té:t nak kɔ jip wîc
   momentarily he then come again
   'After a while, he probably comes again.' (expected)

(3) Concern

The degree of concern ranges from sympathy, pity, and involvement to unconcern or indifference.

1. ʔó:c kloŋ ʔíh he:n cha: thəh mít he:n
   take rice give it eat fp. pity it
   'Give rice to it, please. I pity it.' (pity)
2. nak pen ja:ŋnî: kɔ cha:ŋ pò: kɔ́h tɔ:ŋ jip srɔ́:ŋ
   he be how then whatever you not must come tell
   'Whether he is well or not should you not tell me (about him).' (unconcern)

(4) Admiration

The degree of admiration ranges from pride to shame.

1. ʔiɲ nóːn khəːj ceːw sróːŋ phaːsáː nak jak kuŋtheːp
   I self used to go tell language she at Bangkok
   'I myself used to go and teach her the language in Bangkok.'(pride)
2. khlɛ́ː nák ɲaːj kɔ́h tɔ̀ːn
   shame very say not right
   'I am very ashamed that (I) spoke incorrectly.' (shame)

(5) Hope

The degree of hope ranges from hope to despair.

1. hɛːŋ samɔ̀ː tɔ̀ː kaːn khoŋ ʔiːn ŋin jaːŋ nak maːŋ
   we diligent do work maybe have money like he some
   'If we work hard, we will probably get money like the others.'(hope)
2. ceːw thóːc mɔ̀ː tuə kɔ́h phîːt hóːj
   go seek doctor throughout not get well fp.
   'Even through I went to see the doctors everywhere, I still do not get well ' (despair)

5.3 Grammatical completeness

A sentence may be full, elliptical, or incomplete form. Shorter form usually serves as ellipsis of longer form when the context so allows. Ellipsis in a sentence involves the deletion of certain elements (subject, verb, object, the former condition or cause, etc.). Elements tend to be deleted under the circumstance that they are obviously understood and already known from the context or from general knowledge as in examples below.

1. ø kat thɛːk ø kɔ thɛːk ceːw ø kɔ́h thɛːk ø samɔ́ːk ŋaːl ceːw
   (you) sleepy (you)then sleep go (you) not sleep (you)wash face go
   'If you feel sleepy, you should go to sleep. If not, you should go to clean your face.' (deleted subject)

2. ø srɔ́:ŋ hɔ́:j kɔ́h ʔɨ́h ø jip
(I) tell already not give (you) come
'I have already told you not to come.'
(deleted subject and object)

3. kasɨ́m thùk nak tɔ:ŋ hɔ́:c mɔ̀: kɔ tɔ:ŋ hɔ́:c ja:ŋ sa:
person all clf. must die doctor then must die like reci.mk
'All men are mortal, so the doctor is mortal.'
(deleted Specific Grounds 'the doctor is a man')

Responses occur either as a full or a reduced sentence. In a lot of cases they are elliptical in the sense that they require a preceding context for their interpretation. For example:

A:	pɔ̀:	cha:	mpî:	'What are you eating?'	
	you	*eat*	*what*		
B:	ʔiŋ	cha:	kapaŋ	'I eat the guava.'	(full sentence)
	I	*eat*	*guava*		
	cha:	kapaŋ		'...eat the guava.'	(reduced sentence)
	eat	*guava*			
	kapaŋ			'Guava.'	(reduced sentence)
	guava				

Incompleteness of sentence is not normal ellipsis, but is a result of a sudden breaking off in mid utterance by a pause to think or an interruption or by a pause intended to leave the hearer form his own conclusion, for example

4. pɔ̀: kɔ́h jip khanem ʔan pɔ̀: lɔ:ŋ tɔ̀:n .....
you not come now this you will pass. mk.
'If you don't come now, you will be ....'

There is breaking off in the final of a sentence. The speaker leaves the hearer for his own conclusion that what will happen to him if he does not come suddenly.

5.4 Transformation

Sentences, like clauses, can be transformed. Following is a sample of transforma tional forms of the sentence conditional root.

Root = /Condition: nak jip ràp - Result: khuːɲ lɔːŋ ceːw/

1. nak jip ràp khuːɲ lɔːŋ ceːw
   he come receive father will go
   'If he comes to get him, (my) father will go (with him).'
2. khuːɲ lɔːŋ ceːw thá: nak jip ràp
   father will go if he come receive
   '(My) father will go (with him), if he comes to get him.'
3. khuːɲ lɔːŋ ceːw ʔiːn nak jip ràp
   father will go then he come receive
   'Because (my) father wants to go, he came to get him.'

Formulas and functions:

1.	Cond – Res	General condition
2.	Res - thá: - Cond	Result emphasized
3.	Cause - ʔiːn - Res	Background

The declarative sentence may also be transformed to interrogative or imperative type.

4. thá: nak jip ràp khuːɲ lɔːŋ ceːw hiː hɔ́:
   if he come receive father(you) will go ques.
   'If he comes to get you, will you go (with him)?'
5. thá: nak jip ràp khuːɲ ceːw mɔːŋ nak
   if he come receive father go with he
   'If he comes to get you, you should go with him.'

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CHAPTHER VI

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

6.1 A summary of Kasong syntax

The syntactic description of Kasong language can be summarized as below.

6.1.1 Morphemes and words

Words in Kasong consist of one or more free morphemes or free morpheme with bound morpheme.

6.1.1.1 Word formations

There are five main types of word formation in Kasong: They are affixation, compounding, reduplication, expressive formation and onomatopoeia.

6.1.1.2 Word classes

Word classes in Kasong are divided depending on their functions in a phrase or clause. They are noun, pronoun, demonstrative, verb, auxiliary, adverb, adjective, numeral, classifier, preposition, conjunction, intensifier, negative word, time word, question word and particle.

6.1.2 Phrases

Phrases are divided into two major types: nominal phrase and verb phrase. Other minor types are numeral phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, prepositional phrase and time phrase.

6.1.3 Clauses

Basic clause types in Kasong can be divided into transitive, bitransitive, intransitive, descriptive, ambient, existential, equational, motion, locative, propulsion,quotative, quantitative and comparative clauses. Clause peripheral elements include time and location setting, instrument, accompaniment, beneficiary and final particle.

6.1.4 Sentences

Sentences in Kasong can be divided according to their structures into four main types: simple, juxtaposed, conjunctive and merged sentences. Twelve types of sentences are classified according to inter-clausal relationships are one-action, additive, conditional, contrastive, alternative, correlative, purposeful, sequential, covarying, equivalent, cause-result and deductive sentences. Also, sentences can be classified in term of illocutionary types. The major sentence illocutions are declarative, imperative and interrogative, and two minor types are social and self-expression.

6.2 Kasong as an endangered language

6.2.1 Social factors related to the decreasing of Kasong language use

A small group of Kasong descendants (only a few hundred) today is surrounded by the majority of Thais. They are rather scattered far away from each other. Some of them live separately very far from their group, so that language interaction among them and others is seldom. The Kasong have close contact with Thai people and some have intermarried with the Thai, Lao (northeastern Thai), or Khmer. The children have compulsory Thai education in school. All Kasong houses now have television. They also love to listen to Thai songs from the radio. Mass media influences their language use also. Kasong speakers become bilingual in Thai, the language of wider communication and the official language. Some former speakers have abandoned their mother tongue to speak only Thai.

There are about 50 Kasong persons who still be able to speak their language at the present, only one or two persons in a family. Most of the remaining speakers are elderly, over 55 years old (but Kasong is no longer used by all of the old people). Many speakers have already lost their language proficiency. They are more fluent in Thai. Some are 'semi-speakers' who can basically talk in Kasong language with short sentences. Only 10-15 speakers still have a good ability in their language. The young cannot speak their ethnic language at all. They use only Thai language in intra-group and inter-group communication. They refuse to learn language from their parents because they want to be like the majority who speak Thai. Some gave the reason that Kasong language does not have value in the communication and it is shameful to

speak this language. Some of my informants informed me that they were advised by the former teachers not to speak the language with the children otherwise the children could not learn to speak and read Thai well. The language was not passed on from older to younger generation for a long time. Though nowadays the elder couples who are both Kasong still actively use their mother tongue with each other, they do not speak it to their children. The speakers who have intermarriage shift from the use of Kasong to speak Thai in the home. They will use Kasong language when they meet other speakers in the village. However, most of Kasong speakers use Thai language more than their own ethnic language.

Because Kasong is used mostly by the elderly, it is likely to become extinct in a few generations when the elder generation disappears. The Kasong is now considered to be in the crucial situation of language endangerment. Suwilai (สุวิไล, 2543) classifies it in the group of languages which are severely endangered like Samre and Saoch, languages in the same branch and So (Thavung), Mrabri and Kansiw, languages in another branch of the same subfamily.

6.2.2 Linguistic impacts from the dominant language

From the syntactic description, Kasong language obviously illustrates the influence of Thai language especially in the use of the lexicon and syntactical features. At the same time, Kasong has lost a number of original characteristics which are found in other Mon-Khmer languages.

6.2.2.1 Traces of Mon-Khmer language characteristics in Kasong

The type of formation by affixation is considered to be sinificant feature in Mon-Khmer languages or family of Austroasiatic language. But in Kasong there is little affixation left and it is not productive anymore. Only a few affixes that still have clear meaning can be observed as shown in Table2 below.

Table 2 Kasong affixes

Affix	Function	Example word
/na-/	V → N	hɔ́:p 'to eat (rice)' → nahɔ́:p 'food'
/sam-/	Adj → N	khɨn 'female (animal)' → samkhɨn 'woman' klɔ̀:ŋ 'male (animal)' → samlɔ̀:ŋ 'man'

Table 2 Kasong affixes (cont.)

/la-/	Prep→V	liŋ 'on'	→ laliŋ 'turn up'
/khla:-/	Prep→Adv (of position)	liŋ 'on' pata: 'under' rè: 'in'	→ khla:liŋ 'above' → khla:pata: 'below' → khla:rè: 'inside' etc.
/-an-/, /-ap-/	V→ N_{inst}	khé:t 'to comb' ké:w 'to harvest' pók 'to wrap' kɔ́:k 'to carry on the shoulder' kók 'to gather'	→ khanéːt 'comb' → khanéːw 'sickle' → panók 'package' → kanɔ́:k 'shoulder pole' → kapòk 'hook with a long handle'

While the affixation process is no longer productive, compounding has become more predominant. From my observation, a Thai-Kasong compound word /khɔ:ŋ cha:/ (thing+eat) 'food (in general)' is often found in Kasong speech but the Kasong word /nahɔ́:p/ is rare. The causative prefix /ma^{R1}/ in the word /mahɔ́:c/ 'to kill' (Kunwadee (กุลวดี, 2539: 55)) is not found in my data. On the contrary, a Thai loan /khá:/ 'to kill' is found instead. I asked my informants Do you know the word /mahɔ́:c/, What is its meaning. They told that there is only a word /hɔ́:c/ "to die". However, the speakers prefer to explain a cause of death more than using Thai loan /khá:/.

In many Mon-Khmer languages the use of regular classifier is not always obligatory*. Khmu language, for instance, a speaker can say /ʔoʔ ʔah sɔ́ʔ pha:r/ or /ʔoʔ ʔah sɔ́ʔ pha:r to:/ (I+have+dog+two+classifier) 'I have two dogs' (Suwilai, 1987: 34). In Kasong only the singular number /mɔ́:j/ 'one' usually appears without classifier in a noun phrase (see Ex.1 below). The use of classifier after a plural number becomes obligatory (see Ex.2 below). In the same way, a lot of Thai loan classifiers are used in Kasong.

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*Dr. Suwilai Premsrirat who has worked on many Mon-Khmer languages is the source of this information (personal correspondence).

1	ʔiŋ	ʔi:n	chó:	mó:j	(mo:l)	(optional classifier)
	I	*have*	*dog*	*one*	*(clf.)*	
	'I have a dog.'					
2.	ʔiŋ	ʔi:n	chó:	pà:	mo:l	(obligatory classifier)
	I	*have*	*dog*	*two*	*clf.*	
	'I have two dogs.'					

6.2.2.2 Thai loanwords in Kasong

There are a lot of Thai loanwords in Kasong. About 1,000 words from 2,500 basic words I have initially collected are Thai loanwords. Thai loanwords are in a wide range of semantic fields of basic vocabulary used in daily life, such as verbs of movement, verbs of feeling and emotion, instrument nouns, time words, classifiers, kinship terms and some pronouns. However, these Thai loans may be different and phonologically modified to Kasong phonological system. The tone markers in Thai words usually do not appear when they are borrowed in Kasong. Some Thai loanwords are pronounced with the breathy voice quality, as in /jòk/ 'lift', /mɔ̀:/ 'doctor'. The final sound of some Thai loans is changed according to the Kasong final consonant system, as in /kata:l/ 'plank', /sa:c/ 'splash, throw'.

Examples provided below are some basic words that are Thai loans.

chan	'I'	má:k	'betel'
pa:	'aunt'	hiw	'hungry'
ba:j	'afternoon'	liəŋ	'to feed'
pàn	'thousand'	thu:	'to scrub'
laŋ	'classifier for house'	thi:	'to carry'
mù:	'group'	saj	'to put'
tì:	'area'	ràk	'to love'
nà:	'paddy field'	khaw	'enter'
niw	'finger'	loŋ	'down'

The equational verbs /pen/ 'to be', /kla:j pen/ 'to become', /cɨ:/ 'to be called, name' and quantitative verbs /lakhá:/ 'to cost', /ʔa:jú:/ 'to age' are all Thai loans.

Some modifiers for quality are also borrowed from Thai, such as /dok/ 'fertile', /ŋɔːm/ 'overripe', /kɔ̀ːj/ 'slow', /son/ 'naughty', /troŋ/ 'straight', /baːn/ 'bloom', /pèːŋ/ 'expensive', /puj/ 'fluffy', /chəh chɛh/ 'slushy', /saʔaːt/ 'clear', etc. For examples:

1. kheːn nak pen mɔ̀ː
   child he/she be doctor
   'His child is a doctor.'
2. phliː ŋɔːm ŋɔːm kɔ ŋáːm
   fruit overripe overripe then sweet
   'A very ripe fruit is then sweet.'
3. súk heːn naː puj puj
   hair it p. fluffy fluffy
   'Its hair is fluffy.'

In many cases both Kasong and Thai loan words occur together in some compounds or expressions as shown below. The bold letters are Kasong words.

khɔːŋ **céː**	'utensils'	tɛːŋ **kìp**	'to dress'
khɔːŋ **lìn**	'plaything, toy'	mɔ̀ːp **thít**	'to peep at'
lúk namprík	'chili paste'	**loːm** jíːm	'borrow'
théː niəw	'clay'	kìt **phlaŋ**	'think of'

Apart from content words, most of grammatical words used in Kasong are Thai loans. They are also used in the same way as those in Thai.

The prepositions that are Thai loans are /caːk/ 'from', /taːm/ 'along', /klaːŋ/ 'in the middle of', /khaːŋ/ 'beside', /khɔːŋ/ 'of', /tɔːn/ 'when, while', /kataŋ/ 'until', /taŋtɛː/ 'since', etc. (see 4.2.1.10).

1. heːn jip caːk nìː kɔ kɔ́h kháh
   it come from where then not know
   'I don't know where did it come.'
2. nak jip taŋtɛː ʔaːsíː hɔ́ːj
   he/she come since yesterday already
   'He came yesterday / He has been here since yesterday.'

The conjunctions that are Thai loan usually used are /thá:/ 'if', /tɛ:/ 'but', /prɔ̀h/ 'because', /hi:/ 'or', /kɔ/ 'then', /phɔ:...kɔ/ 'when...then', /lə:j/ 'so' (see 4.2.1.11)

1. thá: nak kɔ́h ɲa:j kɔ́h ʔajpì: kháh
   if he/she not speak not who know
   'If she doesn't tell, nobody will know.'
2. pɔ̀: lɔ:ŋ klap hi: pɔ̀: thɛ:k jak ʔan
   you will return or you sleep here
   'You will go back or you will stay overnight here.'

Most of auxiliaries expressing mode are borrowed from Thai, such as /tɔ́:ŋ/ 'must', /jɔ:m/ 'allow', /ná:/ 'should', /cɔ̀:p/ 'like', /klá:/ 'dare' (see 4.2.1.7).

1. he:n kɔ́h jɔ:m kɨ̌h
   it not allow get up
   'It doesn't get up.'
2. ʔiɲ cɔ̀:p khuj mɔ:ŋ nak
   I like talk with he/she
   'I prefer to talk with him.'

The final particle such as /thəh/, /sih/, /na:/, /nah/, /lé:w/ are Thai loans.

miɲ thɛ:k thəh
mother sleep fp.
'Mother, you sleep'

In some cases, the Kasong speakers use some Kasong words and Thai words interchangeably.

English Gloss	**Kasong**	**Thai loan**
'put'	dak	saj
'finish'	jɔ̀h	set
'friend'	kana:	klə:
'beautiful'	méɲ	súəj

The older generation Kasong speakers (over 50 years old) use a lot of Kasong words while the younger generation (less than 50 years old) tend to use more Thai loans (both content and grammatical words). I found that some grammatical words used by the older generation such as /than tɛ:/ 'just' are never used by the younger generation, but they use Thai loan instead.

	nak	than tɛ:	ce:w	
	he/she	*just*	*go*	
	nak	phiŋ	ce:w	(Thai loan /phiŋ/ 'just')
	he/she	*just*	*go*	

'He has just gone.'

6.2.2.3 Syntactical Change

Kasong has the Subject-Verb-Object word order as other Mon-Khmer languages. However, it is noticeable that the syntactic structures are very similar to those of Thai. A number of Thai grammatical words are used in Kasong language. So that the structure of clause or sentence in Kasong are the same as those Thai. Examples below provide the sentence in Kasong structure and Thai structure.

	nak	rò:	mó:j	khu:ɲ	(original structure)
	he	*high*	*one*	*father*	
or	nak	rò:	thaw	khu:ɲ	(Thai loan /thaw/)
	he	*high*	*equal*	*father*	

'He has the same height as his father.'

Both examples provided above are found in Kasong speech. The use of Thai loan /thaw/ in the latter example makes a clause which has the same structure as Thai.

The compound or complex sentences in Kasong tend to be more in the conjunctive form because the speaker prefers to use Thai loan conjunctions for expressing the inter-clausal relationships, especially among the younger generation. For example

pò:	hiw		ʔiɲ	kɔ́h	hiw	(juxtaposed form)
you	*hungry*		*I*	*not*	*hungry*	
pò:	hiw	tɛ:	ʔiɲ	kɔ́h	hiw	(conjunctive form)

'You are hungry, but I am not.'

The modifier pattern /jàːŋ/ added to adjective is common in Thai. This pattern is found also in Kasong language.

tɛːŋ kɨp jaːŋ méɲ ləːj naː
dress body beautiful fp.
'(You) dress beautifully.'

The word order in Kasong and Thai is different in some phrases as shown below.

Kasong	**Thai**	**English Gloss**
mat ŋaːl	nâː taː	'face'
eye face	*face eye*	
móːt khliɲ	phîː nóːŋ	'relatives, younger and
younger elder(sibling)	*elder younger (sibling)*	elder siblings'
saŋɨn klɔ̀ːŋ	phŭə miə	'husband and wife'
wife husband	*husband wife*	
saŋɨn kheːn	lûːk miə	'wife and children'
wife child	*child wife*	

However, Kasong speakers sometimes also have the reverse word order of the noun phrases above as /klɔ̀ːŋ saŋɨn/, /kheːn saŋɨn/, /khliɲ móːt/ which correspond to Thai, but not /ŋaːl mat/

Generally, modifiers in a Kasong noun phrase normally follow the Head noun ((HN+Mod). However, it is noticeable that the use of /kiː/ 'demonstrative particle' before the head noun has also been found in narrative text though it usually follows the head noun. This case reveals the vestige of former structure that has been modified to the same way as HN+Mod.

kiː waː (kɔ jip loŋ chaː khɔːŋ)
monkey (then come down eat thing)
'That monkey then came and ate something.'

lamɔːŋ kiː (hóːc)
grandfather (address) (die)
'That old man dies.'

It is seen that syntactical changes in Kasong are going towards Thai.

Conclusion : Kasong as an endangered language

Kasong is a small language living amidst the majority of Thai speakers. As a result, Kasong speakers now are bilingual in Thai and Kasong. The Kasong language itself has also undergone various changes. The finding in this study shows that the Kasong syntax has become more like Thai syntax though some Mon-Khmer characteristics can still be observed. Also, Thai loanwords are very prevalent, spreading beyond nouns and verbs into all parts of the lexicon including closed classes of grammatical words. Moreover, many Kasong speakers are more fluent in Thai than their ethnic language. The linguistic description and the sociolinguistic context of the Kasong indicate that Kasong is in the verge of the stage 8 of language endangerment according to Fishman's GIDS, where reversing language shift seems to be hopeless though some Kasong speakers have expressed their desire to preserve their language. However, my study on Kasong language might motivate them to take step toward in saving their language. At least I found that some children ask their grandparents to teach them the language after I went to study and collect Kasong language data. Further comparative study between Kasong and Chong or other Pearic language is needed and could lead to more precise language classification of the Pearic branch.

6.3 Suggestions for further research

1. Collect more data in Kasong language such as folktales, sayings, procedural expositions, plays, etc. in Kasong language for discourse analysis and for being linguistic evidence.
2. Comparative study between Kasong (Chong of Trat) and other Pearic languages, especially Chong (in Chanthaburi), Samre (spoken in the same district with Kasong) is needed in order to clarify the languages of the Pearic branch.
3. Compile Kasong dictionary.
4. Conduct an instrumental study for the suprasegmental features of Kasong
5. Study a sociocultural aspect of this language such as the use of Kasong language in different age groups, code switching of Kasong speakers between Thai and their ethnic language, etc.
6. Collect and record Kasong cultures beyond the language for written as Kasong ethnic encyclopaedia.

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APPENDIX

KASONG TEXTS

Some Kasong texts are provided in IPA phonemic transcription together with the English translation here. The following things are included:

1. Two dialogues
2. Four descriptive discourses
3. Three procedural expositions
4. Five folktales
   - A woman born from flower
   - The monkey
     The scorpion fish
   - Who was more powerful?
   - A dog bore human children

DIALOGUE DISCOURSES

(A) Waat went to Granny Sun's house to take me to meet Kasong speakers. Granny Sun was making a mat.

1	Waat	:	cé:	sa:w	cé:	ca:ŋ	ce:w	nì:			
			address	*Saw*	*address*	*Caang*	*go*	*where*			
2	Sun	:	ce:w	sɔ́:k	ce:w	toŋ	ʔaj	nan			
			go	*mango*	*go*	*house*	*address*	*Nan*			
3	Waa	:	nan	nì:							
			Nan	*which*							
4	Sun	:	nan	bɔ́:raj	na:	pò:	kɔ́h	cam	bɔ́:		
			Nan	*Boraı*	*fp.*	*you*	*not*	*remember*	*ques.*	*p.*	
5	Waat		tɔ̀:	ni:l	thɛ:k	ʔah					
			do	*mat*	*sleep*	*ques.*					
6	Sun		ʔə:								
			yes								
7	Waat		ce:w	pó:c	sa:l	tih nì:					
			go	*cut*	*Taey*	*where*					
8	Sun		pó:c	ta:m ʔan		ta:m ʔan		nɔ́:n	pó:c	mn̩pì:	ha:ŋ
			cut	*thıs area*		*thıs area*		*ref.mk*	*cut*	*what*	*far*
			ha:ŋ								
			far								
9	Waat		ce:w	pó:c	mó:j	nɔ́:n	ʔah				
			go	*cut*	*one*	*ref.mk*	*ques.*				
10	Sun		pó:c	mó:j	nɔ́:n	nah	ta:m ʔan		ta:m ʔan		nɔ́:n
			cut	*one*	*ref.mk*	*fp.*	*thıs area*		*this area*		*ref.mk*
11	Waat		pó:t	pó:t	ja:ŋ ʔan		phrúh	di:	na:	ʔan	
			young	*young*	*like this*		*whıte*	*good*	*fp.*	*this*	
			khu:t	hɔ́:j	ʔah						
			scrape off	*already*	*ques.*						
12	Sun		ʔiʔan	na:n							
			this one	*yet*							

13 Waat : ʔan ʔóːc jip khuːt ʔah
this take come scrape off ques.

14 Sun boː ʔóːc jip khuːt
yes take come scrape off

15 Waat : ʔiʔan khuːt set hóːj naː
this one scrape off finish already fp.

16 Sun ʔiʔan khuːt jɔ̀h hóːj ʔiʔan naːn kɔ́h
this one scrape off finish already this one yet not
ʔiːn khuːt lɛ́ːw wah khuːt lìɲ lìɲ ceːw
get scrape off fp.. scrape off play play go
diː kɨl koː koː lamkhaːn
good stay empty empty annoyed

17 Waat : hɔ́ːp kloŋ hɨː naːn
eat rice or yet

18 Sun naːn nak kamlaŋ thɨm saː kɔ́h ʔiːn cɔːj
not yet he/she progressive aux. cook recl.mk not get help
nak tɔ̀ː leːw
he she do fp.

19 Waat : thɨm seːw mpìː chaː
cook curry what eat

20 Sun kɔ́h khɤ́h- ʔeːŋ kɔ́h ʔiːn nɛ́ː -nak kiː nak
not know fp. not get look he/she dem. he/she
tɔ̀ː saː
do recl.mk

21 Waat : chɨh hɤ́ːj nɔː
old already fp.

22 Sun chɨh hóːj ʔan kɔ tɔ̀ː niːl tɔ̀ː mpìː ten
old fp. this then do mat do what that
liəŋ ceːw
feed go

23	Waat	:	kɨl	mɔːŋ	ʔaj	móːk	ʔah	ʔaj	móːk	klɔ̀ːŋ	heːn
			stay	*with*	*address*	*Mok*	*ques.*	*address*	*Mok*	*husband*	*it*
			ceːw	nìː							
			go	*where*							
24	Sun		jak	toŋ	nóːn	ceːw	nìː	heːn			
			at	*house*	*ref.mk*	*go*	*where*	*it*			
25	Waat	·	hɔː	tɔ̀ː	thuk	ʔaːw	nóː				
			ho	*do*	*every*	*day*	*fp.*				
26	Sun		hɔː	than	tɛː	wan	nóːn	naːn	kɔ́h	jɔ̀h	diː
			ho	*just*		*day*	*ref.mk*	*yet*	*not*	*finish*	*good*
			lɛ́ːw	ʔan	jip	turàː	m̩pìː	saː			
			fp.	*this*	*come*	*affair*	*what*	*reci.mk*			
27	Waat	.	nak	jip	ɲaːj	sampáːt		kasɔ̀ːŋ		hɛːŋ	naː
			she	*come*	*speak*	*interview*		*Kasong*		*we*	*fp.*
28	Sun		nak	jip	ɲaːj	sampáːt		kasɔ̀ːŋ	wîc		mɔːŋ
			she	*come*	*speak*	*interview*		*Kasong*	*again*		*with*
			cé:	saːw	cé:	caːŋ					
			title	*Saaw*	*title*	*Caang*					
29	Waat	:	caːŋ	kɔ́h	jak	toŋ	lɛ́ːw				
			Caang	*not*	*at*	*house*	*fp.*				

English translation

1	Waat	:	Where did Mrs. Saw and Mrs. Caang go?
2	Sun	:	They went to Nan's house at Ban Mamuang.
3	Waat	:	Which Nan?
4	Sun	:	Nan who lives in Borai. You cannot remember, can you?
5	Waat	:	Are you making a mat to use for sleeping?
6	Sun	:	Yes.
7	Waat	:	Where did you cut Taey?
8	Sun	:	I cut them from this area (near house).
9	Waat	:	Did you go (to cut Taey) alone?
10	Sun		I went to cut them alone.

11	Waat	The young Taey like these are white. Has this been scraped already?
12	Sun	This one has not been scraped yet.
13	Waat	Do you bring this to scrape?
14	Sun	Yes, (I) bring it to scrape.
15	Waat	This one has been scraped already.
16	Sun	This one is done. This one is not. I will keep scraping. It's better than staying idle.
17	Waat	Have you eaten rice yet?
18	Sun	I haven't. They are cooking. I don't help them cook.
19	Waat	What curry are they cooking?
20	Sun	I don't know. I have not looked at it yet. They themselves are cooking.
21	Waat	You are old.
22	Sun	I am old. And so I make a living by doing mats and other things.
23	Waat	Do you stay home with Mok? Where did Mok's husband go?
24	Sun	He is home, he doesn't go anywhere.
25	Waat	Ho, you make mats everyday.
26	Sun	Ho, I am just making one today. It is not finished completely. What is your business in coming here?
27	Waat	She has came to interview our Kasong group.
28	Sun	She wants to interview about Kasong language with Mrs. Saw and Mrs. Caang again.
29	Waat	Mrs. Caang is not home.

(B) A general conversation by a couple, Wat and Chuan, at their house with a neighbor.

1	Nii	hɔ́:p	kloŋ	hi: na:n				
		eat	*rice*	*ques. (or yet)*				
2	Wat	hɔ́:p	phá:	hɔ́:j	kɔ́h	ʔi:n	mpì:	hɔ́:p	kloŋ
		eat	*satiated already*	*not*	*get*	*what*	*eat*	*rice*	

3	Waat	ʔóːc	ŋɔ́ʔ	jip	caːk	nîː	ʔóːc	jip	toŋ	
		take	*rambutan come*		*from*	*where*	*take*	*come*	*house*	
		phúːjaj	ʔah	tèːw	nak	ʔah				
		vıllage headman ques.			*buy*	*he*	*ques.*			
4	Wat	huː	kɔ́h	ʔiːn	tèːw	leːw	nak	ʔɨ́h	ŋɔ́ʔ	
		ho	*not*	*get*	*buy*	*fp.*	*he*	*give*	*rambutan*	
		nak	lɨ̀ək	ʔɔːk	ceːw	ʔóːc	toŋ	ʔaj	lék	ʔaj
		he	*choose*	*out*	*go*	*take*	*house*	*tıtle*	*Lek*	*tıtle*
		lék	ʔiŋ	náːk	lék	jiəm	ʔaj	lék	kheːn	ʔiŋ
		Lek	*I*	*be not*	*Lek*	*Caim*	*tıtle*	*Kek*	*chıld*	*I*
5	Waat	ʔót	malu:		chaː	bɔ́ː				
		refraın,without	*betel-vıne*		*eat*	*ques.*				
6	Wat	ʔiːn	maluː		pàː	phéː	khlá:	ʔan	nɔ́ːn	
		have	*betel-vıne*		*two*	*three*	*leaf*	*thıs*	*ref.mk*	
7	Chuan :	jip	thɔ́ːc	tɔ̀ːmpîː		kasɔ̀ːŋ	jak ʔan		kɔ́h	léːw
		come	*seek*	*why*		*Kasong*	*here*		*not*	*fp.*
		kasɔ̀ːŋ	ʔiːn	tɛː		sɛ́ːm	koː			
		Kasong	*have*	*merely*		*Thai*	*empty*			
8	Wat :	ʔəː	ʔóːc	máːk	ʔóːc	maluː	jip	prɔ́ːm	ʔaj	
		Aye	*take*	*betel nut*	*take*	*betel*	*come*	*completely*	*address*	
		kúːp	ʔóːc taban			jip	ʔɨ́h	ʔiŋ	duː	heːn
		frog (Kop)	*take*	*cylındrıcal mortar*		*come*	*give*	*I*	*fp.*	*ıt*
		jip	ʔiːn	móːj	leːŋ	klap	suːn	jip	caːk	dàːn
		come	*get*	*one*	*nıght*	*return*	*zero*	*come*	*from*	*Dan*
		kɔ	cap kat		thoː	ʔaj	kúːp	heːn	kɨ̀l	kɔ́h
		then	*sıck*		*oh*	*address*	*frog(Kop)*	*ıt*	*stay*	*not*
		ʔiːn	hɔ́ːj	khɨːn	kɨ̀l	ràːŋ	ceːw	loŋphajaːbaːn		
		can	*fp.*	*resıst*	*stay*	*carry*	*go*	*hospital*		
		hɔ́ːj	puppap	kɔ́h	ʔiːn	kep	mpîː	leːw		
		already	*suddenly*	*not*	*get*	*keep*	*what*	*fp.*		
		khɔːŋ	kɨ̀l	jak ʔan		pɔ̀ːŋ	nɔ́ːn	ʔiŋ	nɔ́ːn	
		thing	*stay*	*here*		*full*	*ref.mk*	*I*	*ref.mk*	

		kep	ʔɨ́h	m̩pìː	ʔɨ́h	múŋ	ʔiɲ	nɔ́ːn	sáːk	
		keep	*give*	*what*	*give*	*mosquito net*	*I*	*ref.mk*	*untie*	
		ʔɨ́h	cap kat	kiː	kɔ́h	káh	cap kat	m̩pìː	nɔ́h	
		give	*sick*	*dem.*	*not*	*known*	*sick*	*what*	*fp.*	
		pɛːk	lɨəkəːn							
		strange	*too much*							
9	Chuan :	kɛː	ten	ceːw	nìː					
		he	*that*	*go*	*where*					
10	Waat :	jak	toŋ	nɔ́ːn						
		at	*house*	*ref.mk*						
11	Wat	ʔəː nɔː	káːŋ	ʔan	bɔ́ː					
		Aye	*stay overnight*	*this*	*ques.*					
12	Waat :	káːŋ	tih	báːn múəŋ						
		stay overnight	*at*	*Ban Muang*						
13	Wat	hɨː	sɔ́ːk	tíh tíh	naː					
		Eh	*mango*	*that*	*fp.*					
14	Chuan :	sɔ́ːk	naːŋ kóŋ	tih nìː	wíc					
		Mango	*Thungyaw(field+long)*	*where*	*again*					
15	Waat :.	naːŋ kóŋ	phéː	jɛːk	jak ʔan	sɔ́ːk				
		Thungyaw(field+long)	*three*	*byroad*	*there*	*mango(Mamuang)*				
		tɨh	tɵŋ	ʔaj	saːw	tíh	naː			
		at	*house*	*address*	*Saw*	*that*	*fp.*			
16	Wat	ʔaj	jaːw	ceːw	tíh	nɔ́ːn	ceːw	toŋ	miɲ	heːn
		title	*Yaw*	*go*	*that*	*ref.mk*	*go*	*house*	*mother*	*it*
17	Nii	ʔawan	lùːŋ	ceːw	nìː	hɨː hɔ́ː				
		today	*kin address*	*go*	*where*	*ques.*				
18	Chuan :	tháː	ceːw	ceːw	suːn	hə́ːj	ʔawan	jut	saŋíː	ròː
		if	*go*	*go*	*zero*	*fp.*	*today*	*stop*	*sun*	*high*
		ləːj	kɔ́h	ʔiːn	ceːw	nìː	léːw			
		then	*not*	*get*	*go*	*where*	*fp.*			
19	Wat	ʔaj	num	nak	ʔɨ́h	ceːw	kep	ŋɔ́ʔ		
		address	*Num*	*he*	*give*	*go*	*keep*	*rambutan*		

20	Waat :	nak	ca:ŋ	pen	ʔa:w	hɨ:	nak	ca:ŋ	ja:ŋ	nî:
		he	*employ*	*be*	*day*	*or*	*he*	*employ*	*how*	
		kep	ŋɔ́ʔ							
		keep	*rambutan*							
21	Wat	ca:ŋ	pen	kilo:	mó:j	kilo:	mó:j	ba:t		
		employ	*be*	*kilogram*	*one*	*kilogram*	*one*	*baht*		
22	Chuan :	nak	ʔɨ́h	hɛ:ŋ	mó:j	ba:t	nak	ʔi:n	kə́:p	kɔ́h
		he	*give*	*we*	*one*	*baht*	*he*	*get*	*many*	*not*
		ʔaw	le:w							
		take	*fp.*							
23	Wat	ʔɨ́h	ce:w	kep	nɔ́:n	na:	kɛ̀:p	nɔ́:n	ce:n	nɔ́:n
		give	*go*	*keep*	*ref.mk*	*fp.*	*cut*	*ref.mk*	*push*	*ref.mk*
		mó:j	ʔa:w	káh	ʔi:n	mó:jʔi:		kɔ́h	ʔi:n	mó:j
		one	*day*	*know*	*get*	*how much*		*not*	*get*	*one*
		ʔa:w	lé:w	khɨ̀ŋ	saŋî:	nak	kɔ	jut	hó:j	
		day	*fp.*	*half*	*sun*	*he*	*then*	*stop*	*already*	
		ja:ŋ	nah	kɔ	ʔi:n	pà:	se:	ba:t		
		so		*then*	*get*	*twenty*		*baht*		
24	Waat	ʔə:	tɔ̀:	kapɔ:ŋ	ja:ŋ	di:	nɔ:			
		Aye	*do*	*can*	*well*	*fp.*				
25	Chuan :	khané:w	ʔó:c	jip	lîŋ	lə:j	ʔó:c	tɔ̀:	kapɔ:ŋ	ja:
		children	*take*	*come*	*play*	*then*	*take*	*do*	*can*	*tobacco*
26	Wat	ʔo:	khané:w	ʔó:c	jip	lîŋ	na:	kapɔ:ŋ	khanam	
		Oh	*children*	*take*	*come*	*play*	*fp.*	*can*	*medicine*	
		m̩pî:	kɔ́h	káh	hɔh	ʔa:w	ten	pò:	ce:w	
		what	*not*	*know*	*fp.*	*day*	*that*	*you*	*go*	
		soŋka:n	nɔ:							
		Songkarn	*fp.*							
27	Waat :	ce:w								
		go								
28	Wat	nà:ŋ	te:ŋ	nah	srɔ́:ŋ	ʔiŋ	lîc	kɔ́h	ʔajpî:	nak
		Mrs.	*Taeng*	*fp.*	*tell*	*I*	*that*	*not*	*who*	*he/she*

			ceːw	leːw	ròt	nak	kɔ́h	ʔiːn	caːŋ	wíc	jóːj
			go	*fp.*	*car*	*he/she*	*not*	*get*	*employ*	*again*	*fp.*
29	Waat	:	ʔoː	caːŋ	ròt	nak	soːn	caːŋ	nɔ́ːn	nak	ʔɨ́h
			Oh	*employ*	*car*	*he/she*	*send*	*employ*	*ref.mk*	*he/she*	*give*
			móːj	khan	móːj	chúh					
			one	*clf.*	*one*	*hundred*					
30	Wat	:	ʔiɲ	cacɛːŋ	set	mpì:	set	loːŋ	ceːw	kɨl	toŋ
			I	*prepare*	*finish*	*what*	*finish*	*will*	*go*	*stay*	*house*
			ʔaj	núm	naː	kɨl	jak ten		nɔ́ːn	jaːj	tɛːŋ
			address	*Num*	*fp.*	*stay*	*there*		*ref.mk*	*Mrs.*	*Taeng*
			líc	ʔaj	thoːj	kɔ́h	ceːw	hóːj	ʔawan	ceːw	
			say	*title*	*Toy*	*not*	*go*	*fp.*	*today*	*go*	
			mɔːŋ	ròt doːjsaːn		thəh	ceːw	mɔːŋ	ròt doːjsaːn		kɔ́h
			with	*bus*		*fp.*	*go*	*with*	*bus*		*not*
			sataːŋ	ləːw	naː	móːj	nak	phram	baːt	phram	
			money	*fp.*	*fp.*	*ome*	*clf.*	*five*	*baht*	*five*	
			baːt	ʔaj	thoːj	kɔ́h	ceːw	hóːj	ʔiɲ	cóh	hóːj
			baht	*address*	*Toy*	*not*	*go*	*fp.*	*I*	*angry*	*fp.*
			jip	toŋ	suːn	ʔiɲ	tɛːŋ	kɨ́p	tɛːŋ	pɔ̀ːŋ	
			come	*house*	*zero*	*I*	*dress*		*dress*	*full*	
			jaːŋ	diː-		hɔ́ːj	naː	tɔ̀ːmpì:	heːn	kɔ́h	jip	hɨː
			well			*fp.*	*fp.*	*why*	*it*	*not*	*come*	*ques.*
			pɔ̀ː	ʔiːn	kheːw	hɔ́ː					
			I	*get*	*call*	*ques.*					
31	Waat		kheːw	hɔ́ː	tɔ̀ː	tiː	jaːŋ ʔan				
			call	*fp.*	*do*	*hand*	*like this*				
32	Wat		ʔiɲ	kúk	kloŋ	saj	réː	kɛ́h	mot	naː	kúk
			I	*pour*	*rice*	*put*	*in*	*pot*	*all*	*fp.*	*pour*
			seːw	kúk	kloŋ	mot	kɔ́h	ceːw	hóːj	ʔiɲ	ʔaj
			curry	*pour*	*rice*	*all*	*not*	*go*	*fp.*	*I*	*address*
			saːw	líc	pɔ̀ː	ʔəːj	nak	ʔiːn	khɔːŋ	ʔɨ́h	ʔɨ́h
			Saw	*say*	*you*	*p.*	*he/she*	*get*	*giving thing*		*give*

		kɔ	ʔɨ̀h	thəh	nak	ʔi:n	cì:	na:	sri:	sa:w
		then	*give*	*fp,*	*he/she*	*have*	*name*	*fp.*	*ask*	*title*
		tuən	pò:	ʔi:n	mṵpì:	ʔah	ʔi:n	fa:chi:		
		Tuan	*you*	*get*	*what*	*ques.*	*give*	*cover(keeping food)*		
		mɔ:ŋ	saló:p	saló:p	mó:j	phɨ:n	fa:chi:			mó:j
		and	*shirt*	*shirt*	*one*	*clf.*	*cover(keeping food)*			*one*
		nak	ʔi:n	saló:p	mó:j	ʔiɲ	ʔi:n	thal kapɨl		mó:j
		he/she	*get*	*shirt*	*one*	*I*	*get*	*loin cloth*		*one*
		phɨ:n	ta:	ma:	ʔó:c	jip	ʔɨ̀h	sa:w	tuən	ʔi:n
		clf.	*Mr.*	*Maa*	*tsake*	*come*	*give*	*title*	*Tuan*	*get*
		mṵpì:								
		what								
33	Waat :	ʔi:n	ʔa:ŋ	prúh	thal	mɔ:ŋ	saló:p	mó:j	phɨ:n	nà:ŋ
		get	*basin*	*wash*	*cloth*	*and*	*shirt*	*one*	*clf.*	*Mrs.*
		cɨ̀h	káh	ʔi:n	mṵpì:	cé:	ma:	ʔi:n	lakó:	
		old	*know*	*get*	*what*	*title*	*Maa*	*get*	*milled rice*	
34	Wat :	khamá:		tá:k	chəhchɛh		na:			
		rain		*wet*	*slimy*		*fp.*			
35	Waat :	cɔ̀:	só:k	nɨm	ʔan	kɔ́h	phli:	lé:w	nɔ:	
		mango		*year*	*this*	*not*	*fruit*	*fp.*	*fp.*	
36	Chuan :	ʔi:n	nɔ́:n	pà:	phé:	mo:l	lalúk	jip	púk	mot
		hsve	*ref.mk*	*two*	*three*	*clf.*	*fall*	*come*	*rotten*	*lose*
37	Wat :	lale:	ko:	ɲa:kɲen						
		larvae	*only*	*fully*						
38	Chuan :	cha:	cha:	ce:w	ʔi:n	han	ŋa:l	ce:w	tɨ́h	khuj
		eat	*eat*	*go*	*get*	*turn*	*face*	*go*	*that*	*talk*
		mɔ:ŋ	khané:w							
		with	*children*							
39	Wat :	nak	taɲe:	hɛ:ŋ	ɲa:j	sa:	nak	ʔat téh		hɛ:ŋ
		she	*listen*	*we*	*speak*	*reci.mk*	*she*	*record by tape*		*we*
		kɔ́h	káh	lɔ:ŋ	ɲa:j	mṵpì:	na:			
		not	*know*	*will*	*speak*	*what*	*fp.*			

40	Chuan :	thá:	ʔi:n	thál	ka:ɲ	kuj	ce:w	ʔi:n	lɨ̌əj
		if	*get*	*drink*	*liquor*	*talk*	*go*	*get*	*continuously*
		nɔ́:n							
		recl.mk							

English translation

1	Nii	Have you eaten rice?
2	Wat .	I have eaten already but didn't have any side dishes.
3	Waat :	Where did you get the rambutans? Did you get them from the village headman's house? Did you buy (them) from him?
4	Wat	I didn't buy them. They gave them to me. They are leftovers. I got them from Lek's house, from my son, not Mrs. Jiam's.
5	Waat :	Have you any betel leaves?
6	Wat .	I have a few left.
7	Chuan :	Why do you come to look for Kasong people. There are no more Kasong. They are only Thai
8	Wat	Hey, bring me the betel nuts and leaves. Kop brought me a betel cylindrical mortar. She has been here for one night from Danchumphon and is very sick. She could stay there no longer otherwise he would have been brought to the hospital. She didn't take her belongings with her. I collected them for her, even her mosquito net. I don't know what is wrong with her. It is weird.
9	Chuan :	Where did he go?
10	Waat :	He is at home.
11	Wat :	Aye, Do they stay overnight here?
12	Waat :	They will stay overnight in Ban Muang.
13	Wat :	Eh. At Ban Muang there.
14	Chuan :	Which Ban Muang?
15	Waat :	Ban Muang at the intersection, the one where Mrs. Saw lives.
16	Wat	Yaw went there to visit his mother.
17	Nii	Will you go anywhere today?

18	Chuan	:	If I was going to go I would have gone already. It is too late and so I won't go anywhere.
19	Wat	:	Mr. Num wanted to hire me in his rambutan plantation.
20	Waat	:	How does he pay you, on a daily basis or what?
21	Wat	:	By the kilo. One baht per kilo.
22	Chuan	:	He paid us only one baht while he got so much more. So I stopped going.
23	Wat		Let me do it by myself but I don't know how I will get money. I can't even work a whole day. Only half a day and then he have to stop. And so I only get twenty baht.
24	Waat	:	Aye, you made a good can.
25	Chuan	:	The kid was playing with it and so I made it my tobacco can.
26	Wat	:	The kid was playing with it. I wonder what kind of can it was! Did you go Songkran celebrate?
27	Waat	:	Yes.
28	Wat	:	Mrs. Taeng told me that nobody went there. They don't hire trucks to take people any more.
29	Waat	:	Hey, som people hire a car for a hundred baht.
30	Wat	:	I had prepared myself and waited at Num's house. Then Taeng told me that Toy was not going and told me to go on the public bus. I had no money even though the fare was five baht. Toy didn't go and I was so annoyed. I was well dressed. Why didn't he come? Did you call him?
31	Waat	:	I did and he made a hand gesture like this.
32	Wat	:	I put my rice and curry back. I was not going. Mrs. Saw said that they gave things to people for free. Let them do it. They had all the names (of villagers). I asked Tuan what she got. She said she got a shirt and lid (for keeping food). She got a shirt and I got a female loincloth. Mr. Maa brought it for me. What did you get?
33	Waat	:	I got an enameled bowl and a shirt. I don't know what she got. Mrs. Maa got milled rice.

34 Wat : It is rainy and wet outside.

35 Waat : The Mango trees didn't bear any fruit this year.

36 Chuan : Only a few fruit and they fell off and rotted.

37 Wat : They were full of larvae.

38 Chuan : Chew (your betel) and turn to talk with the children.

39 Wat : They are listening to us. They are recording our conversation. I don't know what to say.

40 Chuan : If I had some liquor, I could talk on and on.

DESCRIPTIVE DISCOURSES

(A) An old woman describing her niece.

chu: chan kìp kíc ja:ŋ miɲ / lakí: tàŋ tɛ: klɔ:ŋ /
grandchild I body small like mother thin see merely bone
phiw si: caŋ / súk ŋéɲ / matú:t do:ŋ / mat ták / mat ŋa:l
skin color black hair curly nose rise high eye big countenance
méɲ / ták liɲ khoŋ méɲ / khu:ɲ he:n méɲ ja:ŋ sa:
beautiful big on probably beautiful father it beautiful like reci.mk

English translation

My niece has a small body like (her) mother. She is very skinny. Her skin is black. She has curly hair, prominent nose and large eyes. She is good-looking. When she matures, she will likely be beautiful. Her father is handsome too.

(B) An elderly woman describing her cat that is sleeping.

he:n pen mè:w klɔ̀:ŋ pà: si: si: phrúh mɔ:ŋ si: ŋal /
it be cat male two color color white and color red
matú:t ŋal / mat jɔ̀: / khlá: pra:ŋ ké:n / pháh kóŋ / kho:j lɔ̀:j /
nose red eye yellow leaf ear short tail long tooth pointed
khiəw kóŋ ʔɔ:k ranɛ:ŋ / he:n ʔi:n phram níw / níw siɲ phó:n
fang long out mouth it have five finger finger foot four
niw / kasráh kóŋ / he:n thɛ:k khot / thɛ:k laŋé: pit mat / he:n
finger nail long it sleep to coil sleep doze close eye it

ʔiːn saŋɨn hóːj / ʔiːn kheːn moːŋ saː pàː moːl pen mɛ̀ːw klɔ̀ːŋ
have wife already have child together two clf. be cat male
koː / saŋɨn heːn ʔiːn phéː siː / siː phrúh siː ŋal siː caŋ /
only wife it have three color color white color red color black
klɔ̀ːŋ chɨ́h saŋɨn naːn salɛːŋ
husband old wife yet young woman

English translation

It is a male cat with two-tone fur, white and red. Its nose is red. Its eyes are yellow. The ears are short. The tail is long. It has pointed teeth. The canine teeth are long and stick out of its mouth. It has five fingers and four toes. Its nails are long. It lies huddlingly and is fast asleep (with closed eyes). It has a mate already and has two kittens which are both male. Its mate has three colors: white, red and black. The husband is old but its wife is still young

(C) A middle-aged woman describing a kind of flower.

paːŋ níh ʔan ʔiːn siː jɔ̀ː / jɔ̀ː póːt / phram cheːk /
flower this have color yellow yellow young five serrated
kɔ́h khóːl leːw / choːl ʔɔːŋ ʔɨ́h heːn ʔiːn paːŋ / ʔiːn kasɨ́m thɨ́t
not fragrant fp. plant keep give it have flower have person look
jip tàŋ méŋ / kliːp heːn krɨ̂ŋ / kɔ́h kɔ́ŋ / pen cheːk móːl
come see beautiful petal it thin not long be serrated round
móːl / paːŋ kɨ́c / paːŋ pen pùəŋ / paːŋ ʔɔːk caːk ŋuəŋ heːn
round flower small flower be bunch flower out from tendril it
théːm kɔ́h salá: leːw / théːm heːn jaːŋ kasúːm / khlá: heːn kɨ́c
trunk not thorn fp. trunk it like liana/vine leaf it small
kɔ́ŋ / chɨ́k ceːw ʔiːn sal phrúh / khlá: lɔ̀ːj
long tear go have sap white leaf pointed

English translation

This flower has five petals which are light yellow in color. It is not fragrant. It is grown as a decoration. When a person looks at it, he/she sees a beautiful flower. The petals are thin and round. The flower comes out in clusters. Its stalk is not thorny and is like a liana. The leaves are small and pointed with white sap when torn.

(D) A middle-aged man describing a kind of fruit called /cɔ̀: masi:/

thé:m pen kasú:m / kasú:m phan thé:m níh / phli: mó:l
trunk be vine vine wind tree fruit round

si: wè:t / phli: ták tíŋ kɔ́:k ti: / cha: ʔi:n / sakú: ʔi:n sal
color green fruit big equal wrist eat can peel have sap

phrúh / we:la: cha: chî:k sakú: ʔɔ:k / ʔi:n cɔ́: ʔi:n ŋá:m /phli:
white time eat tear peel out have sour have sweet fruit

mó:l ja:ŋ tuŋ / pen pùəŋ pà: mo:l phé: mo:l / phli: khá:j
round like eag be bunch two clf. three clf. fruit similar

trîp phúəŋ / phli: kîc kîc si: wè:t / phɔ: piŋ si: jɔ̀: / pa:k
kind of eggplant fruit small small color green when ripe color yellow go up

thé:m níh cɔ́: kɔ cɔ́: thé:m níh ŋá:m kɔ ŋá:m / khwa:l
tree sour then sour tree sweet then sweet creep

ta:m thé: kɔ cɔ́: / pa:ŋ ʔɔ:k ta:m khɔ́: rɔ̀:p khɔ́: / pà: si: /
along ground then sour flower out along joint around joint two color

phɔ: pa:ŋ lalúk kɔ pen phli: / ŋɔ:m ŋɔ:m kɔ ŋá:m / ma:ŋ
when flower fall then be fruit overripe overripe then sweet some

thé:m kɔ cɔ́: / ma:ŋ thé:m kɔ ŋá:m / ʔi:n pa:ŋ nɨm ʔan phli:
trunk then sour some trunk then sweet have flower year this fruit

nɨm phà:
year new

English translation

It is a kind of vine that climbs up other trees. The fruit is round and green, about the size of a wrist with white sap when peeled. The fruit is similar to an eggplant (kind of).The inside is edible. Some fruit is sour and some fruit is sweet. Its taste depends on the tree it climbs up. If it climbs up a tree that has sour fruit, its fruit is sour. If it climbs up a tree that has sweet fruit, its fruit is sweet. But if it climbs along the ground, its fruit is sour. The fruit forms a cluster of two or three. When it is young, the color is green but it turns yellow when ripe. It bears flowers around the joints with two colors. The flowers blossom this year and the fruit comes out the following year.

PROCEDURAL EXPOSITIONS

Cooked glutinous rice

ʔóːc kloŋ laméc cèː cèː tàːk / cèː pàː lít phéː lít
take glutinous rice soak soak water soak two liter three liter
cèː tàːk phéː takóː / saj tóːl kroːŋ ʔíh tàːk ʔɔːk/
soak water three vessel(coconut shell) put kind of basket filter give water out
ʔɔːk léːw kɔ téh rùːl tɔ̀ː tàːk katîː / ʔóːc haːl laméc
out then split coconut do water coconut cream take grain glutinous rice
saj réː katîː / khiəw tóːj saj lakóː réː tàːk katîː /
put in coconut cream simmer before put milled rice in water coconut cream
khuə ʔíh chíːn / jòk ʔɔːk kɔ ʔóːc khláː pîːk jip pók / saj
fry give cooked lift out then take leaf Pik come wrap put
loːŋ páːk phóːn tɔ̀ː sáj / loːŋ móːj ʔiːn phóːn panók / saj
banana split four do filling banana one get four package put
kéh sóːl / sóːl kɔ̀ːj pen chuəmoːŋ náh kwaː loːŋ chíːn /
pot boil boil slow be hour fp. than will cooked
pamaːn pàː chuəmoːŋ loːŋ chíːn / nɛː tóːj tháː khlaː liŋ chíːn
estimate two hour will cooked look before if above cooked
pataː chíːn
below cooked

English translation

Soak glutinous rice in water (about three coconut shell vessels with two or three liters of water) then rinse it. Milk the coconut and boil it with the glutinous rice until the rice is almost cooked. Slice (ripe) banana into four pieces. Wrap the rice and one piece of banana with Pik leaf. When all the rice is wrapped, boil it about two hours. If the wrapped rice on the top are cooked, the wrapped rice on the bottom are cooked too (all of them are cooked).

Beef Curry

chó:k lúk se:w dak tamú:c madi:ŋ patéh lúk dak
pound ingredient put lemon grass galanga chili salt put
huəhɔ:m katî əm pràj khamin / han lɛ:w kɔ chó:k rùəm
onion garlic cassumunar turmeric slice afterward pound combine
sa: lə:j / jòh kɔ thi:m se:w / dak lúk se:w rùəm mɔ:ŋ pó:m
reci.mk fp. finish then cook curry put ingredient combine with meat
kapa:w / khuə ʔúp ʔɔ:ɲ / pit jòh pə:t khuə wîc ʔí:h chí:n /
buffalo fry close keep close finish open fry again give cooked
jòh dak tà:k pit ʔɔ:ɲ ʔí:h chí:n / jòh pə:t khuə / phɔ: pùh
finish put water close keep give cooked finish open fry when boil
jòk loŋ cha: ʔi:n
lift down eat can

English translation

Pound the ingredients, sliced lemon grass, galanga, chili, casumunar, onion and garlic and then grind everything (in the mortar). After that, fry the ingredients with beef. Next, put in more water and cover with the lid to let it boil. When everything is cooked, take the pot down and serve.

Omelet

tɔ: hu: tî: téh tuŋ lék saj ca:m / khu: ʔí:h tuŋ péc /
do first split egg chicken put bowl stir give egg break
han huəhɔ:m pen chín krí:ɲ krí:ɲ saj ce:w ré: tuŋ / saj
slice onion be piece thin thin put go in egg put
tà:k mé:l loŋ khu: ʔí:h pon sa: / ʔó:c katah táŋ plè:w / saj pí:h
fish soy down stir give mix reci.mk take pan set up fire put oil
ʔí:h thú: / phɔ: pí:h thú: khúk tuŋ ce:w ré: katàh / má:j ʔí:h
give hot when oil hot pour egg go in pan don't give
plè:w chá:w ká:p diəw tuŋ khaják / thó:t ʔí:h tuŋ chí:n /
fire be in flames many otherwise egg burnt fry give egg cooked
jòh suttha:j pú:c tuŋ ʔɔ:k jip ca:k pí:h saj ca:m kɔ
finish finally dig out egg out come from oil put bowl then

set hó:j

finish already

English translation

First, crack an egg into a bowl and stir it. Slice onions thinly and put them into the bowl then add some fish sauce and stir well. Next, heat the oil in the pan over a moderate fire. When the oil is hot enough, put the egg into the pan and turn it over until it is cooked. Finally, take it out of the pan and put it into a bowl.

FOLKTALES

kasîm ʔɔ:k ca:k pa:ŋ níh

person go out from flower

pà: nak mó:t khliŋ ce:w thiəw ce:w khaw prî:

two clf. younger sibling elder sibling go tour go enter forest

ʔɔ:k rana:ŋ / ø ce:w pop pa:ŋ níh mép / ø thák

out field (they) go meet flower beautiful (he) greet

pa:ŋ níh ʔan ʔə:j mép náh / thá: pen samkhin ʔiŋ ʔó:c

flower this fp. beautiful fp. if be women I take

tɔ: saŋin há:j / thá: pen samlɔ:ŋ ʔiŋ ʔó:c tɔ: phiən tɔ:

do wife fp. if be man I take do friend do

klə: / tɔ:n saŋî: la: ká:t chîp samkhin ʔɔ:k ca:k pa:ŋ níh /

friend when evening near dark woman out from flower

ø tɔ:l to:n / ø jip phlaŋ kɔ khe:w phih lɛ́:ŋ

(she) carry on the head kind of basket (she) come arrive then call Phii Laeng

phih lá:j jok takró:ŋ loŋ ʔíh chan mɔ:ŋ / pɔ: khamú:c hi:

address Laay lift stairs down give I with you ghost or

kasîm / chan kasîm chan ná:k khamú:c le:w / ʔiŋ kɔ́h chiə pɔ:

person I person I be not ghost fp. I not believe you

lé:w / pɔ: pen khamú:c / chan ná:k khamú:c lé:w / jak saŋî:

fp. you be ghost I be not ghost fp. at evening

kɛ: thák m̩pî: nó:n / ʔo: jak saŋî: ʔiŋ thák pa:ŋ níh ten
you greet what recı.mk ınt. at evenıng I greet flower that
nó:n / ʔan nó:n chan jip pen saŋin kɛ: / ø ʔó:c takl̀o:ŋ loŋ
recı.mk thıs recı.mk I come be wife you (you) take stairs down
ràp chan mɔ:ŋ / samkhin kɔ pa:k ce:w liŋ toŋ / ø ce:w
receive I also woman then go up go on house (she) go
phlaŋ jòk ti: kapáh / chan jɔ:m pen saŋin kɛ: hɔ́:j / ø
to lift hand to salute I allow be wife you fp. (they)
kɨl mɔ:ŋ sa: / ø ce:w rù:c ma:l rù:c jòh kát níh ʔíh
stay together (they) go clear field clear finish cut wood gıve
ma:l jéh / ma:l jéh kɔ tú:t rɨ: níh ʔɔ:k / ʔaj lé:ŋ ce:w
field dry field dry then ignite(fire) demolish wood out address Laeng go
pa:k nɔ:ŋ / saŋin kɨl khra: toŋ / saŋin ce:w samó:l ha:l / ha:l
go up mountaın wıfe stay side house wıfe go thrash paddy paddy
tòk jip pen satúŋ / khra: na:ŋ mók kokko: ʔó:c srá:m ʔó:c
sprout come be gourd sıde address Mok Kok Ko take husk take
ce:w sá:c ré: ma:l / klɔ̀:ŋ loŋ jip ca:k nɔ:ŋ / mók kokkó:
go throw ın field husband down come from mountain Mok Kok Ko
srɔ́:ŋ lîc ce:w né: saŋin kɛ: thəh / srá:m thaŋnán lə:j ré:
tell that go look wife you fp. husk all fp. in
ma:l / ʔay lé:ŋ chiə / ø ʔó:c kra:ŋ jip ʔíh tá:l
field address Laeng believe (Mok Kok Ko) take alcohol come gıve drink
khú:m saj khuət pon ré: kra:ŋ ʔíh cha: / ø loŋchiə / ø ce:w
urıne put bottle mix in alcohol give eat (Laeng) be deceived (he) go
né: ha:l ma:l / phɔ: ø ce:w phlaŋ ma:l tàŋ srá:m lə:j chiə /
look paddy field when (he) go arrive field see husk fp. belıeve
ø jip phlaŋ toŋ kɨl tóh takho: / saŋin khe:w kɛ: ʔə:j
(he) come arrive house sit head mortar wife call you fp.
pa:k liŋ toŋ thəh / chan thɨm kloŋ chî:n hɔ́:j / ø thɨm se:w
go up on house fp. I cook rice cooked already (I) cook curry
chî:n hɔ́:j / ø jip pa:k təh / klɔ̀:ŋ kɔ́h jɔ:m pa:k / khla:
cooked already (you) come go up fp. husband not allow go up sıde

saŋɨn ce:w kep ha:l pen satúŋ pò:ŋ thaŋ ma:l / ø tu: satúŋ
wife go keep paddy be gourd full all field (she) hit gourd
péc pen ha:l kɨl ré: phli: satúŋ / saŋɨn kep satúŋ ʔó:c
break be paddy stay in field gourd wife keep gourd take
jip saj ré: ju:ŋ / ø ce:w thuk ʔa:w thuk ʔa:w jip saj
come put in barn (she) go all day all day come put
ré: ju:ŋ pò:ŋ ju:ŋ / klɔ̀:ŋ ŋa:l caŋ kɔ́h jɔ:m pa:k toŋ / saŋɨn
in barn full barn husband face black not allow go up house wife
jɔ̀k ti: kapáh / kɛ: ʔə:j pa:k toŋ thəh / ø kliət chan nah
lift hand to salute you particle go up house fp. (you) hate I fp.
chan lo:m la: ce:w toŋ chan / ø kep thal ré: to:n
I beg goodbye go house I (she) keep cloth in kind of basket
kanɨ́p to:l ce:w toŋ hə́:j / chan lo:m la: ce:w toŋ hə́:j/
cover carry on the head go house fp. I beg goodbye go house fp.
klɔ̀:ŋ pa:k toŋ ce:w nɛ: ré: ju:ŋ / ha:l pò:ŋ ju:ŋ / ø ce:w
husband go up house go look in barn paddy full barn (he) go
pɔ́:t kɛ́h / kloŋ pò:ŋ kɛ́h / kloŋ na:n thú: / ø pɔ̂:t kɛ́h se:w /
open pot rice full pot rice yet hot (he) open pot curry
se:w na:n thú: / ø thɨ́t ce:w saŋɨn / saŋɨn ce:w mé:t sut
curry yet hot (he) look go wife wife go far extreme
khe:n mat / ø khe:w pa:ŋ ʔə:j cham ʔiŋ mɔ:ŋ / ø ce:w phlaŋ
eyes (child+eye) (he) call flower fp. wait I also (he) go to
pa:ŋ nɨ́h / ø khe:w ré: pa:ŋ nɨ́h / klap tamɔ:n ta:mdə:m / klɔ̀:ŋ
flower (he) call in flower return behind usual husband
ja:m / pa:ŋ ʔə:j ʔiŋ kɨ̀t phlaŋ pò: nah / ø klap toŋ ce:w
cry flower particle I think of you fp. (he) return house go
sɾɔ́:ŋ mók kokkó: / thá: pò: pé: rà:k pò: ce:w thɔ́:c ʔúh jip /
tell Mok Kok Ko if you want white you go seek firewood come
kɔ ce:w ʔɔ́:c katáh ce:w táŋ ce:w ʔɔ́:c tà:k saj ré: katáh
then go take pan go set up go take water put in pan
ʔɨ́h pò:ŋ / tà:k púh ʔɨ́h kado:t khaw ce:w tɔ̀: ʔɨ́h pò: rà:k /
give full water boil give jump enter go do give you white

mók kokkó:	kado:t	ce:w	ré:	kataáh / ø	kapu:m	kataáh	pát /
Mok Kok Ko	*jump*	*go*	*in*	*pan* *(he)*	*overturn*	*pan*	*abandon*
ʔaj lɛ:ŋ	ja:m	nɔ́:n	thuk	ʔa:w	thuk	ʔa:w / ʔi:n	prá:j phé: sen
address Laeng	*cry*	*ref. Mk*	*all*	*day*	*all*	*day* *have*	*thread* *three* *clf.*
jip phát	jak	ŋa:l /	prá:j	mpì:	jip	phát jak	ŋa:l ʔiŋ / ʔiŋ
come *to blow at*		*face*	*thread*	*what*	*come*	*to blow at*	*face* *I* *I*
nɨk phlaŋ	saŋin	ʔiŋ	náh /	má:j	jip	phát jal	ŋa:l ʔiŋ lə:j /
think of	*wife*	*I*	*fp.*	*don't*	*come*	*to blow at*	*face* *I* *fp.*
ø ʔɔ́:c	ti:	cháp	prá:j	phé:	sen /	prá:j jo:ŋ	pa:k liŋ ce:w
(he) *take*	*hand*	*catch*	*thread*	*three*	*clf.*	*thread* *bind*	*up* *on* *go*
kɨl mo:ŋ	sa:	saŋin	he:n	liŋ	sawan		
stay *together*		*wife*	*it*	*on*	*heaven*		

English free translation

A woman born from flower

Two brothers went into the forest and fields for pleasure. They found a beautiful flower. One of them said, "If this flower is a woman, I will make her my wife and if it is a man, I will make him my friend." When darkness fell, a woman came out of the flower. She carried a basket of her belongings on her head. When she arrived at the two brothers' house, she called out, 'Brother Laeng, Brother Laay, put the ladder down for me, please." Laeng asked, "Are you a ghost or human?" The woman replied, "I am a person. I am not a ghost." The man said, "I do not believe you. You are a ghost." The woman told him, "I am not a ghost. This evening, What was your greeting?" The man said, "Oh, this evening, I greeted a flower." The woman told him, "I come to become your wife. Put the ladder down for me, please." The woman came into his house and saluted a man. She told him, "I agree to become your wife." They become husband and wife. They helped each other to clear the field to plant rice. She stayed home alone as her husband went up the mountain. She went to work in the field. The rice seeds she grew became gourds.

Mok Kok Ko, another woman, took rice husk and threw it all over the rice field. When the husband (Laeng) came down from the mountain, she told Laeng, "Go to look for your wife. The field is full of rice husk." Mok Kok Ko offered him liquor

mixed with her urine to drink. He drank and believed in what she said. He went to look at the paddy field. He saw the husk in the field. When he got home, he sat on the large mortar. His wife called, "Come in the house, please. I have finished cooking rice and curry (the meal was ready). Please come in the house." The husband refused to go into the house. He did not know that while he was away his wife went to collect the rice. She hit the gourds so they were broken to become paddy. She went to collect them and stored the paddy in the barn everyday until the barn was full.

The husband had a tarnished face and he did not come up to the house. His wife saluted him and said, "Come up to the house, please. Did you stop loving me? I say good-bye to you and go back to my house." She then collected her clothes and went away from him. When the husband came up, he saw that the barn was full of paddy and the food was still hot. He looked for his wife. His wife had gone far away beyond where he could see. He called out, "Wait for me, please.' He went to the flower but he did not find his wife. He cried and said, "I miss you." When he returned to his house, he went to Mok Kok Ko and told her that if she wanted to have fair skin, she should some boil water in a pain and jump in. When Mok Kok Ko jumped in the pan, he overturned it. (Mok Kok Ko was dead.) He cried for his wife everyday. Then suddenly there were three threads hanging over his face. He did not know what the threads were. He grabbed them and was pulled into heaven to live with his wife.

waː

monkey

lamɔ̀ːŋ	móːj	nak	ceːw	rùːc	maːl	rùːc	maːl	choːl	
grandpa (old man)	*one*	*clf.*	*go*	*clear*	*field*	*clear*	*field*	*plant*	
róːn /	róːn	kɔ	piŋ	pɔ̀ːŋ	maːl	ləːj	naː /	ʔaj	waː	kɔ	jip
melon	*melon*	*then*	*ripe*	*full*	*field*	*fp.*	*fp.*	*address*	*monkey*	*then*	*come*
kúk	kúk	róːn	ʔaj	lamɔ̀ːŋ	jip	chaː /	ø	kúk	ø	thuk	ʔaːw
steal	*steal*	*melon*	*address*	*grandpa*	*come*	*eat*	*(it)*	*steal*	*(melon)*	*every*	*day*
thuk	ʔaːw	thuk	ʔaːw	kúk	ʔóːc	jip	chaː /	khan	lamɔ̀ːŋ	róːn	ʔîːt
every	*day*	*every*	*day*	*steal*	*take*	*come*	*eat*	*when*	*grandpa*	*melon*	

cháp kiː waː kɔ́h ʔiːn / ø ʔiːn tɔ̀ː nɔ́ːn hɔ́ːc thəh / ø
catch dem. monkey not can (he) get(then) do ref.mk die fp. (he)
ʔiːn tɔ̀ː nɔ́ːn hɔ́ːc thəh kɔ tɔ̀ː nɔ́ːn hɔ́ːc / kiː waː kɔ
get(then) do ref. mk die fp. then do ref. mk die dem. monkey then
jip loŋ chaː khɔːŋ nɔː / ø tàŋ tàŋ lamɔ̀ːŋ kiː hɔ́ːc /
come down eat thing fp. (monkey) see see grandpa dem. die
lamɔ̀ːŋ kɔ hɔ́ːc hoːj nɔː / chan khəːj jip chaː rɔ́ːn kɛː sih
grandpa then die already fp. I used to come eat melon he fp
kɛː nɔː / ø kúk rɔ́ːn kɛː jip chaː kúk kɛː / kɛː hɔ́ːc
he fp. (I) steal melon he come eat steal he he die
hə́ːj / hɛːŋ tɔ̀ː jaːŋnî ː / hɛːŋ tɔ̀ː jaːŋnî ː / hɛːŋ ʔɔ́ːc kɛː ceːw
already we do how we do how we take he go
tɨ́p thəh / ø kɔ ràːŋ saː mùː waː / mùː waː kɔ
bury fp. (they) then carry reci.mk group monkey group monkey then
ràːŋ saː paːk théːm nɨ́h / paːk loŋ paːk loŋ théːm nɨ́h
carry(on shoulders) reci.mk go up tree go up down go up down tree
ʔaj waː nɔː jaŋ paːk théːm nɨ́h paːk diəw kɔ loŋ / heːn
address monkey fp. still go up tree go up instant then down it
pɨksaː saː naː ʔaj waː naː / heːn sriː saː / hɛːŋ ʔɔ́ːc lamɔ̀ːŋ
consult reci.mk fp. title monkey fp. it ask reci.mk we take grandpa
ʔan ceːw tɨ́p jaːŋnî ː / ceːw tɨ́p bɔː ŋɨn hiː tɨ́p bɔː
this go bury how go bury pit money or bury pit
thɔːŋ / hɛːŋ ʔɔ́ːc ceːw tɨ́p bɔː ŋɨn hiː tɨ́p bɔː thɔːŋ / heːn
gold we take go bury pit money or bury pit gold it
kɔ sriː saː naː ʔaj waː naː sriː saː / tɨ́p bɔː ŋɨn
then ask reci.mk fp. title monkey fp. ask reci.mk bury pit money
tɨ́p bɔː thɔːŋ tɨ́p bɔː ŋɨn tɨ́p bɔː thɔːŋ / lamɔ̀ːŋ kɛː kɔ
bury pit gold bury pit money bury pit gold grandpa he then
kɔ́h ŋaːj lɛ́ːw / ø tɔ̀ː kɨ̀p nɔ́ːn hɔ́ːc chəːj kɔ́h ŋaːj ləːj /
not speak fp. (he) do body ref.mk die silent not speak fp.
hɔ́ːc sɔ́ːn ləːj naː / ø tɔ̀ː kɨ̀p sɔ́ːn kɔ́h ŋaːj ləːj / tɨ́p
die quiet fp. fp. (he) do body quiet not speak fp. bury

kɔ	tîp	thəh	ø	nɨk	naj	caj	na: /	lamɔ̀:ŋ	tih	hó:c	na:	
then	*bury*	*fp.*	*(he)*	*think*	*in*	*heart*	*fp.*	*grandpa*	*at*	*die*	*fp.*	
ø	ʔó:c	ø	ce:w	tîp	bɔ:	thɔ:ŋ	tîp	naj	bɔ:	thɔ:ŋ /	ø	
(monkey)	*take*	*(he)*	*go*	*bury*	*pit*	*gold*	*bury*	*in*	*pit*	*gold*	*(monkey)*	
ce:w	phlaŋ	saj	ø	ré:	bɔ:	thɔ:ŋ /	ø	kɔ	khut	bɔ:	thɔ:ŋ	
go	*arrive*	*put*	*(grandpa)*	*in*	*pit*	*gold*	*(they)*	*then*	*dig*	*pit*	*gold*	
ʔó:c	lamɔ̀:ŋ	ce:w	tîp /	phɔ:	jan	wa:	kɔ	tîp /	ø	kɔ		
take	*grandpa*	*go*	*bury*	*when*	*to*	*monkey*	*then*	*bury*	*(they)*	*cry*		
ja:m	lə:j	ja:m	nɔ:	nɨ́k phlaŋ	lamɔ̀:ŋ /		hɛ:ŋ	khə:j	cha:	rɔ́:n		
cry	*fp.*	*cry*	*fp.*	*think of*	*grandpa*		*we*	*used to*	*eat*	*melon*		
kɛ:	lə:j	nɔ: /	ø	kúk	rɔ́:n	kɛ:	cha: /	kɛ:	hó:c	hə́:j /	hɛ:ŋ	
he	*fp.*	*fp.*	*(we)*	*steal*	*melon*	*he*	*eat*	*he*	*die*	*already*	*we*	
ce:w	cha:	mpì:	wɨ́c /	rɔ́:n	hɛ:ŋ	kɔ	ʔot	cha:	hə́:j /	hɛ:ŋ	khə:j	
go	*eat*	*what*	*again*	*melon*	*we*	*then*	*starve*	*eat*	*fp.*	*we*	*used to*	
ce:w	kúk	khɔ:ŋ	kɛ:	nɔ: /	ø	thɛ:k	tɔ̀:	chə:j	na: /	thɛ:k	sɔ́:n	
go	*steal*	*thing*	*he*	*fp.*	*(grandpa)*	*sleep*	*do*	*silent*	*fp.*	*sleep*	*quite*	
na: /	kɛ:	kɔ́h	ɲa:j	lé:w	lamɔ̀:ŋ	na: /	phɔ:	mù:	wa:	ce:w	phón	
fp.	*he*	*not*	*speak*	*fp.*	*granpa*	*fp.*	*when*	*group*	*monkey*	*go*	*pass*	
thuk	mo:l	kɛ:	kɔ	khúj	thɔ:ŋ	kapa:j	lə:j /	ø	ʔó:c			
all	*clf.*	*he*	*then*	*delve*	*gold*	*carry on shoulder*	*fp.*	*(he)*	*take*			
ø	jip	toŋ /	ø	jip	phlaŋ	toŋ	kɔ	ʔi:n	klə:	phé:	nak /	
(gold)	*come*	*house*	*(he)*	*come*	*arrive*	*house*	*then*	*have*	*friend*	*three*	*clf.*	
ʔaj	klə:	pɔ̀:	tɔ̀:	mpì: /	ʔaj	phɨən	pɔ̀:	tɔ̀:	mpì:	thɨŋ	pɔ̀:	
title	*friend*	*you*	*do*	*what*	*title*	*friend*	*you*	*do*	*what*	*then*	*you*	
rùəj	hə́:j /	ʔeŋ	tɔ̀:	mpì: /	ʔiɲ	kɔ́h	ʔi:n	tɔ̀:	mpì:	lɛ:w /	ʔiɲ	
rich	*fp.*	*you*	*do*	*what*	*I*	*not*	*get*	*do*	*what*	*fp.*	*I*	
rù:c	ma:l /	ø	rù:c	ma:l	kɔ	tɔ̀:	ja:ŋnî: /	ø	rù:c	ma:l /	ʔiɲ	
clear	*field*	*(you)*	*clear*	*field*	*then*	*do*	*how*	*(I)*	*clear*	*field*	*I*	
kɔ	rù:c	ce:w	kɔ	ʔi:n	cho:l	rɔ́:n /	cho:l	rɔ́:n	kɔ	wa:	jip	
then	*clear*	*go*	*then*	*get*	*plant*	*melon*	*plant*	*melon*	*then*	*monkey*	*come*	
kúk	ʔiɲ	cha: /	ø	kɔ	kúk	ø	ʔiɲ	cha: /	lə:j	ʔiɲ	kɔ	
steal	*I*	*eat*	*(monkey)*	*then*	*steal*	*(melon)*	*I*	*eat*	*then*	*I*	*then*	

tọ: kɨ̀p nó:n hó:c / ø tò: kɨ̀p nó:n hó:c lə:j he:n ʔó:c
do body ref.mk die (I) do body ref.mk die then it take
ʔiɲ ce:w ca tɨ́p / he:n jó:t lamò:ŋ nah kɔ hó:c hə́:j / hɛ:ŋ
I go will bure it complain grandpa p. then die already we
khə:j cha: ró:n kɛ: mpì: kɛ: nɔ: / ø kúk khɔ:ŋ kɛ: cha:
used to eat melon he what he fp. (we) steal thing he eat
nɔ: / ró:n piɲ na: ró:nʔî:t na: / ró:nʔî:t piɲ hɛ:ŋ khə:j kúk
fp. melon ripe fp. melon fp. melon ripe we used to steal
khɔ:ŋ kɛ: cha: / kɛ: kɔ hó:c hə́:j tò: ja:ŋnì: / ʔiɲ tò: ja:ŋ
thing he eat he then die already do how I do like
pò: mɔ:ŋ na: ʔaj phɨən na: klə: na: / ʔiɲ tò: ja:ŋ pò:
you also emp.p address friend emp.p friend emp.p I do like you
mɔ:ŋ / ø tò: ce:w təh / ʔaj phɨən rù:c ma:l lə:j / ø rù:c
also (you) do go fp. title friend clear field then (friend) clear
ma:l thác ma:l lɛ́:w kɔ tú:t tú:t cho:l ró:n / wa: kɔ jip
field cut field afterward make(fire) make(fire) plant melon monkey then come
kúk cha: makɨ̂c / kúk cha: makɨ̂c / ø kɔ cha: thuk ʔa:w thuk
steal eat little steal eat little (they) then eat every day every
ʔa:w cha: con mot ró:n / ø tò: kɨ̀p nó:n hó:c ja:ŋ ʔaj
day eat until lose melon (he) do body ref.mk die like title
klə: lə:j / wa: kɔ jip tàŋ hó:c / ø tàŋ kɔ ja:m hə́:j
friend fp. monkey then come see die (monkey) see then cry fp.
ŋó:t ŋó:t ŋó:t / ʔaj wa: na ja:m na: / lamò:ŋ hɛ:ŋ nɔ: hó:c
ono. ono. ono. title monkey fp. cry fp. grandpa we fp. die
hə́:j / hɛ:ŋ khə:j jip kúk ró:n kɛ: cha: / ʔó:c khɔ: kɛ: cha: /
already we used to come steal melon he eat take thing he eat
khanɛ:n ʔan kɛ: hó:c hə́:j / he:ŋ tó: ja:ŋnì: / ø tò: ja:ŋnì: lɛh /
this time he die already we do how (we) do how fp.
kɔ ja:ŋ sa: sih ja:ŋ sa: / ø ʔó:c kɛ: jip tɨ́p ja:ŋ
then like reci.mk fp like reci.mk (we) take he come bury like
sa: / ø ʔó:c ø ce:w pa:k thé:m taj thé:m lɔ:t na: / pa:k
reci.mk (they) take (old man) go go up kind of tree kind of tree fp. go up

loŋ paːk loŋ paːk loŋ bon théːm níh / hɛːŋ ʔóːc tɨ́p tɔ̀ː
down go up gown go up down on tree we take bury do
ŋaj diː / ʔóːc tɨ́p bɔː ŋin hiː tɨ́p bɔː thɔːŋ / tɨ́p bɔː
how good take bury pit money or bury pit gold bury pit
ŋin hiː tɨ́p bɔː thɔːŋ / hɛːŋ ʔóːc lamɔ̀ːŋ hɛːŋ tɨ́p jaːŋnîː /
money or bury pit gold we take grandpa we bury how
ʔaj lamɔ̀ːŋ péː ʔiːn thɔːŋ kɛ́ːp naː / thɔːŋ kɔ thɔːŋ thəh /
address grandpa (old man) want get gold many fp. gold then gold fp.
thɔːŋ kɔ thɔːŋ thəh / thɔːŋ thəh waː təːŋ ləːj naː / kamúːc
gold then gold fp. gold fp. monkey toss fp. fp. ghost
lɔː hɛ́ːj / kamúːc lɔː hɛːŋ hɛ́ːj / máːj ʔóːc ceːw tɨ́p / təːŋ
spook fp. ghost spook we fp. don't take go bury toss
ø taŋtɛː chóːj níh jan jip phlaŋ pataː / lamɔ̀ːŋ hóːc ləːj /
(old man) since treetop to come arrive below grandpa(old man) die fp.
waː póp tùː mot / kɔ ləːj chop kiː nɔ́ːn
monkey run flee all then end dem. ref.mk

English free translation

The monkey

One old man went to clear a field and plant melon. When the melons were ripe all over the field, the monkeys came to steal and eat them everyday. The old man who owned the watermelons could not capture those monkeys so he pretended to be dead. When the monkeys came and ate the melons, they saw the old man was dead. One of them said, "The old man has already died. I used to come and eat his melons. I stole and ate his melons. He has already died. What shall we do?" One of them said, "We should take and bury him." They carried the old man up and down the trees and could not decide whether to bury him in a money pit or a gold pit. While the monkeys were discussing this, the old man remained silent all this time. He thought if they were going to bury him, he would let them bury him. Finally, they buried him in the gold pit. After the monkeys had gone away, the old man dug up the gold and brought it home.

When he arrived home, his friend asked him how he became rich. The old man told him the whole story. The friend said, "I will do like you." Thus the friend went to clear a field and grow melons. The monkeys came to steal and eat his melons. He pretended to be dead. When the monkeys saw the dead old man, they discussed what to do about him. They could not decide whether to bury him in a gold pit or a money pit. The man wanted to have gold, so he said, "Bury me in a gold pit." The monkeys thought the man's ghost came to frighten them, "The ghost haunts us." They then threw the man from a treetop and the man really died this time. All the monkeys ran away. The end.

méːl krɛ́ːw

kind of fish

pàː nak nàːŋ lamɔ̀ːŋ kiː naː ceːw khrîːt
two clf. grandma(old woman) grandpa(old man) dem. p. go scoop

méːl / ø ceːw khrîːt ø thuw ʔaːw thuw ʔaːw / ø kɔ kɔ́h
fish (they) go scoop (fish) every day every day (they) then not

ʔiːn leːw / ø ʔiːn tɛː méːl krɛ́ːw nɔ́ːn mɔ́ːj / huː lamɔ̀ːŋ ʔəːj ceːw
get fp. (they) get merely scorpion fish ref.mk one Hu kin address p. go

toŋ thəh / lamɔ̀ːŋ ʔəːj kɔ́h ʔiːn lɛ́ːw ʔawan / mùː hɛːŋ ʔiːn tɛː
house fp. kin address p. not get fp. today group we get merely

ʔajháː méːl mɔ́ːj ʔan nɔ́ːn / ceːw toŋ thəh / phɔː ø phlaŋ
slanderous word fish one this ref.mk go house fp. when (they) arrive

toŋ khîk méːl krɛ́ːw ʔɔːŋ réː lɔ́ːn / pàːŋ liŋ kɔ ʔoː lamɔ̀ːŋ
house coop scorpion fish keep in jar tomorrow on then Oh address

ʔɔ́ːc méːl krɛ́ːw hɛːŋ thim seːw chaː thəh / ø ceːw pəːt lɔ́ːn /
take scorpion fish we cook curry eat fp. (he/she) go open jar

pəːt lɔ́ːn pîp kɔ lɔːŋ cháp méːl jip thim seːw / méːl kɔ
open jar suddenly then will catch fish come cook curry fish then

kòŋ / ʔoː lamɔ̀ːŋ ʔəːj máːj tɔ̀ː chan ləːj / nàːŋ ʔəːj máːj tɔ̀ː
cry Oh address p. don't do I fp. kin address p. don't do

chan ləːj / ʔɔːŋ chan cɔːj nàːŋ lamɔ̀ːŋ / chan thóːc chaː liəŋ
I fp. keep I help kin address kin address I earn (seek+eat) feed
nàːŋ lamɔ̀ːŋ / máːj tɔ̀ː chan ləːj / ʔéh lamɔ̀ːŋ méːl kiː ɲaːj
address address don't do I fp. Ah address fish dem. speak
ʔiːn / húː kíːpot kíːpóː ləːj nàːŋ ʔan / méːl mpîː ɲaːj ʔiːn /
can Ho give to lying fp. address this fish what speak can
lamɔ̀ːŋ loːŋ jip ʔóːc nóːn duː / lamɔ̀ːŋ kɔ ceːw cháp / ʔoː
kin address test come take ref.mk fp. kin address then go catch Oh
lamɔ̀ːŋ máːj tɔ̀ː chan / chan loːm chiːwît ʔɔːŋ thəh / ʔɔːŋ
kin address don't do I I beg life keep fp. keep
chan thóːc chaː cheːm nàːŋ lamɔ̀ːŋ / ləːj kɔ kɔ́h ʔóːc lɛ́ːw
I earn (seek+eat) feed kin address kin address then not take fp.
méːl kiː / ø kɔ liəŋ ø ceːw liəŋ ták ŋèt ták (ta)péː
fish dem. (they) then feed (fish) go feed big morning big dusk
ták ŋèt ták (ta)péː / ʔəː lamɔ̀ːŋ ʔawan ceːw thiəw saː thəh
big morning big dusk Aye kin address today go tour reci.mk fp.
hɛːŋ / lamɔ̀ːŋ sriː ceːw thiəw tihnîː / ceːw thiəw talèː nah / ø
we kin address ask go tour where go tour sea fp. (you)
soːn chan ceːw thiəw talèː thəh / chan ʔóːc lamɔ̀ːŋ ceːw pát
send I go tour sea fp. I take address go throw away
réː kłaːŋ kɔ? - naː / tháː mɔ̀h - kát - lamɔ̀ːŋ ø máːj tóp naː / --
in middle island fp. if mosquito bite kin address (you) don't slap fp.
tháː khajáːl jip lamɔ̀ːŋ máːj sreːm naː / lamɔ̀ːŋ cham chan
if wind come address don't curse fp. address wait I
jak ʔan thəh / ʔəː lamɔ̀ːŋ kaːl cham jak ʔan kiː nɔ́ːn /
here fp. O.K address answer wait here dem. ref.mk
heːn kɔ ceːw talèː ták ləːj / ø ceːw rɔ̀p saː mɔːŋ ʔaj
it then go sea big fp. (it) go fight reci.mk with title
naːj ʔiŋpàw / naːj ʔiŋpàw jɔ̀k jip rɔ̀p saː / lamɔ̀ːŋ deː kɨl
Mr. Opaw (name) Mr. Opaw (name) lift come fight reci.mk kin address that stay
kiː naː mɔ̀h khát kɔ kɔ́h tóp / khamáː jip ø kɔ kɔ́h
dem. fp. mosquito bite then not slap rain come (he) then not

sreːm / khajáːl jip ø kɔ kɔ́h sreːm / ø thon jaːŋ kiː
curse wind come (he then not curse (he) endure like hat

nɔ́ːn / phɔː móːj phák ø kɔ tàŋ méːl kiː jip hóːj / ø
ref.mk when one time (he) then see fish dem. come fp. (it)

jip puŋ ták ʔiŋʔáːŋ ləːj naː / puŋ naː ták naː / lamɔ̀ːŋ
come stomach big fp. fp. stomach fp. big fp. address

ceːw toŋ saː thəh heːŋ / ø cɨ́h waːŋ chan thəh / lamɔ̀ːŋ kɔ cɨ́h
go house reci.mk fp. we (you) ride back I fp. grandpa then ride

waːŋ méːl jip toŋ / jip phlaŋ kheːw nàːŋ / nàːŋ ʔóːc niːl
back fish come house come arrive call grandma kin address take mat

jip klâːj thəh / nàːŋ kɔ jɔ̀k niːl ceːw klâːl ʔɨ́h lamɔ́ːt
come spread fp. grandma then lift mat go spread give grandpa

méːl heːn srɔ́ːŋ / ø ʔóːc niːl klâːj set ø haː ranɛːŋ /
fish it tell (grandma) take mat spread finish (fish) open mouth

haː jip ʔiːn sát tɛː ŋɨn sát tɛː thɔːŋ thaŋnan ləːj / ŋɨn
open come have all money all gold all fp. money

thɔːŋ ʔiːn pɔ̀ːŋ réː niːl ləːj / ləːj lamɔ̀ːŋ nàːŋ kɔ rùəj / ʔiːn
gold have full in mat fp. then grandma grandpa then rich have

hóːp ʔiːn chaː / ø kɔ́h chon həːj naː / ʔiːn ŋɨn ʔiːn thɔːŋ
eat have eat (they) not poor already fp. have money have gold

cé: ləːj / klɔː kiː tàŋ / ʔɔː ʔaj klɔː pɔ̀ː tɔ̀ː mpìː pɔ̀ː
use fp. friend dem. see Aye address friend you do what you

rùəj nah / tɔːj ʔaj pɔ̀ː con sih / ʔiŋ ʔiːn méːl ʔiŋ naː
rich fp. before address you poor fp. I get fish I fp.

ø ceːw thɔ́ːc chaː ʔɔ́ːc khɔːŋ jip ʔɨ́h ø / ʔɔː jaːŋ kiː ø
(it) go earn (seek+eat) take thing come give (I) Aye like that (I)

ʔɨ́h ʔiŋ jɨ́ːm ø ceːw móːj ʔaːw sih / ʔiŋ cháw pɔ̀ː / ø
give I borrow (fish) go one day fp. I hire you (you)

ʔoːc ceːw duː / ʔoːc ceːw duː / pen klɔː saː kiː naː / pen
take go fp. take go fp be friend reci.mk dem. fp. be

klɔː saː kɔ ləːj ʔɨ́h kiː méːl ceːw / méːl ceːw thɔ́ːc chaː
friend reci.mk then give dem. fish go fish go earn

klə: / ce:w phlaŋ ʔaj mé:l srɔ́:ŋ lamɔ̀:ŋ / mɔ̀h khát lamɔ̀:ŋ
friend go arrive address fish tell grandpa mosquito bite grandpa
má:j sre:m na: / khamá: jip lamɔ̀:ŋ má:j sre:m na: / khajá:l
don't curse fp. rain come grandpa don't curse fp. wind
pha:jú: lamɔ̀:ŋ má:j sré:m lə:j / lamɔ̀:ŋ ràp ʔə: na: ʔaj
storm grandpa don't curse fp. grandpa receive O.K. fp. address
klə: ki: / mé:l ce:w / mɔ̀h jip khát ø / ʔajsi: jip khát
friend dem. fish go mosquito come bite (old man) curse come bite
pɔ̀:ŋ mot / khɔ́:t mɛ: mɔ̀h jət mɛ: mɔ̀h / ʔo:j khamá: jip
full all curse mosquito curse mosquito Oh rain come
hɔ́:j / ʔiŋ sɛ́c nah / hɔ́:c hɔ́:j ʔiŋ lîŋ ja:ŋ ʔan / phɔ: pha:jú:
fp. I cold fp. die already I play like this when storm
jip sre:m pha:jú: wîc / mɔ́:j phák mé:l ki: kɔ jip hɔ́:j /
come curse storm again one time fish dem. then come fp.
chan pɛ́: nak hɔ́:j / ø ce:w ròp kɔ pɛ́: nak / ce:w thəh
I defeated he/she fp. (fish) go fight then defeated he/she go fp.
lamɔ̀:ŋ / ce:w toŋ thəh / mé:l phlaŋ toŋ kɔ ʔi:n maʔa:w pà:
grandpa go house fp. fish arrive house then get one day two
ʔa:w mé:l kɔ hɔ́:c / lamɔ̀:ŋ mɔ́:j na: nâ:k ʔaj klə: / lamɔ̀:ŋ
day fish then die grandpa one p. be not title friend grandpa
de: liəŋ he:n / thâ: chan hɔ́:c má:j pát klɔ:ŋ jàpjɔ:j na: /
that feed it if I die don't throw away bone scattered fp.
lamɔ̀:ŋ pɔ́h thəh na: / ø ʔɔ́:c chan ce:w pɔ́h thəh / ø
grandpa burn fp. fp. (you) take I go burn fp. (you)
ʔɔ́:c chan ce:w pɔ́h thəh / ø jok ti: kapáh ʔɨ́h ʔi:n pen
take I go burn fp. (grandpa) lift hand salute give get be
ŋɨn pen thɔ:ŋ pen toŋ pen khanám thəh / ʔi:n pen kapa:w
money be gold be house be house fp. get be buffalo
pen trɔ:j thəh / lə:j mé:l kɔ hɔ́:c / ø hɔ́:c kɔ lamɔ̀:ŋ ʔɔ́:c
be cow fp. then fish then die (fish) die then grandpa take
ø ce:w pɔ́h / ø ʔɔ́:c ce:w pɔ́h mé:l ki: / jɔ́h pathɨ́t páŋ
(it) go burn (he) take go burn fish dem. finish break out ono.

jip	kɔ	ʔiːn	pen	kapaːw /	paŋ	pen	trɔːj /	paŋ	ʔiːn	pen	
come	*then*	*get*	*be*	*buffalo*	*ono.*	*be*	*cow*	*ono.*	*get*	*be*	
toŋ /	ləːj	lamɔ̀ːŋ	kiː	rùəj /	chop	móːj	kiː	nɔ́ːn			
house	*then*	*grandpa*	*dem.*	*rich*	*end*	*one*	*dem.*	*ref.mk*			

English free translation

The scorpion fish

An old man and an old woman went to fish (with a hand-net) everyday. One day, they could not catch any fish except the scorpion fish. The old woman said, "Let's go to our home. We can not catch any fish today. We only got this fish." When they got home, they kept the scorpion fish in the jar. The following morning, the old woman told her husband, "Bring our scorpion fish for cooking." Then she opened the jar to catch the fish. The fish instantly said, "Oh! Please don't take me for cooking. I will help Grandma and Grandpa make a living. Please don't take me for cooking." The old woman told her husband that this fish was able to speak. The old man did not believe her and said, "Huu! You tell a lie. What kind of fish can speak?" So he came to prove it for himself. When the old man caught the fish. The fish said, "Please spare my life. I will help you make a living." So they let the fish live and raised it and it grew up rapidly. One day the fish told the old man to take it out to the sea. When they went to the sea. The fish told the old man before it went into the sea, "I will take Grandpa to the center of the island. Grandpa, wait for me here. Don't kill a mosquito if it bites you and don't curse the wind." The old man promised. The fish then went into the large sea to fight with Mr. Ingpaw. The old man who stayed on the island was bitten by a mosquito, he did not hit it. When it rained, he did not curse it. When it was windy, he did not curse it. A moment later the fish returned to him. Its stomach was huge. It said, "Let's go to our house. You ride on my back." The old man then rode the fish back home. When they arrived, the fish told the old woman to spread out the mat and it opened it's mouth and took out gold from its stomach. The mat was full of money and gold. The old couple became rich instantly. They were well-to-do.

A friend saw the old couple was rich, and he asked, "How did you became wealthy? In the old days, you were poor." The old man told his friend the story and his friend asked to borrow the fish for one day. The couple lent their friend the fish for the

sake of friendship. The man took the fish to the sea. The fish told the man before it went into the sea, "Don't kill a mosquito if it bites you and don't curse the wind and rain." The man stayed waiting but he killed mosquitoes and cursed the wind and rain. A moment later the fish came. It lost the battle with Ingpaw because the man did not keep his promise. A few days later, before the fish died, it told the old man who fed it to cremate it. When it was cremated, the bones exploded into buffaloes, cows, a house, and gold. The old couple became rich. The end.

ʔajpìː ʔiːn ʔamnáːt kwaː ʔajpìː

who have power than who

kanaːj klòŋ huːm próːk sanaː kóh ʔiːn klòŋ leːw /
elephant cry ono. squirrel chipmunk not get cry fp
phɔː lawaːj klòŋ ŋaːw ʔuːm próːk sanaː thák thanthiː ləːj / ʔɔːŋ
when tiger cry ono. squirrel chipmunk greet suddenly fp. keep
kóh ʔiːn léːw thóːŋ chaː / khanaːj kɔ ceːw hóːj nát saː
not get fp. must eat elephant then go fp. arrange reci.mk
naː / ø chaː ø troŋ nîː ʔíh sróːŋ / chaː troŋ nîː kɔ ʔíh chaː /
fp. (you/tiger) eat (I) where give tell eat where then give eat
naːn wíc phéː ʔaːw lɔːŋ chaː / ləːj kanaːj ceːw pɔ̀ːp katoŋ /
yet again three day will eat then elephant go meet rabbit
katoŋ sriː jaːm tɔ̀ːm̩pîː nàːŋ / nóːn siəthâː hóːj / nak lɔːŋ chaː
rabbit ask weep why kin title ref. pron miss fp. he will eat
ø / nóːn doːn nak chaː hóːj / tɔ̀ːm̩pîː thɨŋ nak chaː / tɔ̀ːm̩pîː
(I) ref. pron passive he eat fp. why to he eat why
thɨŋ ʔiːn nak chaː / nóːn ceːw phanan mɔːŋ nak kiː / nóːn
to get he eat ref.pron. go bet with he dem. ref.pron.
ceːw klòŋ kóh ʔamnáːt / kóh ʔajpîː tɨːn ləːj / phɔː lawaːj
go cry not power not who stampede fp. when tiger

klòŋ ŋa:w ʔu:m / pró:k thák lán ló:k mot / katoŋ sró:ŋ kɔ́h
cry ono. squirrel greet resound world all rabbit tell not
tɔ́:ŋ tɔ́:ŋ le:w nà:ŋ ʔə:j / chan tatsin ʔíh nɔ́:n / katoŋ
must fear fp. address(old woman) fp. I judge give ref.mk babbit
cɨ́h tóh kana:j lə:j / ce:w pà:p troŋ ʔan troŋ ten / phɔ: ce:w
ride head elephant fp. go meet here there when go
phlaŋ troŋ ki: katoŋ sró:ŋ nà:ŋ ʔə:j kɨl troŋ ʔan na: / jɔ̀h ø
arrive there rabbit tell kin address p. stay here fp. finish (you)
klòŋ thəh / ja:ŋ ki: kɔ nɔ́:n kado:t pa:k tóh / nà:ŋ kɔ klòŋ lə:j
cry fp. like that then ref.mk jump go up head kin address then cry fp.
klòŋ hu:m lə:j / lawa:j kɔ jip / phɔ: lawa:j jip phlaŋ kana:j
cry ono. fp. tiger then come when tiger come arrive elephant
kɔ kòŋ ʔu:m / katoŋ kɔ kado:t pa:k tóh ø kana:j chom ʔú:
then cry ono. rabbit then jump go up head (elephant) elephant buried
lə:j jó:j / ø kado:t pa:k tóh ø / ø chom ʔú: wîc / lawa:j
fp. fp. (rabbit) jump go up head (elephant) (elephant) buried again tiger
ʔɔ:k póp kɔ́h klá: le:w / ø kɔ́h klâ: cha: ø / ø ce:w
out ran not dare fp. (tiger) not dare eat (elephant) tiger go
pà:p wa: / wa: sri: lawa:j póp tɔ̀:m̩pì:/ wa: kɔ́h kháh tuə
meet monkey monkey ask tiger ran why monkey not known body
m̩pì: kîc chî ət/ kì p kíc chíət cèn kana:j chom ʔú: lə:j wə:j /
what very small body very small tread on elephant buried fp. fp.
wa: sró:ŋ lawa:j ce:w thəh na: / lawa:j sró:ŋ kɔ́h ce:w le:w/
monkey tell tiger go fp. tiger tell not go fp.
lawa:j póp wa: kɔ póp jaj / wa: kɔ cɨ́h lawa:j / lawa:j
tiger run monkey then run extensively monkey then ride tiger tiger
kɔ póp jaj / ø kó:c kwé:n tit sa: / ø han jip tàŋ
then run extensively (they) tie waist close recı.mk tiger to face come see
wa: chaŋiŋ / wa: kɔ hó:c / ʔo:j kana: wo:j han kha:ŋ pè:k
monkey monkey then die Aye friend p. to face side laugh
niŋ / ʔajha: klə: pè:k tɔ̀:m̩pì: náh han kha:ŋ / klə: hó:c
curse friend laugh why fp. to face side friend die

su:nsiə	klə: /	ø	sá:k	klə:	ʔɔ:k	ʔó:c	jip	cha:
lose	*friend*	*(tiger)*	*untie*	*friend*	*out*	*take*	*come*	*eat*

English free translation

Who was more powerful?

When an elephant cried "Huum", squirrels and chipmunks did not stir, but when a tiger roared "Ngaw Aum", squirrels and chipmunks ran for their lives instantly. The tiger said he must eat the elephant. The elephant made an appointment with the tiger. It said to the tiger, "Where will you eat me? Please tell me. You will eat me anywhere, I allow you to eat me there." The tiger said he would eat the elephant in the next three days. The elephant went to see a rabbit. The rabbit asked, "Why are you crying?" The elephant said, "I have been defeated already. He will eat me." The rabbit asked, "Why will he eat you?" The elephant told the rabbit that he lost his bet to the tiger when they competed to see who was more powerful by roaring. The elephant said, "When I cried, there was no power. Nobody stirred. But when a tiger roared "Ngaw Aum", squirrels stirred." The rabbit told, "Don't fear. I will settle the matter." The rabbit road on the elephant's head and told him to wait at that specific place. The rabbit told the elephant to roar when the tiger came. When the tiger came, the rabbit jumped onto the elephant's head and the elephant sank. When the tiger saw that, it dared not go to eat the elephant and ran away. The monkey asked the tiger why he was running. The tiger replied that he saw a small animal that sank the element. The monkey told the tiger to take him to see, but the tiger refused for fear of his life. The tiger then ran. The monkey jumped onto the tiger's back and tied himself to the tiger. The tiger ran so fast. It faced and saw the monkey bare it's teeth. The monkey was dead. Then the tiger took the monkey to eat.

chó: ʔi:n khe:n pen kasím

dog have child be person

miŋ kɔ pen chó: / khe:n pen kasím / khe:n rà:j pa:l nak
mother particle be dog child be person child twelve clf.
ʔi:n klɔ̀:ŋ mot hâ:j / klɔ̀:ŋ nak kɔ pen tahaːn pen cá:w pen
have husband all fp. husband she particle be soldier be royalty be
na:j mot / naːn ʔi:n khe:n sutthó:ŋ / khe:n sutthó:ŋ kɔ ʔi:n klɔ̀:ŋ
master all yet have child last child last particle get husband
cá:w / nak ʔi:n khrɔ:pkhuə mot lə:j / ø ce:w thó:c khe:n/
royalty she have family all fp. (dog) go seek child
ø ce:w thó:c khe:n ták tó:j / khe:n ták tàŋ / chó: jip ca:k
(dog) go seek child big before child big see dog com from
nî: / chó: jip ca:k nî: hâ:j / ʔó:c kloŋ ʔíh he:n cha: thəh/
where eat come from where fp. take rice hive it eat fp.
ʔó:c kloŋ ʔíh he:n cha: thəh / chan hiw liəkə:n hâ:j / ø
take rice give it eat fp. I hungry exceedingly fp. (first child)
ʔó:c kloŋ ʔíh ø cha: / ø ʔó:c kloŋ ʔíh ø cha: set
take rice give (dog) eat (first child) take rice give (dog) eat finish
ʔó:c rà:ŋ tu: tóh ø phlo:ŋ / ø ce:w wîc jó:j / ø kòŋ
take trough hit head (dog) ono. (dog) go again fp. (it) cry
ŋá:k ŋá:k ŋá:k ce:w wîc jó:j / ø ce:w thó:c khe:n pà: / chó:
ono. ono. ono. go again fp. (it) go seek second child dog
ʔan bá: hi: / chó: jip ca:k nî: / ké: nah ja:ŋ ʔan / ʔó:c
this mad or dog come from where unbeautiful fp. like this take
kloŋ ʔíh he:n cha: thəh / he:n hiw kloŋ nó:n / ø ʔó:c
rice give it eat fp. it hungry rice ref.mk (second child) take
kloŋ ʔíh he:n cha: / ø ʔó:c rà:ŋ tu: tóh ø wîc / ø ce:w
rice give it eat (she) take trough hit head (it) again (it/dog) go
phlaŋ khe:n tih phó:n / khe:n phó:n kɔ ʔó:c kloŋ jip ʔíh ø ja:ŋ
arrive child fourth fourth child then take rice come give (dog) like

khe:n tɔ́:j / ø ʔó:c rà:ŋ tu: tóh ø wíc / ø ce:w rɨəj /
child before (she) take trough hit head (it) aggain (it/dog) go continually
ø ce:w phlaŋ khe:n sutthɔ́:ŋ / khe:n kíc sutthɔ́:ŋ khe:n suttha:j na:
(it) go arrive last child child small last born last child fp.
tàŋ miɲ páp kɔ lə:j ja:m / phɔ: ø ja:m set klɔ̀:ŋ kɔ
see mother suddenly then weep when (she) weep finish husband then
sri: pò: ja:m tɔ̀:m̩pì: / miɲ chan na: pen chɔ́: / miɲ chan pen
ask you weep why mother I fp. be dog mother I be
chɔ́: / thɨŋ chɔ́: kɔ miɲ / thɨŋ ca pen chɔ́: kɔ pen miɲ /
dog although dog then mother although will be dog then be mother
ø ʔó:c kloŋ ʔɨ́h kɛ: ce:w / lə:j khe:n kɔ ʔó:c kloŋ saj
(she) take rice give she go then child take rice put
chá:m kɔ̀:p thɔ:ŋ ʔɨ́h miɲ cha: / ʔó:c miɲ jip pa:k toŋ /
bowl edge gold give mother eat take mother come go up house
ø cé: saŋɨn ʔó:c miɲ jip pa:k toŋ / miɲ hɛ:ŋ sih ʔó:c
husband order wife take mother come go up house mother we fp. take
miɲ jip pa:k toŋ / ø kɔ lə:j pe:w miɲ jip pa:k toŋ /
mother come go up house (child) then carry mother come go up house
ø ʔó:c mɔ:n ʔó:c fú:k jip ʔɨ́h miɲ thɛ:k / miɲ kɔ kat
(she) take pillow take mattress come give mother sleep mother then pain
temthi: hó:j / ø kat tóh buəm mot lə:j tóh kì na: / ʔaj
most fp (mother) pain head swell all fp. head dem. fp. address
khliɲ khliɲ tu: / phlaŋ na:ŋ sutthɔ́:ŋ saŋ miɲ lə:j
elder sibling elder sibling hit arrive lady address last born hear mother then
ja:m / ø kɔ ʔó:c miɲ pa:k toŋ / miɲ hɛ:ŋ chá:ŋthəh pen
weep (she) then take mother go up house mother we don't care be
chɔ́: kɔ miɲ / ʔó:c jip thɛ:k liɲ toŋ / khe:n ʔə:j miɲ nah
dog mother take come sleep on house child p. mother p.
kat temthi: hó:j / ø cɔ:j kɨ̀p lɔ:ŋ kɔ́h waj hó:j / miɲ tɔ̀:n
pain most fp. (mother) help body will mot can fp. mother pass.mk
tu: tóh du: labom mot hó:j / tóh buəm tóh núm mot hó:j
hit head int. sore all fp. head swell head yielding all fp.

tóh miɲ / miɲ hâ:j thɛ:k thəh / ø thɛ:k lə:j / miɲ kɔ́h thɛ:k
head mother mother p. sleep fp. (you) sleep fp. mother not sleep
lé:w ré: fú:k / miɲ pen chɔ́: nah / ø kɔ́h pen kasǐm ja:ŋ
fp. in mattress mother be dog fp. (I) not be person like
khe:n /thiŋ chɔ́: kɔ miɲ cháːŋthəh ø thɛ:k thəh / miɲ kat temthi:
child although dog then mother don't care (you) sleep fp. mother pain most
hɔ́:j / khe:n ʔə:j miɲ lɔ:ŋ hɔ́:c hâ:j / phɔ: ø lɔ:ŋ hɔ́:c kɔ
fp. child p. mother will die fp. when (mother) will die then
saŋát mɔ:ŋ khe:n /phɔ: miɲ hɔ́:c ø kɔ tɔ̀: hi:p nah khe:n
order with child when mother die (you) then do casket fp. child
na: / ø tɔ̀: hi:p saj miɲ na: / khanu:l ʔa:w rɨ̂: ø /
fp. (you) do casket put mother fp. seven day pull down (casket)
rà:j phram ʔa:w pə:t né: miɲ mɔ́:j thi: na: / miɲ hɔ́:c hâ:j
fifteen day open look mother one time fp. mother die already
tɔ̀: hi:p saj kunce: ʔo:ɲ lə:j / phɔ: ʔi:n rà:j phram ʔa:w
do casket put key keep fp. when get fifteen day
pə:t né: / ø pə:t né: kɔ tàŋ klɔ:ŋ pen thɔ:ŋ thaŋnan /
open look (she/child) open look then see bone be gold all
pen ŋin pen thɔ:ŋ / na:n kɔ́h ʔɔ́:c hi:p ce:w pɔ́h / klɔ:ŋ pen
be money be gold yet not take casket go burn bone be
ŋin pen thɔ:ŋ / khe:n-sutthá:j rùəj lə:j pen maha:se:tthi: pen kasǐm
money be gold last child rich fp. be multimillionaire be person
rùəj lə:j / kɔ hi:p na:n kɔ́h ʔi:n pɔ́h / khliɲ khliɲ
rich fp. casket yet not get burn elder sibling elder sibling
kháh miɲ hɔ́:c / ø kháh hɔ́:j chɔ́: hɔ́:c pen miɲ ki: na: /
know mother die (they) know already dog die be mother dem. fp.
ø ʔɔ́:c khɔ:ŋ jip tɔ̀: bun mɔ:ŋ cá:w na: / nak ʔi:n klɔ̀:ŋ
(they) take thing come do merit with royalty fp. she have husband
pen cá:w na: khe:n sutthá:j na: / ø ʔɔ́:c kloŋ jip phlaŋ pen
be royalty fp. last child fp. (they) take rice come arrive be
ʔîc chɔ́: / ʔɔ́:c se:w jip tɔ̀: bun mɔ:ŋ / se:w jip phlaŋ
excrement dog take curry come do merit also curry come arrive

lɔ:ŋ tɔ̀: bun hó:j / se:w kɔ pen có:t chɔ́: có:t chɔ́:
will do merit fp. curry then be vomit dog vomit dog
thaŋnan / se:w pen có:t / kloŋ pen ʔíc chɔ́: / khúk pát
all curry be vomit rice be excrement dog pour throw away
mot / khliŋ khliŋ jip tɔ̀: bun mɔ:ŋ kɔ́h ʔi:n lɛ:w / ø
all elder sibling elder sibling come do merit with not can fp. (they)
ʔó:c kloŋ ʔó:c se:w jip tɔ̀: bun mɔ:ŋ kɔ́h ʔi:n lə:j / pen
take rice take curry come do merit with not can fp. be
ʔíc chɔ́: pen có:t chɔ́: mot lə̀:j / ʔi:n na:ŋ suttha:j ni: na:
excrement dog be vomit dog all fp. have lady title last born this fp.
lə:j tɔ̀: bun mó:j nɔ́:n / ø kep klɔ:ŋ ʔɔ:ŋ bu:cha:/ tú:t
then do merit one ref.mk (she) keep bone keep worship light (fire)
thu:p tú:t thiən bu:cha: bu:cha: klɔ:ŋ miŋ / ø ʔó:c hi:p
joss stick light (fire) candle worship worship bone mother (she) take casket
ce:w pɔ́h / ø pathɨ́t pen pa:sa:t / pathɨ́t pen kapa:w / pathɨ́t
go burn (bone) break out be castle break out be buffalo break out
pen trɔ:j / pathɨ́t jip pen khɔ:ŋ cé: / pathɨ́t pen thuk siŋ thuk ja:ŋ
be cow break out come be utensils break out be everything everything
pen khɔ̀p khɔ:ŋ cé: lɛh / lə:j na:ŋ sutthɔ́:ŋ nak ʔi:n klɔ̀:ŋ pen
be fully utensils fp. then lady title last born she have husband be
cá:w rùəj mó:j nɔ́:n / khliŋ khliŋ ʔó:c kloŋ jip tɔ̀: bun
royalty rich one ref.mk elder sibling elder sibling take rice come do merit
kɔ́h ʔi:n lə:j / pen ʔíc chɔ́: pen có:t chɔ́: mot prɔ̀h ba:p
not can fp. be excrement dog be vomit dog all because sins
ʔaj ki: tu: tɔ́h miŋ nɔ́:n / kɔ́h napthi: ø / tàŋ miŋ pen chɔ́:
as hit head mother ref.mk not respect (mother) see mother be dog
kré: mɔ:ŋ klɔ̀:ŋ / mot thawnan / dá:j na:ŋ suttha:j ʔi:n bun
annoy with husband end only get lady title last born have merit
náh kháh khun miŋ /
fp. know favor mother

English free translation

A dog bore human children

A mother was a dog but its children were human. All of its children had husband. Their husbands were soldiers and superiors except the last one who was married to a prince. One day, the mother dog went to visit her children. She went to the eldest daughter first. When the eldest daughter saw the dog, she said, "Where does this dog come from?" Her husband told her, "Take rice to feed it." The dog said, 'I am very hungry." After the dog was fed , the daughter hit it on the head with the trough. It cried, "Ngaak Ngaak Ngaak" and went forward. The dog went to see the second daughter. When the second daughter saw the dog, she said, "Is this a crazy dog or did it come from somewhere else." Her husband told her, "Take rice to feed it. It must be hungry." After the dog was fed , she hit the dog on the head with the trough. The dog was hurt and went away. Then it went to see the other daughter and received the same treatment. When the dog went to the youngest daughter, she was badly hurt. When the youngest daughter saw her mother dog, she burst into tears. Her husband asked why was she crying. She then told him that, "This dog is my mother." Her husband replied, "Though she is a dog, she is your mother. Feed her and take her upstairs." The daughter took the dog upstairs and fed her in a gold rimmed bowl. She put her mother on a mattress and a pillow and told her to rest. The mother dog was in great pain and told her daughter, "Mother is badly hurt. I was hit on the head by your elder sisters." The daughter felt sorry when she heard what her mother said. The mother dog knew that she was going to die soon. She told her youngest daughter that when she died, she should put her in a casket and not open it for fifteen days. After fifteen days she opened the casket and saw that the dog had turned into gold. The youngest daughter become very rich and become a multimillionaire. The casket had not been burnt yet. When her elder sisters learned of their mother's death, they came to pay respect. They brought with them rice and curry as an offering. When they came into the house, the rice turned into dog's excrement and the curry became dog's vomit. They were unable to make merit, except the youngest daughter. The youngest daughter kept her mother 's bone for worship. When she took the casket to be burnt, it burst into a castle, buffaloes, cows and utensils. She became a millionaire because of her respect and gratitude to her mother.

BIOGRAPHY

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