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

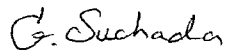
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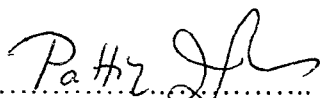
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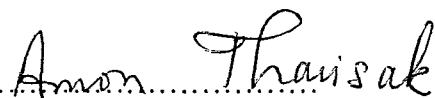
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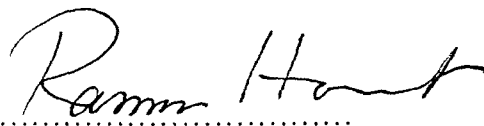
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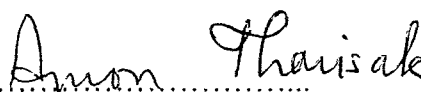

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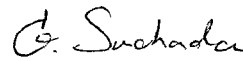

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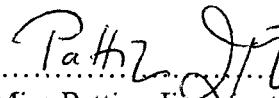
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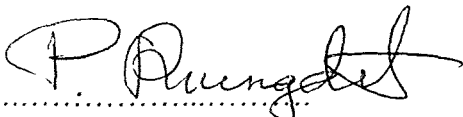
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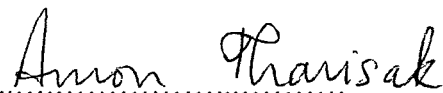
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Suchada Giaphong

PLANG GRAMMAR AS SPOKEN IN HUAY NAMKHUN VILLAGE,
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ABSTRACT

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

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

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

KEY WORDS : AUSTROASIATIC / GRAMMAR / PLANG / CHIANG RAI

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ไวยากรณ์ภาษาป๋าลัง บ้านห้วยน้ำขุ่น จังหวัดเชียงราย (PLANG GRAMMAR AS SPOKEN IN HUAY NAMKHUN VILLAGE, CHIANG RAI PROVINCE).

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บทคัดย่อ

วิทยานิพนธ์เรื่อง "ไวยากรณ์ภาษาป๋าลัง บ้านห้วยน้ำขุ่น จังหวัดเชียงราย" มีจุดประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาระบบไวยากรณ์ของภาษาป๋าลัง ถิ่นกอนตอย บ้านห้วยน้ำขุ่น จังหวัดเชียงราย ซึ่งเป็นภาษาในตระกูลออสโตรเอเชียติก โดยศึกษาระบบเสียง และวากยสัมพันธ์ ตั้งแต่ระดับหน่วยคำ คำ วลี อนุพากย์และประโยค ตามลำดับชั้นทางไวยากรณ์ ซึ่งใช้ทฤษฎีไวยากรณ์แทกมีมิกในการวิเคราะห์

จากการศึกษาครั้งนี้สรุปว่าระบบเสียงในภาษาป๋าลังมีหน่วยเสียงสระมี 9 หน่วยเสียง และหน่วยเสียงพยัญชนะมี 25 หน่วยเสียง และมีลักษณะน้ำเสียง 2 ลักษณะ คือ R1 น้ำเสียงปกติ (High clear) และ R2 ลักษณะน้ำเสียงก้องมีลม (Low breathy) ในส่วนของลักษณะโครงสร้างไวยากรณ์ของภาษาป๋าลังโครงสร้างจะประกอบด้วย ภาคประธาน – ภาคแสดง – ภาคกรรม บังคับปรากฏและไม่บังคับปรากฏ ในเรื่องของหน่วยคำมีคำวิภัติปัจจัยเช่นคำอุปสรรค /ni-/ ใช้เติมหน้าคำกริยาแสดงการปฏิเสธ, คำอุปสรรค /lo-/ ใช้เติมหน้าคำสรรพนามเอกพจน์เป็นคำสรรพนามพหูพจน์และคำปัจจัยเติมหลังคำนามแสดงความเป็นเจ้าของ /-riʔ/ ใช้กับคำนามพยางค์เดียว, /-niʔ/ ใช้กับคำนามสองพยางค์ขึ้นไป นอกจากนี้ /-riʔ/ ยังเป็นหน่วยคำปัจจัยเติมท้ายคำสรรพนามให้เป็นคำอัตตสรรพนาม ในส่วนของอนุพากย์ที่น่าสนใจคืออนุพากย์แสดงความเป็นเจ้าของแบ่งการแสดงความเป็นเจ้าของได้ 2 ประเภท โดยใช้คำกริยาแสดงความเป็นเจ้าของ /k^hoʔ^{R1}/ 'ของ' และใช้ ปัจจัย /-riʔ/ และ /-niʔ/ เติมหลังคำนามแสดงความเป็นเจ้าของก็ได้ และใช้ปัจจัย /-riʔ/ หลังคำกริยาแสดงการกระทำของประธาน 'self' ที่กระทำกับตนเอง เป็นต้น

ผลการศึกษาชี้ให้เห็นว่าภาษาป๋าลังอยู่ในกระบวนการเปลี่ยนแปลง ไปสู่ภาษาที่มีวรรณยุกต์ เนื่องจากขณะนี้ไม่พบลักษณะน้ำเสียงก้องมีลมในชาวป๋าลังรุ่นใหม่

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Adj	=	adjective
Adv	=	adverb
Alt	=	alternative
Amb	=	ambient
Aux	=	auxiliaries
Bi	=	bitransitive
Cl	=	clause
Clas	=	classifier
Cog	=	cognitive
Com	=	comparative
Comp	=	complement
Conj	=	conjunction
Dem	=	demonstrative
Des	=	descriptive
DO	=	direct object
Fp	=	final particle
Eq	=	equational
Eval	=	evaluation
Exist	=	existence
Exp	=	expression
H	=	head
Imp	=	imperative
Inten	=	intensifier
Intr	=	intransitive
Ip	=	initial particle
I	=	item
IO	=	indirect object
Lk	=	linkage
Loc	=	location
Man	=	manner
Mk	=	marker
MCl	=	main clause
Mod	=	modifier
Mot	=	motion
MV	=	main verb
N	=	noun
Np	=	noun phrase
Nu	=	numeral
Num	=	nuclear
O	=	object
P	=	phrase
Part	=	particle
Poss	=	possessive
Pr	=	predicate
Pref	=	prefixes
Prep	=	preposition

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (cont).

Pron	=	pronoun
Qfp	=	question final particle
Qt	=	quantity
Quest	=	question
Quot	=	quotative
Qw	=	question word
Refl	=	reflexive
S	=	subject
Sec	=	section
Sent	=	sentence
Sent simp	=	simple sentence
Suff	=	suffixes
Sup	=	superlative
Temp	=	temporal
Tr	=	transitive
V	=	verb
Va	=	value
Vpac	=	active verb phrase
VP adj	=	adjectival verb phrase
VP cop	=	copula verb phrase
˘	=	extra short vowel (shorter than other syllable)
-:	=	length
˙	=	breathy voiced
˙	=	voiceless
_h	=	aspirated
˙	=	syllabic
/ /	=	use for phonemic transcription
[]	=	use for phonetic transcription

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

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

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

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

From the reasons, the researcher is interested in studying “Plang Grammar as spoken in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province” to describes the phonological system and syntactical structure of Plang language.

1.2 Purpose of the study

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

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

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

1.3 Benefit of the study

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

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

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

1.3.4 To be preserve the language of minority people.

1.4 Scope of the study

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

1.5 Definition of term

The term “Plang” in this thesis refers to the Kontoj dialect in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai province. Kontoj is the name of a village in Sipsongpanna. My informant told me that there are many dialects of Plang which are slightly different from each other such Konkang, Konmak, Jongmoj and Phemjong.

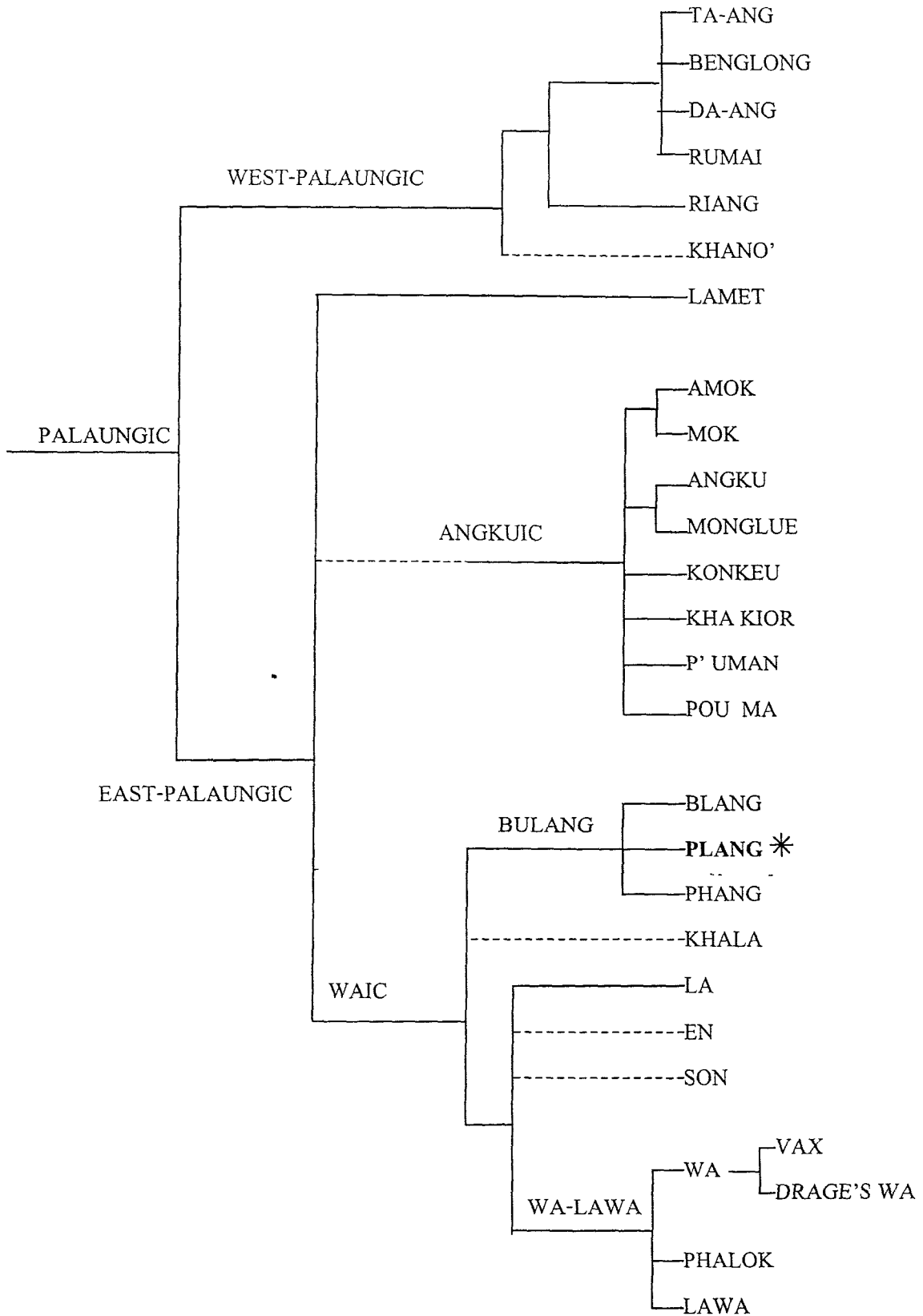


Figure 1 : The position of Plang in the Palaungic branch from Diffloth,1982.

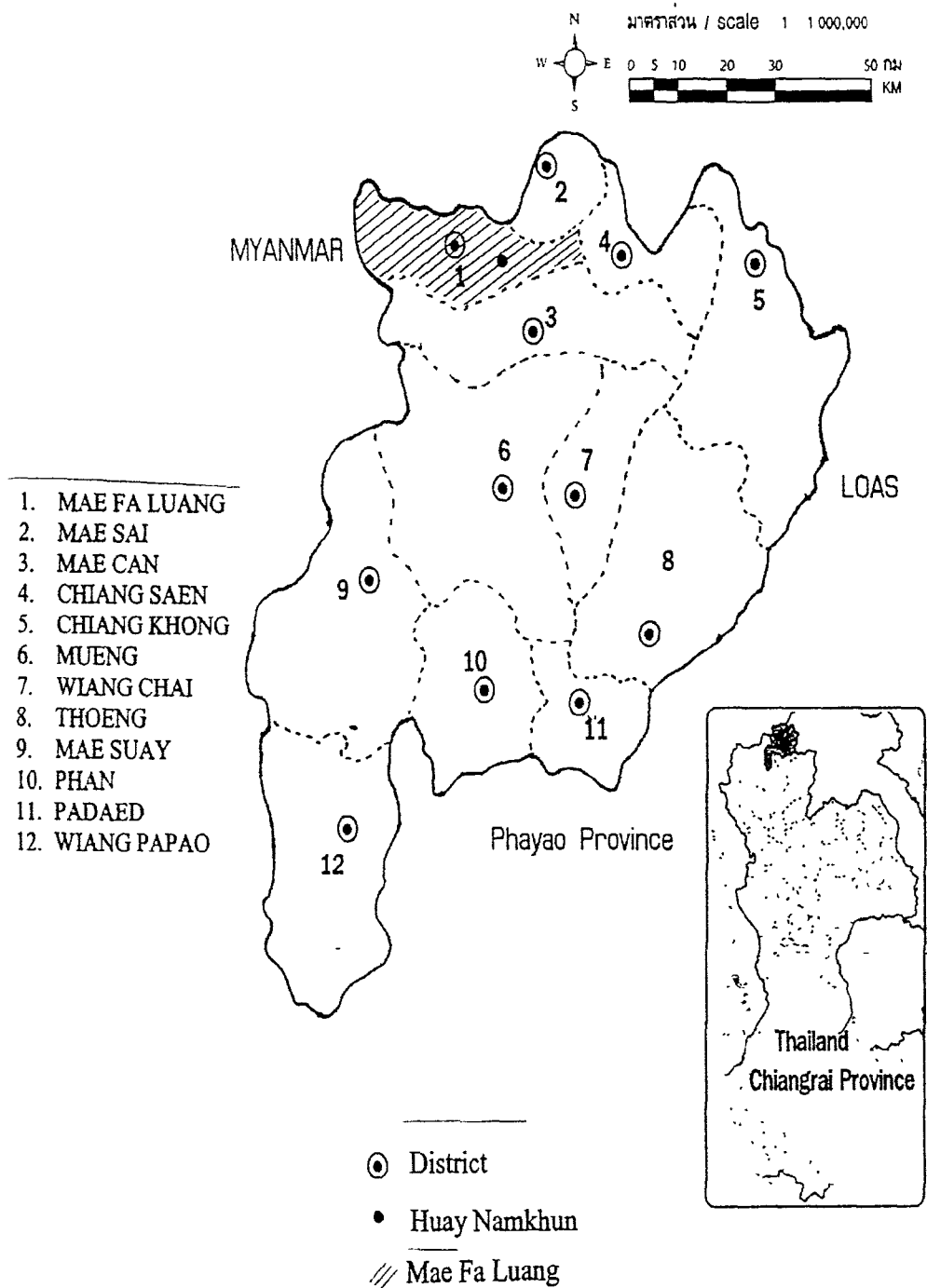


Figure 2 : Map of Chiang Rai and Mae Fa Luang District,
Huay Namkhun village
(Adapted from Amphoe Mae Fa Luang office)

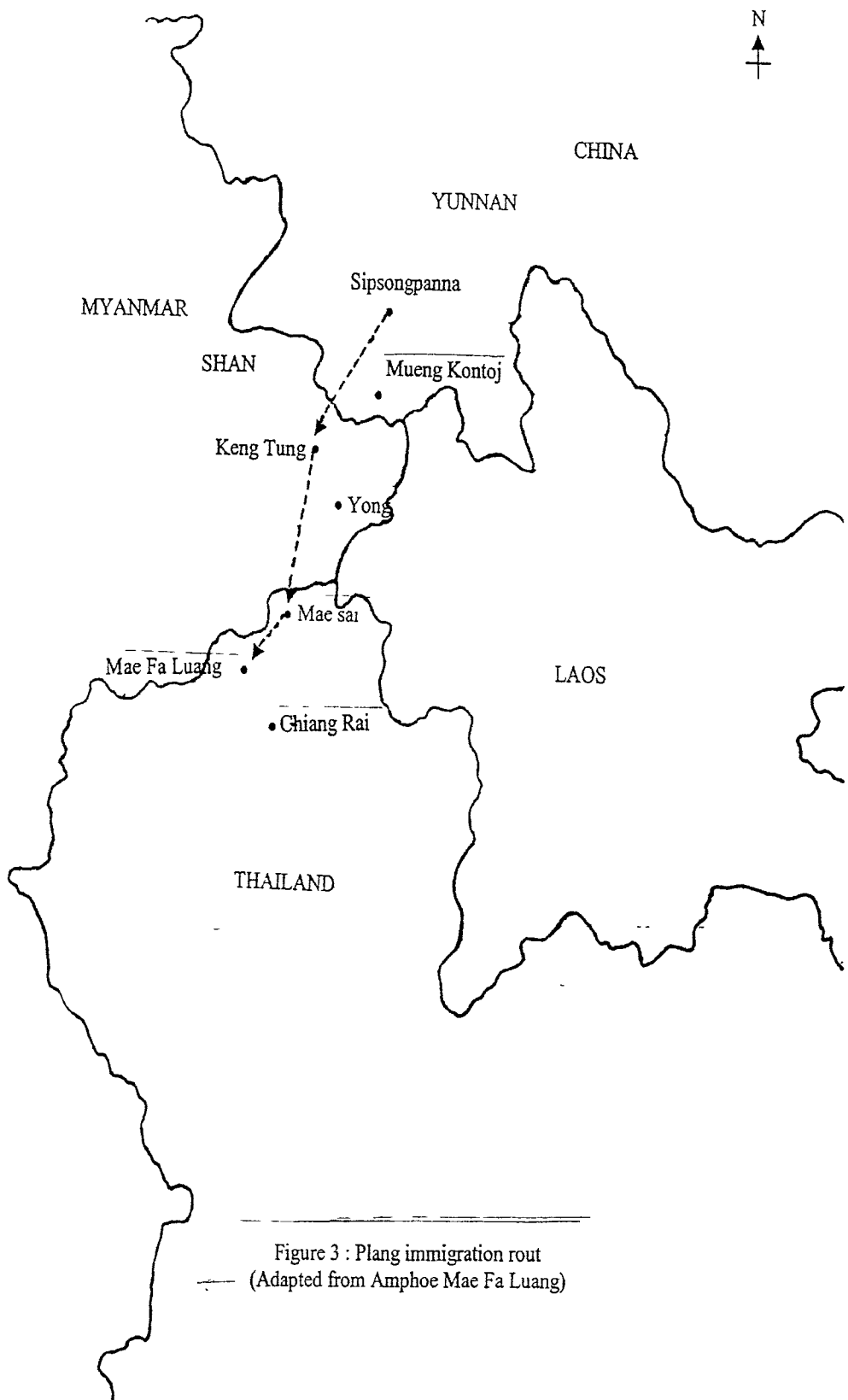


Figure 3 : Plang immigration rout
(Adapted from Amphoe Mae Fa Luang)

1.6 Theoretical Approach

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

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

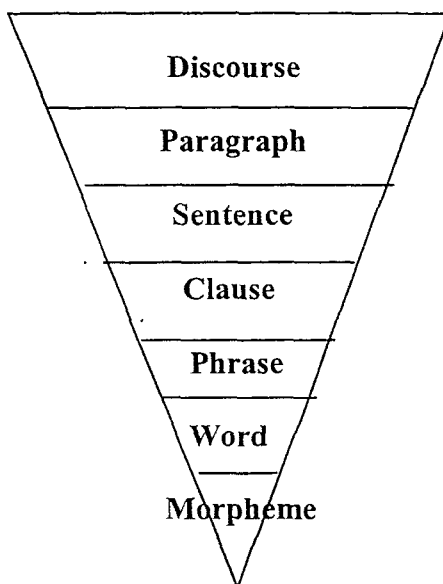


Figure 4 : Grammatical Hierarchy From Thomas,1993

1.7 Researches on the Plang language in Thailand

1. Diffloth Gerard, 1982. ‘Subclassification of Palaungic’

This paper described the subclassification of Palaungic. He classified Plang in an Austroasiatic language in the Northern Mon – Khmer familys. It belongs to the East – Palaungic of the Waic group. The figure below are show the languages in the Waic group. (see figure 5.)

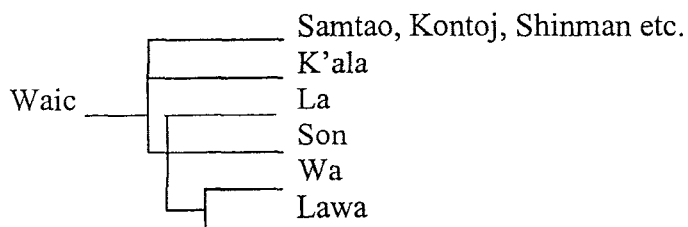


Figure 5 : The Waic language group.

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

2. Pijitra Dissawarotham, 1986. 'The phonology of Plang as spoken in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai Province'

This thesis described the phonological system and phonetic characteristics of the Kontoj dialect of the Plang language as spoken in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai province. She concluded that there are 25 consonant phonemes in Plang : / p, p^h, t, t^h, c, c^h, k, k^h, ʔ, m, m̥, n, n̥, ɲ, ɲ̥, ŋ, s, h, r, l, l̥, w, w̥, j, j̥/. Every phoneme can be initial consonant. There are 13 final consonants : / -p, -t, -c, -k, -ʔ, -m, -n, -ɲ, -ŋ, -h, -l, -w, -j /. And there are 9 two – consonant clusters :/ pr, pl, kr, kl, kw, p^hr, p^hl, k^hr, k^hl /. There are 9 main vowels with three registers : / i, e, ε, u, ə, a, u, o, ɔ, u / and there are no diphthongs in Plang. The three registers are High Clear, Mid Level and Low Breathy register as shown in the table 1 and 2.

Point of articulation \ Mode of articulation		Labial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop	unaspirated	p	t	c	k	ʔ
	aspirated	p ^h	t ^h	c ^h	k ^h	
Nasal	voiced	m	n	ɲ		
	voiceless	m̥	n̥	ɲ̥		
Fricative			s			h
Flap			r			
Lateral	voiced		l			
	voiceless		l̥			
Semi – Vowel	voiced	w		j		
	voiceless	w̥		j̥		

Table 1 : the Plang consonant phonemes

Tongue level \ Position of tongue	Front	Central	Back
	High	i	ɯ
Mid	e	ə	o
Low	ɛ	a	ɔ

Table 2 : The Plang vowel phonemes

3. Debbie Paulsen, 1989. 'A Phonological reconstruction of Proto-Plang'.

This thesis reconstructs the phonemic system of Proto – Plang using a comparative method to examine three related languages. The languages used in this are study Kontoj and Shinman dialects of Plang, both from Yunnan province in southwestern China, and Samtao from the neighboring border area of Myanmar. She concluded that there are 26 consonant phonemes in Proto-Plang : / p , p^h , t , t^h , c , c^h , k , k^h , ʔ , f , v , s , sh , h , m , mh , n , nh , ɲ , ɲh , l , lh , r , y , yh /. And there are 7 main vowels with two registers : / i , e , a , ɔ , o , u , ɤ /. There are two registers : High Clear and Low Breathy registers as in the table 3 and 4

Mode of articulation \ Point of articulation	Labial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
	Stop				
voiceless unaspirated	p	t	c	k	ʔ
aspirated	p ^h	t ^h	c ^h	k ^h	
Fricative					
voiceless	(f)	s			h
aspirated		sh			
voiced	v				
Nasal					
voiced	m	n	ɲ	ŋ	
Voiceless	mh	nh		ŋh	
Liquids					
voiced	l				
Voiceless	lh				
voiced	r				
Semi – Vowel					
voiced			y		
voiceless			(yh)		

Table 3 : The Proto – Plang consonant phonemes

Tongue position \ Tongue height	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Mid	e	ɤ	o
Low		a	ɔ

Table 4 : The Proto – Plang Vowel Phonemes.

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

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

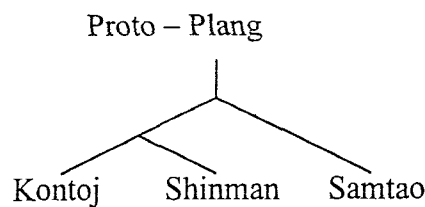


Figure 6 : Genetic relationships

4. Debbliie Paulsen, 1991 ‘Tone and intonation in Plang’.

The purpose of this paper is to look at the characteristics of both tone and intonation in Plang, and to analyze the effect these two have on each other. At this point register will not be included in the discussion as there appears to be no correlation between pitch and the phonation types exhibited. A study of register in

Plang is currently in progress though. The dialect in focus in this paper is the Kontoj dialect of Plang as found in the village of Huay Namkhun village in Chiang Rai province, Thailand. Several different dialects of Plang are represented in this village but Kontoj is the dialect of the majority. In conclusion, it appears that innovation patterns in Plang have a high enough functional load that the tone contrasts in connected speech are overtly neutralized except in the final syllable of a pause group. In final syllables, high and low lexical tones are manifest in statement and the lexical tones of the penultimate syllable manifest on final question and negative particles.

5. Robert Parkin, 1991. 'A guide to Austroasiatic Speakers and Their languages.'

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

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

Table 5 : The Austroasiatic language Family : Main Divisions.

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

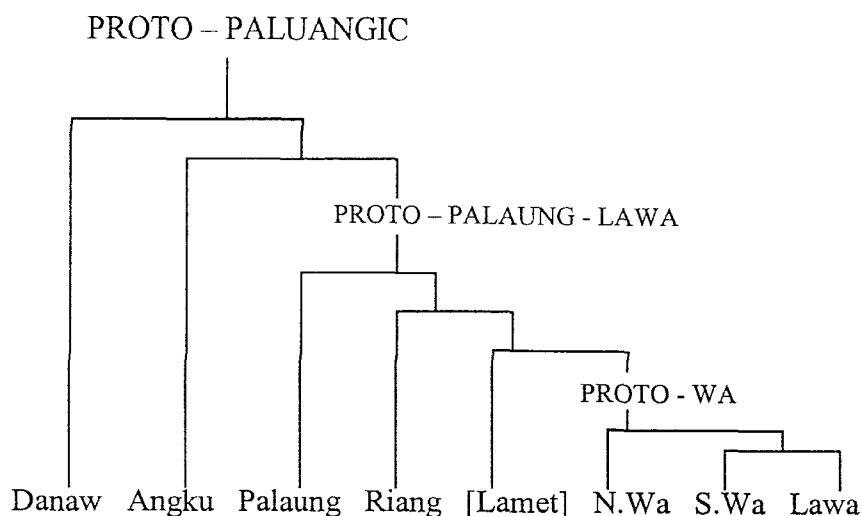


Figure 7 : The Palaungic Branch

6. Debbie Paulsen and Paulette Hopple, 1993. 'Phonology of Plang'

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

Point of articulation / Mode of articulation		Labial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
		Stop unspirated	p	t	c	k
aspirated	p ^h	t	c ^h	k ^h		
Fricative voiceless	f	s			h	
Nasal voiced		n		ŋ		
voiceless		n̥	ɲ̥			
Liquids voiced		r				
voiced		l				
voiceless		l̥				
Semi - Vowel voiced				j		
voiceless				j̥		

Table 6 : The consonant phonemes

Tongue position Tongue height	Front	Central	Back	
			-round	+round
High	i		ɯ	u
mid	e			o
Low		a		ɔ

Table 7 : The vowel phonemes

7. Karen Louise Block, 1994. 'Discourse grammar of first person narrative in Plang'.

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

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

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

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

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

Huay Namkhun village is situated in tambon Mae Fa Luang, Mae Fa Luang district, Chiang Rai province. It is about 45 kilometers from Muang Chiang Rai district a long the Asia Highway 1 (Phaholyothin road) and is about

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

1.8.2 Housing

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

bedrooms. The structure of their house is cement with steel roof structure and roofing with ceramic tiles. They also have a space in front of their house multi-purpose.




Figure 8 : The Plang's house.

1.8.3 Occupations

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

1.8.4 Education

In the past, when Plang people lived in Sipsongpanna, men had a chance to get an education by studying at a Buddhist temple school taught by Buddhist monks. Of the Plang who emigrated to Huay Namkhun village, most can use Thai to communicate but are unable to read. When they have children, they encourage them to learn Thai and they send the children to Wat Huay Krai school which is the closest to their homes. Plang children there have the opportunity to learn to read, write and speak Thai. Parents want their children to

learn the Thai language so they can understand the society and can work in Thailand. They want their children to avoid the difficulties the older generation has faced. The researcher has had a chance to live in the community of Huay Namkhun village. Interviews with the village headman, a Plang, and the district officer reveal that Plang are now aware of the value of education. There have been two Plang people graduated at the bachelors level. One from Rajabhat Institute Chiang Rai and another from Ramkhamheang University. One is a teacher of English and the other is an official working for community development. They are both well-off and earn salaries and occupy important roles in the Plang community. They assist their fellow Plang in agricultural practices and in encouraging parents to obtain education for their children. By their assistance they have helped the younger Plang get on in the world avoiding being cheated and avoiding being drawn into prostitution. At present, because of a lack of funding, there is only primary education available in Huay Namkhun village.

1.8.5 Food

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

1.8.6 Religion and Beliefs

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

1.8.7 Dressing

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

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

a white long – sleeved blouse and a white turban in order to harmoniously blend in with their most numerous neighbors.



Figure 9 : The Plang people and researcher in Plang traditional dress

CHAPTER II METHODOLOGY

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

2.1 Preparation

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

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

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

2.2 Selecting the informants

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

- 1) The informants must be Plang people who lived in Huay Namkhun village.
- 2) The informants must have a complete set of articulators, so that they can speak pronounce words clearly and fluently.
- 3) The informants' age must be over 50 because the people in this age group still use the Kontoj Plang dialect without much interference from Thai language structures.
- 4) The informants must have enough time to work with the researcher.
- 5) Assistant must know Thai and use Plang dialect in daily life.

This study the researcher there are four informants and one Plang language assistant. They are Mrs. Mij Sawla /məj sawla/ (figure 10). She is about 62 years old and was born in Kontoj village in Sipsongpanna., Mrs. Seng Sawla /sɛŋ sawla/ (Figure 11). She is about 60 years old, was born in Kontoj village in Sipsongpanna. Mrs. Ja-am Taphatsin /jaʔam tap^hatsin/, 62 years old (Figure 12) and Mr. Samkhot Taphatsin /samk^hot tap^hatsin/, 72 years old, as born in Kontoj village in Sipsongpanna.(Figure 13)

The Phonological data is based on the speech of Mrs. Mij Sawla /məj sawla/ and Mrs. Seng Sawla /sɛŋ sawla/. The researcher rechecked the collected data with Mr. Soj Tasamdee /soj tasamdi/. (figure 14) her Plang language assistant , 28 years old.

For the syntax, the researcher collected the data from the 4 informants. The data focuses on the different kind of discourse : Narrative, Procedural, Hortatory, Fable and Dialogue.



Figure 10 : Mrs. Mij Sawla



Figure 11 : Mrs. Seng Sawla



Figure 12 : Mrs. Ja-am Taphatsin



Figure 13 : Mr. Samkhot Taphatsin

Figure 14 : Mr. Soj Tasamdee

2.3 Field work

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

2.4 The data analysis

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

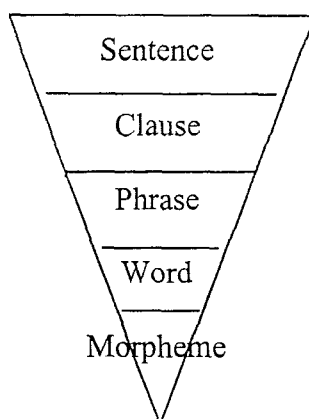


Figure 15 : The Grammatical hierarchy from Thomas,1993

2.5 Conclusion

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

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CHAPTER III PLANG PHONOLOGY

Introduction

The Plang language has been studied by linguists for over 27 years. First, in 1976, Jimmy Harris and Jerry Gainey discovered the Plang language in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai province. Later, Pijitra Dissawarotham 1986 and Debbie Paulsen & Paulette Hopple 1993 studied the phonological system of the Plang language at Huay Namkhun village. Pijitra Dissawarotham concluded that Plang has 25 consonant phonemes : / p , p^h , t , t^h , c , c^h , k , k^h , ʔ , m , m̥ , n , n̥ , ɲ , ɲ̥ , ɳ , s , h , r , l , l̥ , w , w̥ , j , j̥ / 9 vowel phonemes : / i , e , ε , a , ə , ʊ , u , o , ɔ / and there are 3 registers : High Clear, Mid level and Low Breathy register. But Paulsen & Hopple showed that there are 24 consonant phonemes in Plang. Paulsen and Hopple remarked that Plang has no [ɲ], [w̥] but there is also [f] in the system which Pijitra didn't meet in her study. There are 7 main vowels, but no / ε , ə / as Pijitra, and there are 2 tones: High and low.

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

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

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

3.1 Vowel Phonemes

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

stream can pass through the nasal cavity as well as the oral cavity. The vowels function as syllable nucleus. (Abercrombie 1967 : 55)

In Plang there are 9 single vowel phonemes . / i , e , ε , a , ɔ , o , u , ɯ , ə /.

There are no diphthongs and no contrasts between short and long vowels.

Vowels can occur in both open and closed syllables and all vowels can occur with two registers.

Tongue position		Front	Central	Back
Tongue height				
High		i	ɯ	u
Mid		e	ə	o
Low		ε	a	ɔ

Table 8 : Vowel phonemes

3.1.1 Formational Statements of Main Vowels

/ i / a high front unrounded vowel

/piʔ^{R1}/ 'pencil'

/miʔ^{R1}/ 'you'

/sir^{R1}/ 'gold'

/pih^{R1}/ 'sweep'

/kaciŋ^{R1}/ 'bright'

/ e / a mid front unrounded vowel.

/teʔ^{R1}/ 'this'

/ʔeŋ^{R1}/ 'to come'

/leh^{R1}/ 'to come down'

/ʔarep^{R1}/ 'grass'

/tew^{R1}/ 'trousers'

/ ε / a low front unrounded vowel.

/c^hεp^{R1}/ 'shoes'

/ʔεt^{R1}/ 'small'

/salek^{R1}/ 'cigarette'

/tεm^{R1}/ 'to write, to draw'

/hareh^{R1}/ 'seven'

/ a / a low central unrounded vowel.

/pap^{R1}/ 'book, notebook'



- /sanat^{R1}/ 'small gun'
- /wac^{R1}/ 'knife'
- /paŋ^{R1}/ 'to sell'
- /pasah^{R1}/ 'sky'
- /ɔ / a low back rounded vowel.
 - /lɔt^{R1}/ 'to pull'
 - /sak^hrɔc^{R1}/ 'shell'
 - /katɔm^{R1}/ 'egg'
 - /mɔŋ^{R1}/ 'mouth'
 - /kɔr^{R1}/ 'hard'
- /o / a mid back rounded vowel.
 - /palok^{R1}/ 'mortar'
 - /ʔon^{R1}/ 'not'
 - /lɔŋ^{R1}/ 'tall'
 - /toh^{R1}/ 'that'
 - /ʔator^{R1}/ 'grass hopper'
- /u / a high back rounded vowel.
 - /k^hup^{R1}/ 'socks'
 - /juk^{R1}/ 'ear'
 - /cəruʔ^{R1}/ 'monk'
 - /puh^{R1}/ 'to do'
 - /laʔuh^{R1}/ 'fat'
- /ɯ / a high central unrounded vowel.
 - /ʔɯp^{R1}/ 'kapok'
 - /kɯt^{R1}/ 'to cut'
 - /krɯc^{R1}/ 'wrong'
 - /sɯʔ^{R1}/ 'feel pain'
 - /p^hrɯr^{R1}/ 'to fly'
- /ə / a mid central vowel.
 - /ʔəp^{R1}/ 'rice'
 - /wəc^{R1}/ 'lung'
 - /hək^{R1}/ 'hair'
 - /nəm^{R1}/ 'year'
 - /cəŋ^{R1}/ 'laugh'

3.1.2 The vowel contrasts.

All vowels described above are phonemically contrastive in the Plang language.

/ i / - / e /	/ pit ^{R1} /	‘pencil’
	/ pet ^{R1} /	‘to close’
/ e / - / ε /	/ leh ^{R1} /	‘to come down’
	/ lεh ^{R1} /	‘to go out’
/ ʊ / - / ə /	/ ʔʊp ^{R1} /	‘kapok’
	/ ʔəp ^{R1} /	‘boiled rice’
/ ə / - / a /	/ hək ^{R1} /	‘feather’
	/ hak ^{R1} /	‘skin’
/ u / - / o /	/ tuh ^{R1} /	‘head’
	/ toh ^{R1} /	‘that’
/ o / - / ɔ /	/ toh ^{R1} /	‘that’
	/ toh ^{R1} /	‘to hit’
/ i / - / ʊ /	/ siʔ ^{R1} /	‘lice’
	/ suʔ ^{R1} /	‘feel pain’
/ ʊ / - / u /	/ suʔ ^{R1} /	‘feel pain’
	/ suʔ ^{R1} /	‘new’
/ e / - / ə /	/ teʔ ^{R1} /	‘this’
	/ təʔ ^{R1} /	‘vegetable’
/ ə / - / o /	/ ʔən ^{R1} /	‘he’
	/ ʔon ^{R1} /	‘not’
/ ε / - / a /	/ lεh ^{R1} /	‘to go out’
	/ lah ^{R1} /	‘open the palm of the hand’
/ a / - / o /	/ lak ^{R1} /	‘way’
	/ lok ^{R1} /	‘to full’

3.2 Consonant Phoneme

A consonant functions as a syllable periphery. There are 25 consonant phonemes in Plang : / p , p^h , t , t^h , c , c^h , k , k^h , ʔ , m , m̥ , n , n̥ , ŋ , ŋ̥ , ɲ , s , h , r , l , l̥ , w , w̥ , j , j̥ / . As in the Table 9.

Point of articulation		Labial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Mode of articulation						
Plosives	Unaspirated	p	t	c	k	ʔ
	Aspirated	p ^h	t ^h	c ^h	k ^h	
Nasal	voiced	m	n	ɲ	ŋ	
	voiceless	m̥	n̥	ɲ̥		
Fricative	voiceless		s			h
Approximant	voiced		r			
Lateral	voiced		l			
	voiceless		l̥			
Semi – Vowel	voiced.	w		j		
	voiceless	w̥		j̥		

Table 9 : Consonant phonemes

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

Consonant sub-class (C1)

The consonant sub-class (C1) functions in syllable initial position and consists of / p , p^h , t , t^h , c , c^h , k , k^h , ʔ , m , m̥ , n , n̥ , ɲ , ɲ̥ , ŋ , s , h , r , l , l̥ , w , w̥ , j , j̥ /

Example :

- /paŋ^{R1} / ‘to sell’
- /p^hak^{R1} / ‘to clean’
- /tu^{R1}p / ‘hut’
- /t^huh^{R1} / ‘chop sticks’
- /cetaʔ^{R1} / ‘eye-brow’
- /c^hiʔ^{R2} / ‘fire word’
- /ka^{R2}num / ‘oily-tasted’
- /k^hoŋcu^{R1}k / ‘dirty’

/ʔuʔ ^{R2} /	‘ I ’
/miʔ ^{R1} /	‘you’
/m̥uk ^{R1} /	‘hat’
/nac ^{R1} /	‘sharp knife’
/n̥am ^{R1} /	‘blood’
/n̥oŋ ^{R1} /	‘to know’
/n̥ap ^{R1} /	‘difficult’
/n̥uk ^{R1} /	‘heck’
/səməp ^{R1} /	‘star’
/hər ^{R1} /	‘to walk’
/raʔ ^{R1} /	‘to play’
/laʔ ^{R1} /	‘tea’
/l̥oŋ ^{R1} /	‘tall’
/w̥uc ^{R1} /	‘bowels’
/w̥aʔ ^{R1} /	‘monkey’
/jəm ^{R1} /	‘to die’
/juk ^{R1} /	‘ear’

Consonant sub-class (C2)

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

C1	C2
p	r, l
p ^h	r, l
k	r, l, w
k ^h	r, l

Table 10 : Consonant cluster

Example :

/priŋ ^{R1} /	‘to build’
/plɛh ^{R1} /	‘spear’
/p ^h rur ^{R1} /	‘to fly’
/p ^h luʔ ^{R1} /	‘clothes’

/krɯc ^{R1} /	'wrong'
/klɔr ^{R1} /	'to help'
/kwar ^{R1} /	'to bark'
/k ^h rup ^{R1} /	'to strike'
/k ^h laɰ ^{R1} /	'road'

Consonant sub-class (C3)

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

Example :

/ɲap ^{R1} /	'difficult'
/ntak ^{R1} /	'tongue'
/hɔc ^{R1} /	'to finish'
/m̥uk ^{R1} /	'hat'
/w̥aʔ ^{R1} /	'monkey'
/ɲam ^{R1} /	'blood'
/kamɔn ^{R1} /	'desert'
/sɛmɛɲ ^{R1} /	'star'
/ɲɔɳ ^{R1} /	'to know'
/tuh ^{R1} /	'head'
/w̥akmɔr ^{R1} /	'earth worm'
/c ^h aw ^{R1} /	'fried'
/w̥ɛj ^{R1} /	'to turn'

3.2.1 Formational Statement of Consonants.

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

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

/pit ^{R1} /	['pít]	'pencil'
/pɔn ^{R1} /	['pón]	'eat (meat)'
/pap ^{R1} /	['páp]	'book , notebook'
/paɲ ^{R1} /	['páɲ]	'to sell'
/pɛc ^{R1} /	['péc]	'hoe'

finally.

/ɲap ^{R1} /	[' ɲáɲ̃]	‘difficult’
/cɔp ^{R1} /	[' tɔ́ɔ̃]	‘tight’
/ʔup ^{R1} /	[' ʔúɲ̃]	‘narrow’
/kɯp ^{R1} /	[' kúɲ̃]	‘turn up-side down’
/ʔəp ^{R1} /	[' ʔéɲ̃]	‘boiled rice’

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

/mpiŋ ^{R1} /	[m̃ ' bíŋ]	‘bank’
/mpuh ^{R1} /	[m̃ ' búh]	‘face’
/mpɯh ^{R1} /	[m̃ ' búh̃]	‘breast’
/mpen ^{R1} /	[m̃ ' b́en]	‘woman’
/mpuŋ ^{R1} /	[m̃ ' búŋ]	‘ladder’

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

/p ^h at ^{R1} /	[' phát]	‘to turn’
/p ^h ɔk ^{R1} /	[' phók̃]	‘to ride’
/p ^h aʔ ^{R1} /	[' pháʔ]	‘lid’
/p ^h ah ^{R1} /	[' pháh]	‘to smoke’
/p ^h ak ^{R1} /	[' phá́k̃]	‘to clean’

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

/tup ^{R1} /	[' túɲ̃]	‘hut’
/tut ^{R1} /	[' tú́t̃]	‘suck’
/təʔ ^{R1} /	[' t́éʔ]	‘vegetable’
/tɛm ^{R1} /	[' t́ém]	‘to draw’
/tih ^{R1} /	[' t́íh]	‘to get’

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

/ʔit ^{R1} /	[' ʔít̃]	‘to sleep’
/w̃it ^{R1} /	[' w̃ít̃]	‘withered’
/l̃at ^{R1} /	[' l̃át̃]	‘to fear’
/kɔt ^{R2} /	[' kɔ́t̃]	‘old’
/kɯt ^{R1} /	[' kú́t̃]	‘to cut’

/t^h/ [t^h] a voiceless aspirated alveolar plosive. It occurs syllable initially.

/t ^h uk ^{R1} /	['t ^h úk ^ˀ]	‘to pour’
/t ^h iʔ ^{R1} /	['t ^h íʔ]	‘not hollow’
/t ^h em ^{R1} /	['t ^h ém]	‘add’
/t ^h amʔum ^{R1} /	[t ^h ám ^ˀ ʔúm]	‘water jar’
/t ^h uh ^{R1} /	['t ^h úh]	‘chop sticks’

/c/ [t^h] a voiceless palatal affricate. It occurs syllable initially.

/cɔp ^{R1} /	['t ^h óp ^ˀ]	‘right’
/cuk ^{R1} /	['t ^h úk ^ˀ]	‘stop’
/cetaʔ ^{R1} /	[t ^h ē ^ˀ 'táʔ]	‘eye-brow’
/cem ^{R1} /	['t ^h ém]	‘embrace’
/cɛn ^{R1} /	['t ^h éɲ]	‘laugh’

[c^ˀ] a voiceless unreleased palatal plosive. It occurs syllable finally.

/nac ^{R1} /	['nác ^ˀ]	‘sharp knife’
/sək ^h rɔc ^{R1} /	[sē ^ˀ 'khɹ óc ^ˀ]	‘shell’
/wuc ^{R1} /	['wúc ^ˀ]	‘bowels’
/pɛc ^{R1} /	['péc ^ˀ]	‘hoe’
/plɛc ^{R1} /	['pléc ^ˀ]	‘wing’

/c^h/ [t^h] a voiceless aspirated palatal affricate. It occurs syllable initially.

/c ^h ɛp ^{R1} /	['t ^h éɲ ^ˀ]	‘shoes’
/c ^h iʔ ^{R2} /	['t ^h ǎʔ]	‘fire word’
/c ^h eʔ ^{R1} /	['t ^h éʔ]	‘seasons’
/caw ^{R1} /	['t ^h áw]	‘fried’
/c ^h iʔ ^{R1} /	[t ^h íʔ]	‘month’

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

/kɔt ^{R1} /	['kót ^ˀ]	‘cold’
/kɔk ^{R1} /	['kók ^ˀ]	‘basin’
/kaʔ ^{R1} /	['káʔ]	‘fish’
/kəʔ ^{R1} /	['kéʔ]	‘back’

/kaɲum^{R2}/ [kā 'ɲum] 'oily-tasted'

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

/lik ^{R1} /	['lɿk ^ʔ]	'pig'
/sək ^h lak ^{R1} /	[sē 'khlák ^ʔ]	'red'
/puk ^{R1} /	['pŭk ^ʔ]	'dig'
/k ^h oŋcuk ^{R1} /	[khòŋ 'təwúk ^ʔ]	'dirty'
/hək ^{R1} /	[hək ^ʔ]	'hairs'

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

/k ^h up ^{R1} /	['khúp]	socks'
/k ^h uʔ ^{R1} /	['khúʔ]	'stalk'
/k ^h oŋkəŋ ^{R1} /	[khəŋ 'kóŋ]	'pestle'
/k ^h oŋcuk ^{R1} /	[khòŋ 'təwúk]	'dirty'
/k ^h at ^{R1} /	['khát]	'not smooth'

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

/ʔuʔ ^{R2} /	['ʔŭʔ]	'I'
/mʊʔ ^{R1} /	['múʔ]	'rope'
/samuʔ ^{R2} /	[sā 'múʔ]	'rock'
/ʔon ^{R1} /	['ʔón]	'not'
/ʔer ^{R1} /	['ʔéɿ]	'chicken'

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

/mpuk ^{R1} /	[m̥ 'búuk]	'to broken'
/mmiʔ ^{R1} /	[m̥ 'míʔ]	'woman'
/mpuŋ ^{R1} /	[m̥ 'búŋ]	'ladder'
/mwit ^{R1} /	[m̥ 'wít]	'chameleon'

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

/muk ^{R1} /	['múk]	'to sit'
/miʔ ^{R1} /	['míʔ]	'you'
/semiʔ ^{R1} /	[sē 'míʔ]	'cane'
/satim ^{R1} /	[sā 'tím]	'nine'
/ɲam ^{R1} /	['ɲám]	'blood'

/m/ [m̥] a voiceless bilabial nasal. It occurs syllable initially.

/m̥uk ^{R1} /	['m̥úk̚]	'hat'
/m̥uŋ ^{R1} /	['m̥úŋ]	'sad'
/m̥oŋ ^{R1} /	['m̥óŋ]	'to hear'
/m̥uʔ ^{R1} /	['m̥úʔ]	'rope'
/m̥ar ^{R1} /	['m̥áɹ]	'farm'

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

/ntak ^{R1} /	[n̥ 'ták̚]	'tongue'
/nnaʔ ^{R1} /	[n̥ 'náʔ]	'dew'
/nsop ^{R1} /	[n̥ 'sóp̚]	'to squeeze'
/nrɪŋ ^{R1} /	[n̥ 'ɹíŋ]	'mat'
/nlwɹ ^{R1} /	[n̥ 'lúɹ]	'tick'

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

/nac ^{R1} /	['nác]	'sharp knife'
/nam ^{R1} /	['nám]	'bank'
/nhɛŋ ^{R1} /	[n̥ 'hén]	'to count'
/kamɔŋ ^{R1} /	[kǎ 'món]	'desert'
/nkun ^{R1} /	[n̥ 'kún]	'finger'

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

/ŋaʔ ^{R1} /	['ŋáʔ]	'face, front,
/ŋoŋ ^{R1} /	['ŋóŋ]	'carry'
/ŋum ^{R1} /	['ŋúm]	'young man'
/ŋam ^{R1} /	['ŋam]	'blood'

/ɲ/ [ɲ̥] a voiced palatal syllabic nasal. It occurs before palatal consonants : / c, c^h, ɲ, j / at the first syllabic.

/ɲcuk ^{R1} /	[ɲ̥ 'təúk̚]	'cone'
/ɲc ^h ɔk ^{R1} /	[ɲ̥ 'təhók̚]	'cripple'
/ɲɔŋ ^{R1} /	[ɲ̥ 'nóŋ]	'don't know'
/ɲjur ^{R1} /	[ɲ̥ 'júɹ]	'climb'

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

/ɲaʔ ^{R1} /	['ɲáʔ]	'house'
/ɲuh ^{R1} /	['ɲúh]	'to do'
/ɲoŋ ^{R1} /	['ɲóŋ]	'to know'

		/num ^{R1} /	['núm]	'to cry'
		/ʔɔŋ ^{R1} /	['ʔóŋ]	'to smile'
		/səməŋ ^{R1} /	[sē ' mēŋ]	'star'
/ŋ̥/	[ŋ̥]	a voiceless palatal nasal. It occurs syllable initially.		
		/ŋ̥ap ^{R1} /	['ŋ̥áp]	'difficult'
/ŋ/	[ŋ]	a voiced velar syllabic nasal. It occurs before velar consonants : / k, ŋ / at the first syllabic		
		/ŋkʷn ^{R1} /	[ŋ ' kʷn]	'finger'
		/ŋŋɔŋ ^{R1} /	[ŋ ' ŋóŋ]	'middle'
[ŋ]		a voiced velar nasal. It occurs syllable initially and finally.		
		/ŋuk ^{R1} /	[' ŋúk ʔ]	'heck'
		/ŋɔt ^{R1} /	[' ŋót ʔ]	'to bend'
		/ŋaʔ ^{R1} /	[' ŋáʔ]	'to itch'
		/saciŋ ^{R1} /	[sā ' tɔ́iŋ]	'ginger'
		/kasəŋ ^{R1} /	[kā ' sáŋ]	'elephant'
/s/	[s]	a voiceless alveolar fricative. It occurs syllable initially.		
		/sət ^{R1} /	[' sét]	'naughty'
		/salək ^{R1} /	[sā ' lék]	'cigarette'
		/səməŋ ^{R1} /	[sē ' mēŋ]	'star'
		/sir ^{R1} /	[' síɹ]	'gold'
		/səkəŋ ^{R1} /	[sē ' kéɹ]	'to teach'
/h/	[h]	a voiceless glottal fricative. It occurs syllable initially and finally.		
		/hɔc ^{R1} /	[' hóc ʔ]	'to finish'
		/hak ^{R1} /	[' hák ʔ]	'skin'
		/həŋ ^{R1} /	[' həɹ]	'to walk'
		/kah ^{R1} /	[' káh]	'to take off'
		/kəməh ^{R1} /	[kē ' móh]	'banana'
/r/	[ɹ]	a voiced retroflex approximant. It occurs syllable initially or in the second position of the consonant cluster and finally.		
		/rak ^{R1} /	[' ɹ ák ʔ]	'shout'
		/rɔŋ ^{R1} /	[' ɹ óŋ]	'to rich'
		/krwɔc ^{R1} /	[' kɹ úc]	'wrong'
		/p ^h rur ^{R1} /	[' phɹ úɹ]	'to fly'
		/sir ^{R1} /	[' síɹ]	'gold'

/ l / [l] a voiced alveolar lateral. It occurs syllable initially or in the second position of the consonant cluster.

/lɔŋ ^{R1} /	[¹ lɔŋ]	‘black’
/laʔ ^{R1} /	[¹ lɑʔ]	‘tea’
/laŋ ^{R1} /	[¹ lɑŋ]	‘long’
/k ^h laʔ ^{R1} /	[¹ khlɑʔ]	‘road’
/pləc ^{R1} /	[¹ pləc]	‘wing’

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

/ɭiʔ ^{R1} /	[¹ ɭíʔ]	‘rain’
/ɭat ^{R1} /	[¹ ɭát]	‘to fear’
/ɭeʔ ^{R1} /	[¹ ɭéʔ]	‘thin’
/ɭoŋ ^{R1} /	[¹ ɭóŋ]	‘tall’
/ɭum ^{R1} /	[¹ ɭúm]	‘mud’
/ɭaʔ ^{R1} /	[¹ ɭɑʔ]	‘banana laves’
/ɭak ^{R1} /	[¹ ɭák ^ˀ]	‘late’

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

/wac ^{R1} /	[¹ wác ^ˀ]	‘knife’
/wuɕ ^{R1} /	[¹ wúɕ ^ˀ]	‘bowels’
/war ^{R1} /	[¹ wáɹ]	‘fence’
/lawlɛw ^{R1} /	[lâw ¹ léw]	‘unattractive’
/tɛw ^{R1} /	[¹ téw]	‘trousers’

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

/w̥aʔ ^{R1} /	[¹ w̥áʔ]	‘monkey’
/w̥ajkuŋ ^{R1} /	[w̥àj ¹ kún]	‘worm’
/w̥akmɔɹ ^{R1} /	[w̥àk ¹ mɔɹ]	‘earth worm’
/w̥aj ^{R1} /	[¹ w̥áj]	‘tiger’
/w̥əj ^{R1} /	[¹ w̥éj]	‘turn’

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

/juk ^{R1} /	[¹ júk]	‘bait’
/jiʔ ^{R1} /	[¹ jíʔ]	‘day’
/jəm ^{R1} /	[¹ jém]	‘to die’
/wəj ^{R1} /	[¹ wéj]	‘quick’

/j/ [j̥] a voiceless palatal semivowel. It occurs syllable initially.
 /juk^{R1}/ [ˈj̥úk] ‘ear’

3.2.2 The Consonant Contrasts

/p/ - /p ^h /	/paʔ ^{R1} /	‘ferrule, condom’
	/p ^h aʔ ^{R1} /	‘lid’
/t/ - /t ^h /	/tuh ^{R1} /	‘head’
	/t ^h uh ^{R1} /	‘chopsticks’
/c/ - /c ^h /	/ciʔ ^{R1} /	‘to soak’
	/c ^h iʔ ^{R1} /	‘month’
/k/ - /k ^h /	/kuʔ ^{R1} /	‘to writ’
	/k ^h uʔ ^{R1} /	‘tree’
/m/ - /m̥/	/muk ^{R1} /	‘to sit’
	/m̥uk ^{R1} /	‘hat’
/n/ - /n̥/	/nam ^{R1} /	‘bank’
	/n̥am ^{R1} /	‘blood’
/ɲ/ - /ɲ̥/	/ɲam ^{R1} /	‘cry’
	/ɲ̥ap ^{R1} /	‘difficult’
/l/ - /l̥/	/lak ^{R1} /	‘side’
	/l̥ak ^{R1} /	‘to late’
/w/ - /w̥/	/wəj ^{R1} /	‘quickly’
	/w̥əj ^{R1} /	‘to turn’
/j/ - /j̥/	/j̥uk ^{R1} /	‘bait’
	/juk ^{R1} /	‘ear’
/t/ - /ʔ/	/tup ^{R1} /	‘hut’
	/ʔup ^{R1} /	‘narrow’
/k/ - /ʔ/	/kup ^{R1} /	‘turn up –side down’
	/ʔup ^{R1} /	‘kapok’
/m/ - /w/	/mac ^{R1} /	‘squeeze’
	/wac ^{R1} /	‘knife’
/m̥/ - /w̥/	/m̥ar ^{R1} /	‘farm’
	/w̥aj ^{R1} /	‘tiger’
/n/ - /ɲ/	/mɔn ^{R1} /	‘eat (desert)’
	/mɔɲ ^{R1} /	‘mouth’

/ n / - / ŋ /	/ pɔn ^{R1} /	'eat (meat)'
	/ pɔŋ ^{R1} /	'sprout'
/ r / - / l /	/ raŋ ^{R1} /	'tooth'
	/ laŋ ^{R1} /	'long'
/ ɲ / - / j /	/ nɔɲ ^{R1} /	'heel'
	/ nɔj ^{R1} /	'in'
/ ɲ̄ / - / ɲ /	/ ɲam ^{R1} /	'blood'
	/ ɲap ^{R1} /	'difficult'
/ ɲ̄ / - / j /	/ ɲap ^{R1} /	'difficult'
	/ juk ^{R1} /	'ear'

3.3 Suprasegmental Features

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

3.3.1 Length

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

An automatic lengthening of the final syllable of the sentence

Example :

- / kamɔn ^{R1} /	'desert'
[ʔǃʔ mɔ́n k̄ā'mɔ́:n]	
I eat	desert
- / tɛw ^{R1} /	'sweet'
[k̄ā'mɔ́n t̄é:w]	
desert	sweet

An automatic shortening of the first syllable of disyllabic word (shorter than other syllable).

Example :	/kaʔ ^{R2} /	['kǎʔ]	‘fish’
	/kawaʔ ^{R1} /	[kǎ'wáʔ]	‘door’
	/səʔ ^{R1} /	[səʔ]	‘feel pain’
	/səʔwɯn ^{R1} /	[səʔ'wɯn]	‘snake’
	/piʔ ^{R1} /	['píʔ]	‘you’
	/piʔcaw ^{R1} /	[píʔ'cáw]	‘image of the Buddha’
	/kɔn ^{R1} /	[kɔn]	‘baby’
	/kɔnsuʔ ^{R1} /	[kɔn'sũʔ]	‘puppy’

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

3.3.2 Stress

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

Strong Stress

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

Example:	/pəŋ ^{R2} /	['pěŋ]	‘to blow’
	/k ^h ruʔ ^{R1} /	['khɹúʔ]	‘thing’
	/naʔ ^{R1} /	['náʔ]	‘house’
	/l̩at ^{R1} /	['l̩át]	‘to fear’
	/puk ^{R2} /	['pŭkʔ]	‘dig’

Weak Stress

The weak stress is defined as a syllable which is weak in loudness and length compared with the strong stress syllable. It is placed in a minor syllable position of the phonological word and it is symbolized by [,]

Example : /toktiʔ ^{R1} /	[,tòk'tíʔ]	‘to jump’
/kɔnsim ^{R1} /	[,kòn'sím]	‘bird’
/tɔŋtiʔ ^{R1} /	[,tòŋ'tíʔ]	‘Adam’s apple’
/ŋɔnŋaʔ ^{R1} /	[,ŋòn'náʔ]	‘hall’
/makmɔr ^{R1} /	[,màk'móɽ]	‘earth worm’

Unstress

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

Example : in the first open syllable in disyllabic.

/kətɛŋ ^{R2} /	[kə'tɛŋ]	‘big’
/ʔatɔm ^{R1} /	[ʔā'tóm]	‘on the right’
/harɛh ^{R1} /	[hā'réh]	‘seven’

Example : in the first syllable of trisyllabic.

/maksəŋp ^{hɔʔ} ^{R1} /	[māk,səŋ'p ^{hɔʔ}]	‘papaya’
/tiʔajmaʔ ^{R1} /	[tī,ʔàj'máʔ]	‘thumb (finger)’
/səŋawɰaʔ ^{R1} /	[sə,ŋàw'wáʔ]	‘galingale’

Example : in the nasal syllabic .

/mɰit ^{R1} /	[m̩'wít]	‘chameleon’
/ntak ^{R1} /	[n̩'ták]	‘tongue’
/nlɰŋ ^{R1} /	[n̩'lúŋ]	‘tick’
/ŋɔŋ ^{R1} /	[ŋ̩'nóŋ]	‘don’t know’
/ŋkɰn ^{R1} /	[ŋ̩'kún]	‘finger’
/ŋŋɔn ^{R1} /	[ŋ̩'ŋón]	‘middle’

3.3.3 Register

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

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

From the data received, Plang register is unpredictable and thus phonemic. In this study, the researcher has found that Plang has two contrastive registers.

Register I (^{R1}) represents a clear voice quality with all vowel. This register occurs in both open and closed syllables.

/kətiʔ ^{R1} /	[kə̄'tíʔ]	'Soil'
/tɛm ^{R1} /	['tɛ̄m]	'to write, draw'
/kaʔ ^{R1} /	['káʔ]	'fish'
/kɔt ^{R1} /	['kɔ̄t]	'to cold'
/t ^h oj ^{R1} /	['thó̄j]	'scour the floor'
/ʔuʔ ^{R1} /	['ʔúʔ]	'stupid'
/puk ^{R1} /	['púk̚]	'to dig'
/pəj ^{R1} /	['pə̄j]	'to run'

The clear voice quality, has 3 different accompanied pitches:

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

Example :	['sí̄ɹ]	'gold'
	[ʔā'nó̄ʔ]	'what'
	[tīʔ, ʔàj'máʔ]	'thumb (finger)'

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

Example :	[ʔā'tóm]	'on the right'
	[māk, sàŋ'phó̄ʔ]	'papaya'
	[ṇ̚'ták̚]	'tongue'

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

Example :	[,ɹ àŋ'təhíʔ]	'moon'
	[ṁ, mə̄'phúm]	'heart'

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

/kətiʔ ^{R2} /	[kə̄'tǎʔ]	'one'
/tɛm ^{R2} /	['tɛ̄m]	'under'
/kaʔ ^{R2} /	['kǎʔ]	'car'
/kɔt ^{R2} /	['kɔ̄t]	'old'
/t ^h oj ^{R2} /	['thǎ̄j]	'spit'
/ʔuʔ ^{R2} /	['ʔǎʔ]	'I'

/ puk ^{R2} /	['pŭk̃]	‘calf’
/ pəj ^{R2} /	['pə̌j]	‘man’

The breathy voice quality, has an accompanied pitch :

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

/ kɔt ^{R2} /	['kɔ̌t]	‘old’
/ ʔuʔ ^{R2} /	['ʔŭʔ]	‘ I ’
/kətɪʔ ^{R2} /	[kə̌ 'tɪ̌ʔ]	‘one’
/kətɛŋ ^{R2} /	[kə̌ 'tɛ̌ŋ]	‘ big’

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

3.4 Syllable

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

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

3.4.1 Syllable function

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

The nuclear syllable

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

Examples :	/ ɭoŋ ^{R1} /	['ɭǒŋ]	‘tall’
	/kah ^{R2} /	['kə̌h]	‘give’
	/ harɛh ^{R1} /	[hā. 'ɭɛ̌h]	‘seven’
	/ ʔatɔm ^{R1} /	[ʔā. 'tɔ̌m]	‘on the right’

/kɔnsuʔ^{R1}/ [,kɔ̀n. 'súʔ] ‘dog’

/papʔan^{R1}/ [,pàp. 'ʔán] ‘book’

The peripheral syllable

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

Examples :	/kɔnsuʔ ^{R1} /	[,kɔ̀n. 'súʔ]	‘dog’
	/papʔan ^{R1} /	[,pàp. 'ʔán]	‘book’
	/hɑɛh ^{R1} /	[hā. 'ɟéh]	‘seven’
	/nɯit ^{R1} /	[n̄. 'wít ʔ]	‘chameleon’
	/kəlɛmk ^{huʔR1} /	[kɛ̄. ,lɛ̄m. 'khuʔ]	‘tree’
	/mməpʰum ^{R1} /	[m̄. ,mɛ̄. 'phúm]	‘heart’

3.4.2 Syllable types

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

The major syllable

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

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

Subtype A : [' C V]

/cu/ [' cú] ‘or’

/wi/ [' wí] ‘fan’

Subtype B : [' C VC]

/lɔŋ^{R1}/ [' lɔ́ŋ] ‘tall’

/mak^{R1}/ [' mák ʔ] ‘love’

/ʔon^{R1}/ [' ʔón] ‘not’

Subtype C : [' CC VC]

/p^hak^{R1}/ [' p^hák] ‘clean’

/krwɛ^{R1}/ [' kɹúɛ] ‘wrong’

/p^hrun/ [' phɹún] ‘fly’

The minor syllable

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

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

Subtype A : [, C V]

/mməp^hum^{R1}/ [m̄. , m̄ə. ' phúm] ‘heart’

/kaharaʔ^{R1}/ [kā. , h̄à. ' ɹáʔ] ‘salted fish’

/kawapɔŋ^{R1}/ [kā. , w̄à. ' pónŋ] ‘window’

Subtype B : [, C VC]

/kɔnsuʔ^{R1}/ [, kòn. ' súʔ] ‘dog’

/papʔan^{R1}/ [, p̄ap. ' ʔán] ‘book’

/ŋajsaniʔ^{R1}/ [, ŋ̄à.j.sā. ' níʔ] ‘sun’

/sappliʔ^{R1}/ [, s̄ap.pā. ' líʔ] ‘funny’

Subtype C : [, CC V]

/kremelaŋ^{R1}/ [, kɹ̄è.mē. ' lánŋ] ‘widower’

/prik^hamɔn^{R1}/ [, pɹ̄i.khā. ' món] ‘fruits’

Subtype D : [, CC VC]

/k^hrun̄satcaʔ^{R1}/ [, khɹ̄un̄.sāt. ' cáʔ] ‘deposit’

/plirhək^{R1}/ [' pl̄iɹ̄. ' hék] ‘rambutan’

The presyllable

There are two different subtypes of the presyllable as follows :

Subtype A: Its structure is [CV.].

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

Examples:	/ haɾɛh ^{R1} /	[hā. 'ɿéh]	‘seven’
	/ ʔatəm ^{R1} /	[ʔā. 'tóm]	‘on the right’
	/kətɛŋ ^{R2} /	[kē. 'tǝŋ]	‘big’
	/səkɯr ^{R1} /	[sē. 'kúɿ]	‘cloudy’

Subtype B: Its structure is [C.].

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

Examples :	/mpɯk ^{R1} /	[m̄. 'bɯk ʔ]	‘to broken’
	/nnaʔ ^{R1} /	[n̄. 'náʔ]	‘dew’
	/ŋŋɔn ^{R1} /	[ŋ̄. 'ŋón]	‘middle’
	/ɲjur ^{R1} /	[ɲ̄. 'júɿ]	‘climb’

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

3.5 Phonological word

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

There are three types of phonological word divided according to their structure.

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

/l̥oŋ ^{R1} /	[' l̥óŋ]	‘tall’
/mak ^{R1} /	[' mák ʔ]	‘love’
/ʔon ^{R1} /	[' ʔón]	‘not’
/kah ^{R2} /	[' kǎh]	‘give’
/puk ^{R2} /	[' pǔk]	‘dig’

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

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

/harəh ^{R1} /	[hā ' ɹéh]	‘seven’
/ʔatóm ^{R1} /	[ʔā ' tóm]	‘on the right’
/nʔit ^{R1} /	[n̄ ' ʔít ʔ]	‘chameleon’
/ŋŋon ^{R1} /	[ŋ̄ ' ŋón]	‘middle’

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

/konsuʔ ^{R1} /	[, kòn ' súʔ]	‘dog’
/papʔan ^{R1} /	[, pàp ' ʔán]	‘book’
/tontíʔ ^{R1} /	[, tòn ' tíʔ]	‘Adam’s apple’

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

Only a few words have been found.

/mməphum ^{R1} /	[m̄ , mè ' phúm]	‘heart’
/sapaliʔ ^{R1} /	[sà , pā ' líʔ]	‘funny’

3.6 Intonation

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

3.6.1 General intonation contours

Significant intonation contours in Plang have been found as follows :

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

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} / (statement)

I eat rice

‘I eat rice.’

2. / həʀ^{R1} ʔəj^{R1} ʔak^hlak^{R1} sɔʔ^{R1} / (imperative)

go feed* buffalo Fp

‘Go to feed buffaloes!’

3. / ʔən^{R1} ɲuh^{R1} nhom^{R1} naŋ^{R1} məʀ^{R1} / (a statement)

hē do work at farm

‘He works at the farm.’

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

4. / həʀ^{R1} naŋnɔʔ^{R1} /

go where

‘Where are you going?’

5. / sum^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /

eat Qfp

‘Do you eat (rice)?’

6. / ʔən^{R1} ɲuh^{R1} kanɔʔ^{R1} /
 he do what

‘What is he doing?’

3.6.2 Intonation prominence

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

1. / miʔ^{R1} taʔ^{R1} hɛr^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} / -General

·
 / miʔ^{R1} taʔ^{R1} hɛr^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} / -Emphasis
 you must go with I

‘You must go with me.’

The pitch of / taʔ^{R1} / ‘must’ is raised for emphasis.

2. / miʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} sum^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} / -General

·
 / miʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} sum^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} / -Emphasis
 you will eat with I

‘You will eat with me?’

The pitch of / naŋ^{R2} / ‘will’ is raised for emphasis.

CHAPTER IV MORPHOLOGY AND WORD

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

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

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

4.1 Word formations

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

A complex word therefore derives from any word formation.

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

4.1.1 Affixation

Affixation is a morphological process of word formation consisting of an affix and a root. An affix is a types of bound morpheme which occurs with root (free morpheme) and modifies its basic meaning. Affixes in Plang include prefixes and

suffixes. These affixes are considered to be derivational affixes, they create new lexical items and give the result in a change of the word class of root.

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

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

Example : / ʔən^{R1} / 'he' / ləʔən^{R1} / 'they,(all)'
 / miʔ^{R1} / 'you' / ləmiʔ^{R1} / 'you,(all)'
 / ʔəʔ^{R1} / 'it' / ləʔəʔ^{R1} / 'it,(all)'

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

Example : / hər^{R1} / 'go' / nihər^{R1} / 'not go'
 / nit^{R1} / 'hear' / ninit^{R1} / 'not hear'
 / ɲuh^{R1} / 'do' / niɲuh^{R1} / 'not do'
 / p^hraʔ^{R1} / 'eat' / nip^hraʔ^{R1} / 'not eat'

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

Suffixation : There are two suffixes in Plang : / -riʔ / and / -niʔ /

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

Example : / kɔn^{R1} / 'child' → / kɔnriʔ^{R1} / 'my child'
 / maʔ^{R1} / 'mother' → / maʔriʔ^{R1} / 'my mother'
 / ɲaʔ^{R1} / 'house' → / ɲaʔriʔ^{R1} / 'my house'

/ʔən^{R1} hər^{R1} naŋ^{R1} mar^{R1} maj^{R1} maʔriʔ^{R1} /

he go to farm with mother Poss

‘He goes to the farm with his mother.’

/ləʔən^{R1} mak^{R1} naʔriʔ^{R1} /

they love house Poss

‘They love their house.’

/miʔ^{R1} sum^{R1} ʔəpriʔ^{R1} /

you eat rice Poss

‘You eat your rice.’

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

Example : /pəʔ^{R1} / → / ʔuʔ^{R2} pəriʔ^{R1} /

hit I hit Refl

‘I hit myself.’

/mak^{R1} / → / miʔ^{R1} makriʔ^{R1} /

love you love Refl

‘You love yourself.’

/həm^{R1} / → / ʔən^{R1} həmriʔ^{R1} /

bath he bath Refl

‘He take his bath.’

2. / -niʔ / a suffix used with a compound noun which has two syllables, each syllable have its own meaning, to mark possession. The suffix / -niʔ / will be added after each syllable of these compounds.

Formula is N (Sy1 + Sy2) → Sy1 + niʔ + Sy2 + niʔ.

Example : / maʔkəŋ^{R1} / ‘parent’

→ / maniʔkəŋniʔ^{R1} həŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} mʷat^{R1} /

parent Poss go at temple

‘my parent go at the temple.’

/ ʔikʔəŋ^{R1} / ‘ brother and sister’

→ / ʔikniʔəŋniʔ^{R1} /

brother and sister Poss

‘my brother and my sister.’

/ ʔəptəʔ^{R1} / ‘food’

→ / ʔən^{R1} sum^{R1} ʔəpniʔ tənɪʔ^{R1} /

he eat food Poss

‘He eats his rice and food.’

4.1.2. Compounding

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

4.1.2.1. Noun – noun compounds

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

Example :

$/kətʊr^{R1}/$ ‘stomach’ + $/ʔəp^{R1}/$ ‘rice’

N

N

→ $/kətʊrʔəp^{R1}/$ ‘bladder’

$/ʔum^{R1}/$ ‘water’ + $/ŋaj^{R1}/$ ‘eye’

N

N

→ $/ʔumŋaj^{R1}/$ ‘tears’

$/hək^{R1}/$ ‘hair’ + $/mɔŋ^{R1}/$ ‘mouth’

N

N

→ $/həkmɔŋ^{R1}/$ ‘moustache’

4.1.2.2 Verb – verb compounds

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

Example :

$/sɔm^{R1}/$ ‘want’ + $/ʔit^{R1}/$ ‘sleep’

V

V

→ $/sɔmʔit^{R1}/$ ‘sleepy.’

$/mak^{R1}/$ ‘like’ + $/təʔ^{R1}/$ ‘eat’

V

V

→ $/maktəʔ^{R1}/$ ‘greedy’

4.1.2.3 Noun – verb compounds

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

Example :

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

N V

→/paptɛm^{R1} / ‘notebook.’

/pap^{R1} / ‘binder’ + /ʔan^{R1} / ‘read’

N V

→/papʔan^{R1} / ‘book’

/ʔum^{R1} / ‘water’ + /kətɛŋ^{R2} / ‘big’

N V

→/ʔumkətɛŋ^{R2} / ‘river.’

/ʔum^{R1} / ‘water’ + /rɔn^{R1} / ‘hot’

N V

→/ʔumrɔn^{R1} / ‘sweat’

4.1.2.4 Three – word compounds

In addition, I found a few three-word compounds.

They are N-V-N :

/pəj^{R1} / ‘man’ + /paŋ^{R1} / ‘sell’ + /k^huʔ^{R1} / ‘thing’

N V N

→/pəjpaŋk^huʔ^{R1} / ‘merchant.’

$/k^h u \text{ʔ}^{R1} /$ 'thing' + $/cip^{R1} /$ 'stick' + $/h\text{ək}^{R1} /$ 'hair'
 N V N
 $/k^h u \text{cip} h\text{ək}^{R1} /$ 'hair accessory'

4.1.3 Reduplication

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

4.1.3.1 Complete reduplication

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

Example :

$/h\text{ən}^{R1} /$ 'much' → $/h\text{ən}h\text{ən}^{R1} /$ 'very much'
 $/p^h \text{ak}^{R1} /$ 'clean' → $/p^h \text{ak} p^h \text{ak}^{R1} /$ 'very clean'

4.1.3.2 Semantic reduplication

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

Example :

$/k\text{orak}^{R1} /$ 'to grow up (man)' + $/k\text{or}\text{ε}\text{ʔ}^{R1} /$ 'to grow up' (plant)
 → $/k\text{orak}k\text{or}\text{ε}\text{ʔ}^{R1} /$ 'to establish oneself'
 $/m\text{əhr}it^{R1} /$ 'ancient' + $/m\text{əhran}^{R1} /$ 'previous time'
 → $/m\text{əhr}it m\text{əhran}^{R1} /$ 'former time'
 $/t\text{am}\text{ʔ}\text{ʔ}^{R1} /$ 'here(place)' + $/t\text{am}\text{ʔ}\text{ε}\text{ʔ}^{R1} /$ 'there(place)'
 → $/t\text{am}\text{ʔ}\text{ʔ}t\text{am}\text{ʔ}\text{ε}\text{ʔ}^{R1} /$ 'every where'

4.1.4 Onomatopoeia

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

/ʔuʔ ʔuʔ ^{R1} /	‘gibbon’
/mɛw mɛw ^{R1} /	‘cat’
/kuk kuk ^{R1} /	‘cock , hen’
/kap kap ^{R1} /	‘duck’
/ʔut ʔut ^{R1} /	‘pig’
/ciʔ ciʔ/	‘house lizard’
/hoŋ hoŋ ^{R1} /	‘dog’
/hiʔ hiʔ ^{R1} /	‘horse’
/ʔɛʔ ʔɛʔ ^{R1} /	‘buffalo’

4.2 Word classes

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

4.2.1 Noun

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

Example:

A) Simple noun with one morpheme.

/ pit^{R1} / ‘pencil , pen’

/ tiʔ^{R1} / ‘hand’

/ m̄ar^{R1} / ‘field’

/ raŋ^{R1} / ‘tooth’

/ laʔ^{R1} / ‘tea’

/ juk^{R1} / ‘ear’

B) Simple noun with two morphemes.

/ cetaʔ^{R1} / ‘eyebrow’

/ katam^{R1} / ‘crab’

/ ʔasaʔ^{R1} / ‘basket’

/ samuʔ^{R1} / ‘rock’

/ sək^h rɔc^{R1} / ‘shell’

/ laʔuh^{R1} / ‘fat’

4.2.2 Pronoun

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

A) Personal Pronoun

This class is divided into to categories as follows :

	First person pron	Second person pron	Third person pron
Singular	ʔuʔ ^{R2}	miʔ ^{R1}	ʔən ^{R1} , ʔaʔ ^{R1}
Dual	ʔiʔ ^{R1}	piʔ ^{R1}	leʔən ^{R1} ,
Plural	leʔuʔ ^{R2}	lemiʔ ^{R1}	leʔaʔ ^{R1}

Table 11 : Personal Pronoun

- First personal pronouns

/ ʔuʔ^{R2} / ‘ I ’ used as the first person singular pronoun and normally occurs in the subject or object position.

/ ʔiʔ^{R1} / ‘ we, (two) ’ used as the first person dual pronoun and normally occurs in the subject or object position.

/ leʔuʔ^{R2} / ‘ we,(all) ’ used as the first person plural pronoun and normally occurs in the subject or object position.

Examples : / ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} sak^{R1} ʔət^{R1} /

I eat full already

‘ I ’ m full. ’

/ ʔiʔ^{R1} ta^{R1} həʔ^{R1} sum^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔən^{R1} /

we must go eat with he

‘ We, (two) must go to eat with him. ’

/ ləʔuʔ^{R2} ʔɛw^{R1} ɲaʔ^{R1} /

we ,(all) look for house

‘We ,(all) look for the house.’

- Second personal pronouns

/ miʔ^{R1} / ‘you’ used as the second person singular pronoun

and normally occurs in the subject or object position.

/ piʔ^{R1} / ‘you(two)’ used as the second person dual pronoun

and normally occurs in the subject or object position.

/ ləmiʔ^{R1} / ‘you(all)’ used as the second person plural pronoun

and normally occurs in the subject or object position.

Example : / miʔ^{R1} jaŋ^{R1} sum^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /

you still eat Qfp

‘Are you still eating?’

/ piʔ^{R1} mak^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /

you (two) love I

‘You(two) love me’

/ ləmiʔ^{R1} ɲuh^{R1} kəŋɔʔ^{R1} /

you(all) do what

‘What are all of you doing?’

/ ləh^{R1} sum^{R1} maj^{R1} piʔ^{R1} /

go out eat with you(two)

‘(I) go out to eat with you(two).’

/makəŋ^{R1} caŋ^{R2} tɔm^{R1} ləmiʔ^{R1}/

parent usually teach you,(all)

‘The parents usually teach all of you’

- Third personal pronouns

/ʔən^{R1} / ‘he’, a third person singular pronoun and normally

occurs in the subject and object position.

/ʔaʔ^{R1} / ‘it’, a third singular pronoun (used with things or

animals) occurs in the subject and object position.

/ləʔən^{R1} / ‘they’, a third person and plural pronoun and

normally occurs in the subject and object position

/ləʔaʔ^{R1} / ‘they’, a third and plural pronoun (used with

things or animals) occurs in the subject and object position.

Examples : /ʔən^{R1} ʔon^{R1} məh^{R1} pəj^{R2} calit^{R1} /

he not be man good

‘He is not a good man’

/ləʔən^{R1} kah^{R2} ʔuʔ^{R2} məʔ^{R1} məj^{R1} /

they give I name Mieј

‘They named me Mieј.’

/ʔuʔ^{R2} nuʔ^{R1} ləʔən^{R1} pəj^{R1} /

I saw they run

‘I saw them run’

/teʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} nsəm^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} /

bring come plant it

‘Bring it to plant.’

/ ʔaʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} kɔnsuʔ^{R1} /

it be dog

‘It is a dog.’

/ ləʔaʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} k^huraʔ^{R1} /

they be toy

‘They are toys.’

B) Relative Pronouns

Relative pronouns function as pronouns and as relaters in relative clauses.

/ kiʔ^{R1} / ‘who’ used as a relative pronoun relating to the singular and plural personal.

/ k^huʔ^{R1} / ‘which’ used as a relative pronoun relating to things and animals.

Examples: / maʔ^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} həm^{R1} kɔnriʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} ʔacan^{R1} /

mother who bathe child Poss be teacher

‘Mother who bathes her child, is a teacher.’

/ kɔnsuʔ^{R1} k^huʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} jəm^{R1} /

dog which be of I die

‘The dog which is mine, died.’

C) Demonstrative pronouns

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

/ ʔɛn^{R1} / ‘this’

/ ʔɔn^{R1} / ‘that’

Examples:

/ ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} /
 I eat this with rice
 ‘I eat this with rice.’

/ ʔɔn^{R1} məh^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /
 that be of I
 ‘That is mine.’

4.2.3 Demonstrative

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

/ ʔɛn^{R1} / ‘this’
 / tɛʔ^{R1} / ‘this’ (farther than / ʔɛn^{R1} /)
 / ʔɔn^{R1} / ‘that’
 / tɔʔ^{R1} / ‘that’ (farther than / ʔɔn^{R1} /)

Example

/ naʔ^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} məh^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} naʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /
 house this be of house I
 ‘This house is mine.’

/ ʔuʔ^{R2} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} naʔ^{R1} tɛʔ^{R1} /
 I stay in house that
 ‘I stay in that house.’

/mar^{R1} ʔon^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} kah^{R2} ʔonriʔ^{R1} /

farm that I give my sister

‘That farm, I give to my sister.’

/ʔən^{R1} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} nan^{R1} p^hriʔ^{R1} tɔʔ^{R1} /

he eat rice at forest that

‘He eats some rice at that forest.’

4.2.4 Quantifier

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

4.2.4.1 Numerals

In Plang, the researcher found only cardinal numbers

one – nine, and other numbers used in this language are loan words from Thai, such as :

/ketiʔ ^{R2} /	‘one’
/laʔar ^{R1} /	‘two’
/laʔor ^{R1} /	‘three’
/lapun ^{R1} /	‘four’
/lap ^h on /	‘five’
/ləh ^{R1} /	‘six’
/hərəh ^{R1} /	‘seven’
/satiʔ ^{R1} /	‘eight’
/satim ^{R1} /	‘nine’
/sip /	‘ten’
/sipsɔŋ /	‘twelve’

/saw/	‘twenty’
/samsip/	‘thirty’
/sɔŋrɔj/	‘two hundred’

4.2.4.2 Non – specific Numbers

Non – specific numbers include :

/hənhən ^{R1} /	‘many’
/k ^h rɯŋ ^{R1} /	‘a half’
/ŋɔncu ^{R1} /	‘some’
/panit ^{R1} /	‘ a little’
/ʔətɕum ^{R1} /	‘all of’

Examples: /ʔɛr^{R1} hənhən^{R1} /
 chicken many
 ‘Many chickens’

/laʔ^{R1} kətɪʔ^{R2} ɕum^{R1} k^hrɯŋ^{R1} /
 tea one cup half
 ‘A cup of tea and a half.’

/kuj^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} ŋɔncu^{R1} /
 have rice some
 ‘There is some rice’

/kuj^{R1} sir^{R1} panit^{R1} /
 have gold little
 ‘There is a little bit of gold’

4.2.5 Classifiers

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

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

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

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

Regular classifiers include:

/ ɭaŋ^{R1} / used for houses or huts.

/ ton^{R1} / used for plants or trees.

/ tuʔ^{R1} / used for animal.

Example:

/ naʔ^{R1} kətiʔ^{R2} ɭaŋ^{R1} /

house one Clas

‘one house’

/ kələmk^huʔ^{R1} kətiʔ^{R2} ton^{R1} /

tree one Clas

‘one tree.’

/ kɔnsuʔ^{R1} kətiʔ^{R2} tuʔ^{R1} /

dog one Clas

‘one dog.’

b) Self – classifiers are a set of nouns used to classify themselves.

Self – classifiers include :

/niʔ ^{R1} /	‘day’	used for day
/c ^h iʔ ^{R1} /	‘month’	used for month
/nəm ^{R1} /	‘year’	used for year
/pəj ^{R1} /	‘person’	used for person
/cum ^{R1} /	‘cup’	used for a cup
/krəŋ ^{R1} /	‘bowl’	used for a bowl

Example : /kətiʔ^{R2} niʔ^{R1}/

one day

‘one day.’

/ʔuʔ^{R2} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} p^hriʔ^{R1} kətiʔ^{R2} c^hiʔ^{R1}/

I stay in forest one month

‘I stayed in the forest for one month.’

/miʔ^{R1} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} lu^{R1} ʔor^{R1} nəm^{R1}/

you stay in Sipsongpanna three year

‘You stayed at Sipsongpanna for three years.’

/ʔuʔ^{R2} kuj^{R1} kən^{R1} ʔal^{R1} pəj^{R1}/

I have child two person

‘I have two children.’

/laʔ^{R1} kətiʔ^{R2} cum^{R1}/

tea one cup

‘one cup of tea.’

/ ʔum^{R1} kətɪʔ^{R2} krɔŋ^{R1} /

water one bowl

‘one bowl of water.’

C) Measure classifiers

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

Measure classifiers include :

/ səwak^{R1} / ‘two palms’ used for a unit of capacity equivalent to two palms of the hand.

/ caloʔ^{R1} / ‘kilogram’ used for a unit of capacity equivalent to one kilogram.

/ mat^{R1} / ‘package’ used for numerical designation for package.

/ taŋ^{R1} / ‘twenty litres’ used for a container which its capacity equivalent to twenty litres.

Example : / pəjuʔ^{R1} kətɪʔ^{R2} səwak^{R1} /

cinders one two palms

‘A palm of the hand of cinders.’

/ ʔuʔ^{R2} wiʔ^{R1} pɔn^{R1} kətɪʔ^{R2} caloʔ^{R1} /

I buy meat one kilogram

‘I bought one kilogram of meat.’

/ cih^{R1} kətɪʔ^{R2} mat^{R1} /

salt one package

‘one package of salt.’

/kətiʔ^{R1} kətiʔ^{R2} taŋ^{R1} /
 soil one 20 litres
 ‘twenty litres of soil.’

4.2.6 Preposition

Prepositions function in the relater position of a prepositional phrase.

Preposition are :

/naŋ^{R1} / ‘in, on, at’
 /laktəm^{R2} / ‘under’
 /lakɲaʔ^{R1} / ‘in front of’
 /laktuʔ^{R1} / ‘at the back of’

Examples :

/ʔən^{R1} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲaʔ^{R1} /
 He stay in house
 ‘He stays in the house.’

/konsuʔ^{R1} muk^{R1} laktəm^{R2} paŋtəm^{R1} /
 dog stay under chair
 ‘The dog stays under the chair.’

/ʔən^{R1} həɾ^{R1} lakɲaʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /
 he go in front of I
 ‘He walks in front of me’

/laktuʔ^{R1} ɲaʔ^{R1} /
 back house
 ‘At the back of a house’

4.2.7 Conjunctions

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

/maj ^{R1} /	‘with, and’
/cu ^{R1} /	‘or’
/ʔətlet ^{R1} /	‘and then’
/let ^{R1} /	‘then’
/juʔ ^{R1} /	‘if’
/saktaʔ ^{R1} /	‘although’
/makk ^h oʔ ^{R1} /	‘until’
/rotləʔ ^{R1} /	‘until’
/maklet/	‘since’
/kəʔ ^{R1} /	‘so’
/tɛʔ ^{R1} /	‘but’
/hatjuʔ ^{R1} /	‘even if’
/kasəʔ ^{R1} /	‘however’
/maj...pəreʔ ^{R1} /	‘with... too’

Example :

/hatjuʔ ^{R1}	ʔən ^{R1}	huk ^{R1}	rah ^{R1}	t ^h ɛm ^{R1}	.../
even if	he	go up	steal	again	
‘Even if he steals again...’					
/saktaʔ ^{R1}	ʔən ^{R1}	jəm ^{R1}	ʔuʔ ^{R2}	ʔon ^{R1}	nam ^{R1} /
although	he	die	I	not	cry
‘Although he died, I don’t cry.’					

/ʔuʔ^{R2} sətʉŋ^{R1} tɛʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} ʔit^{R1} /

I try but not slept
 'I'm trying but I have not slept yet.'

/ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔəj^{R1} ʔikriʔ^{R1} kəʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} ʔonriʔ^{R1} /

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

/rətʌʔ^{R1} nəm^{R1} lap^hɔn^{R1} ʔəj^{R1} naŋ^{R2} taŋniʔ^{R1} kut^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} /

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

/hɔk^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} mak^hoʔ^{R1} hɔk^{R1} ʔət^{R1} /

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

/kasɔʔ^{R1} makəŋ^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} caŋ^{R1} lah^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} jɛn^{R1} /

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

4.2.8 Auxiliaries

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

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

/jaŋ^{R1} / 'still, remain'

/naŋ^{R2} / 'will'

/ taʔ^{R1} / 'must'

/ ponneʔ^{R1} / 'may'

/ caŋ^{R1} / 'can'

/ lɔn^{R1} / 'used to'

/ ʔon^{R1} / 'not'

Example : / ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔon^{R1} jaŋ^{R1} ɲəʔ^{R1} ʔum^{R1} /

Aux MV

I not still drink water

'I still have not drunk some water.'

/ ʔən^{R1} naŋ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} /

Aux MV

he will - eat rice

'He will eat some rice.'

/ ʔiʔ^{R1} taʔ^{R1} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} ʔanloʔ^{R1} /

Aux MV

we must eat rice now

'We must eat some rice, now.'

/ ʔuʔ^{R2} ponneʔ^{R1} həʔ^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔən^{R1} /

Aux MV

I may go with he

'I may go with you.'

/ ʔuʔ^{R2} caŋ^{R1} ɲuh^{R1} ɲɔŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲar^{R1} /

Aux MV

I can do work at field

‘I can work at the field.’

/ miʔ^{R1} lon^{R1} k^hrəp^{R1} ʔən^{R1} /

Aux MV

you used to see him

‘You used to see him.’

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

/ pun^{R1} / ‘get, have an opportunity’

/ som^{R1} / ‘like’

Example : / ʔuʔ^{R2} pun^{R1} ɲɔŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲar^{R1} /

I get work at field

Aux MV

‘I got a job at the field.’

/ miʔ^{R1} som^{R1} ʔit^{R1} hən^{R1} hən^{R1} /

Aux MV

you like sleep much much

‘You like to sleep very much.’

In addition, these two subtypes of auxiliaries can occur together in the same verb phrase

Example: / ʔən^{R1} kɔn^{R2} naŋ^{R2} ʔeŋ^{R1} /
 he being will come
 Aux Aux MV
 ‘He is going to come.’

/ ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔon^{R1} caŋ^{R1} puŋ^{R1} plaŋ^{R1} /
 Aux Aux MV
 I not can speak Plang
 ‘I still do not to speak Plang.’

4.2.9 Verbs

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

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

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

/ sum^{R1} / ‘eat (rice)’ / pɔn^{R1} / ‘eat (meat)’
 / mɔn^{R1} / ‘eat (desert)’ / nɔʔ^{R1} / ‘eat (liquid)’
 / p^hraʔ^{R1} / ‘eat (used with monk)’
 / nuh^{R1} / ‘do’ / pɔʔ^{R1} / ‘hit’

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

/ muk^{R1} / ‘sit’ / jokcɔŋ^{R1} / ‘stand’
 / ʔit^{R1} / ‘sleep’ / jɔm^{R1} / ‘die’

3. Bitransitives : Bitransitive verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of bitransitive clauses. These verbs are :

/kəh^{R1}/ 'give' /pəp^{R1}/ 'sell'
 /ʔəj^{R1}/ 'feed' /prɪŋ^{R1}/ 'build'

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

/pəp^{R2}/ 'white' /kətɛŋ^{R2}/ 'big' /ʔɛt^{R1}/ 'small'
 /ŋəp^{R1}/ 'beautiful' /calit^{R1}/ 'good'

5. Equational : Equational verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of copula verb phrases in equational clauses, only one equational clause has been found /məh^{R1}/ 'be'.

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

/ʔɛŋ^{R1}/ 'to come' /hər^{R1}/ 'to go, to walk'
 /pəj^{R1}/ 'to run' /prɯŋ^{R1}/ 'to fly'
 /rɔt^{R1}/ 'to arrive' /huk^{R1}/ 'to go up'

7. Quotatives : Quotative verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of quotative clauses. Only one quotative verb has been found: /lah^{R1}/ 'say, tell, suggest, ask.

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

/rɔŋ^{R1}/ 'hot' /kɔt^{R1}/ 'cold'
 /lɪʔ^{R1}/ 'raining' /lɔŋtɔŋtiw^{R1}/ 'to be over cast'

9. Existives : Existive verbs fill the main verb slot of existence clauses. Only one existive verb has been found : /kuj^{R1}/ 'have'

10. Possessive : Possessive verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of possessive clauses. Only one possessive verb has been found

/k^hoʔ^{R1} / ‘of’

11. Cognitives : Cognitive verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of cognitive clauses. These verbs are :

/noŋ^{R1} / ‘know’ /nam^{R1} / ‘cry’ /moŋ^{R1} / ‘hear’

/nuʔ^{R1} / ‘see’ /pir^{R1} / ‘forget’

12. Evaluation : Evaluation verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of evaluation clauses. Only one evaluation verb has been found :

/k^haw^{R1} / ‘amount, cost’.

13. Comparative . Comparative verbs are verbs which fill the main verb slot of comparative clause. Only one comparative verb has been found

/sən^{R1} / ‘same as’, /ləʔ^{R1} / ‘than’ /palaparʊʔ^{R1} / ‘the most’

4.2.10 Adverb

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

They may be semantically divided into 5 subclasses

4.2.10.1 Adverbs of manner.

They show the manner of the action. They occur after main verb position. Some members are :

/wəj^{R1} / ‘quickly’

/koj^{R1} / ‘slowly’

/l̥oŋ/ ‘highly’

Example.

/ ʔuʔ^{R2} pəj^{R2} wəj^{R1} /

I run quick
 'I run quickly'

/ ʔən^{R1} hər^{R1} kɔj^{R1} /

he go slow
 'He goes slowly.'

/ ʔən^{R1} məh^{R1} pəj^{R1} ɭoŋ^{R1} /

he be man high
 'He is a tall man.'

4.2.10.2 Adverbs of Frequency

They show the frequency of the action.

Adverbs of frequency occur before main verb position:

/ caŋ^{R2} / 'usually'

Adverbs of frequency occur after main verb position:

/ ʔʉtɲiʔ^{R1} / 'every day'

/ ʔʉt nəmpor^{R1} / 'every evening'

/ nəmŋɔn^{R1} / 'sometime'

Example:

/ ʔən^{R1} caŋ^{R2} lah^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} /

he usually tell we
 'He usually tell us.'

/ʔwtɲiʔ^{R1} ləʔən^{R1} hər^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲalriʔ^{R1}/

everyday they go at their farm

‘Everyday, they go at their farm.’

4.2.10.3 Adverbs of Location

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

/ʔɔʔ^{R1}/ ‘here’

/ʔɛʔ^{R1}/ ‘there’

Example:

/ʔən^{R1} muk^{R1} ʔɔʔ^{R1}/

he sit here

‘He sits here.’

•

/ʔuʔ^{R2} hər^{R1} ʔɛʔ^{R1} maj^{R1} mariʔ^{R1}/

I go there with my mother

‘I go there with my mother.’

4.2.10.4 Adverbs of time

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

/panloʔ^{R1}/ ‘in a few minutes’

/pansaʔ^{R1}/ ‘tomorrow’

/nəmkusaŋɔn^{R1}/ ‘yesterday’

/ʔasanɔn^{R1}/ ‘the other day’

/sonnoʔ^{R1}/ ‘the day before yesterday’

Example :

/ panloʔ^{R1} nɛc^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} kɛtit^{R1} /

in a few minutes massage it like this

‘In a few minutes, massage it like this.’

/ pansaʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} naŋ^{R2} tɛʔ^{R1} hɔk^{R1} /

tomorrow I will bring dry

‘Tomorrow, I will bring to dry.’

/ nɛmkusaŋɔn^{R1} miʔ^{R1} kah^{R2} ʔɛp^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /

yesterday you give rice I

‘Yesterday, you gave me some rice.’

/ lɛʔɛn^{R1} hɛr^{R1} naŋ^{R1} m̄ar^{R1} ʔasanoʔ^{R1} /

they . go at farm in the future

‘They will go to the farm in the future.’

/ ʔɛn^{R1} ʔɛŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} naʔ^{R1} sɔnnoʔ^{R1} /

he go at house the day before yesterday

‘He went to the house the day before yesterday.’

4.2.11 Question word

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

/kanoʔ^{R1}/ ‘what’ /naŋnoʔ^{R1}/ ‘where’

/nɛmnoʔ^{R1}/ ‘when’ /ʔanoʔ^{R1}/ ‘who’

/sanoʔ^{R1}/ ‘how’ /ɲuliʔ^{R1}/ ‘why’

Example .

/ ʔən^{R1} ɲuh^{R1} kanɔʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲar^{R1} /

he do what at filed

‘What is he going to do at the field?’

/ ʔən^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} nəmnoʔ^{R1} /

he come when

‘When did he come?’

/ ɲaʔ^{R1} miʔ^{R1} muk^{R1} naŋnoʔ^{R1} /

house you stay where

‘Where is your house?’

/ ʔanoʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} ɲaʔ^{R1} /

who come. house

‘Who comes to the house?’

/ ɲuliʔ^{R1} ləʔən^{R1} ʔon^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} məŋt^həj^{R1} /

why they not come at Thailand

‘Why didn’t they come to Thailand?’

4.2.12 Intensifier

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

Example:

/ ʔən^{R1} sumkoj^{R1} mot^{R1} /

he eat slow very

‘He eats very slowly.’

/ miʔ^{R1} pəj^{R1} wəj^{R1} mot^{R1} /
 you run quick very
 ‘You run very quickly.’

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

/ ɲam^{R1} ɲam^{R1} /
 beautiful beautiful
 ‘very beautiful’

/ sum^{R1} wəj^{R1} wəj^{R1} /
 eat quick quick
 ‘Eat very quickly.’

4.2.13 Final particle

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

The final particles, which have been found, are:

/ joʔ ^{R1} /	‘already’
/ na joʔ ^{R1} /	‘already’
/ poʔ ^{R1} /	‘request particle’
/ təpoʔ ^{R1} /	‘request particle’
/ həʔ ^{R1} /	‘invite particle’
/ nəʔ ^{R1} /	‘invite or imperative particle’
/ noʔ ^{R1} /	‘ask permission particle.’
/ naʔ ^{R1} /	‘ask permission or imperative particle.’
/ soʔ ^{R1} /	‘imperative particle.’

/ seʔ ^{R1} /	‘imperative particle.’
/ jɛn ^{R1} /	‘imperative particle.’
/ ʔajɛn ^{R1} /	‘imperative or emphasis particle.’
/ ləkəʔ ^{R1} /	‘imperative particle.’
/ maŋ ^{R1} /	‘suspect particle.’

Example : / kuj^{R1} kɔnsuʔ^{R1} harɛh^{R1} tuʔ^{R1} joʔ^{R1} /
 have dog seven body Fp
 ‘(I) have seven dogs.’

/ ɲum^{R1} ʔajɛm^{R1} /
 delicious Fp
 ‘Delicious.’

/ ʔeŋ^{R1} sum^{R1} -k^həm^{R1} həʔ^{R1} /
 come eat together Fp
 ‘Come to eat together.’

/ muk^{R1} jɛn^{R1} /
 sit Fp
 ‘Sit.’

/ ɲəʔ^{R1} laʔ^{R1} poʔ^{R1} /
 drink tea Fp
 ‘Drink tea please.’

/ nəmkuɔŋɔn^{R1} seʔ^{R1} /
 previous day Fp
 ‘At the previous day.’

/ ʔaʔ^{R1} jaŋ^{R1} laŋlaŋ^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} /

it still long long Fp

‘It is still very long.’

/ makəŋ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} caŋ^{R2} tɔm^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} sɔʔ^{R1} /

parent we usually teach we Fp

‘Our parents usually teach us.’

CHAPTER V

PHRASES AND CLAUSES

5.1 Phrase

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

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

5.1.1 Nominal phrase

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

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

5.1.1.1 Active noun phrase

The elements of the noun phrases are :

Active noun phrase = + H: N \pm Mod : Adj. \pm Qt: (Nu \pm Clas) \pm Poss:(N / Pron + Poss Mk) \pm D: Dem

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

A restriction on the co-occurrence of adjective modifying a noun . An adjective modifying will occur in the utterance and is optional with quantity,

possessor and/or demonstrative. But if adjective modifying occurs in the final position of the utterance it will function as a descriptive verb.

The normal order of the noun phrase is :

H – Mod – Qt – Poss – Dem

1. / naʔ^{R1} /

house

H

‘The house’

2. / kɔnɫik^{R1} paŋ^{R2} ʔɔn^{R1} /

pig white that

H Mod Dem

‘That white pig’

3. / naʔ^{R1} kətɛŋ^{R2} ləpɔn^{R1} ɭaŋ^{R1} /

house big four Clas

H Mod Qt

‘The four big houses.’

4. / kɔnsuʔ^{R1} lɔŋ^{R1} ʔuʔriʔ^{R2} /

dog black mine

H Mod Poss

‘My black dog.’

5. / naʔ^{R1} paŋ^{R2} laʔɔr^{R1} ɭaŋ^{R1} ʔuʔriʔ^{R2} ʔɔn^{R1} /

house white three Clas mine that

H Mod Qt Poss Dem

‘That, my white house.’

The modifier, quantity and possessor can change position with each other

6. / naʔ^{R1} kətɛŋ^{R2} ləʔɔr^{R1} ɭaŋ^{R1} ʔuʔriʔ^{R2} /
 house big three Clas mine
 H Mod Qt Poss
 ‘My three big houses.’

→ / naʔ^{R1} kətɛŋ^{R2} ʔuʔriʔ^{R2} ləʔɔr^{R1} ɭaŋ^{R1} /
 house big mine three Clas
 H Mod Poss Qt
 ‘My three big house.’

5.1.1.2 Pronoun phrase

The elements of a pronoun phrase are :

Pronoun phrase = + H : Pron ± Qt : $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Nu} \\ \text{Nu +Clas} \end{array} \right\} \pm D : \text{Dem}$

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

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

1. / ʔiʔ^{R1} /
 we
 H
 ‘we’

2. / ʔuʔ^{R2} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} naʔ^{R1} /
 I (stay at home)
 H
 ‘I (stay at home).’

3. / ləmiʔ^{R1} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} /
 you,all (eat rice)
 H
 ‘All of you eat rice.’

4. / ʔiʔ^{R1} satim^{R1} tuʔ^{R1} /
 we nine Clas
 H Qt
 ‘Nine of us.’

5. / ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔətɕum^{R1} ʔɔn^{R1} məh^{R1} pləŋ^{R1} /
 we all of that (be Plang)
 H Qt Dem
 ‘Those, all of us (are Plang).’

5.1.1.3 Numeral phrase

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

The elements of a numeral phrase are :

$$\text{Numeral Phrase} = \pm \left\{ k^h a w \right\} + H : \text{Nu} + \text{Clas} \pm \left\{ \begin{array}{l} k w a ʔ^{R1} \\ k^h r u ŋ^{R1} \end{array} \right\}$$

That is, the optional / k^haw^{R1} / ‘amount’, an obligatory quantity filled by numeral plus an optional classifier. And plus an optional / kwaʔ^{R1} / ‘more’ or / k^hruŋ^{R1} / ‘half’.

/ kwaʔ^{R1} / and / k^hruŋ^{R1} / shows an approximate figure, and it seem to be a Thai loan word.

The normal order of the elements is :

$$\left\{ k^h a w \right\} - H - \text{Clas} - \left\{ \begin{array}{l} k w a ʔ^{R1} \\ k^h r u ŋ^{R1} \end{array} \right\}$$

1. / (laʔ)^{R1} laʔar^{R1} cum^{R1} k^huŋ^{R1} /

(tea) two cup half

H

‘Two and a half cups.’

2. / (ʔəp)^{R1} ləʔor^{R1} səwak^{R1} kwaʔ^{R1} /

(rice) two hand than

H

‘More than two palms of rice.’

3. / (kɔnɿik)^{R1} k^haw^{R1} təʔ^{R1} caloʔ^{R1} /

(pig) amount one kilogram

H

‘A pig weight about one kilogram’

4. / ci^h^{R1} k^haw^{R1} ləʔor^{R1} mat^{R1} kwaʔ^{R1} /

salt amount three bundles more

H

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

5.1.1.4 Additive Complex nominal phrase

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

The elements of the additive complex nominal phrase are :

Additive Complex nominal phrase = ± I1 : Np + Conj. : / ma.j^{R1} / + I2 : Np

That is, an obligatory Item1 position is filled by a nominal phrase. An obligatory conjunction position is filled by a / ma.j^{R1} / ‘and’, and an obligatory Item2 position is filled by a nominal phrase.

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

1. / miʔ^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} (məh^{R1} puʔ^{R1} pəreʔ^{R1}) /
 you and I (be friend together)
 I₁ Conj I₂
 ‘You and I (are friends).’

2. / ʔaʔ^{R1} dəŋ^{R1} maj^R ʔiʔ^{R1} dam^{R1} (həʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲar^{R1}) /
 man’s Mk Daeng and women’s Mk Dam (go at field)
 I₁ Conj I₂
 ‘Daeng and Dam (go to the field).’

3. / miʔ^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} mət^{R1} kaʔ^{R2} /
 you and I (to fish fish)
 I₁ Conj I₂
 ‘You and I are fishing.’

If there are more than two items, the linkage /maj^{R1}/ ‘and’ is normally placed before the last item.

4. / (ʔuʔ^{R2} mak^{R1}) loj^{R1} ʔum^{R1} mət^{R1} kaʔ^{R2} /
 (I like) swim water fishing fish
 I₁ I₂
 maj^{R1} cəŋ^{R2} p^hluʔ^{R1} /
 and saw shirt
 Conj I₃
 ‘(I like) swimming, fishing and saw the shirt.’

/maj^{R1}/ can also be translated as ‘with’, to indicate an instrument as shown in the following examples.

5. / ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} maj^{R1} cɔn^{R1} /

I eat rice with spoon

'I eat rice with a spoon.'

6. / kəŋ^{R1} sac^{R1} maj^{R1} saŋhək^{R1} /

father to comb with comb

'Father combs the hair with a comb.'

5.1.1.5 Appositional complex nominal phrase

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

The elements of the appositional complex nominal phrase are

Appositional complex nominal phrase = + I₁ : Np + I₂ : Np

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

The normal order of the elements is : I₁ – I₂

1. / ʔiʔ^{R1} dɛn^{R1} ʔɔŋ^{R1} miʔ^{R1} (kəsɔʔ^{R1}) /

woman's marker Daeng sister you (sick)

I₁

I₂

'Daeng, your sister, is sick.'

2. / fa^{R1} kɔn^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} (hər^{R1} naŋ^{R1} roŋrien^{R1}) /

Fa daughter I (go at school)

I₁

I₂

'Fa, my daughter, (went to school).'

3. / ʔok^{R1} kɔn^{R1} ʔən^{R1} (ŋuh^{R1} nhɔm^{R1} ʔət^{R1} seʔ^{R1}) /

Aok child he (do work and Fp)

I₁

I₂

'Aok, his child (worked).'

4. / k^haw^{R1} kɔnsuʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} (jəɯ^{R1}) /
 k^haw dog I (die)
 I₁ I₂
 ‘Khaw, my dog (died).’

5.1.2 Verb phrase

A verb phrase functions in the predicate position in a clause.

The verb phrase consists of a main verb in the head slot and modifying elements

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

The structure of a verb phrase may be diagrammed very generally as :Verb phrase = ± Pre V : (Aux1. ± Aux2) + MV : V ± Mod : Adv

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

5.1.2.1 Active verb phrase

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

The elements of the active verb phrase are :

Active verb phrase = ± Pre V: (Aux1. ± Aux2) + MV : V ± Mod : Adv

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

The normal order of the elements is Pre V - MV - Mod, when a verb filled in the main verb position, the verb phrase can be discontinuous, i.e., the modifier will occur after the object (sec. ex.2)

1. / (ʔuʔ^{R2}) naŋ^{R2} sum^{R1} koj^{R1} /

(I) will eat slowly

Mod1 MV Mod

‘I will eat slowly.’

2. / (ʔuʔ^{R2}) lon^{R1} neʔ^{R1} (ʔum^{R1}) hen^{R1} /

(I) used to drink (water) much

Mod1 MV Mod

‘I used to drink much water.’

3. / (ʔuʔ^{R2}) taʔ^{R1} sum^{R1} ʔət^{R1} /

(I) must eat already

Mod1 MV Mod

‘I have to eat.’

4. / ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔon^{R1} caŋ^{R1} puŋ^{R1} plaŋ^{R1} /

I not can speak Plang

Mod1 MV

‘I can not speak Plang.’

5.1.2.2 Adjectival verb phrase

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

The elements of adjectival verb phrase are :

Adjectival verb phrase = ± Mod1 : (Aux1. ± Aux2)

+ MV : V + Mod2 : Adv

That is, an optional modifier1 position is filled by an auxiliaries1 and/or auxiliaries2. An obligatory main verb position is filled by a descriptive verb. And optional modifier2 position is filled by an adverb. The normal order of the elements is : Mod1 – MV – Mod2

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} ɭoŋ^{R1} (ʔəʔ^{R1}) /
 I tall (Fp)
 MV
 'I 'm tall.'

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

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

5.1.2.3 Equative verb phrase

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

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

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

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

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} naŋ^{R2} məh^{R1} ʔacan^{R1} /
 I will be teacher
 I₁ MV I₂
 'I will be a teacher.'

2. / naʔ^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} məh^{R1} naʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /
 house this be house I
 I₁ MV I₂
 'This house is mine.'

3. / ʔaʔ^{R1} taʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} kɔnsuʔ^{R1} ʔɔn^{R1} /
 It must be dog that
 I₁ MV I₁
 ‘It must be that dog.’

5.1.3 Prepositional phrase

A prepositional phrase functions in the relator position, an object position of clauses, and possessor. The general structure of a prepositional phrase may be diagrammed as : Prepositional phrase = + H : Prep + N : Np

That is, an obligatory head position is filled by a preposition. An obligatory noun position is filled by a nominal phrase.

The normal order of the elements is : H - N

1. / (kaʔ^{R1} muk^{R1}) nəj^{R1} ʔum^{R1} /
 (fish stay) in water
 H N
 ‘Fish are in the water.’
2. / (ʔakəŋ^{R1} hər^{R1}) naŋ^{R1} p^hriʔ^{R1} /
 (father go) at forest
 H N
 ‘The father went into the forest.’
3. / (ʔən^{R1} muk) tɛm^{R2} kələmk^huʔ^{R1} /
 (he stay) under tree
 H N
 ‘He stays under the tree.’
4. / (kɔnʔaʔ^{R1} muk^{R1}) naŋ^{R1} kələmk^huʔ^{R1} /
 (monkey stays) at tree
 H N
 ‘The monkey stays on the tree.’

5.1.4 Adverb phrase

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

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

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

1. / (ʔən^{R1} pəj^{R2}) wəj^{R1} mot^{R1} /
 (he run) quick much
 H Mod
 ‘He runs very quickly.’
2. / (ʔən^{R1} sum^{R1}) hən^{R1} mot^{R1}
 (he eat) much much
 H Mod
 ‘ He eats a lot.’
3. / (ʔuʔ^{R2} hət^{R1}) kɔj^{R1} mot^{R1} /
 (I go) slowly much
 H - Mod
 ‘I go very slowly.’

5.2 Clauses

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

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

clause is also usually marked with an intonation contour which signals the different clause classes.

The structure of a clause may be generally diagrammed as.

Clauses = $\pm S : Np + P : Vp \pm IO : Np \pm DO : Np$

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

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

5.2.1 Statement clause

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

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

5.2.1.1 Transitive clause

The elements of transitive clauses are :

Transitive clause = $\pm S : Np + P : Vp Tr + O : Np \pm Mod : Adv$

Loc / Man / Temp

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

Example :

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} wəj^{R1} /

I eat rice quick

'I eat rice quickly.'

2. / ʔən^{R1} pun^{R1} konsim^{R1} nəmkuʔsaŋon^{R1} /

he shoot bird yesterday

'He shot birds yesterday.'

3. / ʔən^{R1} mət^{R1} kaʔ^{R2} /

he to fish fish

'He is fishing.'

4. / konsuʔ^{R1} kuk^{R1} ɲnum^{R1} /

dog bite child

'A dog bit a child.'

5. / ʔən^{R1} mak ʔuʔ^{R2} palaparuʔ^{R1} /

he love I very much

'He loves me very much.'

6. / ʔuʔ^{R2} pəʔ^{R1} miʔ^{R1} /

I hit you

'I hit you.'

5.2.1.2 Intransitive clause

The elements of the intransitive clause are :

Intransitive clause ± S : Np + P : Vp Intr ± Mod : Adv Loc / Man / Temp.

That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrase and an obligatory predicate position is filled by an intransitive verb phrase. And an optional modifier position is filled by an adverbs of Location, Manner or Temporal.

The normal order of the elements is S-P

1. / ʔən^{R1} ʔit^{R1} nkoj^{R1} /

he sleep alone

S P Mod

‘He sleeps alone.’

2. / konsuʔ^{R1} kwal^{R1} /

dog bark

S P

‘The dog barks.’

3. / raŋ^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} npwt^{R1} /

tooth of I break

S P

‘My tooth has broken.’

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

4. A : / ʔanoʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} /

who come

‘Who is coming?’

B : / ʔuʔ^{R2} /

I

‘Me.’

5.2.1.3 Bitransitive Clause

The elements of the bitransitive clause are :

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

That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrase an obligatory predicate1 position is filled by a bitransitive verb phrase, an obligatory direct object position is filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory predicate2 position is filled by a bitransitive verb phrase / kah^{R2} / ‘give’, an

obligatory Indirect position is filled by a nominal phrase and an optional predicate3 position is filled by a verb phrase. Peripheral elements consist of temporal and location.

The normal order of the elements is :

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

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} lah^{R1} ʔacɔŋlaj^{R1} kah^{R2} miʔ^{R1} /
 I tell story give you
 S P1 DO P2 IO
 'I told the story to you.'

2. / ʔuʔ^{R2} wiʔ^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} kah^{R2} kiʔ^{R1} sum^{R1} /
 I buy rice give he eat
 S P1 DO P2 IO P3
 'I bought the rice for him to eat.'

3. / ʔən^{R1} puʔ^{R1} ʔak^hləp^{R1} kah^{R2} ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔeŋ^{R1} ɲar^{R1} /
 he carry on back basket give I go field
 S P1 DO P2 IO P3
 'He is carrying the basket for me to go to the field.'

4. / ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔɛw^{R1} məɾ^{R1} kah^{R2} miʔ^{R1} /
 I find money give you
 S P1 DO P2 IO
 'I find the money to give to you.'

5. / ʔuʔ^{R2} kah^{R2} kamɔn^{R1} kah^{R2} ʔən^{R1} /
 I give dessert give he
 'I give some dessert to him.'

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

5.2.1.4 Descriptive Clause

The elements of the descriptive clause are :

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

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

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

1. / mpən^{R1} ηam^{R1} hən^{R1} /

woman beautiful very

S P Mod

‘The woman is very beautiful.’

2. / naʔ^{R1} kətεη^{R2} /

house big

S P

‘The house is big.’

3. / ʔumkətεη^{R2} rəʔ^{R1} hən^{R1} /

river deep very

S P

‘The river is very deep.’

5.2.1.5 Equational Clause

The elements of the equational clause are :

Equational Clause = + I₁ : Np + P : Vp Eq + I₂ : Np

That is, an obligatory Item1 position is filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory predicate position is filled by an equational verb phrase and an obligatory Item2 position is filled by a nominal phrase.

The normal order of the elements is $I_1 - P - I_2$

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} məh^{R1} pləŋ^{R1} /

I be Plang

I_1 P I_2

'I'm Plang.'

2. / ʔən^{R1} məh^{R1} num^{R1} /

he be Num

I_2 P I_2

'His name is Num.'

3. / ʔən^{R1} məh^{R1} caw^{R1} naʔ^{R1} /

he be owner house

I_2 P I_2

'He is the owner of the house.'

5.2.1.6 Motion Clause

The elements of motion clauses are :

Motion Clause = $\pm S : Np + P : Vp$ Mot \pm Mod : Adv Man or Prep

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

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

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} həɾ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} sɔsɛw^{R1} /

I go at school

S P Mod.

'I go to school.'

2. / kɔn^{R1} pəj^{R2} wəj^{R1} /

child run quick

S P Mod

'The child runs quickly.'

3. / kɔnsim^{R1} p^hrɯn^{R1} wəj^{R1} mɔt^{R1} /
 bird fly quick very
 S P Mod
 ‘The bird flew very quickly.’
4. / ʔuʔ^{R2} naŋ^{R2} hɛr^{R1} naŋ^{R1} p^hriʔ^{R1} /
 I will go at forest
 S P Mod
 ‘I will go to the forest.’

5.2.1.7 Quotative Clause

The elements of the Quotative clause are :

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

That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory predicate position is filled by a quotative verb /lah^{R1}/, an obligatory object position is filled by a nominal phrase, and an optional modifier position is filled by an adverb phrase.

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

1. / ʔɛn^{R1} lah^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} hɛr^{R1} nɛmpɔr^{R1} sɛŋɛn^{R1} /
 he tell I go evening today
 S P O Mod
 ‘He told me that I would go tonight.’
2. / mɔʔ^{R1} lah^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} ʔit^{R1} hɛn^{R1} hɛn^{R1} /
 doctor suggest he sleep much much
 S P O Mod
 ‘The doctor suggested that he should sleep a lot,’
3. / ʔuʔ^{R2} lah^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} nuh^{R1} nhɔm^{R1} sɛŋɛn^{R1} /
 I say he do work today
 S P O Mod
 ‘I said that he worked today.’

5.2.1.8 Ambient Clause

Ambient clauses refer to the weather

The elements of the ambient clause are :

Ambient Clause = $\pm S : Np + P : Vp$ Amb $\pm Mod : Adv$

That is, an optional subject position is filled by a nominal phrase and an obligatory predicate positions is filled by an ambient verb phrase, that is, / $li\text{?}^{R1}$ / 'rain', / $ko\text{t}^{R1}$ / 'cold' and / $ro\text{n}^{R1}$ / 'hot'. An optional modifier position is filled by an adverb phrase.

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

1. / $ku\text{ŋt}^h\text{ep}^{R1} \quad \text{li}\text{?}^{R1} /$

Bangkok	rain	
S	P	

‘It is raining in Bangkok.’
2. / $ke\text{r}^{R1} \quad ko\text{t}^{R1} \quad se\text{ŋe}\text{n}^{R1} /$

wind	cold	today
S	P	Mod

‘The wind is cool today.’
3. / $ko\text{t}^{R1} \quad he\text{n}^{R1} /$

cold	very
P	Mod

‘(The weather) is very cold.’

5.2.1.9 Existence Clause

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

The elements of the existence clauses are :

Existence Clause = $+ P: Vp$ Exist $+ I : Np + Loc : Prep$

That is, an obligatory predicate position is filled by an existence verb phrase, an obligatory item position is filled by a nominal phrase, and an

obligatory location position is filled by a prepositional phrase. Peripheral temporal and manner have been observed in this clause type.

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

1. / kuj^{R1} pəj^{R1} hən^{R1} naŋ^{R1} kuŋt^hep^{R1} /
 have people many in Bangkok
 P I Loc

‘There are many people in Bangkok.’

2. / kuj^{R1} plaŋ^{R1} hən^{R1} naŋ^{R1} juŋ^{R1} /
 have Plang many in village
 P I Loc

‘There are many Plang people in the village.’

3. / kuj^{R1} ʔanɔʔ^{R1} sak^{R1} kətiʔ^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} /
 have who only one here
 P I Loc

‘There is only one (here).’

4. / kuj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} naŋ^{R1} ɲaʔ^{R1} /
 have I in house
 P I Loc

‘There is me in the house.’

5.2.1.10 Possessive Clause

There are two types of possessive clauses.

Type 1

The elements of the possessive clause type I are :

Possessive Clause 1 = + I : Np + P : Vp Poss + Poss : Np

That is, obligatory Item position is filled by noun phrase, an obligatory predicate position is filled by possessive verb phrase (complement possessor; / məh^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} / ‘belong’) and an obligatory possessor position is filled by a nominal phrase.

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

1. / ɲaʔ^{R1} ʔɔn^{R1} məh^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /

house that belong I
I P Poss

‘That house belongs to me.’

2. / c^hεp^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} məh^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} miʔ^{R1} /

shoes this belong you
I P Poss

‘These shoes belong to you.’

3. / ɲaʔ^{R1} ʔɔn^{R1} məh^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} /

house that belong he
I P Poss

‘That house belongs to him.’

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

4. / ɲaʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /

house I
I Poss

‘My house.’

5. / kɔnsuʔ^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} /

dog he
I Poss

‘His dog’

Type II

The elements of the possessive clause type II are :

possessive clause 2 = + I₁ : Np + P : / məh^{R1} / + I₂ : Np + Poss : (N / Pron +
..riʔ or...niʔ)

That is, an obligatory item₁ position is filled by a nominal phrase, an obligatory predicate position is filled by / məh^{R1} / 'be' and co-occurrence obligatory Item₂ position is filled by a nominal phrase. An obligatory possessor position is filled by a nominal or pronoun add a possessive suffix marker /.. riʔ / or /..niʔ / 'of someone'.

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

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

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

1. / kɔn^{R1} ʔɔn^{R1} məh^{R1} kɔn^{R1} ʔənriʔ^{R1} /

child that be child his
I P I Poss

'That is his child.'

2. / ʔəp^{R1} ʔɔn^{R1} məh^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} maʔriʔ^{R1} /

rice that be rice my mother
I P I Poss

'That rice is my mother's.'

3. /kɔnɫik^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} məh^{R1} kɔnɫik^{R1} maʔniʔ^{R1} kənniʔ^{R1}/

pig this be pig my mother my father
I P I Poss

'This pig is my parents's.'

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

In addition, in the possessive clause type II the Item can be deleted in conversation such as

A :/ naʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} məh^{R1} naʔriʔ^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /
 house that be house Qfp
 I P I Poss
 'Is that your house?'

B :/ məh^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /
 be I
 P Poss
 'That's my house.'

5.2.1.11 Cognitive Clause

The elements of the cognitive clause type are :

Cognitive Clause = ± S : Np + P : Vp Cog ± O : Np

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

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

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} ɲuʔ^{R1} ʔən^{R1} /
 I see he
 S P O
 'I saw him.'
2. / ʔuʔ^{R2} ɲon^{R1} miʔ^{R1} /
 I know he
 S P O
 'I know him.'
3. / ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔon^{R1} pir^{R1} piʔ^{R1} /
 I not forget you
 S P O
 'I will not forget you.'

The emphasized object of the cognitive clause may be transformed.

4. / cɔŋraj^{R1} plɑŋ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} piɾ^{R1} ʔet^{R1} /
 folktale Plang I forget already
 O S P
 ‘I forgot the Plang folktale.’

The deleted subject and object in the conversation may be transformed

5. A: / miʔ^{R1} ɲɔŋ^{R1} ʔən^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /
 you know he or not.
 S P O Qw
 ‘Do you know him?’
 B: / ɲɔŋ^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} /
 not know Fp
 P
 ‘(I) don’t know.’

5.2.1.12 Evaluation Clause

The elements of the evaluation clause type are :

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

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

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

1. / kaʔ^{R1} k^haw^{R1} saw^{R1} mwat^{R1} /
 fish cost 20 baht
 I P Va
 ‘The fish costs 20 baht.’

2. / ʔəp^{R1} kaw^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} k^haw^{R1} saw^{R1} mwat^{R1} /
 rice pack this cost 20 baht
 I P Va

‘This pack of rice cost 20 baht.’

3. / kəmon^{R1} k^haw^{R1} kətɨʔ^{R1} mwat^{R1} /
 desert cost one baht
 I P Va

‘The dessert cost one baht.’

In addition, the emphasized Evaluation clause may be transformed as

4. / k^haw^{R1} saw^{R1} mwat^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} kaw^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} /
 amount 20 baht rice pack this
 P Va I

‘This pack of rice costs 20 baht.’

In conversation the predicate in this clause type can be deleted

5. A: / ɭik^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} k^haw^{R1} sanɔʔ^{R1} /
 pig this amount how
 I P

B: / (k^haw)^{R1} sisip^{R1} mwat^{R1} /
 cost 40 baht
 P Va

‘(It) costs 40 baht.’

5.2.1.13 Comparative Clause

There are three kinds of comparative clauses

- A) Comparison of Equality
- B) Comparative Degree
- C) Superlative Degree

A) Comparison of Equality

The element of Comparison of Equality are : Comparison of Equality = + I₁ : Np + P : Vp Des + Com Mk: $\left\{ / s\text{en}^{R1} / \right\}$ + I₂ : Np

That is, an obligatory item₁ position is filled by a nominal phrase. An obligatory predicate position is filled by a descriptive verb phrase. An obligatory comparison marker is filled by / sən^{R1} / 'same as' and an obligatory Item₂ position is filled by a nominal phrase. Peripheral temporal has been observed in this clause.

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

1. / dɛŋ^{R1} nkup^{R1} sən^{R1} dam^{R1} /

Daeng thin same Dam

I₁ P Com Mk I₂

'Daeng is as thin as Dam.'

2. / ləʔiʔ^{R1} ɿon^{R1} sən^{R1} dɛŋ^{R1} /

we(all) tall same Daeng

I₁ P Com Mk I₂

'All of us are as tall as Daeng.'

3. / dɛŋ^{R1} kakɛŋ^{R2} sən^{R1} dam^{R1} /

Daeng big same Dam

I₁ P Com Mk I₂

'Daeng is as big as Dam.'

4. / naʔ^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} ŋam^{R1} sən^{R1} naʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} /

house this beautiful same house that

I₂ P Com Mk I₂

'This house is as beautiful as that house.'

Restrictions on the co-occurrence of the elements of Comparison of Equality are only descriptive verbs are used

B) Comparative Degree

The elements of Comparative Degree are : Comparative Degree = + I₁ : Np + P : Vp Des + Com Mk : / ɭəʔ^{R1} / ± I₂ : Np

That is, an obligatory Item₁, position is filled by a nominal phrase. An obligatory predicate position is filled by a descriptive verb phrase, an obligatory comparative marker position is filled by / ɭəʔ^{R1} / 'than'. An optional Item₂ position is filled by a nominal phrase.

The normal order of the elements is : S₁ – P – / ɭəʔ^{R1} / - S₂

1. / miʔ^{R1} ɲam^{R1} ɭəʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /
 you beautiful than I
 I₁ P Com Mk I₂
 'You are more beautiful than I.'

2. / dɛŋ^{R1} ɭoŋ^{R1} ɭəʔ^{R1} puriʔ^{R1} /
 Daeng tall than friend Poss
 I₁ P Com Mk I₂
 'Daeng is taller than his friend.'

3. / mpɛn^{R1} calit^{R1} ɭəʔ^{R1} kon^{R1} /
 woman good than child
 I₁ P Com Mk I₂
 'The woman is better than the child.'

The predicate and comparative marker are obligatory present. The Subject₁ and the Subject₂ are normally present

C) Superlative Degree

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

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

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

1. / ?en^{R1} calit^{R1} palaparu?^{R1} /

he	good	the most
I	P	Sup

'He is the best.'

2. / mi?^{R1} ηam^{R1} palaparu?^{R1} naη^{R1} juη^{R1} /

you	beautiful	the most	in	village
I	P	Sup	Loc	

'You are the most beautiful in the village.'

3. / na?^{R1} ?en^{R1} kətεη^{R2} palaparu?^{R1} /

house	this	big	the most
S		P	Sup

'This house is biggest.'

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

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

5.2.2 Imperative clause

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

The structure of imperative clauses may be diagrammed generally as :
 Imperative clause = + P : Vp Imp ± DO : Np ± IO : Np ± Part : Fp

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

The normal order of the elements in imperative clause is
 P - DO - IO - Part

1. / sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} /
 eat rice Fp
 'Eat rice.'
2. / nəʔ^{R1} ʔum^{R1} səʔ^{R1} /
 drink water Fp
 'Drink water.'
3. / həʀ^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} /
 go Fp
 'Let's go.'
4. / muk^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} /
 sit Fp
 'Sit.'
5. / paʔ^{R1} həʀ^{R1} səʔ^{R1} /
 Neg go Fp
 'Don't go.'

6. / nuh^{R1} kəleʔ^{R1}/

do Fp

‘Please do it.’

/ soʔ / an imperative final particle expressed. (example 2, 5)

/ nəʔ / an imperative final particle expressing an invitation.

(example 1,3, 4)

/ kəleʔ / an imperative final particle expressing politeness.

(example 6)

5.2.3 Interrogative clause

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

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

5.2.3.1 Simple Yes / No Question

The simple yes / no question clause type functions in contexts where the truth value of a sentence is under question. It is a question which requires a simple ‘yes’ or ‘no’ answer, as indicated by its name. It takes the same syntactic form as a statement, except for a question word which occurs in the clause final position. It often ends with a falling intonation.

The elements of simple yes /no question clauses are :

Simple Yes / No Question = + Clause + Qfp : { / kaʔ^{R1} / }

That is, an obligatory clause position is filled by any elements of 13 independent clause types (sec.5.2.1.1-5.2.1.13) plus an obligatory question word position is filled by /kaʔ^{R1}/.

1. / miʔ^{R1} jaŋ^{R1} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /
 you just eat rice Qfp
 ‘Did you just finish eating rice?’

2. / miʔ^{R1} sətɯŋ^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /
 you tried Qfp
 ‘Are you tired?’

3. / ʔon^{R1} somsum^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /
 not hungry Qfp
 ‘Aren’t you hungry?’

4. / hɔc^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /
 finish Qfp
 ‘(Are you) done?’

5.2.3.2 Participant Content Questions

A participant content question clause functions in contexts where one or more of the participants in an action are unknown and under question. It is marked by a question word such as /ʔanɔʔ^{R1}/ ‘who’ /naŋnɔʔ^{R1}/ ‘where’ /nəmnɔʔ^{R1}/ ‘when’ /kanɔʔ^{R1}/ ‘what’. If the question word is in the clause-final position, the intonation will be high. In other positions, it will be a falling intonation.

The participant content question clauses are formed by substituting the appropriate question word within the clause.

The elements of the participant content questions are :Participant Content Questions = + Qw : / ʔanɔʔ^{R1}/ + Clause + Qw : $\left. \begin{array}{l} /kanɔʔ^{R1} / \\ /naŋnɔʔ^{R1} / \\ /nəmnoʔ^{R1} / \end{array} \right\}$

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

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

1. / təʔ^{R1} kʌnɔʔ^{R1} /
eat what
‘What did (you) eat?’
2. / ʔəŋ^{R1} nəmnoʔ^{R1} /
go when
‘When did (you) go?’
3. / piʔ^{R1} muk^{R1} naŋnɔʔ^{R1} /
you stay where
‘Where are you staying?’
4. / ʔanɔʔ^{R1} kah^{R2} miʔ^{R1} məl^{R1} /
who give you money
‘Who gave you the money?’

It is interesting that in the Participant Content Questions of ‘how much’, ‘how many’, ‘how long’, or ‘how tall’ there is no question word, but / sənɔʔ^{R1} / ‘how’ is used after an evaluation verb.

5. / ʔiʔ^{R1} k^haw^{R1} sənɔʔ^{R1} /

you sell how

‘How much does it cost?’

6. / piʔ^{R1} pum^{R1} nəm^{R1} sənɔʔ^{R1} /

you get year how

‘How old are you?’

7. / piʔ^{R1} kuj^{R1} kilo^{R1} sənɔʔ^{R1} /

you have kilo how

‘How much is your weight?’

8. / piʔ^{R1} hək^{R1} laŋ^{R1} sənɔʔ^{R1} /

you hair long how

‘How long are your hairs?’

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

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

5.2.3.3 Relationship Contents Question

A relationship content question clause functions in contexts where relationship between actions are unknown and under question. It is marked by the question words / kənɔʔ^{R1} / ‘why’ or / sənɔʔ^{R1} / ‘how’.

If the either question word is in the clause final position, the intonation will be high. In the other positions, it will be a falling intonation.

The elements of relationship content question are :

$$\text{Relationship Contents Question} = \pm \text{Clause} \pm \text{Qw} : \left\{ \begin{array}{l} / \text{kənoʔ}^{\text{R1}} / \\ / \text{sənoʔ}^{\text{R1}} / \end{array} \right\}$$

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

1. / piʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} sum^{R1} kənoʔ^{R1} /
 you not eat why
 ‘Why don’t you eat?’

2. / kənoʔ^{R1} ʔən^{R1} kah^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} /
 why he give we rice
 ‘Why did he give the rice to us?’

3. / sənoʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} huajnamk^hun^{R1} /
 how come to Huaynamk^hun village
 ‘How did you come to the Huay Namkhun village?’

The subject is normally deleted because it is in direct speech.

A question word is obligatory present. Other deletions are the same as that of the statement clause.

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

5.2.3.4 Alternation Questions

The alternation question gives the listener two choices of form, and the speaker expects one of those choices as the listener’s reply.

The alternation question is formed by putting / cu^{R1} / 'or' as a conjunction between the alternatives.

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

The elements of alternation questions are :

Alternation Questions = + Alt₁ : Cl + Conj : / cu^{R1} / + Alt₂ : Cl

The normal order of the element is Alt₁ - / cu^{R1} / - Alt₂

1. / miʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} raʔ^{R1} cu^{R1} miʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} ʔit^{R1} /

you will play or you will sleep

'Will you play or sleep?'

2. / miʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} həl^{R1} cu^{R1} ʔon^{R1} həl^{R1} /

you will go or not go

'Will you go or not?'

3. / sum^{R1} cu^{R1} ʔon^{R1} jaŋ^{R1} sum^{R1} /

eat or not yet eat

'Have you eaten yet (or not.)?'

4. / sump^hum^{R1} cu^{R1} ʔon^{R1} sump^hum^{R1} /

hungry or not hungry

'Have you been hungry yet?'

5. / miʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} sum^{R1} cu^{R1} naŋ^{R2} ʔit^{R1} /

you will eat or will sleep

'Will you eat or sleep?'

CHAPTER VI

SENTENCE

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

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

6.1 The semantic structure

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

6.1.1 Nuclear types

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

6.1.1.1 One action sentence

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

1. / ?ən^{R1} pəj^{R1}/

he run

S P

‘He ran.’

2. / maʔ^{R1} pəʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /
 mother hit I
 S P O
 ‘Mother hit me’
3. / kəŋ^{R1} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲar^{R1} /
 father stay at field
 S P Loc
 ‘Father stays at the field.’
4. / ʔuʔ^{R2} naŋ^{R2} ʔəŋ^{R1} səŋən^{R1} /
 I will come today
 S P Temp
 ‘I will come today.’

6.1.1.2 Temporal sequence sentence

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

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

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} saklət^{R1} ʔit^{R1} /
 I eat rice finish then sleep
 ‘I had eaten rice then I slept.’
2. / ʔən^{R1} nuh^{R1} nhom^{R1} saklət^{R1} hər^{R1} naʔ^{R1} /
 he do work finish then go home
 ‘He had worked then he went back home.’

3. / ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} ʔət^{R1} lət^{R1} ɲuh^{R1} nɦom^{R1} /

I eat rice and then do work

‘ I had ate rice and then I worked .’

4. / ʔuʔ^{R2} ɲuh^{R1} nɦom^{R1} ʔət^{R1} lət^{R1} ɭiʔ^{R1} /

I do work and then rain

‘ I worked and then the rain fell.’

Sometimes, no linker is used between the clause.

5. / ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔəŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} mɛsaj^{R1} ʔəŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} huajk^haj^{R1}

I come at Mae Sai come at Huajkhaj

ʔəŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} huajnamk^hun^{R1} nəsɔʔ^{R1}/

come at Huay Namkhun Fp

‘I had come to Mae Sai, and I came to Huaykhaj, then I came to Huay Namkhun.’

6.1.1.3 Convarying Sentence

A convarying sentence is used to describe two or more events whose intensities or actions vary together. The first event is the conditioning variable and the following event is the resulting variable.

A covariance in Plang can be a covariance of simple degree which is linked by / tɛc^han^{R1}tɛc^han^{R1} / ‘ the more... the more’

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} tɛc^han^{R1} sətɯŋ^{R1} hən^{R1} tɛc^han^{R1} sum^{R1} hən^{R1}/

I more tried much more eat much

‘The more tried I am , the more (I) eat a lot.’

2. / kɔn^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} tɛc^han^{R1} kətɛŋ^{R2} tɛc^han^{R1} ŋam^{R1} /

child we more big more beautiful

‘The more our children grow, the more beautiful they are.’

3. / tɛc^han^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} ŋuh^{R1} nhom^{R1} hən^{R1} tɛc^han^{R1} rɔŋ^{R1} /

more we do work much more rich

‘The more we work the more rich we become.’

4. / tɛc^han^{R1} muk^{R1} nan^{R1} ɭɔŋ^{R1} tɛc^han^{R1} kɔt^{R1} /

more stay at high more cold

‘The more you stay at the high place the more (you) are cold.’

5. / ʔuʔ^{R2} tɛc^han^{R1} tɔm^{R1} konriʔ^{R1} hən^{R1} tɛc^han^{R1}

I more teach child Poss much more

məh^{R1} k^honcalit^{R1} /

be good man

‘The more I teach my child, the more he is a good man.’

6.1.1.4 Conditional Sentence

A conditional sentence in Plang is composed of two events which are a condition and the resulting action. They are conjoined by placing / juʔ^{R1} / ‘if’ at the beginning of the conditional clause.

1. / juʔ^{R1} ʔən^{R1} rah^{R1} seʔ^{R1} ʔən^{R1} taʔ^{R1} saj^{R1} /

if he rob Fp he must pay

‘If he robs, he must pay.’

2. / juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} pun^{R1} sip^{R1} nɛm^{R1} najɔʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1}
 if we get ten year Fp we
 taŋniʔ katkat /
 begin wear as a turban.
 ‘If we are ten years old, we begin to wear a turban.’

3. / juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} kuj^{R1} k^hɔʔ^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} kah^{R2} ʔiʔ^{R1}
 if we have boyfriend he give we
 taj^{R1} pak^{R1} tuhriʔ^{R1}
 flower slip in our head
 ‘If we have a boyfriend, he gives us flowers to slip in our hair.’

4. / juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔon^{R1} hɛl^{R1} /
 if rain I not go
 ‘If it rains, I will not go.’

5. / ʔuʔ^{R2} naŋ^{R2} jɛm^{R1} juʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔon^{R1} sum^{R1} /
 I will die if I not eat
 ‘I will die if I don’t eat.’

6.1.1.5 Purposeful Sentence

A purposeful sentence in Plang is composed of two or more events, of which the previous event is the cause and the following event is purpose.

The action position is usually filled by a transitive or a motion clause. The purpose position is filled by a clause, which indicates the purpose or motivation of the action. Frequently, there are the verbs / swt^{R1} / ‘keep’/ lanan^{R1} / ‘in order to’ Purpose clause in the clause type. These verbs imply the meaning of ‘in order to’. If the subjects of the two clauses are the same, the subject of the second clause may be omitted.

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} rian^{R1} puŋ^{R1} plaŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} sut^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} /
 I learn speak Plang will keep it Fp
 ‘ I learned the Plang language in order to keep the Plang language.’

2. / ʔuʔ^{R2} həʀ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɯ̄ar^{R1} lanaŋ^{R1} nsəm^{R1} huʔ^{R1} /
 I go at field in order to plant rice
 ‘ I go to the field in order to grow rice.’

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

4. / ʔuʔ^{R2} nuh^{R1} nhəm^{R1} lanaŋ^{R1} kuj^{R1} məʀ^{R1} hən^{R1} hən^{R1} /
 I do work in order to have money much much
 ‘ I worked in order to have a lot of money.’

5. / ʔən^{R1} həʀ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} kuŋt^{həp}^{R1} lət^{R1} kuj^{R1} sum^{R1} /
 he go at Bangkok then have eat
 ‘ He went to Bangkok in order to make a living.’

6.1.2 Compounding

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

6.1.2.1 Contrastive Compounding

In contrastive compounding there are two clauses in which the previous and the following are contrasts. Some pattern of these clauses is a simple statement.

The contrast is marked by / tɛʔ^{R1} / ‘but’, which is a Thai loan word, before the second clause, or by / saktəʔ^{R1} / ‘although’ before the first clause.

1. / ʔən^{R1} ʔon^{R1} ɲon^{R1} məh^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2}

he not know be I

tɛʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} ɲon^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} /

but I know he

Nu

‘He doesn’t know me but I know him.’

2. / saktəʔ^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} tuk^{R1} ʔən^{R1} ʔon^{R1} raʔ^{R1} pəj^{R1} /

although he poor he not steal people

Nu

‘Although, he is poor, he does not steal from anyone.’

3. / kənriʔ^{R1} som^{R1} ʔit^{R1} tɛʔ^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} ʔit^{R1} /

child Poss want sleep but he not sleep.

Nu

‘My child wants to sleep but he has not slept yet.’

4. / saktəʔ ʔən jəm^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔon^{R1} ɲam^{R1} /

although he die I not cry

Nu

‘Although he died, I did not cry.’

The contrastive markers may be deleted such as

5. / ʔuʔ^{R2} kok^{R1} ʔən^{R1} ʔən^{R1} ʔon^{R1} mən^{R1} /

I call he he not hear
Nu

‘I called him, but he did not hear me.’

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

6. / ʔuʔ^{R2} sətɯŋ^{R1} tɛʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} ʔit^{R1} /

I tried but not sleep
Nu

‘I’m trying but (I) don’t sleep.’

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

6.1.2.2 Equivalent Compounding -

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

1. / kəŋ^{R1} ɲuh^{R1} nɦom^{R1} kəŋ^{R1} nseɦ^{R1} laʔ^{R1} /

father do work father plant tea
Nu

‘The father works, he plants tea.’

2. / ʔən^{R1} ʔon^{R1} sum^{R1} ʔən^{R1} ʔon^{R1} som^{R1} sum^{R1} /

he not eat he not want eat

Nu

‘He does not eat, he is not hungry.’

3. / ʔən^{R1} sətɯŋ^{R1} ʔən^{R1} ʔit^{R1} /

he tried he sleep

Nu

‘He is tired , he is sleeping.’

The subject of the second clause can be deleted when the subject is oneself.

4. / ʔuʔ^{R2} som^{R1} ʔit^{R1} naŋ^{R2} ʔit^{R1} /

I want sleep will sleep

Nu

‘ I’ m sleepy, (I) will sleep.’

5. / ʔuʔ^{R2} naŋ^{R2} lɛh^{R1} naŋ^{R1} naʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} muk^{R1} tɛʔ^{R1} /

I will return to house not stay here

Nu

‘I will return at home, (I) will not stay here.’

6.1.2.3 Alternative Compounding

Alternative compounding gives a pair of alternatives in a given situation. In Plang this can be show by using / cu^{R1} / ‘or’.

1. / miʔ naŋ^{R2} hɛr^{R1} cu^{R1} ʔon^{R1} hɛr^{R1} /

you will go or not go

Nu

‘You go or don’t you go.’

2. / ʔən^{R1} naŋ^{R2} ʔit^{R1} cu^{R1} naŋ^{R2} hər^{R1} /

he will sleep or will go

Nu

‘Will he sleep or will he go.’

3. / miʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} sum^{R1} cu^{R1} naŋ^{R2} nuh^{R1} nhom^{R1} /

you will eat or will do work

Nu

‘Will you eat or will you work.’

4. / ʔən^{R1} ʔit^{R1} cu^{R1} nam^{R1} /

he sleep or cry

Nu

‘He sleeps or he cries.’

6.1.2.4 Additive Compounding

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

1. / ʔən^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} hər^{R1} naŋ^{R1} məcan^{R1} səŋən^{R1} /

he and I go at Maecan today

‘He and I go to Mae Can today.’

2. / maʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} som^{R1} pɔn^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔum^{R1} naŋ^{R1} kətum^{R1} /

mother I put on pork and water at pot

‘My mother put some pork and some water in the pot.’

3. /ʔiʔ^{R1} nsəm^{R1} ŋkuʔ^{R1} maj^{R1} prik^hamɔn^{R1} lalɔŋ^{R1} sum^{R1} /
 we plant rice and fruit in order to eat
 ‘We plant the rice and fruit in order to eat.’

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

4. / ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} nɛʔ^{R1} ʔum^{R1} /
 I eat rice drink water
 ‘I eat rice and drink some water.’

6.1.3 Setting

A sentence may have a time and a location setting.

6.1.3.1 Time setting

The time setting of a sentence may be indicated by words such as /səpɛn^{R1} / ‘today’, /pansaʔ^{R1} / ‘tomorrow’ / nəmkuʔ^{R1} / ‘yesterday’, /hansaʔ^{P1} / ‘next days’ / nəmkusaŋɔn^{R1} / ‘previous day’, /nəmtiʔ^{R1} / ‘year before’ or indicated by phrases such as /c^hiʔ^{R1} hət^{R1} / ‘next moth’, /nəmpɔl^{R1} səpɛn^{R1} / ‘tonight’ or clauses such as /nəm^{R1} pun^{R1} siphə^{R1} / ‘at 15 year olds.’

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

1. / ʔən^{R1} naŋ^{R2} ʔeŋ^{R1} səpɛn^{R1} /
 he will come today
 ‘He will come today.’
2. / ʔuʔ^{R2} hər^{R1} naŋ^{R1} kɔŋt^hep^{R1} nəmkuʔ^{R1} /
 I go at Bangkok yesterday
 ‘I went to Bangkok yesterday.’

3. / pansaʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} naŋ^{R2} hɛr^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲar^{R1} /
 tomorrow I will go at field
 ‘Tomorrow, I will go to the field.’

4. / hansaʔ^{R1} miʔ^{R1} sum^{R1} pɛriʔ^{R1} t^hɛm^{R1} /
 next day you eat together again.
 ‘The next day you eat together again.’

5. / ʔuʔ^{R2} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲaʔ^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} nɛm^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} pun^{R1}
 I stay at house this when I get
 sɪpha^{R1} nɛm^{R1} /
 fifty year
 ‘I stayed in this house when I was 15 years old.’

6. / nɛm^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} mɛh^{R1} kɔn^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} lu^{R1} /
 when I be child I stay at Sipsongpanna
 ‘When I was just a child, I stay at Sipsongpanna.’

6.1.3.2 Location setting

The location setting of a sentence may be indicated by place words such as / c^hɛŋraj^{R1} / ‘Chiang Rai’ / kɔŋt^hɛp^{R1} / ‘Bangkok’, a prepositional phrase such as / naŋ^{R1} ʔum^{R1} / ‘in the water’ / naŋ^{R1} ɲaʔ^{R1} / ‘at the house’, / naŋ^{R1} ɲal^{R1} / ‘at the field’, or clauses such as / naŋ^{R1} maʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔɛp^{R1} / ‘where my mother eat rice.’

1. / ʔɛn^{R1} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} kɔntɔj^{R1} /
 he live at Kontoj
 ‘He lives in Kontoj.’

2. / kaʔ^{R2} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ʔum^{R1} /

fish live at water

'Fish live in the water.'

3. / ʔən^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} naʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /

he come at house I

'He comes to my house'

4. / ʔən^{R1} həʀ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} maʀ^{R1}

he go at field

'He goes to the field.'

5. / ʔuʔ^{R2} həʀ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} maʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} /

I go at mother I eat rice

'I go where my mother eats rice.'

6.1.4 Speech act types (Model types)

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

6.1.4.1 Declarative speech act

A declarative act is a statement whose assurance may vary from certainly to uncertainly. If a statement is certain the maker /tʉŋəʔ^{R1}/ 'certainly' will be used at sentence final. The sources of knowledge may be the first-hand or second – hand. Each sentence or clause has an intonation pattern which is a mid level pitch with a slight fall on the last syllable in the sentence or clause.

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} kət^{R1} ʔən^{R1} naŋ^{R2} kuj^{R1} məʀ^{R1} həŋ^{R1} /

I think he will have money much

'I think that he will have a lot of money.'

2. / ʔuʔ^{R2} kət^{R1} dɛŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} ʔeŋ^{R1} tuŋəʔ^{R1} /
 I think Daeng will come certainly
 ‘I think that Daeng will certainly come.’

3. / səŋɛn^{R1} ʔən^{R1} naŋ^{R2} hɛr^{R1} tuŋəʔ^{R1} /
 today he will go certainly
 ‘Today he will certainly go.’

4. / ʔən^{R1} nok^{R1} sən^{R1} naŋ^{R2} rɔŋ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} /
 he look like will rich Fp
 ‘He seems to be rich.’

5. / miʔ^{R1} nok^{R1} sən^{R1} pəj^{R2} calit^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} /
 you look like people good Fp
 ‘You seem to be a good man.’

6.1.4.2 Interrogative speech act

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

Yes/No questions are asked about the truth of sentences. They are manifested by question final particles / kaʔ^{R1} / and often end with the falling intonation. The question marker comes at the end of the main clause.

1. / maʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} naŋ^{R2} k^hrɔm^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} juʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2}
 mother I will glad Qfp if I
 ʔeŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} naʔ^{R1} /
 come at house
 ‘Will my mother be glad if I return home?’

2. / miʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} hɛr^{R1} naŋ^{R1} juŋ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} tuŋeʔ^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /
 you will go at village we certainly Qfp
 ‘Is it true that you will go to our village?’

3. / miʔ^{R1} puŋ^{R1} plaŋ^{R1} puŋ^{R1} t^haj^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /
 you speak Plang speak Thai Qfp.
 ‘Are you a native speaker of Plang and Thai?’

Content questions ask for information that is from a phrase, clause or sentence. They are manifested by question words such as / ʔanɔʔ^{R1} / ‘who’ / kanɔʔ^{R1} / ‘what’ / nɛmɔʔ^{R1} / ‘when’ / naŋɔʔ^{R1} / ‘where’ etc. The question marker come at the end of the main clause whether that is before or after a subordinate clause, and often end with falling intonation

1. / pɛj^{R2} kiʔ^{R1} pɔk^{R1} ʔak^hlak^{R1} muk^{R1} naŋɔʔ^{R1} /
 man who ride buffalo live where
 ‘Where is the man staying who rides a buffalo?’

2. / ʔən^{R1} ɲuh^{R1} kanɔʔ^{R1} nəm^{R1} ʔən^{R1} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} kuŋt^hep^{R1} /
 he do what when he live at Bangkok
 ‘What did he do when he stayed in Bangkok?’

3. / miʔ^{R1} ɲuh^{R1} nhom^{R1} ɲuh^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔanoʔ^{R1} /
 you do work do with who
 ‘With whom do you work?’

4. / ʔən^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} naʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔeŋ^{R1} nəmnoʔ^{R1} /
 he come house I come when
 ‘When did he come to my house?’

6.1.4.3 Imperative speech act

An imperative act is a statement of desired action, whose force may vary from a mild wish to a strong command. It is manifested by rising intonation or a final particle (sec. 4.2.1.13) such / tənəʔ /, / soʔ /, / nəʔ /, / paʔ /.

1. / muk^{R1} təʔ^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} muk^{R1} sum^{R1} pəriʔ^{R1} /
 sit here Fp sit eat together
 ‘Sit here please , sit to eat together.’

2. / sum^{R1} ʔep^{R1} soʔ^{R1} /
 eat rice Fp
 ‘Do eat rice!’

3. / $\overline{\text{ku}}^{\text{R1}} \text{?u}^{\text{R2}} \text{nə}^{\text{R1}} /$

help I Fp

'Would you like to help me?'

4. / $\overline{\text{pa}}^{\text{R1}} \text{hər}^{\text{R1}} /$

not go

'Don't go'

5. / $\overline{\text{sum}}^{\text{R1}} \text{?um}^{\text{R1}} \text{tənə}^{\text{R1}} /$

eat water Fp

'Please, drink some water.'

6.1.4.4 Social speech act

A social act establishes, maintains or terminates a communication relationship between two speakers. It includes greetings, responses, and farewells, etc.

When the speakers meet each other, they will greet each other:

Greeting :

1. A : / $\text{mí}^{\text{R1}} \text{nā}^{\text{R2}} \text{hər}^{\text{R1}} \text{nə}^{\text{R1}} \text{?} /$

you will go where

'Where will you go?.'

Responses :

B : / $\text{hər}^{\text{R1}} \text{nə}^{\text{R1}} \text{mər}^{\text{R1}} /$

go at farm

'Go to the farm.'

2. A: / miʔ^{R1} muk^{R1} jɔk^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /

you stay good Qfp

‘How are you?’

B: / muk^{R1} jɔk^{R1} /

stay good

‘Fine.’

Farewell :

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} lɛh^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲariʔ^{R1} /

I return at house Poss

‘I’ll return home.’

2. / muk^{R1} jɔk^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} /

stay good Fp

‘Good luck.’

When the speakers meet someone who is intimate, they will call him with / həj^{R1} /

/ həj^{R1} hɛr^{R1} - naŋnɔʔ^{R1} /

Ip go where

‘Hey! Where are you going?’

When they are eating and someone walks past their house, they will invite that person to eat with them :

1. / miʔ^{R1} sum^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /

you eat Qfp

‘Do you eat some rice?’

2. / sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} laʔ^{R1} kaʔ^{R1} /
 eat rice drink tea Qfp
 ‘Do you eat rice and drink tea?’

It seems like an Simple Yes/No question, however the speaker doesn't really want the listener to eat with him. It is only a social act.

6.1.4.5 Self-expression speech act

A Self – expression act is an expression of the speaker's feeling, addressed to nobody in particular. It takes rising pitch on the self – expression words.

- | | |
|--------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. / ʔoj / | when hurt, frightened |
| 2. / ʔoʔ / | when excited |
| 3. / ʔeʔ / | when suspicious |
| 4. / ʔuj / | when frightened |
| 5. / ʔuʔ / | when excited, glad |
| 6. / ʔohoʔ / | when surprised |
| 7. / ʔaw / | when surprised and question |
| 8. / tənəʔ / | when invited, please |
| 9. / ʔaloʔ / | when surprised, puzzled |

Example in the sentence

1. / ʔohoʔ^{R1} miʔ^{R1} ŋam^{R1} palaparʔ^{R1} /
 Exp you beautiful the most
 ‘ Oh! you are the most beautiful’
2. / leh^{R1} sum^{R1} maj^{R1} miʔ^{R1} tənəʔ^{R1} /
 come eat with we Fp
 ‘ Would you like to eat with us?’

3. / ʔaw^{R1} miʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} hɛr^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} laʔ^{R1} /
 Exp you not go with I Fp
 ‘ Why don’t you go with me?’

6.1.5 Psychological mood types

Psychological moods give the attitude or evaluation of the speaker to what is being talked about. They include pleasure, displeasure, surprise, hope, and disappointment.

A) Pleasure

This type contains degrees of pleasure, from pleasing to displeasing. They are shown by the verb /mak^{R1}/ ‘like’ / ʔonmak^{R1} / ‘don’t like’

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} mak^{R1} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} mɛsaj^{R1} /
 I like stay at Mea Sai
 ‘ I like to stay at Mae Sai.’

2. / juʔ^{R1} kɔnriʔ^{R1} hɛr^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔuʔ^{R2} /
 if child Poss go with I I
 mak^{R1} hɛn^{R1} hɛn^{R1} /
 like much much
 ‘ If my child goes with me, I will feel happy very much.’

3. / ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔon^{R1} mak^{R1} kətɪt^{R1} /
 I not like same
 ‘ I don’t like, this.’

B) Surprise

This type shows the speaker's feeling of surprise which normally has / ʔon^{R1} kət^{R1} / 'don't think' as indicator.

4. / ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔon^{R1} kət^{R1} miʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} ʔeŋ^{R1} /

I not think you will come
' I don't think that you will come.'

5. / miʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} kət^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} məh^{R1} ʔacan^{R1} /

you not think I be teacher
' You don't think that I will be a teacher.'

6.1.6 Reality types

The reality status of a sentence gives the relationship between the subject and the assumed real word. These types may be factual, contractual, or uncertain.

Factual : Factual shows the fact or normal state.

1. / naŋiʔ^{R1} ləh^{R1} k^hawanʔok^{R1} /

sun rise east
' The sun rises in the east.'

2. / ʔaʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} kət^{R1} /

it rain we will cold
'It's rains , so we are cold.'

Contrafactual : Contrafactual speaks of events which are contrary to the fact. It is noticed this type is usually expressed as a conditional negative sentence.

3. / juʔ^{R1} cəra^{R1} ʔon^{R1} nron^{R1} ʔən^{R1} nan^{R1} jəm^{R1} /

if crocodile not bit he not die
' If the crocodile had not bitten him, then he would not die.'

4. / juʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} məh^{R1} kɔnsim^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} naŋ^{R2}
 if I be bird I will
 p^hrʊn^{R1} həl^{R1} səŋa^{R1} /
 fly go far
 ‘ If I were a bird, I would fly far.’

Uncertain : *Uncertain status speaks of events which may or may not take place. It usually manifested by a conditional sentence.*

5. / juʔ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} nan^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} /
 if it rain he not come
 ‘ If it rains he may not come.’

6. / juʔ^{R1} rɔn^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} naŋ^{R2} ʔon^{R1} nuh^{R1} nhɔm^{R1} /
 if hot I will not do work
 ‘ If the weather is hot , I will not work.’

6.1.7 Semantic prosodies

There are at least six types of information that flow through a sentence without being the sentence structures discussed above : time movement, information flow, reference, assertion , topicalization , and cohesion structure.

6.1.7.1 Time movement

The actions in a sentence may stand in various temporal relationships with each other ranging from simultaneous to overlapping or to separated succession. And these actions may be either linear or punctiliar.

T1	T2	T3
pɔc ^{R1} plik ^{R1} ʔaʔ ^{R2} ʔeŋ ^{R1}	lət ^{R1} hɔk ^{R1} ʔaʔ ^{R1}	hɔk ^{R1} ʔaʔ ^{R1} hɔc ^{R1} ʔeʔ ^{R1}
pluck lace tea come	then dry it	dry it finish already

T4	T5	T6
$\int \text{ət}^{\text{R1}} \text{tə}\int^{\text{R1}} \int \text{e}\eta^{\text{R1}} \text{nse}\text{m}^{\text{R1}}$ and bring come plant	$\text{nse}\text{m}^{\text{R1}} \int \text{a}\int^{\text{R1}} \int \text{ɔ}\int^{\text{R1}} \text{nə}\text{m}^{\text{R1}}$ plant it three yeas	$\text{lət}^{\text{R1}} \text{pʊn}^{\text{R1}} \text{pət}^{\text{R1}} \int \text{a}\int^{\text{R1}}$ then get keep tea

‘ Pluck the lace of the tea and take it to dry; when it is dried, it can be planted and three years latter it can picked.’

In the above example, there are relationships among time1, Time2, Time3, Time4, Time5 and Time6. They occur consecutively and the actions are linear.

6.1.7.2 Information flow

A sentence is a mixture of new information and old information. The rules regarding the presence or deletion of old information and the introduction of new information are :

1. A subject which is old information is usually deleted because it is already known.
2. Sometime a subject which is old information is replaced by a pronoun.
3. *Elements of old information can't be deleted if their meaning is not clear.*
4. The introduction of new information is not specific. A subject which is new information can't be manifested as a pronoun and can't be deleted.

(new)	(new) (old)	(new)
$\int \text{pə}\int^{\text{R1}} \text{ca}\eta^{\text{R1}} \int \text{nə}\int^{\text{R1}} \int \text{u}\text{m}^{\text{R1}}$ man must drink water	$\text{de}\eta^{\text{R1}} \text{mə}\text{h}^{\text{R1}} \text{pə}\int^{\text{R1}}$ Deang be man	$\int \text{ɔn}^{\text{R1}} \int \text{nə}\int^{\text{R1}} \int \text{u}\text{m}^{\text{R1}}$ not drink water (delete subject)

(old)	(new)
$\int \text{ə}\text{n}^{\text{R1}}$ he	$\text{na}\eta^{\text{R2}} \int \text{ə}\text{m}^{\text{R1}} /$ will die

‘A man must drink some water. Daeng is a man who did not drink some water, so he will die.’

6.1.7.3. Reference structure

The participants in a sentence may be referred to in various ways. Usually pronouns are used to refer to nouns which repeated.

1. / ma ʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} hɔc^{R1} ʔət^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} /
 mother I eat rice finish and she then
 hər^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲar^{R1}
 go at field

‘My mother eats rice, and then she goes to the field.’

‘kiʔ^{R1} / ‘she’ in the second clause is used to refer to / maʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} / ‘my mother.’

If using a pronoun would make the sentence ambiguous , it is necessary to repeat the noun instead of using the pronoun

2. / dɛŋ^{R1} pəʔ^{R1} dam^{R1} dam^{R1} jam^{R1} /
 Daeng hit Dam Dam cry
 - ‘Daeng hit Dam and Dam cried.’ - - -

/kiʔ^{R1} / ‘he’ cannot be used instead of / dam / in the second clause because if the speaker uses /kiʔ^{R1} / the hearer won’t know if /kiʔ^{R1} / refers to /dɛŋ^{R1} / or /dam^{R1} /.

6.1.7.4 Assertion structure

At least one clause in a sentence must bear the speech act asserted, questioned, or commanded. Other clauses may remain in the background. The rule governing which clause may be asserted is that, there is no word marker among the clauses in a sentence. A clause can be asserted in a sentence without any marker. A pause is an important feature to show the assertion clause in a sentence.

1. / maʔ^{R1} həl^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲal^{R1} || swt^{R1} səceŋ^{R2} paŋ^{R1} /
 mother go at farm (pause) keep ginger sell
 ‘It was in order to sell ginger that the mother went to the farm.’
2. /ʔuʔ^{R2} ɲəʔ^{R1} mpaŋ^{R1} || ɲəʔ^{R1} mpaŋ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} ɲoŋnəsəʔ^{R1} /
 I drink medicine(pause) drink medicine not sick
 ‘My purpose to drink the medicine is not to get sick.’

6.1.7.5 Topicalization

A sentence frequently highlights one participant as the topic of the sentence. This topicalization is manifested by putting the noun at the beginning of the sentence.

1. / kəŋ^{R1} ɲjəm^{R1} kənʔer^{R1} kah^{R2} maʔ^{R1} kuʔ^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} /
 father kill chicken give mother cook rice
 ʔəj^{R1} kənriʔ^{R1} /
 feed child Poss
 ‘The father killed the chicken for the mother to cook to feed their children.’

/ kəŋ^{R1} / is the main topic

2. / dɛŋ^{R1} hɛr^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɲar^{R1} /
 Daeng go at field
 ‘Daeng goes to the field.’
 / dɛŋ^{R1} / is the main topic.

3. / ʔuʔ^{R2} pəʔ^{R1} kənsuʔ^{R1} tuʔ^{R1} mak^{R1} rah^{R1} təʔ^{R1} /
 I hit dog which like steal food
 ‘I hit the dog which likes to steal food.’
 / ʔuʔ^{R2} / is the main topic.

6.1.8 Presupposition

Certain things are normally expected in a sentence as a result of universal experience, local culture, or the discourse context. Presuppositions are usually not marked or stated in a sentence. They are things that the speaker expects the hearer to already know.

1. / ʔən^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} paj^{R1} hən^{R1} ʔən^{R1} ʔon^{R1} jɔk^{R1} /

he drink alcohol much he not good

‘He drank a lot of alcohol, he was not well.’

Presupposition = People who drink a lot of alcohol was not well.

2. / ʔuʔ^{R2} hər^{R1} ʔew^{R1} mɔʔ^{R1} /

I go find doctor

‘I went to see the doctor.’

Presupposition = The people who go to see the doctor was sick.

6.2 The Surface structure

The surface structure (meaningful forms) of a sentence includes nuclear forms types, with or without peripheral slots with intonation, stress and completeness characteristics.

6.2.1 Nuclear forms types

The surface form of a sentence may be simple, juxtaposed or conjunction – linked.

6.2.1.1 Simple form

A simple form consists of just a single simple clause and manifests a simple statement sentence or temporal sequence of other types.

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} /

I eat rice

‘I eat rice.’

2. / ʔən^{R1} pəʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /

he hit I

‘He hits me.’

3. / maʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} /

mother come

‘(My) mother comes.’

6.2.1.2 Juxtaposed form

A juxtaposed form consists of two or more clauses simply put side by side. The second clause modifies the first clause. It may manifest a covarying sentence, a purposeful sentence or a compounding.

1. / ʔən^{R1} ʔon^{R1} jək^{R1} | ʔən^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} paj^{R1} hən^{R1} /

he not good | he drink alcohol much
Nu Mod

‘ He was not well , he drank a lot of alcohol.

2. / ʔuʔ^{R2} ʔeŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} naʔ^{R1} | ʔeŋ^{R1} ʔit^{R1} naŋ^{R1} naʔ^{R1} /

I come at house | come sleep at house
Nu Mod

‘ I returned home, I returned to sleep at home.

3. / ʔən^{R1} njəm^{R1} kənʔer^{R1} | njəm^{R1} nuh^{R1} təʔ^{R1} /

he kill chicken | kill do food
Nu Mod

‘He killed the chicken, he killed to make food.’

6.2.1.3 Conjunction – linked form

A conjunction – linked form consist of two or more clause linked by conjunctions. These are conjunctions such as / ʔət^{R1} lət^{R1} / ‘and then’ / cu^{R1} / ‘or’ / juʔ^{R1} / ‘ if ’. This may manifest the contrastive, alternative, additive compounding, a temporal sequence sentence, or a conditional sentence.

1. / ʔən^{R1} nuh^{R1} nhom^{R1} ʔət^{R1} lət^{R1} sum^{R1} ʔep^{R1} /
 he do work and then eat rice
 ‘He had worked and then he ate.’

2. / miʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} hɛr^{R1} cu^{R1} naŋ^{R2} ʔeŋ^{R1} /
 you will go or will come
 ‘You will go or will come.’

3. / ʔən^{R1} naŋ^{R2} ʔit^{R1} juʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} nuh^{R1} nhom^{R1} /
 he will sleep if I do work
 ‘ He will sleep if I work.’

6.2.2 Peripheral forms

Sentence peripheral slots include adverbials, initial particles, final particles, vocatives, etc.

6.2.2.1 Adverbials

Adverbials are words, or phrases, or clauses which modify verbs. They manifest location setting, time and manner settings. Usually these adverbs occur after the sentence nucleus. However, they can precede the nucleus in order to emphasize these adverbs.

1. pansaʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} hɛr^{R1} naŋ^{R1} maŋ^{R1} tɛʔ^{R1} ʔən^{R1}
 tomorrow I go at farm but he
 hɛr^{R1} ʔəj^{R1} ʔak^hlak^{R1}/
 go feed buffalo
 ‘Tomorrow, I will go to the farm but he will go to feed
 the buffaloes.’

2. / kɔn^{R1} mak^{R1} hɛr^{R1} lojʔum^{R1} tɛʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2}
 child like go swim but I
 mak^{R1} hɛr^{R1} mɛt^{R1} kaʔ^{R2} naŋ^{R1} ʔumkətɛŋ^{R2} /
 like go fishing fish at river
 ‘The children like to go to swim but I like to go to fishing at
 the river.’

3. / konsim^{R1} p^hrun^{R1} loŋ^{R1} məh^{R1} konsim^{R1}
 bird fly high be bird
 tuʔ^{R1} kətɛŋ^{R2}/
 body big
 ‘The bird flies high because it is big.’

6.2.2.2 Initial particles

Initial particles occur very frequently in narrative texts and in conversations. These particles have no meaning if used by themselves. They usually occur at the beginning of a sentence. These initial particles are / ʔəʔ^{R1} / ‘a marker of a certain act’, / paʔ^{R1} / ‘a marker of a negative’ / ʔaʔ^{R1} / ‘ markers of a sequence act’ and / joʔ / shows a speaker’s mood.

1. / ʔəʔ^{R1} ʔən^{R1} hər^{R1} sum^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} səjən^{R1} /

Ip he go eat with I today

‘Surely, he will go to eat with me today.’

2. / paʔ^{R1} jam^{R1} /

not cry

‘Don’t cry.’

3. / ʔaʔ^{R1} piʔ^{R1} hər^{R1} naŋnoʔ^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} t^hem^{R1} /

Ip you go where drink again

‘Where are you going to drink again?’

4. / joʔ^{R1} hər^{R1} soʔ^{R1} /

Ip go Fp

‘(Yes, I’ll) go.’

6.2.2.3 Final particles

A final particle functions in the periphery of a sentence. There are a lot of final particles in Plang. These final particles have no concrete meanings by themselves. These final particles are /soʔ^{R1}/ a marker of a command, /tənəʔ^{R1}/ a marker of an invitation and please /jən^{R1}/ a marker of a certainly, /nəʔ^{R1}/ to marker of an invitation.

1. / wəj^{R1} soʔ^{R1} /

quick Fp

‘Be quick!’

2. / hər^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R1} tənəʔ^{R1} /

go with I Fp

‘Go with me please.’

3. / ɲum^{R1} jɛn^{R1} /

delicious Fp

‘Surely, it’s delicious.’

6.2.2.4 Vocative

Semantically, vocatives function on a paragraph rank but are often manifested on a sentence rank.

1. / naŋnɔʔ^{R1} kɛŋ^{R1} ʔak^hlak^{R1} /

where father buffalo

‘Where is the buffalo, father?’

2. / məj^{R1} ʔɛn^{R1} somsum^{R1} caŋ^{R1} cuʔ^{R1} tɛʔ^{R1} jɛn^{R1} /

Miej she hungry must cook food Fp

‘Miej, she is hungry, must cook some food.’

3. / hɛr^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ɭaʔ^{R1} nɛʔ^{R1} jaʔ^{R1} paŋ^{R1} ʔɛp^{R1} sum^{R1} /

go at market Fp grandmother buy rice eat

‘Go to the market, grandmother, to buy some rice to eat.’

6.2.3 Completeness

A sentence may be grammatically intact or it may have ellipsis or it may be an incomplete form. Ellipsis involves the deletion of certain elements. Elements tend to be deleted under the circumstance that they are obviously understood or already known from general knowledge.

1. / ʔuʔ^{R2} ɲuh^{R1} nhom^{R1} [.....] ʔɛn^{R1} ʔit^{R1} /

I do work [.....] he sleep

‘I worked but he sleeps.’

(deleted : conjunction / tɛʔ^{R1} / ‘but’)

2. / kəp^{R1} sum^{R1} ?əp^{R1} ?ət^{R1} lət^{R1}... hət^{R1} naŋ^{R1}

father eat rice and then go at

maŋ^{R1} nseŋ^{R1} kuŋ^{R1} /

farm plant rice

‘The father had eaten rice, then he went to the field to grow rice plants.

(deleted : subject of the second clause.)

Incomplete sentence are not normal ellipses but are sentence broken off in mid – utterance by an interruption or by a pause to think

3. / juŋ^{R1} ?ən^{R1} ?on^{R1} hət^{R1}.....

If he not come

‘If he doesn’t come

The speaker leaves the hearer for his own conclusion that what will happen if he doesn’t come.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

7.1 Research conclusion

This thesis is a description of the Plang language which is spoken in Huay Namkhun village, Mae Fa Luang district, Chiang Rai province, Thailand. It includes the phonological and syntactical structure of the Kontoj dialect. The data was collected from the Plang people who have been living in this village.

7.1.1 Phonology

There are 25 consonant phonemes (table 12), and 9 vowel phonemes (table 13) and two registers in Kontoj dialect as shown in the table below.

Point of articulation		Labial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Mode of articulation						
Stop	unaspirated	p	t	c	k	ʔ
	aspirated	p ^h	t ^h	c ^h	k ^h	
Nasal	voiced	m	n	ɲ	ŋ	
	voiceless	m̥	n̥	ɲ̥		
Fricative	voiceless		s			h
Approximant	voiced		r			
Lateral	voiced		l			
	Voiceless		l̥			
Semi – Vowel	voiced	w		j		
	Voiceless	w̥		j̥		

Table 12 : Plang consonant phoneme

Tongue position \ Tongue height	Front	Central	Back
High	i	ɯ	u
Mid	e	ə	o
Low	ɛ	a	ɔ

Table 13 : Plang vowel phonemes

There are two contrastive registers, the first register (R^1) represents a clear voice quality and the second register (R^2) represents a breathy voice.

7.1.2 Syntax

The Plang syntax is described in terms of morphology, word, phrase, clause and sentence.

There are two prefixes :

/ lə- / used with pronouns to make single pronoun plural.

/ ni- / used with verbs to make verb negative.

There are two suffixes :

/ -riʔ / used with nouns with one syllable to make possessive and can be used after verbs to make verb reflexive.

/ ...-niʔ...-niʔ / used with compound nouns with two syllables, each syllable having its own meaning, to make plural nouns possessive.

In Plang there are 13 word classes : noun, pronoun, demonstrative, quantifier, classifier, preposition, conjunction, auxiliaries, verb, adverb, question word, intensifier, and final particle, word types : compounding, reduplication and onomatopoeia. At phrase level, the researcher presented the nominal phrase, verb phrase , prepositional phrase and adverb phrase. At clause level, the researcher presented 13 statement clauses; transitive, intransitive, bitransitive, descriptive, equational, motion, quotative, ambient, existence, possessive, cognitive, evaluation, and comparative; these subtypes

of clause differ from each other in the verb classes which they take, Imperative clause and Interrogative clause. In sentence level the researcher described the semantic structure sentence and surface structure sentences. The semantic structures are composed of nuclear sentence types, compounding, setting, speech act types (Model types), psychological mood types, reality types, semantic prosodies, and presupposition. In surface structures the researcher described the nuclear forms, peripheral forms and completeness.

7.2 Discussion

The Plang phonology presented in this study is similar to that of Pijitra's 1986 study in the description of Plang's segmental feature because both consist of 9 vowel phonemes and 25 consonant phonemes. However for the suprasegmental feature this study describes Plang is having 2 registers : high clear or normal voice quality (R1) and low breathy or breathy voice quality (R2) which as Pijitra's 1986 study describes Plang is having 3 registers : High clear and Mid clear or normal voice quality and Low breathy or breathy voice quality.

For the normal voice quality (R1), the researcher has found 3 pitches : High pitch which occurs in monosyllabic words and the final syllable of the disyllabic and trisyllabic words, Mid pitch occurs in the first open syllable of disyllabic word, in the first syllable of trisyllabic words and syllabic nasal. Low pitch occurs in the first closed syllable of disyllabic words and the second syllable of trisyllabic words. The researcher does not described Plang as a tone language as Paulsen & Hopple (1993) because the researcher has found the minimal pair of different voice quality from my main informants as shown in example 3.3.3. However, the researcher rechecked the register again with the younger Plang who live in Huay Namkhun village. and found that the words containing /ɛ,a,ɔ,ə/ which are pronounced with breathy voice quality with low-rising pitch by the older generation are pronounced as a clear voice with low pitch by speaker of younger generation.

Example :	Older generation	Younger generation
	['tém]	'to write , draw' → ['tém]
	['tĕm]	'under, down' → ['tĕm]
	['káʔ]	'fish' → ['káʔ]
	['kǎʔ]	'car' → ['kǎʔ]
	['kót ˀ]	'to cold' → ['kót ˀ]
	['kǒt ˀ]	'old' → ['kòt ˀ]
	['péj]	'to run' → ['péj]
	['pĕj]	'man' → ['pĕj]

When the breathy voice occurs with another vowel, it will change the vowel from High level to Mid level / i / → / e / such as : [,kĕ'tĭʔ] 'one' → [,ké'téʔ] 'one', and Mid level to Low level / o / → / ɔ / such as : ['t^hǒj] 'spit' → ['t^hój] 'spit', or / u / → / o / such as : ['ʔǔʔ] 'I' → ['ʔóʔ] 'I', ['pŭk ˀ] 'calf' → ['pók ˀ] 'calf'. In the normal voice quality the young speakers pronounce with High pitch as follows:

[kĕ'tĭʔ]	'one'	→	[ké'téʔ]	'one'
['t ^h ǒj]	'spit'	→	['t ^h ój]	'spit'
['ʔǔʔ]	'I'	→	['ʔóʔ]	'I'
['pŭk ˀ]	'calf'	→	['pók ˀ]	'calf'

From the above data, the researcher concludes that Plang is a register language with two registers. The older generation informants, still use the Kontoj dialect of Plang in life without much interference from Thai language structure. The Phonological system in this study therefore shows that Plang is still a register language. Plang might become a tonal language since its breathy voice register is now weakening among the younger Plang generation .

For Plang grammar, at word level there are Thai loan word such as the numerals [síp] 'ten' [sípʔét] 'eleven' [sāw] 'twenty' , and [riān] 'study' [rŭp] 'picture' [cōrāka] 'crocodile' [cón] 'spoon' [wát] 'temple' [ŋām] 'beautiful'. In the part of The older generation usually uses suffix markers to show possessive more often than using the possessive verb / k^hoʔ^{R1} / of in possessive clauses. But the younger generation uses only the possessive verb / k^hoʔ^{R1} / such as :

Older generation → / ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} maj^{R1} marɪʔ^{R1} /

I eat rice with my mother

‘I eat some rice with my mother.’

or → / ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} maj^{R1} maʔ^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} ʔuʔ^{R2} /

I eat rice with mother of I

‘I eat rice with my mother’

Younger generation → / ʔoʔ^{R1} sum^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} maj^{R1} maʔ^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} ʔoʔ^{R1} /

I eat rice with mother of I

‘I eat rice with my mother’

7.3 Suggestion for further studies

This study is concentrated on the grammar of Kontoj dialect of Plang language in Huay Namkhun village, Chiang Rai province. There are, however, a few useful suggestions for further studies as follows:

- 1) A comparative syntax of Kontoj Plang and other dialects
- 2) A comparative phonology of Kontoj Plang with other dialect or between the old and young generation.
- 3) A comparison between Plang and other languages.

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APPENDIX A

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WORD LIST

The entries in these wordlists are listed according to the following orders:

1. The entries are listed according to their initial consonants which are grouped into Stop, Nasal, Fricative, Flap, Lateral and Semi – Vowel, Unaspirated consonants come before aspirated consonants, and voiced consonants come before voiceless consonants. So the full order is p, p^h, t, t^h, c, c^h, k, k^h, ʔ, m, m̥, n, n̥, ɲ, ɲ̥, ŋ, s, h, r, l, l̥, w, w̥, j, j̥. The entries which are consonant clusters are listed after the single initial consonants.
2. The vowel order is i, e, ε, a, o, o, u, ʊ, ə and normal voice register (^{R1}) come before breathy voice register (^{R2}) in that order.

p

pijaʔ ^{R1}	shoulder bag	paʃ ^{R1}	alcohol
pit ^{R1}	pen, pencil	paŋ ^{R2}	white
pɪʔ ^{R1}	to win	pɔleŋ ^{R1}	the Chinese
piʔcaw ^{R1}	Buddha image		owner of shop
pir ^{R1}	to forget	pɔc ^{R1}	to harvest
pin ^{R1}	to hold	pɔn ^{R1}	meat
pih ^{R1}	to sweep	pɔŋ ^{R1}	seeds
pik ^{R2}	curtain	pɔŋ ^{R1}	shoot
piʔ ^{R2}	flute	pɔr ^{R1}	ankle bracelet
pet ^{R1}	to close	pɔj ^{R1}	to release
pɛh ^{R1}	to slice	poʔ	to carry on
paloʔ ^{R1}	bamboo		shoulder
pasaʔ ^{R1}	pile up	ponneʔ ^{R1}	may
pasaʔ ^{R1}	sky	ponŋponŋ ^{R1}	small gong
palaparʔ ^{R1}	great many	puʔ ^{R1}	friend
palok ^{R1}	mortar	puʔuʔ ^{R1}	hemp
pap ^{R1}	book, note book	puk ^{R1}	calf
paptɛm ^{R1}	note book	puʔ ^{R1}	to shoulder
papʔan ^{R1}	book	pun ^{R1}	to get
patteʔ ^{R1}	to turn around	puŋ ^{R1}	bruise
par ^{R1}	bald	puŋpuŋ ^{R1}	gong
paʔ ^{R1}	cover, don't	puk ^{R2}	to dig
pam ^{R1}	to chew	pwt ^{R1}	hoe
panit ^{R1}	little	pmc ^{R1}	to fall
pansaʔ ^{R1}	tomorrow	puŋ ^{R1}	to shoot
pansaruk ^{huʔ} ^{R1}	future	pɛteŋ ^{R1}	aunt
panloʔ ^{R1}	for a while	pɛtaʔ ^{R1}	to turn up
paŋ ^{R1}	to sell	pɛtahleŋ ^{R1}	to turn
paŋ ^{R1}	chair	pɛtɔŋ ^{R1}	pot
paŋtɛm ^{R2}	a small chair	pɛtuh ^{R1}	to stick, hard
paŋloŋ ^{R1}	reclining chair	pɛt ^{huʔ} ^{R1}	to spit
pah ^{R1}	to carve	pɛcɛŋ ^{R2}	sun hat
		pɛsak ^{R1}	to spear
		pɛsɔk ^{R1}	charcoal

pəreʔ ^{R1}	together	p ^h əŋcoʔ ^{R1}	lamp
pəloŋ ^{R2}	dust	p ^h ah ^{R1}	to smoke
pəjuntuj ^{R1}	rainbow	p ^h ok ^{R1}	to rice
pəjuʔ ^{R2}	ashes, cinders	p ^h on ^{R1}	five
pəjaʔ ^{R1}	king	p ^h riʔ ^{R2}	forest
pəc ^{R1}	to pick, pluck	p ^h raʔ ^{R1}	eat (polite)
pəʔ ^{R1}	to hit	p ^h laŋ ^{R1}	roof
pən ^{R1}	desk	p ^h luʔ ^{R1}	blouse, skirt
pəh ^{R1}	to carry on the shoulder	p ^h lulaknej ^{R1}	underwear
pəj ^{R1}	to run		t
pəjpaŋk ^h uʔ ^{R1}	merchant	tiʔ ^{R1}	hand
pəj ^{R2}	to blow	tik ^{R1}	to throw
pəj ^{R2}	man	tiŋ ^{R1}	to inject
prik ^h amɔn ^{R1}	fruits	tih ^{R1}	to take
prin ^{R1}	old	tihʔək ^h ləʔ ^{R1}	to have
prin ^{R1}	to build	tihʔeŋ ^{R1}	to have (come here)
prektit ^{R1}	pepper	teʔ ^{R1}	this
pruwn ^{R1}	fly	tət ^{R1}	tidy
plic ^{R1}	wing	teʔ ^{R1}	this
plik ^{R1}	crop, produce	təm ^{R1}	to draw
plirhək ^{R2}	rambutan	təmrup ^{R1}	to draw the picture
pəh ^{R1}	spear, prick		bed
plaŋ ^{R1}	to open one's eyes	tənʔit ^{R1}	drama
plɔŋ ^{R1}	alang grass, cogon	təw ^{R1}	sweet
		təm ^{R2}	down, under
		tateʔ ^{R1}	great – grandfather
p ^h apuk ^{R1}	cradle make from bamboo	takuj ^{R1}	have not
p ^h at ^{R1}	to turn of head	takk ^h riŋ ^{R1}	bang, tight
p ^h ak ^{R1}	to clean	tason ^{R1}	compare
p ^h akc ^h ikalɔm ^{R1}	parsley	tak ^{R1}	to pop, to roast
p ^h akcɔn ^{R1}	morning – glory	takkən ^{R1}	greeting
p ^h aʔ ^{R1}	cover	tac ^{R1}	to weave
p ^h ankətʔ ^{R1}	land		

taʔ ^{R1}	to push	tuhmar ^{R1}	groggy
tamʔεʔ ^{R1}	south, there	tuhswʔ ^{R1}	to have a
tamʔoʔ ^{R1}	north, there		headache
tan ^{R1}	to be virtue	tum ^{R1}	to boil
taŋ ^{R1}	20 liters	tun ^{R1}	to feed
taŋpəʔεʔ ^{R1}	different	tuʔ ^{R2}	book
taŋtaʔ ^{R1}	a sword, a saber	tunəʔ ^{R1}	certainly
taŋtum ^{R1}	to kick	twt ^{R1}	to gore
taŋtak ^{R1}	a butterfly	tuk ^{R1}	to tow
taŋjəm ^{R1}	to kill	təpəj ^{R1}	alone
tah ^{R1}	to relax, to take	təʔ ^{R1}	vegetable, to be
taj ^{R1}	flower		eaten with rice
toʔ ^{R1}	keep	təc ^h an ^{R1}	the more
tom ^{R1}	to lay	tək ^{R1}	to hide
tomson ^{R1}	to teach	təŋp ^h aʔ ^{R1}	uncle , aunt
tɔn ^{R1}	bar		
tɔnpatp ^h aʔ ^{R1}	kitchen	t ^h	
tɔnʔit ^{R1}	bed room		
tɔnmp ^h en ^{R1}	(at) dawn	t ^h ɛm ^{R1}	to add
tɔŋtiʔ ^{R1}	Adam's apple	t ^h aləj ^{R1}	enameled, bowl
tɔr ^{R1}	shallow	thamʔum ^{R1}	tank
tɔj ^{R1}	betel palm	t ^h ɔjp ^h om ^{R1}	jar
toktiʔ ^{R1}	to jump	t ^h ɔjp ^h omneʔ ^{R1}	to breathe
toktalak ^{R1}	to tell one's	t ^h uj ^{R1}	to rub
	fortune by luck	t ^h uŋ ^{R1}	bag
ton ^{R1}	to burn	t ^h uh ^{R1}	chopstick
toh ^{R1}	that	t ^h uj ^{R1}	to interrupt
tunɔr ^{R1}	smoke	təh ^{R1}	to send
tunəp ^{R1}	certainly	t ^h ɔj ^{R1}	to ask
tup ^{R1}	hut		
tut ^{R1}	to suck		
tuk ^{R1}	spill out		
tuʔ ^{R1}	bottom	cip ^{R1}	to go after
tuʔp ^h uŋ ^{R1}	to take a	cik ^{R1}	to tear
	photograph	ciʔ ^{R1}	to soak
tuh ^{R1}	head	cih ^{R1}	salt

cetaʔ ^{R1}	eyebrow	cuk ^{R1}	to stop
cəp ^{R1}	to cut	cum ^{R1}	glass
cəŋkaʔ ^{R2}	travelling	cun ^{R1}	foot
	expenses	cəʔən ^{R1}	to smile
cəŋ ^{R2}	to saw	cəran ^{R1}	don't forget
cəm ^{R1}	to carry	cəruʔ ^{R1}	diligently
capon ^{R1}	to spend the night, extended period	cəʔ ^{R1}	monk
	good	cən ^{R1}	seedlings
calit ^{R1}	kilogram	cəjtiʔ ^{R1}	to laugh
caloʔ ^{R1}	to step on	cəʔ ^{R2}	thumb
cap ^{R1}	to offer		lineage
can ^{R1}	to can		
caŋ ^{R1}	woodworker		c^h
caŋkələmk ^h uʔ ^{R1}	midwife	ch ^h iʔ ^{R1}	month
caŋʔəŋ ^{R1}	to take	ch ^h iʔpunkət ⁱ ʔ ^{R2}	next month
caŋneʔ ^{R1}	employment	ch ^h iʔ ^{R2}	firewood
	usually	ch ^h in ^{R2}	to fly
caŋ ^{R2}	nail	ch ^h ec ^h eʔ ^{R1}	cymbals
caj ^{R1}	customer	ch ^h ec ^h eʔət ^{R1}	small cymbals
caw ^{R1}	usually	ch ^h ɛp ^{R1}	shoes
caŋ ^{R1}	to sing	ch ^h aw ^{R1}	fried, to powder, to postpone
caj ^{R1}	correct		jasmine
cəp ^{R1}	to dig up	ch ^h ən ^{R1}	
cəp ^{R1}	shelf		k
cəʔp ^h alaʔ ^{R1}	spoon	kiʔ ^{R1}	who
cən ^{R1}	rice spoon	kiʔʔət ^{cum} ^{R1}	all of them
cənʔəp ^{R1}	silverware	kih ^{R1}	to cook
consapəc ^{R1}	school	kapacoʔ ^{R1}	climbing perch
cəŋ ^{R1}	crocodile	kapuŋ ^{R1}	to swell
cəra ^h kaʔ ^{R1}	armpit	katit ^{R1}	aforementioned
cokklik ^{R1}	to invite	katam ^{R1}	crab
con ^{R1}	or	katəŋ ^{R1}	dark
cu ^{R1}	cook	kat ^h uʔ ^{R1}	chub mackerel
cuʔ ^{R1}	formerly	kaciʔ ^{R2}	snakehead
cunəmaʔ ^{R1}			

kacin ^{R1}	bright	konsim ^{R1}	bird
kanɔʔ ^{R1}	what, why	konsuʔ ^{R1}	dog
kapum ^{R2}	glossy, tuber	kɔnlaj ^{R1}	squirrel
kasɔʔ ^{R1}	however	kɔnlik ^{R2}	pig
kasəʔ ^{R1}	to ache	kɔnlonɯ ^{R1}	horse
kaharaʔ ^{R1}	salted fish	kɔnwaj ^{R1}	tiger
kareʔ ^{R1}	like this	kɔnɯaʔ ^{R1}	monkey
kawaʔ ^{R1}	door	kɔŋ ^{R1}	to complain
kawapɔŋ ^{R1}	window	kɔr ^{R1}	strong
kawaŋ ^{R1}	hips	kɔj ^{R1}	slowly
kajin ^{R1}	swamp eel	kɔt ^{R2}	old
kaʔ ^{R1}	fish	kɔtɲaʔkɔtɯŋ ^{R2}	village headman
kap ^{R1}	chin	kɔn ^{R2}	strength
kapsɔʔ ^{R1}	key	kokan ^{R1}	hot shrimp – paste sauce
kakk ^{huʔ} ^{R1}	branch	koklaʔ ^{R1}	teapot
kaŋliʔ ^{R1}	porcupine	kutiʔ ^{R1}	bathroom
kah ^{R1}	to take off	kuc ^{R1}	sunlight
kaw ^{R1}	to pack	kuk ^{R1}	to call
kawliʔ ^{R1}	Thai vermicelli	kuklaʔ ^{R1}	teapot
kajcuŋ ^{R1}	to cross one's legs	kuʔ ^{R1}	to wait
kap ^{R2}	entire	kuʔakər ^{R1}	to be having one's period
kapʔət ^{R2}	all	kuŋ ^{R1}	crossbow
kaʔ ^{R2}	car	kuh ^{R1}	to wake up
kaʔkətɛŋ ^{R2}	bus	kuj ^{R1}	have
kah ^{R2}	to give	kujɲomcu ^{R1}	some
kɔrakkɔrɛʔ ^{R1}	to establish oneself	kɯʔ ^{R1}	back
kɔk ^{R1}	dipping bowl	kɯʔlɛŋ ^{R2}	heart
kɔt ^{R1}	cold, brain	kɯp ^{R1}	to turn up side down
kɔn ^{R1}	child	kɯtnemaʔ ^{R1}	become
kɔnkuj ^{R1}	still there	kɯn ^{R1}	to dip up
kɔncak ^{R1}	deer	kəpɯr ^{R1}	thick
kɔnkaŋ ^{R1}	rat	kətɪt ^{R1}	like this
kɔnʔim ^{R1}	alive	kətɪʔ ^{R1}	soil
kɔnʔər ^{R1}	chicken		

kətɪlʊm ^{R1}	mud		
kətɪʔ ^{R2}	one	kɾəŋkəj ^{R1}	up one's hair to spin cotton
kətɛŋ ^{R2}	big	kran ^{R1}	lazy
kətʊŋ ^{R1}	surface fill, topsoil	krək ^{R1}	pot
kətʊŋ ^{R1}	stomach	krʊc ^{R1}	wrong
kətɔm ^{R1}	egg	krəŋ ^{R1}	fat
kətɔŋ ^{R1}	dark	krəj ^{R1}	to resist
kətʊt ^{R1}	jar	klap ^{R1}	to hunt
kətʊʔjuk ^{R1}	earlobe	klaj ^{R1}	eagle
kətʊnlaʔum ^{R1}	clouds	klaw ^{R1}	to stir
kətʊr ^{R1}	stomach	kləŋʔum ^{R1}	plate
kətmrʔəp ^{R1}	pouch, bladder	klɔm ^{R1}	glad
kəcɪŋ ^{R1}	expensive	klɔr ^{R1}	help
kəcuʔ ^{R1}	to suck	klʊŋʔɛt ^{R1}	canal
kəc ^h uptih ^{R1}	ring	kləp ^{R1}	near
kəmiʔ ^{R1}	husband	kləktiʔ ^{R1}	to lie
kəmɔh ^{R1}	banana	kləŋ ^{R1}	drum
kəmuʔ ^{R2}	to dream	kwaʔ ^{R1}	than
kəsəŋ ^{R1}	elephant	kwac ^{R1}	to beckon
kəluʔ ^{R1}	like that, too	kwar ^{R1}	to bark
kəluŋ ^{R2}	hollow		
kələmk ^h uʔ ^{R1}	tree ..	k^h	
kəjɛt ^{R2}	to shrink	k ^h apəcnəniʔ ^{R1}	east, north
kəjur ^{R1}	slippery	k ^h aləhnəniʔ ^{R1}	east, south
kəjuʔ ^{R1}	lung	k ^h awər ^{R1}	blanket
kət ^{R1}	born, think	k ^h at ^{R1}	to rent
kətrɔt ^{R1}	jealous	k ^h am ^{R1}	evening
kən ^{R1}	not	k ^h aw ^{R1}	cost, amount
kənhat ^{R1}	paper	k ^h aw ^{R2}	to cross over
kəŋ ^{R1}	father	k ^h ɔrɛʔ ^{R1}	to beg
kəŋ ^{R1}	city	k ^h ɔləmiʔ ^{R1}	to request
kər ^{R1}	air	k ^h ɔtsawɛ ^{R1}	to sit cross - legged
kərkətɛŋ ^{R2}	storm	k ^h ɔk ^{R1}	pot
kəj ^{R11}	group	k ^h ɔʔ ^{R1}	to ask
kriŋ ^{R1}	to roll, to gather	k ^h ɔŋ ^{R1}	to confine, cage

k ^h oŋcoŋ ^{R1}	a curved spade	k ^h liʔ ^{R1}	woman
k ^h oʝ ^{R1}	help	k ^h lap ^{R1}	to chase
k ^h okot ^{R2}	elderly people	k ^h lop ^{R1}	to seize
k ^h oʝoʝ ^{R1}	remnant	k ^h loʔ ^{R1}	cheap
k ^h oʔ ^{R1}	of	k ^h luʔ ^{R1}	to stop
k ^h oŋtut ^{R1}	rag		
k ^h oŋcuk ^{R1}	dirty	ʔ	
k ^h oŋkoŋ ^{R1}	pillow	ʔit ^{R1}	to sleep
k ^h oŋkoŋ ^{R1}	pestle	ʔik ^{R1}	brother
k ^h usekəŋ ^{R1}	doctrine	ʔikk ^h oʔ ^{R1}	older brother
k ^h uc ^{R1}	to wash one's face	ʔiʔ ^{R1}	we both
k ^h uʔ ^{R1}	thing, which	ʔiʔʔətɕum ^{R1}	we (two)
k ^h uʔciphək ^{R1}	gip	ʔeʔ ^{R1}	this, it
k ^h uʔmən ^{R1}	fruit	ʔeŋ ^{R1}	to come
k ^h up ^{R1}	socks ,socking	ʔəŋrət ^{R1}	to arrive (at), to reach
k ^h əʔ ^{R1}	appropriate	ʔer ^{R1}	duck
k ^h ətkan ^{R1}	to marry	ʔət ^{R1}	small
k ^h əm ^{R1}	together	ʔeʔ ^{R1}	there
k ^h remelaŋ ^{R1}	widow , widower	ʔen ^{R1}	this
k ^h rejot ^{R1}	issue	ʔeʔ ^{R1}	to wander
k ^h raʔ ^{R1}	road	ʔeʔwraʔk ^h riʔ ^{R1}	sweet – talk a girl
k ^h ran ^{R1}	idler	ʔapəp ^{R1}	a kind of tree
k ^h raw ^{R1}	about	ʔapəŋ ^{R1}	bamboo shoot
k ^h rap ^{R2}	meal	ʔapam ^{R1}	turnip, lettuce, Chinese mustard
k ^h rəŋ ^{R1}	cup	ʔapuʔ ^{R1}	son – in - law
k ^h roʔ ^{R1}	free	ʔatəp ^{R1}	flea
k ^h rom ^{R1}	to pant	ʔataʔ ^{R1}	man
k ^h rup ^{R1}	to strike	ʔatəm ^{R1}	right
k ^h ruŋ ^{R1}	half	ʔatəmnəm ^{R1}	cricket
k ^h ruŋk ^h aw ^{R1}	things	ʔatom ^{R1}	palm
k ^h runʂatcaʔ ^{R1}	bride – price, deposit	ʔatur ^{R2}	grasshopper
k ^h rək ^{R1}	edge	ʔaturʂwʔ ^{R1}	to have a stomachache
k ^h rəh ^{R1}	to flee		

ʔatursunk ^h laʔ ^{R1}	to have a	ʔumklun ^{R1}	river
	indigestion	ʔumŋaj ^{R1}	tear
ʔacerʔup ^{R1}	musk melon	ʔumnnaʔ ^{R1}	dew
ʔacersaŋ ^{R1}	cucumber	ʔumron ^{R1}	sweat
ʔacan ^{R1}	teacher	ʔumliʔ ^{R2}	rain water
ʔacoŋlaj ^{R1}	story	ʔujmaj ^{R2}	mole
ʔakəŋ ^{R1}	father	ʔuʔ ^{R2}	I
ʔak ^h run ^{R1}	threshing basket	ʔup ^{R1}	to give up
ʔak ^h lak ^{R1}	buffalo	ʔum ^{R1}	salty
ʔanoʔ ^{R1}	who	ʔət ^{R1}	to be finished
ʔasaʔ ^{R1}	basket	ʔəttuʔ ^{R1}	trunk
ʔasanon ^{R1}	in the future	ʔətcoʔ ^{R1}	through
ʔak ^{R1}	arrow	ʔətcup ^{R1}	throughout one's
ʔanhan ^{R1}	abbot		life, forever
ʔajkiʔ ^{R1}	forefinger,	ʔətcum ^{R1}	all
	middle finger,	ʔəc ^{R1}	finished
	ring finger	ʔəp ^{R1}	cooked rice
ʔajkoj ^{R1}	little finger	ʔəppit ^{R1}	sticky rice
ʔajmaʔ ^{R1}	thump	ʔən ^{R1}	him, her, it
ʔot ^{R1}	to hold up	ʔəj ^{R1}	feed
ʔokkasaʔ ^{R1}	The Buddhist		
	Lent		
ʔoʔ ^{R1}	here		
ʔon ^{R1}	that --	mpit ^{R1}	stem
ʔoŋ ^{R1}	to smile	mpiʔ ^{R1}	broom
ʔoŋ ^{R1}	younger	mpin ^{R1}	to grill, to burn
ʔoŋpən ^{R1}	younger sister	mpah ^{R1}	to spill
ʔoŋmiʔ ^{R1}	younger brother	mpaj ^{R1}	drug, tobacco
ʔon ^{R1}	not	mpajrɛʔ ^{R1}	pharmaceuticals
ʔonpiʔ ^{R1}	to lose	mpuŋ ^{R1}	ladder
ʔonŋam ^{R1}	ugly	mpuh ^{R1}	face
ʔor ^{R1}	sister	mpuək ^{R1}	to fell
ʔorʔak ^h riʔ ^{R1}	older sister	mpək ^{R1}	bridge
ʔup ^{R1}	narrow	mpən ^{R1}	woman
ʔuʔ ^{R1}	stupid	mpər ^{R1}	earring
ʔumməh ^{R1}	nasal mucus	mp ^h ɛŋ ^{R1}	dawn
		mpləh ^{R1}	to blow

mmiʔ ^{R1}	man	maj ^{R1}	with, and
mmɛt ^{R1}	can	mɔn ^{R1}	eat
mmɔŋ ^{R1}	to gape	mɔŋ ^{R1}	mouth
mməp ^h um ^{R1}	heart	mor ^{R1}	to counter, beam
mməh ^{R1}	nose	mut ^{R1}	to ordain
mwat ^{R1}	temple	mutmuʔ ^{R1}	overcast
mwaʔ ^{R1}	to broken	muc ^{R1}	fumble
mwən ^{R1}	angry	muk ^{R1}	to sit
mwit ^{R1}	to climb	muʔ ^{R1}	lotus
mweh ^{R1}	to sneeze	muh ^{R1}	to look up
miʔ ^{R1}	you	məkuʔ ^{R1}	about
miŋ ^{R1}	racing	məmaʔ ^{R1}	name
mɛmaj ^{R1}	widow, widower	məŋ ^{R1}	wife
mɛliʔ ^{R1}	to dress	mər ^{R1}	silver
mɛp ^{R1}	to purse the lips	məjɔŋ ^{R1}	betel palm
mɛc ^{R1}	to massage		
mɛtkaʔ ^{R1}	fishhook	m̥	
mat ^{R1}	to tie	mar ^{R2}	farm
mac ^{R1}	alms bowl	marʔanəŋ ^{R2}	betrothed
mak ^{R1}	clearly, like	mumusanwŋ ^{R2}	belt
makp ^h aw ^{R1}	coconut	muk ^{R2}	hut
maktuntaw ^{R1}	watermelon	muʔ ^{R2}	rope
maktɔpit ^{R1}	motorcycle	muj ^{R2}	to sad
makcuk ^{R1}	orange	mɔŋ ^{R2}	to hear
makkuj ^{R1}	guava	mɔŋnəsəʔ ^{R2}	to be painful
makʔuʔ ^{R1}	pomelo		
makmɔl ^{R1}	earth worm	n	
maknat ^{R1}	pine apple	ntiʔ ^{R1}	near
maksiŋ ^{R1}	pumpkin	ntih ^{R1}	to be finished ^{R1}
maksanp ^h ɔʔ ^{R1}	papaya	ntiʔ ^{R2}	moldy
maklamjaj ^{R1}	longan	ntak ^{R1}	tongue
makwaʔ ^{R2}	lemon	ntaŋ ^{R1}	pot
maʔ ^{R1}	mother	ntal ^{R1}	wall
maŋ ^{R1}	to borrow	ntaj ^{R1}	tube skirt
maw ^{R1}	intoxicated	ntwɔp ^{R1}	to hammer ntwun
			to kick

nt ^h ər ^{R1}	bamboo section	nsəm ^{R1}	to plant
nt ^h ər ^{R2}	to snore	nhem ^{R1}	nail
ncəŋ ^{R1}	act prematurely	nhen ^{R1}	to count, to read
ncər ^{R1}	to sit on the floor with one's legs tucked back	nher ^{R1}	to become pregnant to exhale
ncot ^{R2}	to bow the head	nhap ^{R1}	work
ncuk ^{R1}	cone	nhəm ^{R1}	mat
ncər ^{R1}	heel	nriŋ ^{R1}	robber
ncərcuŋ ^{R1}	heel	nraʔ ^{R1}	to prepare
nc ^h ək ^{R1}	crippled	nran ^{R1}	to throw
nkat ^{R1}	turban	nrok ^{R1}	to pull
nkakk ^h laʔ ^{R1}	lane	nron ^{R1}	raised deck (of house)
nkəjhuŋ ^{R1}	alone	nlaʔ ^{R1}	tick
nkəj ^{R1}	alone	nluŋ ^{R1}	to shake
nkup ^{R1}	thin	nluŋ ^{R1}	diaper
nkuʔ ^{R1}	rice	nɭum ^{R1}	to be broken
nkun ^{R1}	mountain	nwaʔ ^{R1}	ceiling
nkuj ^{R1}	chameleon	njuŋ ^{R1}	to push
nkuntih ^{R1}	finger	njut ^{R1}	earwax
nkuncuŋ ^{R1}	toes	njuk ^{R1}	knife
nk ^h rəʔ ^{R1}	flick	nac ^{R1}	meet
nk ^h rəŋ ^{R1}	to pound	nak ^h um ^{R1}	bank
nk ^h lon ^{R1}	frightened	nam ^{R1}	procession
nk ^h laʔ ^{R1}	spoiled	namkətan ^{R1}	sugar
nnaʔ ^{R1}	sour	namʔəj ^{R1}	not
nnaʔ ^{R1}	listen	nan ^{R1}	will, at
nnum ^{R1}	child	naŋ ^{R1}	where
nŋon ^{R1}	center	naŋnəʔ ^{R1}	here
nŋər ^{R1}	gun	naŋtɛʔ ^{R1}	knitting, wool, yarn
nsat ^{R1}	to increase	naj ^{R1}	out
nsaŋ ^{R1}	rake	nək ^{R1}	look
nsaŋ ^{R1}	bamboo	nəkʔan ^{R1}	floor joist
nsop ^{R1}	to press	nuk ^{R1}	both
nsun ^{R1}	chopping	nətiʔ ^{R1}	

nəc^{R1} to massage
 nəm^{R1} year, time
 nəmpor^{R1} night, evening
 nəmtiʔ^{R1} previous time
 nəmkuʔsaŋon^{R1} yesterday
 nəmnɔʔ^{R1} when
 nəmpɔp^{R1} in the morning
 nəmpiʔ^{R1} today
 nəŋ^{R1} month
 nəj^{R1} in (loan word)

ŋ

ŋataʔ^{R1} to touch
 ŋaʔwɨk^{R1} chest
 ŋaliʔ^{R1} clock
 ŋam^{R1} blood
 ŋum^{R1} young

ɲ

ɲiʔ^{R1} day
 ɲaʔ^{R1} house
 ɲat^{R1} to stretch
 ɲɔk^{R1} good
 ɲɔŋ^{R1} know
 ɲuʔ^{R1} see
 ɲuhnɨom^{R1} to work
 ɲum^{R1} delicious
 ɲuh^{R1} to do
 ɲəʔ^{R1} drink

ɲ

ɲap^{R1} to differ

 ɲak^{R1} to give birth
 ɲakkon^{R1} to have a baby

ɲaʔ^{R1} to itch
 ɲam^{R1} beautiful
 ɲaj^{R1} eye
 ɲajɲuŋ^{R1} knee
 ɲajntɔk^{R1} blind
 ɲajsaniʔ^{R1} sun
 ɲɔt^{R1} bent
 ɲɔk^{R1} to bend
 ɲuk^{R1} neck
 ɲɔʔ^{R1} to be firm
 ɲɔɲ^{R1} top, peak
 ɲɔŋ^{R1} bush knife
 ɲɔr^{R1} fire
 ɲwɨt^{R1} to be on top (of)
 ɲəʔ^{R1} true

s

sip^{R1} ten
 sik^{R1} to pick up
 siʔ^{R1} louse
 sir^{R1} gold
 sek^{R1} wear down
 sen^{R1} line, influence
 sɛt^{R1} mischievous
 sɛm^{R1} Tai Yai people
 sapɛc^{R1} to brush
 satiʔ^{R1} eight
 satim^{R1} nine
 sataʔ^{R1} tail
 satum^{R1} to press the hand
 together in
 spect
 satwɨ^{R2} threshing basket
 sak^{huttantəŋ}^{R1} to remind
 sak^{hrop}^{R1} to bite
 saʔaŋ^{R1} to twitch

saʔum ^{R1}	snake	suʔuh ^{R1}	withered
saʔur ^{R1}	to warm the	sumacicej ^{R1}	thank you
	curry	suwar ^{R1}	garden
samaj ^{R1}	seeds	suk ^{R1}	arm
samok ^{R1}	cannon	suʔ ^{R1}	dog
samuʔ ^{R1}	to hide	sum ^{R1}	want
samuʔ ^{R1}	stone	sumpor ^{R1}	dinner
sanat ^{R1}	gun	sump ^h um ^{R1}	want
saŋat ^{R1}	quiet	sumʔit ^{R1}	sleepy
sanoʔ ^{R1}	how	sumpiʔ ^{R1}	lunch
sapiʔ ^{R1}	labor	suʔ ^{R2}	new
saŋah ^{R1}	clear	sut ^{R2}	mosquito net
saŋaj ^{R1}	far	suʔumnaʔ ^{R1}	house lizard
salek ^{R1}	cigarette	suʔ ^{R1}	to ache
salaʔ	to be sickness	suʔmuʔ ^{R1}	straight
	from the pregnant	suʔ ^{R1}	keep
salaj ^{R1}	eat	səpic ^{R1}	sharp
salunaʔ ^{R1}	stake	səpiŋ ^{R1}	bicycle
sappaliʔ ^{R1}	funny	səpaʔ ^{R1}	cheek
sac ^{R1}	to comb	sətun ^{R1}	city
sachək ^{R1}	comb	səcit ^{R1}	to point
sak ^{R1}	bored	səceŋ ^{R2}	ginger
saktaʔ ^{R1}	-- although	səcən ^{R1}	heavy
saŋp ^h luk ^{R1}	rib	səc ^h an ^{R1}	basket
saŋhək ^{R1}	hairpin	səkuʔ ^{R1}	wet
saj ^{R1}	to reimburse	səkur ^{R1}	cloudy
soʔ ^{R1}	violet	səkər ^{R1}	to teach
som ^{R1}	wear	sək ^h rɔc ^{R1}	shell
səmmac ^{R1}	to worship	sək ^h lak ^{R1}	red
sənniməh ^{R1}	may, as it	sək ^h luj ^{R1}	lemon grass
soŋ ^{R1}	bitter	səʔuʔ ^{R1}	dry
soj ^{R1}	to cut up	səʔuj ^{R1}	to smell
sop ^{R1}	handful	səʔum ^{R1}	rotten
soksak ^{R1}	tangled	səʔur ^{R1}	warm
soŋsaŋ ^{R1}	rough	səmiʔ ^{R1}	sugar cane
soŋsəj ^{R1}	to doubt		

səməŋ ^{R1}	star
səməŋnawcaŋ ^{R1}	Venus
sənaŋ ^{R1}	cool
sənəntaʔ ^{R1}	hour
səpən ^{R1}	today
səŋaʔ ^{R1}	clean
səŋar ^{R1}	green
səŋawyaʔ ^{R2}	wooden tongs used for holding fish over the fire
səŋaj ^{R1}	far
səŋom ^{R1}	wear
səliʔ ^{R1}	corn
səlaŋ ^{R1}	soft
səluŋ ^{R1}	blue
sən ^{R1}	same
sənpəreʔ ^{R1}	the same as

h

hiŋ ^{R1}	bright
hanəp ^{R1}	How much
hareh ^{R1}	seven
hac ^{R1}	to scrape, scratch
hak ^{R1}	skin
haŋ ^{R1}	stem, pole
haj ^{R1}	to hat
hot ^{R1}	lawsuit
hotk ^h ap ^{R1}	meal
hotc ^h um ^{R1}	afternoon
hoc ^{R1}	to end
hok ^{R1}	paddy
hon ^{R1}	to dance
hoŋ ^{R1}	to hear
hok ^{R2}	to dry
hoʔ ^{R1}	Chinese

hoŋ ^{R1}	to give a name
huk ^{R1}	to go up
hum ^{R1}	to kiss
huŋ ^{R1}	to steam
hur ^{R1}	to vomit
hum ^{R2}	to kiss
huc ^{R1}	meat
huk ^{R1}	to pour
hət ^{R1}	to smell
hək ^{R1}	hair
həkpaŋ ^{R2}	gray hair
həkkap ^{R1}	beard
həkməŋ ^{R1}	moustache
həkjəw ^{R1}	topknot
həmnεʔ ^{R1}	take a bath
hən ^{R1}	many
hənhen ^{R1}	a great many
hər ^{R1}	to walk, go

r

ritlaw ^{R1}	custom
retεʔ ^{R1}	here
retəʔ ^{R1}	there
reʔ ^{R1}	for
rehk ^h uʔ ^{R1}	taproot, fibrous root
rak ^{R1}	to shout
raksalehʔisin ^{R1}	to keep the rules
raʔ ^{R1}	a numerical designation for books
raŋ ^{R1}	to fold
rot ^{R1}	arrive
rotləʔ ^{R1}	until
roŋ ^{R1}	rich
roj ^{R1}	wound

rot ^{R2}	wrinkled	loh ^{R1}	loud
ron ^{R2}	hot	lor ^{R1}	to keep in the
rot ^{R1}	to water		mouth
rum ^{R1}	to scent	lojʔum ^{R1}	swim
		lolih ^{R1}	to flex
liŋklaʔ ^{R1}	ghost	loloʔ ^{R1}	uncultivated
lih ^{R1}	to go down	lok ^{R1}	salty
leh ^{R1}	go out	lokcoŋ ^{R1}	stand up
leh ^{R1}	six	luŋ ^{R1}	uncle
lew ^{R1}	up	luŋ ^{R1}	horn
lapur ^{R1}	four	lumkəwoŋ ^{R1}	banana
laʔar ^{R1}	two	ləciŋ ^{R1}	listen
laʔor ^{R1}	three	ləʔiʔ ^{R1}	all of us
laʔuʔ ^{R1}	fat	ləŋac ^{R1}	to tickle
lakpaŋ ^{R1}	under	ləc ^{R1}	entrance
lakpuŋk ^{R1}	spatula	ləh ^{R1}	Sipsongpanna
laktuʔ ^{R1}	behind, the back		
	way		
laktuʔ ^{R1}	ladle	liʔ ^{R1}	rain
lakcor ^{R1}	out	liʔʔapp ^{hε} ^{R1}	hailstone
lakŋaʔ ^{R1}	in front (of)	len ^{R1}	some, thin
lakŋanaʔ ^{R1}	in front of the	lat ^{R1}	fear
	house	lak ^{R1}	late
lakhoc ^{R1}	late	laʔ ^{R1}	sheet
laʔ ^{R1}	tea	laʔkəwoŋ ^{R1}	banana leaf
laŋ ^{R1}	long	laʔk ^{huʔ} ^{R1}	leaf
laŋc ^{hiʔ} ^{R1}	moon	loŋ ^{R1}	high
lah ^{R1}	tell, say	luʔ ^{R1}	skin
lar ^{R1}	market	luŋc ^{R1}	little
	design	ləʔ ^{R1}	deep
lah ^{R2}	because	ləŋ ^{R1}	yellow
lot ^{R1}	pull		
lom ^{R1}	smell		
loŋ ^{R1}	black		
loŋtoŋtiw ^{R1}	to be overcast,	wi ^{R1}	fan
	dark	wilaʔ ^{R1}	season
		wilaʔkot ^{R1}	winter, cold

wilaʔron ^{R1}	season summer, hot	jansuʔ ^{R1}	oil
wilaliʔ ^{R1}	season rain season	jaŋ ^{R1}	not
wiʔ ^{R1}	to buy	jaŋjuʔ ^{R1}	rubber band
win ^{R1}	to close	jah ^{R1}	to pull down
warwəŋ ^{R1}	to wave (one's hand)	jaj ^{R1}	maternal grandmother
wuɯc ^{R1}	bowels	jət ^{R1}	fresh
wən ^{R1}	to be angry	jətjət ^{R1}	to tiptoe
wəŋ ^{R1}	to hook, to pertain	jək ^{R1}	good
wəŋ ^{R1}	to lost	jəŋ ^{R1}	waist
wər ^{R1}	to bob along, to cover oneself	jək ^{R1}	to hold up
wək ^h aʔ ^{R1}	covered	jəkəŋ ^{R1}	stand
wəj ^{R1}	quick	jəŋjaŋ ^{R1}	to abandon
wəjtək ^{R1}	to be anxious, ring	juk ^{R1}	prey
		juʔ ^{R1}	if
		juŋ ^{R1}	village
		jəm ^{R1}	die

j

ɰ		juk ^{R1}	ear
ɰat ^{R1}	baht	juknɰət ^{R1}	deaf
ɰaklaʔ ^{R1}	centipede		
ɰakmɔr ^{R1}	earth worm		
ɰaj ^{R1}	rattan		
ɰajkuŋ ^{R1}	worm		
ɰajluŋ ^{R1}	spider		
ɰəj ^{R1}	to salute		
ɰəjmɛʔ ^{R1}	goodness		

j

jɛp ^{R1}	to close the eyes
ja ^{R1}	paternal grandmother
jateʔ ^{R1}	paternal great – grandmother
japlaŋ ^{R1}	Plang women
jam ^{R1}	cry

APPENDIX B

1. Narrative I

nəm^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} kuj^{R1} kɔn^{R1}
 when we have child

lah^{R1} ritkɔŋ^{R1} plaŋ^{R1} nəm^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} kuj^{R1} kɔn^{R1}
 tall tradition Plang when we have child

nəmmaʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} k^huʔ^{R1} lah^{R1} sɔʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1}
 previous time be man say Fp we

muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} kuŋʔəkəj^{R1}
 stay at mountain

nəmmaʔ^{R1} sɔʔ^{R1} juʔ^{R1} miʔ^{R1} taŋniʔ^{R1} salaʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1} nəʔ^{R1}
 previous time Fp if you begin sickness from pregnant already Fp

k^hraw^{R1} tɔʔ^{R1} c^hiʔ^{R1} ʔar^{R1} c^hiʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1} ʔɛw^{R1} ʔuŋ^{R1}
 about one month two months already we then find keep

k^hutət^{R1} ʔiriʔ^{R1} ʔuŋ^{R1} k^hroʔ^{R1} p^hroʔ^{R1} təttriʔ^{R1}
 old cloth our Poss keep enough cloth old Poss

ʔət^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} roʔ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} ʔuŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} hom^{R1} kɔnriʔ^{R1}
 and come prepare it keep at diaper child Poss

rit^{R1} plaŋ^{R1} nəmmaʔ^{R1} soʔ^{R1} maklət^{R1} ʔuŋ^{R1} hom^{R1} kɔnriʔ^{R1}
 traditional Plang previous time Fp until keep diaper child Poss

juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} tətəw^{R1} pun^{R1} por^{R1} pɔn^{R1} lɛh^{R1} c^hiʔ^{R1}
 if we pregnant get four five six month

ʔiʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} taŋniʔ^{R1} ʔɛw^{R1} paj^{R1}
 we then begin wander medicine

ʔət^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} kən^{R1} kuj^{R1} pɔn^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} kən^{R1} pun^{R1} pɔn^{R1} pɔn^{R1}
 already we not have meat we not get eat meat

ʔiʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} p^hraʔ^{R1} kanoʔ^{R1}
 we will eat what

nipɔŋ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} nuh^{R1} sanoʔ^{R1}
 not know we will do how

ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔəj^{R1} likriʔ^{R1} kəʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} pɔnriʔ^{R1}
 we feed pig Poss so we will meat Poss

juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔəj^{R1} ʔɛrriʔ^{R1} kəʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} pɔn^{R1} ʔɛrriʔ^{R1}
 if we feed chicken Poss so we will eat chicken Poss

maklət^{R1} nak^{R1} ʔət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} takuj^{R1} paj^{R1}
 until give birth and Fp we not have medicine

ʔət^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} kən^{R1} kuj^{R1} moʔ^{R1}

and we not have doctor

ʔiʔ^{R1} kən^{R1} pun^{R1} niher^{R1} moʔ^{R1}

we not get not visit doctor

ṅak^{R1} ʔət^{R1} kuk^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} mēh^{R1} caŋʔoŋ^{R1}

give birth and call man be midwife

mēh^{R1} caŋʔoŋ^{R1} lət^{R1} kok^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} muk^{R1} maj^{R1} miʔ^{R1}

be midwife that call man come stay with you

ʔət^{R1} ṅak^{R1} maj^{R1} kamiʔ^{R1}

and give birth with husband

ʔiʔ^{R1} nkuj^{R1} ṅak^{R1} maj^{R1} maʔ^{R1} maj^{R1} kəŋriʔ^{R1}

we alone give birth with mother with father Poss

maklət^{R1} ṅak^{R1} hoc^{R1} ʔət^{R1} soʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} ʔew^{R1} sət^{R1} pasoʔ^{R1}

until give birth finish and Fp and find preserve charcoal

ʔət^{R1} lət^{R1} tut^{R1} kəj^{R1} loŋ^{R1} tih^{R1} pasoʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1}

and then pull silk black take charcoal and

ʔew^{R1} p^haʔ^{R1} pasah^{R1} p^haʔ^{R1} pasah^{R1}

turn way sky way sky

ʔət^{R1} lət^{R1} tih^{R1} pasɔʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1} lət^{R1} mat^{R1} katintuŋriʔ^{R1}
 and then take charcoal and then bind navel Poss

ʔət^{R1} ʔum^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} paŋtɛm^{R2} pasɔʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} pɛʔ^{R1}
 and keep it under charcoal and we then slice

pɛʔ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1} lət^{R1} pək^{R1} ʔum^{R1} hɛm^{R1} kiʔ^{R1}
 slice it and then draw water bathe he

pək^{R1} ʔum^{R1} hɛm^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} juʔ^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} tacan^{R1} jam^{R1} sɔʔ^{R1}
 draw water bathe he if he not can cry Fp

lət^{R1} pin^{R1} cuŋ^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} ʔɛw^{R1} ʔakər^{R1} lət^{R1} pʊk^{R1}
 then hold leg he find air then turn

tuh^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} lɛw^{R1} ʔɛw^{R1} paŋtɛm^{R2} ʔət^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} kok^{R1} canʔɔŋ^{R1}
 head he up find under and he call midwife

kiʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} hɛm^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} tənəʔ^{R1} sɔʔ^{R1}
 who then bathe he like that FP

rit^{R1} plaŋ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} sɔʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} pun^{R1} lɛh^{R1} niʔ^{R1}
 tradition plang we Fp Then get six day

lət^{R1} kah^{R2} ʔiʔ^{R1} juŋjan^{R1} ʔum^{R1} k^hut^{R1} tiʔ^{R1} k^hut^{R1} canriʔ^{R1}
 then give we hold by finger water clean hand clean foot Poss

naŋ^{R1} ʔumkətɛŋ^{R2} juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} taʔ^{R1} pun^{R1} k^hut^{R1} həmriʔ^{R1}
 at river if we must get clean bathe Poss

naŋ^{R1} ʔumkətɛŋ^{R2} soʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} lah^{R1} juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} jəm^{R1} soʔ^{R1}
 at river Fp then say if we die Fp

juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} jəm^{R1} lət^{R1} lah^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} ʔon^{R1} pun^{R1}
 if we die then say we will not get

muk^{R1} maj^{R1} pəj^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} nkuj^{R1} pəj^{R1} lət^{R1}
 stay with man we lonely man then

lah^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} kuj^{R1} tɔŋ^{R1} həm^{R1}
 say we not have locate bathe

ʔiʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} k^huʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} soʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} səj^{R1}
 we be person not fresh not beautiful

juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} hərəh^{R1} niʔ^{R1} soʔ^{R1} juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} lət^{R1}
 if we then seven day Fp if we then

pun^{R1} k^hutriʔ^{R1} soʔ^{R1} pəj^{R1} lət^{R1} kah^{R2} ʔiʔ^{R1}
 get clean Poss Fp man then give we

muk^{R1} maj^{R1} ləʔən^{R1} ʔət^{R1} pun^{R1} sipsi^{R1}
 stay with them and get forty

sipha^{R1} niʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} kənriʔ^{R1} məʔriʔ^{R1}

fifty day then child Poss name Poss

juʔ^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} nan^{R2} məʔ^{R1} ʔanəʔ^{R1} səʔ^{R1}

if he will name what Fp

ʔət^{R1} tuksalak^{R1} həc^{R1} lət^{R1} nək^{R1} salak^{R1}

and tell one's fortune finish then look prediction by lots

juʔ^{R1} salak^{R1} jək^{R1} səʔ^{R1} kək^{R1} ʔacan^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1}

if predict good Fp call teacher who come

teʔ^{R1} kənriʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} teʔ^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} məʔ^{R1} həc^{R1} ʔət^{R1}

take child Poss name give he name finish already

Free Translation

Giving Birth

For Plang people, when a woman is pregnant, she will fine a used diaper for her baby. This is their tradition. During the 4 – 6 months of pregnancy, her husband finds an obstetrician to take care of his wife. When she gives birth, her husband will be with her and help the obstetrician. At that time, no one is allowed to be with her except her husband and parents. The obstetrician takes a black cloth and charcoal and then points them into the sky following Plang tradition. After that, she ties the baby's placenta together. If the baby doesn't cry, it will be shaken to help it breathe. The parents of the baby have to clean their hands and feet in the river within six days after it was born. For the Plang, it's believing that they will die soon if they do not clean them. Moreover, after they die, they cannot stay with people. And they do not have a place to take a bath. It's also believed that they will not have a happy life after death. If they take a bath, they can stay with Plang people after they died. The parents have to name their baby have 15 days. If they do not find the suitable name for their baby, they have to draw lost at the Buddhist Temple. If they can get a good lot, they will ask a monk to name their baby.

2. Narrative II

mɔj^{R1} muʔ^{R1}
sowing seeds

nəpsam^{R1} ʔot^{R1} taŋniʔ^{R1} hər^{R1} mɔk^{R1} mərriʔ^{R1}
third month already begin go chop farm Poss

mɔk^{R1} mərriʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} pəj^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} sət^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1}
chop farm Poss then person come heap it

rɔtləʔ^{R1} c^hiʔ^{R1} nəmhaʔ^{R1} seʔ^{R1} pəj^{R1} taŋniʔ^{R1} kut^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1}
until month five month Fp Person begin watch it

pəj^{R1} lət^{R1} taŋniʔ^{R1} rum^{R1} mərriʔ^{R1}
person then begin furrow farm Poss

plin^{R1} rum^{R1} maj^{R1} ʔuriʔ^{R1} hər^{R1} kut^{R1} numriʔ^{R1} plin^{R1} tupriʔ^{R1}
built furrow with mine go burn wood Poss build hut Poss

rɔtləʔ^{R1} c^hiʔ^{R1} nəmhok^{R1} lət^{R1} taŋniʔ^{R1} sɔm^{R1} muʔ^{R1}
Until month month six then begin put on rice seeds

ʔiʔ^{R1} taʔ^{R1} samaj^{R1} samaj^{R1} naŋ^{R1} t^həj^{R1}
we must soak soak at pot

pansanoʔ^{R1} samaj^{R1} ʔət^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} hət^{R1} mərriʔ^{R1}
 up to here soak already, we will go farm Poss

kuj^{R1} saw^{R1} pəj^{R1} klom^{R1} p^halok^{R1} samaj^{R1}
 have twenty person carry on back mortar soak

hət^{R1} nup^{R1} pun^{R1} tət^{R1} cən^{R1} ʔət^{R1} kah^{R1} pəriʔ^{R1} sum^{R1} nup^{R1}
 go morning get one patch and give together eat morning

rətłəʔ^{R1} cət^{R1} pət^{R1} muŋ^{R1} ʔət^{R1} kok^{R1}
 until seven eight clock already call

pəriʔ^{R1} sum^{R1} sumnup^{R1} soʔ^{R1}
 together eat breakfast Fp

sumnup^{R1} sak^{R1} ʔət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} tariʔ^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} ʔumlaʔ^{R1}
 breakfast full already -Fp - -relax - drink tea

tak^hraw^{R1} ʔət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} taŋniʔ^{R1} jajniʔ^{R1} leh^{R1} moʔ^{R1} muʔ^{R1}
 for a while already Fp begin move down sow seeds

ʔiʔ^{R1} p^hraʔ^{R1} paj^{R1} ʔət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} taŋniʔ^{R1} jajniʔ^{R1} lew^{R1} moʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1}
 we smoke cigarette already Fp begin move up sow already

juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} nuh^{R1} nhom^{R1} ʔət^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} laʔ^{R1} p^hraʔ^{R1} paj^{R1}
 if we do work already drink tea smoke cigarette

tariʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} taŋniʔ^{R1} leh^{R1} nuh^{R1} t^hem^{R1}
 relax already Fp begin down do again

hər^{R1} naŋ^{R1} sumniʔ^{R1} sak^{R1} ʔat^{R1} seʔ^{R1}
 go at lunch full already Fp

ʔɛwriʔ^{R1} ʔit^{R1} k^huʔ^{R1} pəʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} pəʔ^{R1} seʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ ɲariʔ^{R1}
 find poss. sleep thing carry on will carry on Fp come house Poss

Free Translation

Sowing Rice Grains

In the 3rd month, Plang people will clear fields. After that, the weeds are collected together. When the 5th month begins, they start to dig up the ditches. Next, they go into the forest, they burn it in order to get wood to build their houses. In the 6th month, the grains are put in water first. Then they are sown in the fields. In the morning they take mortars of grains with them. There are about twenty people working in the fields. They will have breakfast about 7 or 8 o'clock after they finish one field. Then, they will take a rest. Some of them drink tea or smoke cigarettes. After that, they will move to the other places to sow their rice grains unit noon. They lunch together. Then, they sleep. After they wake up, they will return home and take all sowing equipment with them.

3. Procedural I

nsəm^{R1} laʔ^{R1}

plant tea

pɔc^{R1} plik^{R1} ʔaʔ pɔc^{R1} plik^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1}

pluck lace it pluck lace it come

ʔət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} hɔk^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1}

and Fp then it come dry it

hɔk^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} mak^hoʔ^{R1} hɔk^{R1} ʔət^{R1}

dry it until dry already

ʔət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} teʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} nsəm^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1}

and Fp bring come plant it

nsəm^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} tənəm^{R1} ʔarnəm^{R1} ʔonnəm^{R1} seʔ^{R1}

plant it one year two year three year Fp

ʔət^{R1} pun^{R1} pət^{R1} laʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} lu^{R1} lasoʔ^{R1}

and get keep tea at Sipsongpanna Fp

pɔc^{R1} ʔət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} pəh^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ʔak^hrəp^{R1}

pluck and fp. carry on back at basket

kah^{R1} her^{R1} som^{R1} naŋ^{R1} pi jaʔ^{R1}

take go put on at bag

tuk^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ʔak^h rəp^{R1}

pour off it at basket

pɔc^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1} kun^{R1} tik^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ŋɔn^{R1} jaʔ^{R1}

pluck come it and pile up throw it at middle house

ʔət^{R1} pasaʔ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} pojoʔ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} k^h rmp^{R1} kuc^{R1}

and stir it do not it touch sun

panloʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} nkən^{R1} mək^h an pəŋ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ŋɔn^{R1}

in a few minutes then establish big pan blow it at fire

sən^{R1} pəj^{R1} rum^{R1} sum^{R1} ʔik^{R1} tənəʔ^{R1}

like person warm rice pig like-that

lət^{R1} nəc^{R1} nəc^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} nuh^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} lenəʔ^{R1}

then massage massage it do it like that

nəc^{R1} laʔar^{R1} laʔor^{R1} pɔk^{R1} ʔaleʔ^{R1}

massage two three Clas like this

nəc^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} seʔ^{R1} nkroʔ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1}

massage it Fp flutter it

ʔəntɔʔ^{R1} pansaʔ^{R1} teʔ^{R1} hɔk^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1}

in a few minutes tomorrow bring dry it

lət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} hɔk^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} tɛniʔ^{R1}

then Fp dry it one day

juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} nan^{R2} tah^{R1} nɛʔ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} laʔ^{R1}

if we will take drink it Fp

ʔiʔ^{R1} niɲuh^{R1} k^honcok^{R1} naʔ^{R1} nɛc^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1}

we don't dirty Fp massage it

sɔm^{R1} nan^{R1} satuʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} nɛc^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} ʔənkɔj^{R1} sɔʔ^{R1}

put on at winnowing we massage it separate Fp

Free Translation

Growing tea

They will dry tea seeds after they pick them. Then, they take all the dry seeds to plant in the field. They have to wait for three years until they grow up. Then, they can pick the tea leaves. In Sip – Song – Panna, tea leaves will be kept in the basket or the shoulder bag after they are picked. Then, those leaves are piled up in the middle of the house. They thresh them into the air indoors for a moment. They light a fire and prepare a pan to heat the tea leaves for a moment and then let them cool down. Then they dry them with sunlight again the following day. If they want to keep some for themselves, they will clean and thresh them in a separate threshing basket.

4. Procedural II

katkat^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} pən^{R1}

wear as a turban of woman

k^huʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} numpən^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} səʔ^{R1}

thing be girl we Fp

numpən^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} k^hukotpən^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} klin^{R1} həkriʔ^{R1}

girl we old woman we if we put up hair hair Poss

ʔət^{R1} səʔ^{R1} maʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} katiʔ^{R1}

and Fp mother we like that

juʔ^{R1} ʔajuʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} pun^{R1} satim^{R1} sipnəm^{R1} najoʔ^{R1}

if age we get nine ten years Fp

ʔiʔ^{R1} taŋniʔ^{R1} katkat^{R1} ʔajən^{R1}

we begin wear as a turban Fp

katkat^{R1} nuhriʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} kum^{R1} hək^{R1} nuhriʔ^{R1}

wear as a turban do Poss we roll hair do Poss

ʔiʔ^{R1} kum^{R1} hək^{R1} ʔət^{R1} nuhriʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} pin^{R1} nuhriʔ^{R1}

we roll hair already do Poss we hair pin do Poss

juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} kuj^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} swt^{R1} taj^{R1}

if we have boy friend we then keep flower

swt^{R1} taj^{R1} təwasaʔ^{R1}

keep flower one rainy season

ʔət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} juʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} kuj^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1} ranuʔ^{R1}

and Fp if then have boy friend truly

k^hoʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} kah^{R2} ʔiʔ^{R1} taj^{R1} ʔatc^{hi}ʔ^{R1} ʔət^{nəm}^{R1}

boy friend will give we flower all months all years

ʔət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} taŋniʔ^{R1} pak^{R1} taj^{R1} ʔanoʔ^{R1}

and Fp begin slip in flower Fp

pak^{R1} taj^{R1} naŋ^{R1} tuhriʔ^{R1} pak^{R1} naŋ^{R1} kum^{R1} həkriʔ^{R1} seʔ^{R1}

slip in flower at head Poss slip in at roll hair Poss Fp

juʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} k^huʔ^{R1} lah^{R1} naŋ^{R2} mak^{R1} k^hoʔ^{R1}

if be man say will love man

naŋnoʔ^{R1} seʔ^{R1} taʔ^{R1} k^humk^hum^{R1} tuh^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} nəʔ^{R1}

where Fp must responsible head we Fp

saktaʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} pak^{R1} taj^{R1} seʔ^{R1} ʔən^{R1} lət^{R1}

even if not slip in flower Fp he then

ʔɛw^{R1} wiʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} pak^{R1} taj^{R1}

wander buy we slip in flower

pəj^{R1} nuh^{R1} tuh^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} lik^{R1} lətaj^{R1} seʔ^{R1}

man do head we full many flowers Fp

juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} ʔon^{R1} kuj^{R1} khoʔ^{R1} lah^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1}

if we then not have boy friend say we

lət^{R1} ʔon^{R1} pun^{R1} pak^{R1} taj^{R1} muk^{R1} lu^{R1}

then not get slip in flower stay Sipsongpanna

nəmmaʔ^{R1} soʔ^{R1} nəmɲon juʔ^{R1}

previous time Fp some time if

ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} kuj^{R1} khoʔ^{R1} seʔ^{R1} pun^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1}

we not have boy friend Fp get-- we

pak^{R1} taj^{R1} təwasaʔ^{R1}

slip flower one raining season

lət^{R1} tapun^{R1} pak^{R1} taj^{R1} sən^{R1} pəj^{R1} ʔət^{R1}

then not get slip in flower like person and

məh^{R1} kriʔ^{R1} rat^{R1}

be young woman became an old maid

məh^{R1} k^hriʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} kuj^{R1} k^hɔʔ^{R1} ʔajɛn^{R1}
 be yang woman not have boy friend Fp

Free Translation

Wearing the Turban of a Woman

Every Plang woman wears turban. When she is 4 – 6 years old, she will wear a traditional hat instead of a turban. When she is 9 – 10 years old, she has to put on a turban by herself. She will roll up her hair and then stick the hairpin inside the rolled hair. If she has a boyfriend during the Khaw – Pna – sa (Buddhist Lent), she and her boyfriend will go to pick flowers together. If he is her boyfriend, he will bring her flowers every month. She will stick all flowers for her. If he cannot find one, he has to buy them for her. If she doesn't have a boyfriend, her head will not be covered with flower. She has only a hairpin sticking in her hair. In Sip – Song – Panna, a widow can stick flowers in to her hair only in Khaw - pan - sa (Buddhist Lent).

5. Hortatory I

nuh^{R1} turi?^{R1} calit^{R1}

do body Poss Good

nəmma?^{R1} makəŋ^{R1} ʔiʔ caŋ^{R1} tɔm^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} laʔ^{R1}

previous time parents we usually teach we Fp

kaʂoʔ^{R1} makəŋ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} caŋ^{R1} seʔ^{R1} lah^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} jɛn^{R1}

however parent we usually Fp say we Fp

kah^{R2} ʔiʔ^{R1} hɛr^{R1} nhɔm^{R1} tɛniʔ^{R1}

give we go work everyday

ʔiʔ^{R1} hɛr^{R1} nhɔm^{R1} tɛniʔ^{R1} lah^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} tɛʔwɔp^{R1} laʔ^{R1}

we go work everyday say we not Fp

jam^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} hɛr^{R1} paŋ^{R1} hɛr^{R1} paŋ^{R1}

when we go sell go sell

jam^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} nuh^{R1} nhɔm^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} lɛt^{R1} rɔn^{R1}

when we do work we then rich

jam^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} tasum^{R1} soʔ^{R1} lah^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} lɛt^{R1} tuk^{R1}

when we not eat Fp say we then poor

makəp^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} caŋ^{R1} lah^{R1} katit^{R1} teʔ^{R1}
 parent we then usually say like this

ʔanloʔ^{R1} naʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} məh^{R1} samaj^{R1} suʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} taʔ^{R1}
 this time Fp then be period new we must

hər^{R1} hən^{R1} kəŋ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} sən^{R1} nəmmaʔ^{R1} ʔanoc^{R1}
 go many city it not like previous time Fp

ʔeʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} k^huʔ^{R1} sapuk^{R1} tantəŋ^{R1}
 this be thing story remind

ʔanloʔ^{R1} laʔsoʔ^{R1} piʔ^{R1} lah^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} k^huriʔ^{R1} ʔajən^{R1}
 now Fp you say it be joke Fp

Free Translation

Good Citizens

Parents always tell their children to work hard if they don't want to be poor. If they work hard, they will be rich. Someone may be considered poor on the condition that he doesn't have enough food for each meal. Nowadays, they have to work in town. It's different from the past. They went into the forest to work. But for the new generation there is no need for them to be concerned about the forest at all. Now, they think that working in the forest is not an important thing. However, parents always teach them that hard working is the most important thing if you want to be a good citizen

6. Hortatory II

pəj^{R1} nuh^{R1} klət^{R1}
 person do wrong

k^huʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} ritkəŋ^{R1} ʔajaʔ^{R1} plaŋ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} nəmmaʔ^{R1}
 thing be tradition people Plang we previous time

naŋ^{R2} lah^{R1} ʔan^{R1} soʔ^{R1} nəmmaʔ^{R1} juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔəw^{R1} rah^{R1}
 will say he Fp previous time if we wander steal

pəj^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔəw^{R1} huk^{R1} naʔ^{R1} pəj^{R2}
 person we wander go up house person

juʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔəw^{R1} rah^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} təʔ^{R1} pəj^{R2} rah^{R1}
 if we wander steal rice food person steal

sir^{R1} rah^{R1} mər^{R1} pəj^{R2} t^hem^{R1} təpək^{R1} məh^{R1} ʔən^{R1} seʔ^{R1}
 gold steal silver person again one time be he Fp

pəj^{R2} lət^{R1} mət^{R1} pun^{R1} ʔən^{R1} lət^{R1} kah^{R2} ʔən^{R1} saʔ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1}
 person then catch get he then give he pay damages it

məh^{R1} k^huptaw^{R1} ʔajən^{R1} təwat^{R1} saʔ^{R1}
 be double Fp one bath pay damages

sɔŋ^{R1} mwaŋ^{R1} nuh^{R1} kaloŋ^{R1} ?ən^{R1} lət^{R1} ?on^{R1} kuj^{R1} p^hrokujmər^{R1}
 two bath do like this he then not have valuable

sɯŋ^{R1} ?ik?ɔŋ^{R1} ?ən^{R1} lət^{R1} cun^{R1}pəri?^{R1} k^hɔj^{R1} ?ən^{R1} saŋ^{R1}
 ifso brother and sister he then invite together help he pay

?ansaŋ^{R1} mi?^{R1} nuh^{R1}t^hɛm^{R1} naŋ^{R1} katit^{R1} pasah^{R1}naŋ^{R2} p^haŋ^{R1}
 now you do again at like this sky will cleave

hatjuŋ^{R1} ?ən^{R1} taŋ^{R1} huk^{R1} rah^{R1} t^hɛn^{R1} ?ar^{R1}pok^{R1} seŋ^{R1}
 although if he still up steal again two time Fp

?ən^{R1} taŋ^{R1} nuh^{R1}t^hɛm^{R1} seŋ^{R1}tuŋ^{R1} naŋnɔŋ^{R1}tuŋ^{R1} naŋ^{R1}
 he still do again Fp body where body at

?anɔŋ^{R1} kən^{R1} nɔŋ^{R1} ?aŋ^{R1}
 who not know it

Free Translation

Violating the Law

For Plang people, burgling a house or stealing the possessions of someone such as food, money and gold more than once is a very bad thing. If he was caught, he has to pay twice as much. For example, if he steals a golden necklace worth one baht (a Thai's measurement of gold), he has to pay for the victim two baht. If he doesn't pay for it, his brother or sister have to pay for him. It's believed that the thunderbolt will strike whoever commits a bad thing again such as stealing and burgling. Moreover, people in the village do not help him when he was in trouble. They do not consider him as a member of their village.

7. Tale I

ʔajur^{R1}

Gibbon

ʔajur^{R1} muk^{R1} nan^{R1} mwat^{R1} lət^{R1} picaw^{R1} kah^{R2} ʔajur^{R1}
 gibbon stay at temple then monk give gibbon

p^hak^{R1} mat^{R1} lət^{R1} p^hak^{R1} p^hak^{R1} lət^{R1} nuh^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} mwah^{R1}
 clean alms bowl and clean clean then do it broken

ʔət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} picaw^{R1} lət^{R1} ʔon^{R1} ʔarijat^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} leh^{R1} nan^{R1} kətɪʔ^{R1}
 And Fp monk then not allow which stand at ground

lət^{R1} kah^{R2} ʔɛw^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} ʔumɿiʔ^{R1}
 then give look for drink rain water

nəʔ^{R1} ʔumɿiʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1} lət^{R1} hər^{R1} nan^{R1} kakk^huʔ^{R1}
 drink rain water already and go at branch of tree.

lət^{R1} mən^{R1} mən^{R1} kakk^huʔ^{R1} hər^{R1} hər^{R1} nan^{R1} kakk^huʔ^{R1}
 then eat eat branch of tree go go at branch of tree

lət^{R1} ʔon^{R1} som^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} ʔum^{R1} soʔ^{R1}
 then not want drink water Fp

ʔaʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} kok^{R1} kok^{R1} ʔuʔuʔ^{R1} nuh^{R1} teʔ^{R1} soʔ^{R1}
 it and call call the sound of gibbon do this Fp

ʔaʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} tuŋtuŋ^{R1} tiriʔ^{R1} tuŋtuŋ^{R1} tiriʔ^{R1}
 it then put...under hand Poss put...under hand Poss

naŋ^{R1} ʔumliʔ^{R1} soʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} nəʔ^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} ʔajur^{R1} soʔ^{R1}
 at rain water Fp then drink it gibbon Fp

paniʔ^{R1} nəʔ^{R1}
 finish Fp

Free Translation

The Folktale of a Gibbon

For Plang people, it's believed that gibbons in a temple. The gibbon helped a monk clean his alms bowl. While the gibbon was cleaning the bowl, it broke the bowl. The monk got angry so he cursed it. It could not walk on the earth ever since. After that, it has to live only on trees. Moreover, it has to drink water from the rain because it cannot walk on the earth. It has to climb from one branch of a tree to the others. It always chatters on the tree "ook - ook".

8. Tale II

konwaʔ^{R1}

monkey

ʔuʔ^R naŋ^{R2} lah^{R1} ʔaconlaj^{R1} konwaʔ^{R1} kah^{R2} ləmiʔ^{R1} soʔ^{R1}
 I will tell tale monkey give all of you Fp

nəmmaʔ^{R1} makəŋ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} caŋ^{R1} lah^{R1} ləʔiʔ^{R1}
 previous times parents we usually tell all of us

nəmmaʔ^{R1} soʔ^{R1} nəmmaʔ^{R1} lah^{R1} məh^{R1} konwaʔ^{R1}
 previous time Fp previous time say be monkey

tajaʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} caŋ^{R1} lah^{R1} ləʔiʔ^{R1}
 elderly people we usually tell all of us

caŋ^{R1} lah^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} məh^{R1} ʔaconlaj^{R1} plaŋ^{R1} kontəj^{R1} nəmmaʔ^{R1}
 usually tell which be tale Plang Kontoj previous time--

lət^{R1} ʔew^{R1} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} p^hriʔ^{R1} muk^{R1} naŋ^{R1} p^hriʔ^{R1}
 and look for stay at forest stay at forest

maklət^{R1} rət^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} kok^{R1} konriʔ^{R1}
 until finally arrive who and call child Poss

məʔ^{R1} ʔiʔuk^{R1} kətiʔ^{R1} ʔiʔam^{R1} kətiʔ^{R1}
 name Ouk one Oam one

tajaʔ^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} caŋ^{R2} lah^{R1} ʔaʔ^{R1} nəmmaʔ^{R1} sɔʔ^{R1}
 elderly people we usually tell which previous time Fp

lət^{R1} həʀ^{R1} kok^{R1} kɔnriʔ^{R1}
 and go call child Poss

kɔn^{R1} ʔəj^{R1} ...kɔn^{R1} ʔəp^{R1} rɔt^{R1} ʔət^{R1} nəʔ^{R1}
 child Fp child rice arrive already Fp

ʔəŋ^{R1} juŋ^{R1} poʔ^{R1} ʔəŋ^{R1} juŋ^{R1} poʔ^{R1}
 go village Fp go village Fp

lah^{R1} lət^{R1} seʔ^{R1} maj^{R1} kɔnriʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R1} ʔəŋ^{R1} nɔc^{R1}
 tell then Fp with child Poss not come Fp

ʔəŋ^{R1} k^hraʔ^{R1} pan^{R1} kəʔ^{R1} ʔat^{R1} ləsuʔ^{R1} kwaj^{R1}
 come way up side then afraid all dogs bark .

ʔiʔ^{R1} ʔəŋ^{R1} k^hraʔ^{R1} cɔj^{R1} pəj^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} cən^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1}
 we come way down person who laugh we

ʔuʔ^{R2} kuj^{R1} sataʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1} ʔiʔ^{R1} kəʔ^{R1} kuj^{R1} hək^{R1}
 I have tail already we then have hairs

ʔət^{R1} lah^{R1} siʔ^{R1} ləmaʔ^{R1} ləkəpriʔ^{R1}
 already tell like that every mothers every fathers Poss

lah^{R1} maniʔ^{R1} kənniʔ^{R1} rot^{R1} ləmakəŋ^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1}
 tell mother Poss father Poss until all of parents who go

lah^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} ʔon^{R1} ʔeŋ^{R1} seʔ^{R1} lah^{R1} kiʔ^{R1} muk^{R1} p^hriʔ^{R1}
 tell who not go Fp tell who stay forest

ləkiʔ^{R1} lət^{R1} kutət^{R1} məh^{R1} kəŋwaʔ^{R1} ʔət^{R1} soʔ^{R1}
 they then became be monkey finish Fp

Free Translation

The Folktale of a monkey

I will tell you about the folktale of a monkey. My parent told me about children who went into a forest. They didn't want to return home. Those children would turn to monkeys. Their parents tried to find them. They called their names and asked them to return home. Those children could not go home because they have tails. Their bodies were covered with long hair. They also felt embarrassed because everyone would laugh at them. Moreover, along the way home they met dogs. The dogs barked and frightened them. Therefore, they told their parents that they would not go home. They have to live in live in the forest because they turned into monkeys.

9. Dialogue I

A: miʔ^{R1} jaŋ^{R1} sum^{R1} kaʔ^{R1}
 you still eat (rice) Qfp
 ‘Have you had lunch yet?’

B: ʔuʔ^{R2} sum^{R1} sak^{R1} ʔət^{R1}
 I eat(rice) full already
 ‘Yes, I have.’

A: piʔ^{R1} təʔ^{R1} kəŋɔʔ^{R1}
 you eat(with) what
 ‘What did you eat?’

B: təʔ^{R1} taŋ^{R1} klon^{R1} kaŋ^{R1} k^həsom^{R1}
 eat(with) pound hot shrimp-paste sauce tomato
 ‘I had rice with Nam – Prig – Ma – Kaew – Som (spicy sauce).’

A: num^{R1} kaʔ^{R1}
 Delicious Qfp
 ‘Was it delicious?’

B: num^{R1} jɛn^{R1}
 Delicious Fp
 ‘Sure, very delicious.’

A: miʔ^{R1} sum^{R1} hən^{R1} kaʔ^{R1}

You eat much Qfp

‘Did you eat a lot?’

B: sum^{R1} hən^{R1} jɛn^{R1}

Eat much Fp

‘Yes, a lot.’

A: hansaʔ^{R1} naŋ^{R2} klɔn^{R1} naŋ^{R2} kin^{R1} t^hɛm^{R1} leh^{R1}

Next day will pound will eat again. come

sum^{R1} maj^{R1} miʔ^{R1} ʔəʔ^{R1}

eat with you Fp

‘Tomorrow, I will eat rice with Nam – Prig – Ma – Kaew – Som again.’

Would you like to join us?

B: ləh^{R1} sum^{R1} k^hɛm^{R1} ʔəʔ^{R1}

come eat together Fp

‘Oh, sure. I will.’

A: piʔ^{R1} hɛr^{R1} naŋnɔʔ^{R1}

You, two go where

‘By the way, where are you going?’

B: hɛr^{R1} ɲar^{R1} sip^hanraj^{R1}

go field specific name

‘To “Se – pan – Rai”’

10. Dialogue II

məj: miʔ^{RI} təʔ^{RI} por^{RI} kanəʔ^{RI}

you eat evening what

Mey: 'What did you have you for dinner?'

k^hot: təʔ^{RI} kalə^{RI}

eat name of vegetable

Khot: 'I had rice with Ka - Ler (one kind of vegetable).'

məj: k^hot^{RI} naŋnəʔ^{RI} soʔ^{RI}

harvest where Fp

Mey: 'Ka - Ler: Were did you get it?'

k^hot: k^hot^{RI} naŋ^{RI} lammotip^{RI} soʔ^{RI}

harvest at Lammotip Fp

Khot: 'I got it from Rum- Mor -Thip.'

məj: k^hot^{RI} lammotip^{RI} tɕəʔ^{RI} sum^{RI} hən^{RI} ləkəʔ^{RI}

harvest Lammotip those cat much Fp

Mey: 'Oh, Rum - Mor - Thip! It's far from here. OK, enjoy your meal.'

məj:^{RI} pansaʔ^{RI} naŋ^{RI} toʔ^{RI} t^hem^{RI} titsəʔ^{RI}

tomorrow will visit again Fp

Mey: 'Tomorrow I will visit you again.'

BIOGRAPHY

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