SAEK REVISITED

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This article is intended to complement Professor Gedney's 1970 article on 'The Saek Language of Nakhon Phanom Province', in which he describes the phonological structure of Saek. In this paper I will discuss some word classes such as personal pronouns, sentence particles, question words and classifiers.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Like other Thai dialects, Saek has different words to mean 'I', 'you' and the third person. Also like most Thai dialects spoken in the provinces of Thailand, Saek has a less elaborate system of personal pronouns than Standard Thai. This is certainly due to or related to the social structure of the community and the use of personal pronouns reflects this structure. In selecting the suitable personal pronoun in Saek, one has to consider "age" and "type of relation" of the speaker, the hearer, and the third person. Unlike Standard Thai, any personal pronoun in Saek can be used by both male and female speakers. Saek has the following personal pronouns:

Firs.	t Person	Secon	d Person	Third	Person
1.	hoy ⁵	1.	caw³	1.	vua ⁵
2.	phaan¹	2.	?ay³	2.	raw ⁶
3.	hiiŋ ⁵	3.	?ay³	3.	man ⁶
4.	kuu ⁶	4.	m÷ŋ ⁶		
5.	ruu ⁴	5.	?ay³		

Table I

 $[hoy^5]$ 'I' indicates politeness, It is used when the speaker wants to show respect and politeness toward the hearer who, normally, is older or unacquainted.

 $[phaan^1]$ 'I' is used when the hearer is about the same age as the speaker.

[$hiin^5$] 'I' is used among people of the same age to show intimacy.

[ruu 4] 'I' has the same usage as [hii η^5].

[kuu^6] 'I' indicates intimacy. It is used when the speaker is older or about the same age as the hearer.

[caw³] 'you' indicates politeness. It is used when the hearer is older than the speaker or when the hearer is a stranger.

[?a γ^3] 'you' is used when the speaker and the hearer are about the same age. They can be friends or strangers.

 $[min^6]$ 'you' indicates intimacy. It is used when the hearer is younger or about the same age as the speaker.

[vua⁵] 'he, she' is used to refer to a respected or older third person.

[raw⁶] 'he, she' refers to third person in general.

[man⁶] 'he, she, it' refers to a younger third person.

[phaan 1], [hii \mathfrak{g}^5] and [ruu 4] may be used interchangeably. They have no difference in meaning.

Each Saek personal pronoun refers to only one person, that is, plurality is not expressed in this class of words. When there is a need to indicate plurality, either [muu²] 'group' or [phuak⁵] 'group' is added in front of each personal pronoun, for example, [muu² ruu⁴] 'we', [phuak⁵ ruu⁵] 'they'. Or the word [kin⁶] 'each other' follows the verb to indicate that there is more than person performing the action of the verb, for example, [man⁶ mok⁴ kin⁶] 'They beat each other'.

The first and the second person pronouns go in pairs as indicated by the numerical order in Table I above. That is, the selection of one form of 'I' determines the choice for the form of 'you'. It would sound peculiar if the expected partner of the pair were not used.

[raw⁶] which is used as a first and second person in many other dialects is used as a third person pronoun in this dialect. Is it possible that [raw] was once used as a first, second, and third person, which is like present usage of kinship terms and personal names?

II. NAMES, KIN TERMS, AND TITLES

Personal names and kinship terms can also be used as personal pronouns, but they have a wider usage. That is, they can be used either as a first person, a second person or a third person. Person names in Saek are not different from those in Standard Thai or other Thai dialects but what is conspicuous is that Saek person names are considered old-fashioned by the speakers of Standard Thai whose names are created daily based on Sanskrit. The following are kinship terms in Saek:

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[yaa<sup>3</sup> - thuat<sup>3</sup>] paternal great-grandmother
[puu^2 - thuat^3]
[?aay^4 - thuat^3]
[oon<sup>4</sup> - thuat<sup>3</sup>]
[phoo<sup>5</sup>] father [mee<sup>5</sup>] mother
[?oon<sup>5</sup>] grandfather [taa<sup>6</sup>] maternal grandfather
[yaa3] maternal grandmother [?aay4] maternal grandmother
[puu^2] paternal grandfather [yaa^3] paternal grandfather
[lun"] mother's or father's older brother
[paa<sup>3</sup>] mother's or father's older sister
[?aaw³] father's younger brother
[?ɔɔ³] father's younger sister
[?ææŋ¹] eldest son
[cii<sup>3</sup>] eldest daughter
[phii<sup>5</sup>] older sibling
[nuan<sup>3</sup>] younger sibling
[lik<sup>3</sup>] offspring
[laan<sup>2</sup>] grandchild
[leenl]
          great-grandchild
[lost<sup>2</sup>] great-great-grandchild
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The last six kinship terms may take the suffix [baaw*] 'male' or [saaw*] 'female' to indicate gender; for example, [l+k3-baaw*] 'son' and [laan²-saaw*] 'granddaughter'. They can also take the suffix [khwooy*] 'male-in-law' and [khwəə³] 'female-in-law' to indicate relationship by marriage; for example, [l+k3-khwooy*] 'son-in-law', and [laan²-khwəə³] 'wife of a grandson'. Saek has different titles for old people, young people, and children. [thaw³] which means 'old' is used in front of old people's names to show politeness or respect; for example, [thaw³-maa6] 'Mr Maa' or [thaw³-sii¹] 'Mrs See'. [threem³] is used in front of younger people's names. Like [thaw³], [threem³] may be used either before a male or a female name. Boys and girls get different titles: [?ææŋ³] is used preceding a boy's name and [naaŋ*] before a

girl's name. What is noticeable here is that Saek children have separate titles but as they grow up they share the same titles.

III. SENTENCE PARTICLES

Marvin Brown describes sentence particles, the label often applied to short words which are added at the end of sentences, functioning in a way comparable to English intonation. Those particles never occur alone to convey meaning. They may be used to indicate an urge, a command, or to form questions.

There are two question particles in Saek, [haa3] and [he?4-boo2]. These two words turn statements into questions when added at the end of the sentence.

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These two words can be used interchangeably, for example:
[mee<sup>3</sup> yuu<sup>2</sup> raan<sup>4</sup>
                       he?4-boo27
mother to be home question particle
Is mother home?
[mee<sup>3</sup> yuu<sup>2</sup> raan<sup>4</sup>
                       haa³]
 mother to be home question particle
 Is mother home?
          he?4-boo27
 to like question particle
Do you like it?
[mak<sup>4</sup>
          haa³7
 to like question particle
 Do you like it?
[yuu<sup>4</sup> nam<sup>4</sup> phan<sup>3</sup> haa<sup>3</sup>]
 to swim to be able question particle
Do you swim?
[si^2-hit^2 he?^4-boo^2]
 will do
             question particle
 Are you going to do it?
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The following are some other final particles in Saek.

 $[na^6-khay^4]$ is added at the end of a positive command to make it sound stronger and show the urge of the speaker.

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[riik<sup>5</sup> rææŋ<sup>4</sup> rææŋ<sup>4</sup> na<sup>6</sup>-khay<sup>4</sup>]

to call loud loud particle

Call him loudly!
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[tak* nam6 thrææ² - thrææ² na6-khay*]

to dip water soft soft particle

Dip up the water softly!

[?aw¹ din¹-som³ pay¹ kuan6 nam6 na6-khay*]

to take alum go stir water particle

Stir some alum in the water!
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[?iil³] is also added at the end of a positive command. Though it shows the urge of the speaker, it is different from [na⁶-khay⁴] in that it adds a sympathetic feeling of the speaker towards the listener. Thus, it is mostly used when the speaker is older or superior to the listener. The word is pronounced [?iit³] by younger speakers.

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[thuu<sup>1</sup> raan<sup>4</sup> ?iil<sup>3</sup>]

to clean house particle

Clean the floor!

[kin<sup>1</sup> ?iil<sup>3</sup>]

to eat particle

Eat it!
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 $\left[\text{di?}^4\right]$ is used in negative sentences to soften them. To native speakers, a negative sentence without this particle sounds harsh and almost impolite.

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[boo<sup>2</sup> pay<sup>1</sup> di?<sup>4</sup>]

not to go particle

I am not going.

[boo<sup>2</sup> kin<sup>1</sup> di?<sup>4</sup>]

not to eat particle

No, I won't eat it.

[vaw<sup>4</sup> boo<sup>2</sup> nak<sup>4</sup> di?<sup>4</sup>]

light not heavy particle

No, it is light; it is not heavy.
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[?iit"] is used at the end of a statement to show that whatever the speaker is doing is not important or does not take any particular energy.

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[pay¹ tham² sak⁴ ?iit⁴]

to go to visit just particle

I am going to visit him (a little).

[yak⁴ phia³ ?iit⁴]

to wash blouse particle

I am washing (a little).
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[het2 lææ6-ŋaay4
                                        ?iit<sup>4</sup>]
    to do things to eat with rice particle
    I am cooking (a little).
   Other question words such as 'who', 'what', 'where', 'when', 'why',
and 'how' are used in the same manner as other Thai dialects.
   [thaa'] \sim [?an<sup>6</sup>-thaa'] 'what'
   [het^2 (?an^6) thaa 4 yuu<sup>2</sup>]
                  what in the process
    to do
    What are you doing?
   [na\eta^2 ria\eta^5 (?an^6)-thaa^4]
   movie story
                           what
    What is the title of the movie?
   [mii<sup>4</sup> viak<sup>5</sup> (?an<sup>6</sup>)-thaa<sup>4</sup>]
    to have business
   What can I do for you?
   [nəə"] 'where, which', 'who'
   [aw<sup>2</sup> thua<sup>4</sup>
                                   nəə<sup>4</sup>]
    to take noun classifier which
    Which one do you want?
   [maa<sup>6</sup> trææ<sup>4</sup>
    to come from where
    Where do you come from?
   [hun<sup>4</sup> nəə<sup>2</sup> maa<sup>4</sup>]
    man which come
    Who came? ∿ Which person came?
   [dəə¹] 'who'
   [man^3 dee^1 hun^4 spo^3 ?aay^6]
                  come to see grandma
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[nee*] may be compounded with [pan2] to mean 'how much'.

[gaw3 ki6-loo* nin6 pan2-nee*]

rice kilo one how much

How much is rice a kilogram?

Who came to see grandma?

[taa⁶ traaw² nam⁴ dəə¹]

grandpa speak with who

With whom is grandpa speaking?

[phlak⁴ nii² kwaay¹ pan²-nəə⁴] vegetable this to sell how much How much is this vegetable?

IV. NOUN CLASSIFIERS

Noun classifiers in Saek fall into two main categories: human beings and objects. The distinction between these two categories is very clear. That is, classifiers used for human beings are never used for objects and vice versa. Animals, trees, and fruits do not have special classifiers. These nouns are partly repeated to serve as their own classifiers. For example:

```
saam² thua⁴]
[thua<sup>4</sup>-paw<sup>6</sup>
                                                           'Three crabs'
                   three classifier
 crab
[thua<sup>4</sup>-mææw<sup>4</sup> cæt<sup>4</sup>
                               thua<sup>4</sup>]
                                                           'Seven cats'
                    seven classifier
[thua<sup>4</sup>-lian<sup>1</sup> sip<sup>4</sup> thua<sup>4</sup>]
                                                           'Ten eels'
                     ten classifier
 eel
[\text{maak}^2 - \text{miah}^5 \text{soh}^2 \text{maak}^2]
                                                           'Two mangoes'
                     two
                               classifier
 mango
[maak<sup>2</sup>-kiaŋ<sup>3</sup> saam<sup>2</sup> maak<sup>2</sup>]
                                                           'Three oranges'
                     three classifier
[khoo^4 - lam^6 - \tilde{n}ay^6 soon^2 khoo^4]
                                                           'Two lam-yai trees'
 lam-yai tree
                         two classifier
[khoo-maak<sup>2</sup>-miaŋ<sup>5</sup> saam<sup>2</sup> khoo<sup>4</sup>]
                                                           'Three mango trees'
 mango tree
                            three classifier
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For the human category, Saek has two classifiers: $[hun^4]$ and $[?on^6]$. The former is used with ordinary people and the latter is used with monks. For example:

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[nuan<sup>5</sup> soon<sup>2</sup> hun<sup>4</sup>] 'Two younger siblings'
young sibling two classifier

[phii<sup>5</sup> saam<sup>2</sup> hun<sup>4</sup>] 'Three older siblings'
older sibling three classifier

[phra?<sup>4</sup> soon<sup>2</sup> ?on<sup>1</sup>] 'Two monks'
monk two classifier
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Unlike the surrounding Lao dialects which are rich in noun classifiers for objects, Saek has only one classifier for this category [?an¹]. All objects regardless of shape, size, or function share the same

classifier. However, a part of some nouns, as an alternative to [?an¹], may be repeated to serve as their own classifiers. For example:

```
[kaŋ³ - kææw³
                  sວວຖ<sup>2</sup> ?an¹]
                                              'Two drinking glasses'
 drinking glass two classifier
\lceil moo^2 \quad rok^4 \quad ?an^1 \rceil
                                              'Six pots'
 pot six classifier
[pak^4-tuu^6-bog^2 soog^2 ?an^1]
                                              'Two windows'
 window
                   two classifier
[\underline{lam}^5 - kim^1 soog^2 \underline{lam}^5]
                                              'Two needles'
           two classifier
[lam^5-rua^1 soog^2 lam^5]
                                              'Two boats'
              two
                       classifier
[phɨɨn¹-phia³ sɔɔŋ² phɨɨn¹]
                                              'Two blouses'
 blouse
            two classifier
[\underline{saay}^1 - sooy^2 \quad sii^2 \quad \underline{saay}^1]
                                              'Four necklaces'
                four classifier
 necklace
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The underlined classifiers may be used interchangeably with [?an1].

The first syllable of compound nouns above, e.g. needle, boat, may be dropped. Thus one can say either [lam5-kim1] or [kim1] for 'needle', [lam5-rua1] or [rua1] for 'boat', [phiin1-phia3] or [phia3] for 'blouse' and [saay1-sooy2] or [sooy2] for 'necklace'. The five compound nouns above might at first seem strange to speakers of other Thai dialects but the process of dropping the first syllable is certainly not foreign. In Standard Thai this process also occurs, for example, the words for 'onion' and 'garlie' are [hŭa-hɔɔm] or [hɔɔm] and [hŭa-kra-thiam] or [kra-thiam] respectively. The classifier of these two nouns is, of course, [hŭa]. In many Lao dialects, the word for umbrella is [khan-hom] or [hom], and the classifier for this noun is [khan]. If a speaker of Standard Thai sits down to think of this type of word, a long list can be produced.

From the evidence above, I would like to propose that noun classifiers are not new features in the Thai language. Rather they have been in the languages for a long time but with a different word order. They used to be in front of nouns and some still are. Currently, this order has been reversed. Classifiers are used after nouns and numbers. [?an], the most common classifier in the Thai languages, must have been a relative pronoun which meant 'who', 'which', or 'that'.

V. THE STABILITY OF SAEK

Saek speakers have been decreasing in number and this process will probably go on until the Saek language disappears. This is because younger Saek people have more or less stopped using it. They have started to speak local Lao dialects which are spoken by the majority in their province. In addition to this, there are two other main reasons. One is that the Saek people have tended to move away from their villages in order to work. In doing this, they have to discard their own language for whatever dialect prevails in their new surrounding. Intermarriage is the second factor in the disappearance of the Saek language. When one parent does not speak Saek, it follows almost naturally that children will not speak it either. Saek may indeed die out in another thirty to fifty years as Professor Gedney has predicted.

