SEALS 25 Abstracts

Plenary Session:
Unity of Textiles but Diversity of Language: A Case Study of the “Ban Rai Lao Khang” in Uthaithani Province
Theraphan Luangthongkum

Review of Classification and ISO Codes for Languages of Mainland Southeast Asia
Evaluation Metrics for ISO 639-3
Doug Cooper
A call for an ISO 639-3 Working-Group for languages of SEAsia
Paul Sidwell and Nate Cheeseman

SEALS 25 Papers
On Etyma for ‘Chicken’, ‘Duck’, and ‘Goose’ among Language Phyla in China and Southeast Asia
Mark Alves
The Hypotactic Structure in Sentences in Iu Mien
T. Daniel Arisawa
Phonological sketch of the Bit language of Luang Namtha, Laos
Nathan Badenoch
Types of reduplication in Helong
Misriani Balle
A componential analysis of two Lahu classifiers
Bianca Basch
Watersheds and language mapping
Brad Chamberlain
Obstruents in Proto-Ong-Be: A reconstruction
Yen-Ling Chen
Intonational Contours in Boro
Kalyan Das
About verbal prefixation in Khmer
Paillard Denis
The pragmatic meaning of Ibanag discourse particles
Shirley Dita
Burma Khamti and language classification in Southwestern Tai
Rikker Dockum
Phonological Features and the Vowels of Surin Khmer
Patricia Donegan and Diana Stojanovic
Vowel Height and Register Assignment: Case Studies from the Katuic Languages
Ryan Gehrmann
Genetic Connections between Tai, Kadai and Austronesian Languages
Matthias Gerner
Monosyllables in Malayic
David Gil
A report on the documentation and translation of the Tai Ahom manuscripts: an observation on the use of the finite and the non finite particle in these manuscripts
Poppy Gogoi
Benefactive and instrumental constructions in Muak Sa-aak, a Palaungic language
Elizabeth Hall
The Phonology of Tone in Thadou
Marykim Haokip
Two Akeu Dialects in Myanmar and China
Norihiko Hayashi
A Reconstruction of Vowels and Stress in Proto-Timor-Alor-Pantar
Tyler Heston
Revisiting the dichotomy between Relative Clause and Noun Complement Clause in Thai
Kamolchanok Hongthong and Kingkarn Thepkanjana ................................................................. 29

The classification of Na Meo, a Hmong-Mien language of Vietnam
Andrew Hsiu ..................................................................................................................................... 30

Polyfunctionality of the Postverbal Aspect Marker: The Case of ‘FINISH’ and Its Variants in the Zhuang
Yang Huang ...................................................................................................................................... 31

Expressing Profanity In Kagan And Tausug Languages
Sajed Ingilan and Rodney Jubilado ................................................................................................. 33

Two-part negation in Yang Zhuang
Eric Jackson ...................................................................................................................................... 34

‘Get’ as a grammaticalized modal in White Hmong: How and why it differs post-verbally from other MSEA languages
Nerida Jarkey .................................................................................................................................... 35

Emergent noun incorporation in Burmese as a syntactic phenomenon
Mathias Jenny .................................................................................................................................... 36

Argument Extraction in Isamal Ergatives
Rodney Jubilado ............................................................................................................................... 38

Productivity of morphological patterns and social domain analysis in Papuan Malay
Angela Kluge .................................................................................................................................... 39

The loss of the proto-velar finals in Standard Jingpho
Keita Kurabe ..................................................................................................................................... 40

Proto-Nuosu Language
Ziwo Qiu-Fuyuan LAMA .................................................................................................................. 41

Modals in Hlai
Hui-Chi Lee ...................................................................................................................................... 42

Yang Zhuang Poetry
Hanbo Liao ....................................................................................................................................... 43

Further exploration into the possible function of naak in Hakha Chin
Daniel Loss and Bawi Tawng ......................................................................................................... 44

Light Verb in Urdu
Riaz Ahmed Mangrio ....................................................................................................................... 45

Verbal suffixes of Mao
Elangbam Manimohon and Potsangbam Madhubala ...................................................................... 46

Differences and similarities of the first and second person references: A comparison between Thai and Japanese
Natsuki Matsui .................................................................................................................................. 47

On the Semantics of Pragmatic Particles
Eric Mccready ................................................................................................................................... 48

Tonal sesquisyllables in Jinghpaw?
André Müller .................................................................................................................................... 49

Verb Serialization and lexical reanalysis: The case of compound verbs in Meiteiron (Manipuri)
Pramodini Devi Nameirakpam........................................................................................................ 50

Origin of the numeral ‘five’ in the Northwestern Formosan languages:
Revision of the Proto-Austronesian numeral system
Izumi Ochiai ..................................................................................................................................... 51

Tai Khuen Phonology and Orthography
Wyn Owen ......................................................................................................................................... 52

Prosody and information structure in Burmese
Pavel Ozerov ..................................................................................................................................... 53

Languages in contact: the case of Phu Thai
Jean Pacquement ............................................................................................................................. 54

A Diachronic Study on Grammaticalization: Focusing on Directional Verbs in Thai
Kyung Eun Park ............................................................................................................................... 55

OCP Effects in Suffixes with Burmese Creaky Tone
Jeremy Perkins, Seunghun Lee, and Julián Villegas ......................................................................... 56
The extended functions of Northern Pwo Karen me ‘be.true’
Audra Phillips ................................................................................................................................. 57

Distinctive Verbs of Thai Teenagers’ speech
Apisara Pholnarat .......................................................................................................................... 58

Reduplication in Thai Sign Language
Nattaya Piriyawiboon ...................................................................................................................... 59

Verb Morphology in Rawang: A Comparison of the Lungmi and Matwang Varieties
Rachel Powelson .................................................................................................................................. 60

Identity and language use on Twitter: A comparative analysis of tweets by Thai celebrity and ordinary users
Woramon Prawatmuang and Warit Prawatmuang ........................................................................ 61

Vietnamese Classifiers and the Expression of Definiteness and Indefiniteness
Kim Ngoc Quang, and Walter Bisang ............................................................................................ 62

An Exploration of Syntax Phonology Interface Problems in Khmer
Ivanna Richardson ............................................................................................................................ 63

Classifiers and gender in NE India: Evidence of language contact?
Hiram Ring ......................................................................................................................................... 64

The Acquisition of Classifiers in Thai Preschool Children
Phetprapa Sangkharam .................................................................................................................... 65

From Strength to Progressivity: A Diachronic Study of Thai /kamlan/
Wannabha Sapphasit and Naruadol Chancharu ............................................................................ 66

On the plain-causative verb pairs in Lhaovo
Hideo Sawada ..................................................................................................................................... 67

Contact and convergence in Northern Austroasiatic
Paul Sidwell ........................................................................................................................................ 68

Pronoun retention in RC formation of L2 learners of Thai
Wutthinan Sitecha ................................................................................................................................ 69

Globalization in Code-Mixing: A Case Study of Lanna (Northern Thai) Context
Phattharathanit Srichomthong .......................................................................................................... 70

Comprehension of the Shecyü variety across Tangshang
Nathan Statezni ..................................................................................................................................... 71

The logic of kinship terms in Rawang
Nathan Straub .................................................................................................................................... 72

Verb-Stem Alternations in Horpa Languages
Jackson T.-S. Sun and Qianzi Tian .................................................................................................... 73

Nasal copying in Hmongic
Yoshihisa Taguchi ............................................................................................................................. 74

Linguistic Features of Mid-18th Century Yang Zhuang as Reflected in the “Sino-Foreign Translated Words”
Chung-Pui Tai and Hanbo Liao ....................................................................................................... 75

The pragmatic functions of the question word what in Cebuano
Michael Tanangkingsing .................................................................................................................. 76

Functional Extension of the Verb for ‘to like’ in Thai to the Frequentative Aspectual Marker
KachenTansiri and Kingkarn Thepkanjana ....................................................................................... 77

Reading syllable-spaced vs. word-spaced text in Hmong Daw: Breaking up isn’t so hard to do
Seth Vitrano-Wilson .......................................................................................................................... 78

An investigation of the merger of -ak and -at/-ap finals in Burmese
Justin Watkins ...................................................................................................................................... 79

Toward a typology of irrealis: A case study of White Hmong in its Mainland Southeast Asian context
Nathan White ........................................................................................................................................ 80

Agency and ideology in Thai discourse: A case study of political science texts
Ingrid Wijeyewardene ....................................................................................................................... 81

Hkongso word order: an anomaly
Jonathan Wright ................................................................................................................................. 82
Expressing Cantonese tone contrasts in musical intervals
Suki Yiu............................................................................................................................................ 84

Noun Incorporation in Tagalog
Louward Allen Zubiri....................................................................................................................... 85

SEALS 25 Posters
The Givenness/Saliency Hierarchy in Assamese
Larin Adams and Iftiqar Rahman ..................................................................................................... 86

Phonetic Variation and the Documentation of Phonology in Paiwan
Chun-Mei Chen .................................................................................................................................. 87

An initial report of code mixing phenomena in Amis elders
Yi-Ting Chen.................................................................................................................................... 88

Adjectives as a distinct class in Mising
Sarat Kumar Doley ........................................................................................................................... 89

A Preliminary Study on Phong Phonology
Niharika Dutta .................................................................................................................................. 90

Migration and Creation of New Language Contact Situation in the Chittagong Hill Tracts of Bangladesh
Razaul Faquire and Sano Mitsuhiko................................................................................................. 91

Grammatical Sketch of Bisakol
Ana Cristina Fortes ........................................................................................................................... 92

Length contrasts of high vowels in the Thai language of Sukhothai period: What do inscriptions say?
Sireemas Maspong............................................................................................................................ 93

Marker of Simultaneity as a Case of ‘Extra-Lexical Grammaticalization’: A Cross Linguistic Study of Indian Languages
Resmi Prakash .................................................................................................................................. 94

Merger of tones 3 (a thee) and 4 (hpluh see) in Sgaw Karen
Karl Reza Sarvestani ........................................................................................................................ 95

A comparative study of Hpun and Myanmar sound systems
Tun Aung Kyaw .................................................................................................................................. 96

Fourth International Workshop on the Sociolinguistics of Language Endangerment

Introduction: Parameters of the sociolinguistics of language endangerment
David BRADLEY............................................................................................................................. 98

Evaluating language endangerment: What do we know? What do we need to know?
M. Paul LEWIS ................................................................................................................................ 99

Training indigenous scholars for language revitalization:
Collaboration between academia and communities
Rolando COTO-SOLANO and Maureen HOFFMAN................................................................... 100

Gender and age-related factors in the documentation of Paiwan lexicon and phonology
CHEN Chunmei................................................................................................................................ 101

Ethnolinguistic vitality of the language of Atchin, central Vanuatu: A survey of the language’s status, institutional support and demography.
Marie DUHAMEL.......................................................................................................................... 102

Language endangerment factors: A case study with Bih
Tam NGUYEN .................................................................................................................................. 103

Lopez Agta: Rediscovering its language and people
Aldrin L. SALIPANDE .................................................................................................................... 104

The process of preserving Moken from extinction
Naw Say Bay ................................................................................................................................... 105

An update on the status of Rengmitca and further insights into its endangerment
David A. Peterson........................................................................................................................... 106
Challenge to discover endangered Tibetic varieties in the easternmost Tibetosphere:
A case study on Dartsendo Tibetan
Hiroyuki SUZUKI and Sonam Wangmo................................................................. 107

The linguistic situation in the Indo-Burma border area, particularly in the northern Chin State of Myanmar and Churachandpur District of Manipur, India
S. Dal Sian Pau........................................................................................................ 108

A brief introduction of the historical development of the Achang
XIONG Shunqing ..................................................................................................... 109

The Lamu language of the Lahu in Binchuan County, Yunnan
LIU Jinrong ............................................................................................................. 110

Second Workshop on Issues in Kuki-Chin Linguistics

MacNabb's Lai Grammar
George Bedell ........................................................................................................ 112

Contextual Variation of Low and Rising Tones in Mizo
Leena Dihingia, and Wendy Lalthringhlui, and Priyankoo Sarmah ..................... 113

Verb paradigms in Monsang
Linda Konnerth and Koninglee Wanglar................................................................. 114

Complex Sentences in Lemi Chin
Helga So-Hartmann and U Reng Sung ................................................................. 115

Pitch Realization in Thadou
Anusree Sreenivasan ............................................................................................. 116

Tone in Hyow
Zakaria Muhammad ......................................................................................... 117

Contributor emails ............................................................................................... 118
Unity of Textiles but Diversity of Language: A Case Study of the “Ban Rai Lao Khang” in Uthaithani Province

Theraphan Luangthongkum
Chulalongkorn University

It is known that there are many Lao speaking groups in Central Thailand, i.e. Lao Vieng, Lao Tai (Southern Lao), Lao Phuan/Tai Phuan/Phuan, Lao Ka, Lao Ngaeo, Lao Isan (Northeastern Thai) and Lao Khang/Lao Khrang/Thai Khang/Tai Khrang. The Lao Khang are scattered in many provinces: Phetchabun, Kanchanaburi, Kamphaengphet, Chainat, Tak, Nakhonpathom, Nakhonsawan, Phichit, Phitsanulok, Ratchaburi, Lopburi, Sukhothai, Suphanburi, Uttaradit and Uthaithani. Their language and textiles have been sporadically studied by a few linguists, anthropologists and textile experts. They are identified as “Lao Khang” because of their clothing, especially the red colour and motifs of their ikat tube skirt. Some of them believe that their ancestors migrated from Vientiane and Luangprabang about two hundred years ago.

This research project on “The Tai-Lao Textiles and Languages of Ban Rai District, Uthaithani Province”, sponsored by the Mahachakkri Sirindhorn Foundation, was conducted from January-December, 2014, to commemorate the 60th birthday of H.R.H. Princess Maha Chakri Sirindhorn in 2015. In addition to textiles and languages (with the emphasis on tone systems), the history of the migration of the Lao Khang from Northern Laos to Central Thailand was also studied. Old maps were very useful in proving the existence of Mueang Khang in the past before it was devastated by Luangprabang and Vientiane troops at the command of Siam. When they first arrived in Kingdom of Siam captives were sent to Mueang Nakhonchaisi or present day Nakhonpathom Province.

According to my findings, it can be concluded that the Lao Khang is not an ethnic group but, judged by the languages they speak, consists an amalgam of ethnic groups, both Lao and non-Lao. About nine varieties of Southwestern Tai are spoken in Ban Rai district. Among the nine varieties found, only three varieties are typical Lao, i.e. DL≠B, C1=DL123 and C234=DL4. Textile motifs, weaving techniques and clothing can be copied, adapted or changed but their languages have been well preserved. In fact, they should be referred to as “the Tai-Lao ethnic groups from Mueang Khang which used to be in Xiang Khwang, Northern Laos. Unfortunately, Mueang Khang no longer exists today.

References

บังเอิญ บังเอิญ. .2541. ลาวกับถิ่นนำไปสันทราย. กรุงเทพฯ:มหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์.
มณี ภาระพันธ์ และเยาว์ เจริญ. .2548. สารานุกรมกลุ่มชาตินวนยุกในประเทศไทย ล้านคร้า. กรุงเทพฯ:สถาบันวิจัยภาษาและวัฒนธรรมเพื่อพัฒนาขันบบ มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล.
ISO 639-3 defines codes for “comprehensive coverage of language.” A consequence of its well-established success is that it is increasingly called on to adjudicate more complex linguistic situations, evoked in non-linguistic applications, challenged by more methodical or programmatic linguistic scrutiny (e.g. Hammarström 2014a, 2014b, Morey et al 2013), and extended by other semiformal standards (Davis 2009).

As Registration Agency (RA) for ISO 639-3, SIL International manages the process of adding, retiring, and changing specific language codes and denotations. However, the RA is only one of many stakeholders who use and are affected by ISO 639-3, or are able to improve the quality and acceptance of the standard. Given that the five major Southeast Asian language families (AA, AN, HM, KD, and ST) comprise more than a quarter of the extant ISO 639-3 codes, the SEALS conference seems like a suitable place to begin to identify and seek means of addressing these broader concerns.

Viewed in its entirety, ISO 639-3 has several distinct aspects:
• data – the codes and formal language names,
• metadata – the denotation of the languages,
• process – how the codes are maintained, modified, and disseminated,
• documentation – how the ISO 639-3 process itself is documented / disseminated.

We will discuss ways these elements might be evaluated; not to criticize the standard or add to the RA’s workload, but to provide feedback on what should be assessed, identify ways that all stakeholders can contribute to this effort, help support an evidence-based decision-making process, and increase the authority and acceptance of the standard.

Any evaluation will of necessity be ongoing, indirect, and oriented toward automated aggregation and assessment; see (Hughes 2004) for a similar exercise on OLAC metadata. For example, in regard to ISO 639-3 metadata, we might establish yardsticks for the type, extent, and number of sources provided in support of each denotation, e.g.:

• what types and extent of supporting linguistic evidence or analysis are provided?
• are speaker areas identified by formal administrative names? point or polygon data?
• is demographic data given?
• are sources for all data cited and discoverable? are they openly accessible?
• are multiple sources of support data (e.g. Ethnologue, Glottolog) cited?
• are variants that fall within this ISO 639-3 denotation similarly documented?
• is there any indication of the acceptability / comprehensibility of the canonical ISO 639-3 language among language variant speaker groups?

A call for an ISO 639-3 Working-Group for languages of SEAsia

Paul Sidwell and Nate Cheeseman
ANU, Canberra; Linguistics Institute, Payap University

Despite the reasoned concerns and objections of some scholars (e.g. Morey & Post 2013), the ISO 639-3 codes for languages have become an indispensable industry standard and are now widely used in linguistics for reference, especially in the Ethnologue (Lewis et. al. 2015). Complementing the ISO 639-3 are the Glottolog glottocodes (Hammarström et. al.) which map more or less directly onto ISO 639-3, but suffer similar problems.

The state of documentary linguistics, language survey, and comparative-historical and phylogenetic analyses, are reaching a point at which we speak of an effectively comprehensive listing of the languages of SEAsia. However, it is increasingly evident that there are serious problems with the existing ISO assignments and a review is indicated. Problems include:

- Multiple codes assigned to single languages,
- Multiple languages assigned to single codes,
- Newly recognised languages requiring codes,
- Revised or contested language classifications,
- Ambiguity in the distinctions of language, dialect, languoid, doculect etc.,
- Mapping/interoperability with other naming/coding standards

The present ad-hoc approach of having individual scholars approach the ISO and Ethnologue piecemeal with suggested corrections/changes/augmentations is chaotic and fails to address underlying structural issues around consistency in defining/distinguishing languages and standards for classifications.

It is proposed that it would be in the general interest of SEASian regional linguistics to convene a broadly working group to coordinate/carry out a general review of ISO codes on a commonly agreed basis. The review would not only repair the existing listings, but provide an authoritative basis for further revision/extension of the ISO 639-3 in the SEAsian region.

As SEALS annually brings together a cross-section of the active SEAsian research community, it is an ideal point of contact for such a working group, which could be constituted as a flagship SEALS project. Suggestions for proposals to be put to the SEALS business meeting will be invited.

References

On Etyma for ‘Chicken’, ‘Duck’, and ‘Goose’ among Language Phyla in China and Southeast Asia

Mark Alves
Montgomery College

This paper surveys historical linguistic and relevant zooarchaeological studies of words for domesticated poultry, including ‘chicken’, ‘goose’, and ‘duck’, in China and mainland Southeast Asia. Zooarchaeological evidence shows these birds were domesticated in China and Southeast Asia, and all language phyla (Austroasiatic, Austronesian, Hmong-Mien, Sino-Tibetan, and Tai-Kadai) in the region have reconstructions for these words. This situation makes it worth attempting to relate the domestication events to specific language groups. In many instances, the linguistic, archaeological, and historical evidence supports Sinitic as the linguistic source in the Sinosphere, though Austroasiatic and Tai languages in mainland Southeast Asia appear to form additional centers of lexical forms. However, due to conflicting hypotheses within and among the fields of historical linguistics and archaeology, only tentative ethnolinguistic claims can be made pending additional clarifying evidence. Another issue that emerges from the lexical data is recurrence of onomatopoeia as a word-formation strategy for terms for birds (both wild and domestic) among languages in the region. This creates an additional layer of complexity that can further complicate claims of interphyla borrowing. Nevertheless, geographic regions of etyma for domesticated birds may represent initial instances of bird domestication, or significant advances in bird husbandry by the linguistic group in the region, with spread both words and cultural practices.

Summary of key word forms and possible language group sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Birds</th>
<th>Forms</th>
<th>Likely Sources</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>chicken</td>
<td>KAI</td>
<td>Sinitic</td>
<td>loanword in Kradai and Hmong-Mien</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>KRAK</td>
<td>Sino-Tibetan</td>
<td>onomatopoeia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>?IAR</td>
<td>Austroasiatic</td>
<td>loanword in Kuki-Chin-Naga</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duck</td>
<td>AP</td>
<td>uncertain source</td>
<td>onomatopoeia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PIT</td>
<td>Tai</td>
<td>spread into Vietic and other Austroasiatic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DA?</td>
<td>Austroasiatic</td>
<td>most widespread poultry word in Austroasiatic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goose</td>
<td>NGAN / NGA</td>
<td>Sinitic</td>
<td>loanword in Hmong-Mien and Kradai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HAAN</td>
<td>Kradai via Sinitic</td>
<td>loanword in MSEA Austroasiatic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Hypotactic Structure in Sentences in Iu Mien

T. Daniel Arisawa
La Trobe University and Chiang Rai Rajabhat University

This paper describes the structure of subordinate clauses in Iu Mien from the perspectives of sentence and discourse. The hypotaxis is viewed as a component of sentences as Longacre (2007) defines “sentences as combinations of clauses”. The eight subordinate clauses marked by the following elements are investigated: (i) cause clause marked by laaix ‘due to’, (ii) conditional clause se gornv...nor [try say...as] ‘if’, (iii) concessive clause maiv gunv [NEG rule] ‘though’, (iv) temporal clause nyei ziangh hoc [POS time mark] ‘at the time when’, (v) purpose clause weic ‘in order that’, (vi) reason clause weic zuqc [for TOUCH_ADVERSAIVE] ‘because’, (vii) manner clause hnangv...wuov nor [like...DEM as] ‘as if’, (viii) temporal clause wuov zanc [DEM time] ‘when’. They mark subordinate clauses (CL_SUBORDINATE) rather than the main ones (CL_MAIN) in that the clauses marked by them cannot stand alone.

The eight constructions can be grouped into two types based on the order of [CL_1]SUB and [CL_2]MAIN (numbers in subscript indicating that clause 1 precedes clause 2). Type A: [CL_1]SUB marked by (i) – (iv) precedes [CL_2]MAIN in a sentence. Type B: [CL_2]SUB marked by (v) – (vii) tends to follow [CL_1]MAIN. There is a sub-type A’: the temporal clause marked by (viii) needs further explanations. That is, the phrase wuov zanc often occurs at the beginning of CL_2, in which case CL_2 is no longer a clause in a composite sentence but a separate sentence lead by the inter-sentential conjunction wuov zanc ‘then’. Example (1) represents Type A:

(1) [mv.gunv ninh ndongc naaic gox]CL_SUB
   though 3SG as.much.as DEM elderly
   ‘Though he is as old as that,

   [mv.baac ninh mv.zuqc dangh muo-ziux mangc]CL_MAIN
   but 3SG no.need wear spectacles lool.at
   nonetheless he does not have to wear glasses to look at (things).’

An example from Type B is (2):

(2) [Oix.zuqc daix norm jai]CL_MAIN [weic tim.mienh.kuv]CL_SUB
   must kill CLF chicken in.order.that register.with.guardian.spirit
   ‘(People) must kill a chicken in order to register (a bride with household guardian spirits).’

The different orders between the two types, i.e. [CL_1]SUB - [CL_2]MAIN vs. [CL_1]MAIN - [CL_2]SUB, are explained from the discourse perspective as Matthiessen and Thompson (1988) say “one must appeal to the discourse context in which the clause in question appears” and information structure (Lambrecht 1994).

References
Phonological sketch of the Bit language of Luang Namtha, Laos

Nathan Badenoch
Kyoto University

The Bit language, also known as Khabit or Khabet, is a Mon-Khmer language spoken by approximately 2,000 people in northern Laos and perhaps 400 in southern Yunnan. There are speakers of what seems to be a variety of Bit in Vietnam as well.

This paper will present a basic sketch of the phonology of Bit, as spoken in Luang Namtha province of northwestern Laos. The data is based on the author’s fieldwork conducted over the period of 2010 to the present. Analysis draws on a 4,500 item lexicon, audio-video recordings of oral literature, participant observation in village life and extensive discussion with native speakers. Several aspects of interest include:

- 10-vowel system with long-short contrast throughout
- stop contrast in voicing only, aspirated stops only on borrowings
- voiced stops /b d j/ phonetically preglottalized
- absence of /g/ in stop inventory
- rich inventory of coda /p t k c’ /s h /m n n̂ p/ /l r w y/, basically everything except voiced stops
- numerous minor-syllable combinations

Bit also has complex morphological processes, including prefixation and infixation, which can work together.

- simple prefixes p- t- k- c- b- m- s- r- l-
- complex prefixes pl- pr- tl- tr- kl- kr- pN- tN- kN- cN mN sN rN
- infixes -r- -m- -n- -rn-

Some of these are rather productive, some are transparent but not productive. Expressive morphology, through rhyme reduplication and insertion, creates numerous consonant combinations at the head of the word. Bit also tends to reduce the first element of a compound to a minor syllable, giving the impression of a preference for sesquisyllabic word structure. Thus Bit is conservative with regards to the coda, but the productive forces at the onset position can be rather complex.
Types of reduplication in Helong

Misriani Balle
Payap University

Helong [ISO: heg] is an Austronesian language spoken at the western end of Timor Island and immediately to the west on the island of Semau. Small communities of Helong speakers can also be found across Indonesia including Bali and Jakarta. The total number of speakers is unknown but is estimated around 14,000-17,000 (Grimes et al, 1997: 41-42).

This presentation will describe the process of reduplication in Helong, from both a morphological and a phonological perspective. First I will look at the semantics of reduplication in this language, including its various grammatical functions. Next the phonological structure of these forms will be defined by appealing to the prosodic model of Reduplication Theory (McArthy). Finally, the metathesis process that occurs only within the reduplicated forms will be accounted for.

Often semantic functions of reduplication are aspectual. Below, the verb haman ‘call’ is reduplicated in two different ways. First, by copying the first syllable of the base indicates partial reduplication, and second by copying the first and second syllable and eliminating the last consonant of the base, as the example below:

Un haman au. ‘He called me’
Un ha-haman le kae. ‘He calls until he is tired (one event/continues)’
Un hama-haman mo oen ming lo. ‘He called and called but they didn’t hear (multiple events/repetition)’
Partial reduplication focuses on time of calling while full reduplication focuses on the action of calling.

Also reduplication interacts with metathesis. The suffix –s in Helong indicates plurality. Metathesis within reduplication with a pluralized noun also indicates definiteness (which cows), as the examples below illustrate.

Aus nia. ‘This cow.’
Aus nias. ‘These cows.’
Asu-aus nias. ‘These specific cows.’
A componential analysis of two Lahu classifiers

Bianca Basch
Payap University

Typical of Southeast Asian languages, Lahu uses noun classifiers. Although specific features differ between languages, generally a feature of the noun, such as function, shape, or gender, selects the appropriate classifier. This paper investigates contemporary overlap of the two classifiers: /kʰe/, a classifier traditionally used to count animals and /ga/, a classifier used to count vehicles. The use of /kʰe/ and /ga/ in the Lahu village of Huey Lu Luang in Chiang Rai, Thailand contradicts the given literature values. Using data collected from three interviews with villagers from Huey Lu Luang, a shared semantic domain of [motion-based animacy] was derived, and componential analysis was used to determine if LRP-provided components of /kʰe/ and /ga/ were diagnostic. Though LRP-provided components were determined supplementary, they provided important insight in developing the [+/- includes animal-like-forms] component, which when analyzed proved diagnostic. The results indicate that the semantic components of /kʰe/ and /ga/ have shifted from animacy-based features reflected in the literature to shape-based features, possibly due to the influence of Thai classifiers. Further research is needed to determine how wide-spread regionally and generationally these new components of /kʰe/ and /ga/ are, as well as to verify the source of semantic change.
Watersheds and language mapping

Brad Chamberlain
Payap University

This presentation introduces the idea of alignment between geographical watersheds and linguistic groupings on the Tibetan Plateau and in the Himalayas.

The people of the Tibetan Plateau and surrounding mountains speak numerous related language varieties (Tournadre estimates 220 varieties, in 25 major groupings). These languages share a common linguistic ancestry, while the peoples’ histories, cultures and religious institutions are all interconnected. As a result, we find many mutually unintelligible languages. Yet, while a language may share elements with a variety more than a thousand kilometers away, those same elements may differ from the variety in its neighboring valley.

In the Tibetan region, typological study and language mapping have proven difficult, not only due to the linguistic complexities, but also due to the logistics of a harsh climate, extreme geography, and political sensitivities.

The contours of this rugged landscape affect the contours of the languages. High mountain ridges and raging rivers form barriers for human migration and thereby mark language boundaries. However, these same river valleys are also the highways through which the languages have spread.

This presentation demonstrates that watersheds (literally, an area of land that catches all the rain and directs it to a stream, river or lake) correlate closely with known linguistic groupings through the region. While it is true that people groups have spread across mountain passes and between multiple watersheds, typological groupings can be readily identified through mapping human settlements to watersheds.

The result of such mapping is a new view of the relations between the language varieties in the region. For areas that have yet to be researched, consistent hypotheses for typological groupings can be arrived at. A watershed-based map of the languages in this region provides a starting point for understanding the relationships between language varieties.

The interesting work can then begin: identifying watersheds which have not been researched, explaining how certain linguistic features spread across major watersheds, or explaining anomalous data within a particular watershed.

In this presentation, the concept is applied in detail to the watersheds and languages of Bhutan, and then expanded out to the broader Tibetan region to underline the theory’s relevance, as well as highlight new questions that arise from its application.
Obstruents in Proto-Ong-Be: A reconstruction

Yen-Ling Chen
University of Hawaii at Manoa

Ong-Be (lit. ‘village people’), a.k.a. Lingaohua or Be, is a Kra-Dai language spoken on the northern part of Hainan Island of China, specifically Qiongshan County, Chengmai County, Lingao County, and Dan County. This paper is the first attempt to reconstruct initials and finals in Proto-Ong-Be using the standard Comparative Method (i.e. a bottom-up approach). Three Ong-Be varieties are chosen as the base for the reconstructions in this paper: (i) Lincheng of Lingao with data from Liang and Zhang (1997); (ii) Longtang of Qiongshan with data from Liang and Zhang (1997); (iii) Changliu for suburban Haikou with data from Xin (2008). Among these three varieties, Lincheng belongs to the western branch whereas Longtang and Changliu belong to the eastern branch (Liang & Zhang 1997; Xin 2008).

Generally speaking, the voicing of onsets tends to go hand in hand with the incipient stage of tonal developments (Haudricourt 1954; Matisoff 1973; Thurgood 1996, 2002). Kra-Dai languages are no exception. According to Ostapirat (1999), Norquest (2007), and Pittayaporn (2009), although modern Kra-Dai languages are canonically monosyllabic, accompanied by rich tonal systems, Proto Kra-Dai is very likely to have been either sesquisyllabic or disyllabic. Consonant clusters in the onset position are allowed in certain contemporary Kra-Dai languages though only one segment is permitted in the coda position. As for Ong-Be, its syllable structure is canonically CV(C) which lacks vowel length distinction, unlike the majority of Kra-Dai languages. No consonant clusters are allowed in either onset or coda. Ong-Be permits only nasals and stops in the coda position, and all the stop codas are voiceless unaspirated and unreleased (Liang & Zhang 1997; Xin 2008, among others). Grounded in the literature of tonogenesis, reconstruction for other Kra-Dai languages, and of the contemporary Ong-Be, reconstructions of proto initials and proto finals in Ong-Be will be presented in this study.

I propose in this study that there are 29 initials (including nasals (voiced and voiceless), preglottalized stops, plain unaspirated stops, fricatives, affricates, laterals (voiced and voiceless), trills and glides) and 7 finals (including nasals and voiceless stops) for Proto-Ong-Be. I have also observed and will show that Longtang of the eastern branch patterns with Lincheng of the western branch in terms of reflexes of *hw- and *w-. As for sound change mechanism, I suggest that fortition and spirantization were decisive in shaping Proto-Ong-Be the way it is today. For example, that *p- and *t- became /b/ and /d/ are instances of fortition, and that *w- became /v/ is an instance of spirantization.

Selected References
Intonational Contours in Boro
Kalyan Das
Pramathesh Barua College, Assam

This paper presents a production study examining the role intonation plays in a tone language like Boro. Boro belongs to the Tibeto-Burman group of languages, and forms a branch along with Dimasa, Tiwa and Kokborok. Boro lexically distinguishes L and H tones. The description of Boro tonal phonology has been presented in many studies like Burling (1959), Bhattacharya (1977), Weidert (1987), Sarmah (2004). But the description of the Boro intonational phonology has not been given substantive space in any study of the language barring a few minor comments on the overall contour patterns by Bhattacharya (1977) and Joseph and Burling (2006). In addition to these studies, Mahanta, Das and Gope (forthcoming) present a detailed account of the way narrow focus is expressed in Boro with the help of the morphological focus markers [sû] and [nû] attached to the argument. This paper aims at presenting an overview of the intonation patterns in Boro following the tradition of intonational phonology developed by studies like Pierrehumbert (1980), Beckman & Pierrehumbert (1986), Pierrehumbert & Beckman (1988). The study presented here is based on data collected from 4 male speakers of Boro. The data set consisted of 195 scripted sentences, each eliciting a particular type of utterance with different lexical tonal pattern as well as of different length. Each iteration of the individual sentences were analysed by extracting their pitch contour using the software- Praat 5.3.04_win32 (Boersma and Weenink, 2012) which helped in generating the pitch curves. For all the iterations, time normalized f0 contours, mean pitch, max pitch, min pitch and duration are extracted using the script Prosody Pro (Xu, 2013). The results show that the string of lexical tones in Boro can be modified by intonational tones like pitch accents and boundary tones. Intonational contours consisting of pitch accents plus boundary tones interact with the lexical tones in such a way that show mutual respect.

References:
Bhattacharya, Pramod Chandra. 1977. A Descriptive Analysis of the Boro Language. Department of Publication: Guwahati University.
Mahanta, Shakuntala, Kalyan Das and Amalesh Gope (forthcoming). The Phonetics and Phonology of Focus and Intonation in Boro.
About verbal prefixation in Khmer

Paillard Denis
Université Paris Diderot Laboratoire de linguistique formelle

In Khmer, « simple » verbs refer either to properties (SN – V syntax) or to activities. « Activity » does not refer to a type of process, but to a type of construction called thetic, where the arguments of the verb have no other determination than that given through their dependence on the V: the event expressed by the V is introduced as a whole.

This article presents a study of three verbal prefixes: /b+ nasal/, /p(-)/, and /pr-/. The prefixes /b+ nasal/, /p(h)-/ have given rise to two papers by Vogel (1996, 2014). The prefix /pr-/ (coming from the sanskrit pr- marking reciprocity) has not given rise to any detailed study.

About the prefix /b+ Nasal/

According to the initial consonant of the verbal stem, 4 allomorphs can be met: /b/, /bŋ/, /b/ and /b/. The stem can be that of a V expressing a property (ex. (1)) or an activity. A non verbal stem can also be found (in particular a N: ex. (2)).

Hypothesis: the prefix /b+ Nasal/ makes the process corresponding to the prefixed verb refer to a transformation; the prefixed verb comes under the SVO structure, where O takes another identity:

About the prefix /p(-)/

The stem can be a V expressing a property (ex. (3)) or an activity (ex. (4)).

Hypothesis: The prefix /p/-/ introduces a subject as an external cause activating the validation of the process expressed by the stem: S1 (S2 V (O))

About the prefix /pr-/

Hypothesis: the prefix /pr-/ means that each argument of the V stands in all the different syntactic positions: x V y & y V x (x and y are both S and O).

(5) is an example of strict reciprocity (reinforced by the presence of knie). But more complex cases can be met

Bibliography
The pragmatic meaning of Ibanag discourse particles

Shirley Dita
De La Salle University-Manila

shirley.dita@dlsu.edu.ph

This paper attempts to investigate the multifunctionality of discourse particles in Ibanag, a minor language which belongs to the Ibanagic family of Cagayan Valley in Northern Cordillera, Northern Luzon, Philippines.

Discourse particles (DPs) have been defined in various ways in literature. They are small words which do not contribute to the propositional content of the utterance which they modify. DPs are syntactically optional, multifunctional, and largely serve to express the speaker’s emotions or attitude (Ler, 2006). One of the functions of DPs, as opined by Schmerse, Lieven, & Tomasello (2014), is marking whether or not a speaker believes the content of the proposition that s/he uttered. Using a 250,000-word corpus of written formal and informal texts, this paper investigated the forms and functions of discourse particles in Ibanag.

The corpus yields 16 most common and recurring items of Ibanag discourse particles. Of the 6 items, ngana appears to be the most versatile item as it suggests various functions. The following are just few examples that exhibit the versatility and multifunctionality of ngana:

(1) Nanaw=da ngana.
left=ABS.3p already
‘They left already.’

(2) Sikamu ngana mappolu mazzigu.
ABS.2p already to.be.first bathe
‘You take a bath first (before anyone else).’

(3) Ari ngana massisigarilyu si Dencio.
NEG.EXI anymore smoking PERS Dencio
‘Dencio is not smoking anymore.’

(4) Sonu umma ngana yayya manaw.
FUT tomorrow already ABS.3s leave
‘S/he will leave already tomorrow.’

In (1), ngana a functions as post-adverbial modifier; as a preference over any alternative, when appearing immediately after an independent personal pronoun, as in (2); a termination of a recurring habit, as in (3); and expressing surprise when appearing in future temporal expressions, as in (4).

Further, there are various items that are highly idiosyncratic and ‘untranslatable’ in any language or may not have an exact equivalent. In summary, the pragmatic meanings of the DPs have been derived largely from the contexts from which they are uttered.
Burma Khamti and language classification in Southwestern Tai

Rikker Dockum
Yale University

Varieties of Khamti [ISO 639-3: kht] spoken in India and Burma (Myanmar) have largely been assumed to be the same, despite little comparative work between the two. This paper presents findings from 2014 fieldwork conducted in the Chindwin River valley, Khamti District, Burma. While uncontroversially classified as Southwestern Tai (SWTai), Khamti has been a point of disagreement. Chamberlain (1975) grouped Khamti with Shan, while Edmondson and Solnit (1997) place Khamti and Shan in separate sub-branches. Luo (2001) suggests Khamti may be part of a new branch of Tai altogether.

A significantly different tonal system is found in Khamti of the Chindwin River valley, with just four lexical tonemes instead of the five described in India. Analysis following Gedney (1972) shows a different history of splits and mergers, and Morey’s (2005) reconstruction of mid-19th century Khamti tones shows a system in some ways more similar to Khamti of modern Burma than modern India. As previous SWTai subgroupings have been based on Indian data, this requires revisiting both the question of Khamti’s alignment within SWTai, but also the use of tonal evidence for language classification generally.

The mismatch between tonal and segmental evidence can be resolved using the logic of the comparative method, and Khamti is presented as a case study in the utility of tonal evidence for language classification. Comparison of the modern and historical varieties allows us to reconstruct a tonal system of their nearest common ancestor, and the apparent conflict between the tonal and segmental evidence becomes mutual corroboration.

Additional documentation in Burma is needed to draw more firm conclusions and tease out relationships between closely related SWTai varieties. However, improving our understanding of tonal evidence in historical linguistics is critical for resolving both the immediate and larger Tai subgrouping problems, as well as classification issues in tonal languages generally, and Khamti provides us one example of how we can do so.

References


Phonological Features and the Vowels of Surin Khmer
Patricia Donegan and Diana Stojanovic
University of Hawai‘i at Manoa

Smalley (1976) and Diffloth (p.c.) describe Northern/Surin Khmer as having 14 monophthongal long vowels and three diphthongs. For typographic convenience, we write them:

iə įɔ uə
ii ɨɡ uu
ii ɨɡ oo
ee əɡ oo
ee əɡ əɡ
aa aa

Thomas and Wanna (1987-88), noting this unusual inventory, executed a brief acoustic study of the vowels of a single Northern Khmer speaker and presented initial instrumental confirmation of the inventory. They did not comment, however, on the puzzle that results for phonological feature theory.

Although the maximum set of height contrasts is thought to be to be five (Ladefoged and Maddieson 1987), phonologists have created successful analyses of most languages with three heights, using a tense-lax difference to distinguish pairs like [i] vs [ɨ], [ɛ] vs [ɛ] etc., and assuming that non-palatal non-labial vowels are phonetically lower than palatals or labials of the same height. But many phoneticians abandon the tense-lax distinction, claiming that it is not phonetically consistent, even though the different phonological behavior of these different sets is fairly well established – in sound change, tense or ‘peripheral’ vowels are raised, and lax, ‘non-peripheral’ vowels are lowered (Labov 1994), and the tense and lax vowels diphthongize differently.

Donegan (1985) offered evidence that phonetic value of tense vs. lax is strong vs weak ‘color’ – palatality (frontness) or labiality (rounding), so, for front and rounded vowels, five heights are easily handled with [high], [low], and [tense]. But the status of the tense-lax distinction with respect to non-front, non-round (thus, non-peripheral) vowels is not clear. Donegan’s definition cannot apply to vowels which are neither front nor round. And Surin Khmer has (at least) four such vowels: ɨ, ɨɡ, ɔ, ɔ. This raises the question whether there is some other feature – perhaps central vs. back – that distinguishes these vowels. The central-unrounded vs. back-unrounded contrast is rare, though not unknown. Parker (2000) lists a respectable number of cases.

Recordings of Surin Khmer speakers, 3 female and 2 male, were analyzed using Praat, confirming findings of Thomas and Wanna regarding the inventory. We will argue that the features shown in the following chart can characterize the vowels of Surin Khmer, and that they correspond to their phonetic values.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Lax</th>
<th>Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nonlabial</td>
<td>Labial</td>
<td>Nonlabial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palatal</td>
<td>Nonpalatal</td>
<td>Non-back Back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High ɨ i i y o u</td>
<td>Mid e e ə A ɔ o</td>
<td>Low a ɚ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References
Ladefoged, Peter, and Ian Maddieson. 1996. The sounds of the world’s languages. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.
Vowel Height and Register Assignment: Case Studies from the Katuic Languages

Ryan Gehrmann
Payap University

The Katuic languages, an Austroasiatic language family of Southeast Asia, have the distinction of having been used both to support the classical, Khmer model of registrogenesis and to show its limitations. While the West-Katuic languages have been shown to have developed register in a way that is largely analogous to Khmer, that is, voiced initial consonants conditioned lax register with accompanying devoicing of proto-language voiced stops, Diffloth (1982) showed how the Pacoh language is a register language which has devoiced the Proto-Katuic (PK) voiced stops but, nevertheless, does not show any correlation between PK initial consonant voicing and register assignment. Similarly, Ferlus (1974) and Diffloth (1989) both highlight the surprising lack of correspondence between PK initial consonant voicing and register in Ta’oi, another register language with devoiced PK initial stops.

Diffloth showed that in Pacoh, PK high vowels became lax, while low and mid vowels became tense. Lax mid vowels were subsequently introduced by vowel shifts. In analyzing new, more comprehensive data sets of Ta’oi and Kriang, I have found the same pattern of register assignment being correlated with PK vowel height, especially in Ta’oi, where high and mid vowels became lax and low vowels became tense. Tense high and mid vowel categories were subsequently introduced in Ta’oi by monophthongizations, while lax low vowels came in as the result of vowel shifts. This series of developments was more dramatic than what has been described in Pacoh, and yet very reminiscent of it. In Kriang of Cakam village, the expected tense/lax split after voiceless/voiced PK initial stops is preserved, but in vowels following most other initials, we find a register assignment pattern that is correlated with PK vowel height. This Kriang variety is therefore an important missing link between the Khmer model register assignment pattern seen in West-Katuic languages (i.e. register assignment based on PK initial voicing) and the fully proto-vowel height dependent register assignment pattern that is seen in Pacoh and Ta’oi.

In this paper, I discuss how the Proto-Katuic (PK) vowel inventory has developed differentially in the various Katuic languages that have register features, offering discussion on what each of these languages reveals about the registrogenetic process in general. Finally, I propose an expanded framework for conceptualizing registrogenesis, one which relates vocalic restructuring (i.e. the diphthongization of lax low vowels and tense high vowels) and register assignment by vowel height as two different strategies for accomplishing the same goal – the elimination of the dispreferred tense register high vowel and lax register low vowel categories, a crosslinguistic tendency discussed by Gregerson (1976).

References
Genetic Connections between Tai, Kadai and Austronesian Languages

Matthias Gerner
City University of Hong Kong

In this talk, I report on cooperation with scholars in Thailand and Taiwan. By using phylogenetic computational methods, we test the existence of genetic relationships between Tai (Thailand), Kadai (China) and Austronesian languages (Taiwan) which was originally proposed by Benedict (1942, 1975). First, we gauge the degree of genetic relatedness between Tai, Kadai and Formosan (Taiwanese) languages. The idea that Austronesian languages have originated from Taiwan is widely accepted. Between 4,000 and 2,000 BC, Austronesian speakers moved rapidly throughout the Pacific, a migration wave which is called by specialists of phylogenetics the “Express Train to Polynesia” (Gray & Jordan, 2000). Second, we test a hypothesis of population expansion according to which Tai-Kadai groups migrated from the Northeast (Taiwan, Guangdong, Guangxi) to the Southwest (Thailand).

1. Underlying Datasets
About 85% of the following datasets are available and input in a Microsoft Access database (15% are in process of being processed):
- 5 Tai languages: Wordlists of more than 4100 items of the basic vocabulary
- 58 Tai-Kadai languages: Wordlists of more than 4100 items of the basic vocabulary
- 7 Formosan languages: Wordlists of 4100 items of the basic vocabulary

2. Mathematical and computational methods
The dataset of 4,100 words from 70 Tai, Kadai and Austronesian languages will be input into semi-automated algorithm in three steps:

a. Establishment of cognate matrix
By using the notion of shared innovation as the single most important principle of genetic language classification.

b. Family tree of the Tai, Kadai, and Formosan languages

c. Testing the Hypothesis of population expansion
From the Northeast (Taiwan, Guangdong, Guangxi) to the Southwest (Thailand). We number the different stations that Tai-Kadai peoples might have walked through. These stations provide a sequence of characters which we submit to Bayesian methods of phylogeny.

References:
Monosyllables in Malayic

David Gil
Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology

Most words in Malayic languages are bisyllabic, thereby supporting the existence of a core bisyllabic foot generally coextensive with the word itself. However, a small number of words in Malayic languages are monosyllabic, which raises the question whether such words are associated with a core foot, and if so how?

An answer to this question is provided by ludlings. This paper examines two different ludlings in two different Malayic languages, illustrated below as they apply to bisyllabic words:

(1) (a) SIAK MALAY makan > warakan mobil > warobil
(b) PAPUAN MALAY makan > makoken mobil > mobobel

Informally, these ludlings appear to follow the following rules:

(2) (a) SIAK MALAY
Replace the first onset of the word with war.
(b) PAPUAN MALAY
Replace the last vowel of the word with the sequence oCe, where C is a copy of the onset of the final syllable.

For monosyllabic words, the rules in (2) predict the following forms:

(3) (a) SIAK MALAY jam > *waram bos > *waros
(b) PAPUAN MALAY jam > *jocen bos > *boses

However, this predication is false; the actual attested ludling forms are as follows:

(4) (a) SIAK MALAY jam > warejam bos > warebos
(b) PAPUAN MALAY jam > jamome bos > bosose

In order to account for the forms in (4), reference must be made to the core foot, with the rules in (2) changed to those in (5):

(5) (a) SIAK MALAY
Replace any segmental material in the first onset position of the core foot with war. Then insert an epenthetic vowel e into any empty vowel position.
(b) PAPUAN MALAY
Replace any segmental material in the vowel position of the second syllabic position of the foot with the sequence oCe, where C is a copy of the consonant occupying the boundary between the first and second syllabic positions.

For the rules in (5) to work for monosyllabic words, they must be associated with a core foot. Crucially, however, the association works differently in different dialects. In Siak Malay, monosyllabic words occupy the second syllabic position of the core foot, leaving the first syllabic position empty; however, this empty position remains visible to the ludling, in accordance with (5a). In contrast, in Papuan Malay, monosyllabic words occupy the first syllabic position of the core foot, leaving the second syllabic position empty, while once again remaining accessible to the ludling, which makes reference to it, as per (5b).

Thus, ludlings provide strong support for the existence of a core bisyllabic foot in Malayic. In particular, in monosyllabic words, they make substantive reference to the empty syllable of the core foot. In addition, ludlings provide evidence for a split between Siak Malay, in which monosyllabic words occupy the second syllabic position of the core foot, and Papuan Malay, in which such words occupy the first syllabic position of the core foot. This split is clearly related to the distinct phrasal stress patterns of these dialects, with the phrase-final stress of Siak Malay contrasting with the mostly phrase-penultimate stress of Papuan Malay.
A report on the documentation and translation of the Tai Ahom manuscripts: an observation on the use of the finite and the non finite particle in these manuscripts.

Poppy Gogoi
Gauhati University

This paper is an overview of the documentation of the Tai Ahom manuscripts of Assam. The documentation of these manuscripts was part of the Documenting, Archiving and Conserving the Tai Ahom manuscripts project funded by the British Library and conducted under the guidance of Dr. Stephen Morey. The Ahoms migrated to Assam in the year 1228 from the kingdom of Mau Lung bordering China on one side and Burma on the other. In their long stay the Ahoms mixed with local people and gradually lost their own language and culture. At present these manuscripts are the only source of information of the Ahoms. In this project utmost care has been taken to photograph them along with very detailed metadata. The steps taken into consideration in proper documentation of these manuscripts can be briefly outlined as follows:

- Finding the manuscripts.
- Cleaning and serially arranging the folios of the manuscripts according to their folio numbers (if available) before photographing.
- Photographing the manuscripts with a very good quality camera (Canon EOS 7D) specially meant for photographing manuscripts. Further manuscripts are photographed along with a scale and a color chart.
- Preparation of detailed metadata.

Some of these manuscripts have also been translated. For proper translation of the manuscripts an analytical methodology was adopted. In this methodology Tai Shan was used as the intermediate language as Shan was very similar to Ahom until its reformation in the 20th century. The translation process of these manuscripts is elaborated in the paper.

In the translation of these manuscripts we have come across some interesting words which function as grammatical particles and help in giving a complete sense to the meaning of the sentences. Thus, in my paper I have also made an attempt to discuss some of these particles like the non final particle /tʃam/ and the final particle or better said the sequential particle /jau/. These can be illustrated with the help of the following examples. These examples are from the manuscript Lik Chau Ngi.

Example 1.

\[
\text{mi: tæŋ kʰu: sən tʃəŋ pin pʰuŋ koi jau}
\]

have with property 10,000 elephant be group PART PART.FIN

He had 10,000 elephants in groups.

Here, the particle /jau/ acts as a perfective and brings in a sense of completion.

Example 2.

\[
\text{saŋ bə: man ɲi te mʊŋ kau la: jʊŋ jaŋ nai tʃam}
\]

If say 1SG PR.N fight country I wide long not get PART.NFIN sa: PART

If King Ngi goes and fights to make his country wide and long and fails....

Here, the conditional /saŋ/ at the very beginning of the sentence indicates the presence of two clauses. And particle /tʃam/ following the verb /nai/ indicates that the statement is not complete and more sequences of sentences are to follow.
Benefactive and instrumental constructions in Muak Sa-aak, a Palaungic language

Elizabeth Hall
Payap University Linguistics Institute

Muak Sa-aak is an Austroasiatic tone language, belonging to the Angkuic subgroup of the Palaungic branch, and is spoken in Eastern Shan state of Myanmar. It is an isolating language with SVO word order and little morphology. Of the few grammatical descriptions of Palaungic languages (cf. Lewis 2008 on Plang, Seng Mai 2012 on Wa, Mak 2012 on Golden Palaung, Janzen 1972 on Pale Palaung) none of these address Angkuic grammar. After giving a broad overview on basic grammatical patterns in Muak Sa-aak, this paper will specifically address the benefactive/instrumental construction. In the two Palaungic languages Wa (Ma Seng Mai 2012) and Plang (Lewis 2008), these grammatical constructions are coded as prepositional phrases. Similarly, Golden Palaung handles the benefactive construction by means of a referential noun (Mak 2012:125). Muak Sa-aak, however, does not follow this pattern but employs a construction with the verb /no/³/ ‘use, take'. This study will explore possible analyses of the grammatical or cognitive motivation for the verb being used this way. One possible analysis would be that the verb 'use/take' is becoming grammaticalized. Another is that these constructions are formed as a clause.

Examples:

<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ex</td>
<td>tang</td>
<td>khee</td>
<td>va</td>
<td>mix</td>
<td>no:</td>
<td>iam:laaq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2Pl Incl</td>
<td>[FUT]</td>
<td>give</td>
<td>2S</td>
<td>take</td>
<td>youngest sibling</td>
<td>POSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRO</td>
<td>PART</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>PRO</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We will give you our youngest sibling.

<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aix un</td>
<td>no:</td>
<td>seex</td>
<td>no:</td>
<td>bup</td>
<td>aix kham:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aix Un</td>
<td>take</td>
<td>stick</td>
<td>take</td>
<td>hit</td>
<td>Aix Kham</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PN</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>PN</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Aix Un hit Aix Kham with a stick.

References:


The Phonology of Tone in Thadou

Marykim Haokip
Assam University Silchar

Tone is one of the typological characteristic features of Kuki-Chin languages of the Tibeto-Burman language family. Thadou belonging to the Northern Kuki-Chin language of the Tibeto-Burman language, spoken by approximately 200000 speakers in the northeastern part of India and some parts of Myanmar exhibits this typological feature. Thadou has three tones and each syllable carries of the three underlying tones, subject to tonal alternation depending on the tone of the neighbouring syllable. The aim of the present paper is to present an analysis of phonology of the tone system of Thadou and in so doing the underlying representation of tone as well as tone sandhi in different contexts will be discussed.
Two Akeu Dialects in Myanmar and China

Norihiko Hayashi
Kobe City University of Foreign Studies

The Akeu language [Akoid, Yi-Burmese, Tibeto-Burman] is spoken in northern part of Thailand, Myanmar, Laos and in Yunnan of China. This presentation is a preliminary study on two dialects of Akeu in Myanmar (Kyaingtong Akeu, henceforth KA) and Yunnan of China (Menglun Akeu, henceforth MA) to describe their phonological and morphological features and to compare them with other Yi-Burmese languages from diachronic aspects, based on my first hand data. There is a previous study on Akeu in Myanmar, namely Gong (1982), though at my glance there is nothing on Akeu in China.

The phonological inventory of both KA and MA can be tentatively summarized as follows;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonants</th>
<th>Vowels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p b t d k kh</td>
<td>i y u u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ph th tsh g</td>
<td>e ø a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dz</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m n n n</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s x y</td>
<td>(There is plain vs. creaky contrast in each vowel.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w j</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The latter half of this presentation will compare basic lexicons among four closely related Yi-Burmese languages like KA, MA, Akha Ulo (Chiang Rai) and Youle Jino (Yunnan), all of which are cited from my field notes, to analyze the linguistic position and historical development of KA and MA. The following table shows some examples of each language.

| Table: Comparison among KA, MA, Akha (Chiang Rai) and Youle Jino (Yunnan) |
|-----------------|---|---|---|---|
| gloss | KA | MA | Akha | Youle Jino |
| tea | lō55bo21 | lō55bo21 | lō55bo21 | lō55po44 |
| pig | wa21 | wa21 | a33jg33 | va55 |
| bird | kə21 | kja21 | a21di55 | na33za55 |
| salt | ts21dy21 | ts21dy21 | a33d33 | tsha55kia42 |
| buffalo | u33n55 | mo21na33 | a21no21 | pu55na42 |
| four | li21 | li21 | a21 | li55 |
| to fly | be33 | be33 | jə21 | pre42 |

As in the Table, the words for ‘tea’ and ‘pig’ show the clear correspondence among themselves to lead us to conclude that they are closely related, though nowadays they have dispersed beyond borders. The word for ‘bird’, on the other hand, illustrates that Akeu stands isolated from other Yi-Burmese languages. The words for ‘salt’ and ‘buffalo’ in KA and MA are partly similar to the ones in both Akha and Youle Jino, whereas the words for ‘four’ and ‘to fly’ in KA and MA correspond only to the ones in Youle Jino, though Akeu usually contacts more with Akha than with Jino. These examples make it arguable that Akeu is placed at the important position connecting Akha and Jino within Yi-Burmese branch.

Bibliography

A Reconstruction of Vowels and Stress in Proto-Timor-Alor-Pantar

Tyler Heston

University of Hawai'i at Manoa

Although island Southeast Asia is dominated by Austronesian languages, there exists in the midst of the Indonesian archipelago an enclave of approximately thirty Papuan languages, spoken primarily on the islands of Timor, Alor and Pantar. Because of their unique location as Papuan outliers in the Austronesian sphere, they provide an important perspective on the cultural and linguistic history of island Southeast Asia. This presentation presents the first in-depth reconstruction of the vowels and stress system of the ancestor of these languages.

Though the existence of Papuan languages in this region has long been known, application of the comparative method to these languages has been begun only very recently. Schaper et al. 2012 applied the comparative method to the consonants of the languages of Timor, and Holton et al. 2012 did the same for the languages of Alor and Pantar. Schapper et al. 2014 then argued for the relationship of both of these groups in an inclusive Timor-Alor-Pantar family (TAP). These three articles have been groundbreaking in establishing the relationship of the languages involved, though they deal almost exclusively with the consonants. Schapper et al. (2014:130–131) summarize the situation, explaining that the vowels “present a major challenge to the reconstruction of the ancestral TAP language.”

In this presentation, I give evidence from recurrent sound correspondences for the reconstruction of six vowels to Proto-TAP (PTAP), the five cardinal vowels plus schwa (*a, *e, *i, *o, *u, *ə). I also present evidence for the reconstruction of a predictable system of stress to PTAP. This analysis of stress is able to correctly predict stop gemination in Western Pantar, a problem which has proven particularly challenging. It also accounts for the seemingly erratic distribution of schwa in Klon, and it is compatible with the stress systems found synchronically.

These results provide additional support for the integrity of the newly-established TAP language family and provide a more nuanced account of the PTAP sound system. By providing a more detailed description of PTAP, these findings also provide a more stable base for the study of Papuan-Austronesian language and cultural interaction.

Selected References


Revisiting the dichotomy between Relative Clause and Noun Complement Clause in Thai

Kamolchanok Hongthong and Kingkarn Thepkanjana
Chulalongkorn University

Due to seeming resemblances, clausal noun modification in Thai has been categorized into two distinct types syntactically equivalent to English Relative Clause (RC) and Noun Complement Clause (NCC). Such dichotomy by virtue of syntax seems to hold true only to some extent where the reference-binding between the head noun and the clause-internal gap exists in RCs, and where no argument in the modifying clause is co-referential with the head noun in NCCs. However, it does not exhaust the whole range of naturally occurring data in Thai.

The aim of this study is twofold. First, to argue against such dichotomy because the data from Thai National Corpus (TNC) cannot be classified neatly into two abovementioned types. Second, to adopt a novel perspective known as Noun Modifying Clause Constructions (NMCCs) proposed by Matsumoto (1997) to reanalyse clausal noun modification. The results reveal that there is a substantial amount of clausal noun modification in Thai which has never been investigated, such as (1) that requires real-world knowledge to see the relevance between the head noun and the modifying clause, and (2) whose clause-internal gap is not co-referential with its head noun.

(1) pàtìkìríja: khɔːŋ sàŋ k⁵om [thː jʉːːa thɯː k
reaction GEN society LK victim PASS
khɔm khʊː:n klàp pen fāː j phìt sǐːːŋ ?ːːŋ]
rape turn into COP culprit instead
‘Social reactions (towards an incident that) a rape victim has turned into a culprit instead’

(2) thː lɔː k nf: miː kha nôm [thː māːj ?ːːː an]
if world this exist sweets LK NEG overweigh
kɔː khoŋ càʔ diː sǐʔ náʔ
then probably good FP FP
‘It would be good if there were sweets which (by eating them) will not fatten (the eaters).’

Without the grammatical linkage between the head noun and the modifying clause, many understandable sentences were excluded from prior studies because they do not conform to the syntactically defined criteria for RCs or NCCs. Therefore, the broader concept of NMCCs is likely to yield more complete and more satisfactory solution to the study of clausal noun modification in Thai and remove the drawbacks of the RC and NCC dichotomous distinction.

References

The classification of Na Meo, a Hmong-Mien language of Vietnam

Andrew Hsiu

Center for Research in Computational Linguistics (CRCL)

Na Meo is a language spoken in a cluster of villages encompassing the northern Vietnam provinces of Lang Son, Cao Bang, and Bac Kan, as well as a single village in Tuyen Quang province (Nguyen 2007). Its existence as a divergent Hmong-Mien language has been noted by the Vietnamese government since 1975. However, Na Meo has remained very poorly documented, and is currently still listed as an unclassified language in Ethnologue (ISO 639-3 code [neo]) due to the lack of published data. The lengthiest published word list to date is that of Nguyen (2007), which has 67 Na Meo words in non-IPA orthography.

Within Tuyên Quang province, Na Meo is spoken only in the single village of Khuân Hê, Kim Quan commune, Yên Sơn district. In February 2014, I had personally collected nearly 400 lexical items from Na Meo of Khuân Hê. This Na Meo variety was previously undocumented, and the commune location is known only from Nguyen (2007). This variety is very similar to, and likely mutually intelligible with, the Na Meo data in Jerold Edmondson (n.d.). Edmondson (n.d.), a handwritten manuscript of about 500 lexical items of Na Meo, was the result of a field expedition in Cao Bang province during the late 1990’s, and the data in there has remained unpublished to date.

Following suggestions from Edmondson (p.c.) and Nguyen (2007) that Na Meo may likely be a Qiantong Miao (Central Miao) language belonging to the Hmongic branch of Hmong-Mien, I will support these claims by demonstrating lexical isoglosses and phonological features that are shared exclusively among Na Meo and Qiantong Miao languages, but not in other branches of Hmongic. Since Qiantong Miao includes diverse lects spoken mainly in Guizhou but also in neighboring Hunan and Guangxi provinces, I will then further compare Tuyen Quang and Cao Bang Na Meo with the Qiantong Miao dialects covered in Li (2000) and Chen (2013) to determine where in China the Na Meo speakers’ ancestors had most likely migrated from. Comparison shows that Na Meo is most similar to Southern Qiantong Miao dialects spoken in Guangxi province, a result of one of the many migrations that had brought various ethnic groups from southern China to northern Vietnam during the turbulent Qing Dynasty period.

References
Edmondson, Jerold (n.d.). Na Meo field notes, M.S.
Polyfunctionality of the Postverbal Aspect Marker: The Case of ‘FINISH’ and Its Variants in the Zhuang

Yang Huang
School of Arts & Communication, Southwest Jiaotong University, Chengdu

This paper discusses the polyfunctionality of a postverbal aspectual marker LE:U (‘FINISH’) and its semantic variants in Zhuang, a Tai language spoken in Guangxi in South China with approximately 18 million speakers. In addition to its aspectual usage marking completive and perfect aspects, this item is also found to function as a universal quantifier, a superlative marker and conjunction in five Zhuang dialects. I have collected five ‘FINISH’ morphemes (i.e., le:u⁴/li:u⁴, θa:i⁴/θo:i⁴, ju:n², ja³, thu:n³) from the Southern and Northern Zhuang dialects to demonstrate an array of functions for these items. In the Zhuang data, the multiple readings of the ‘FINISH’ result from its distinct syntactic behaviors and semantic properties. Examples from Liujiang Zhuang (Northern branch) are illustrative:

• There are two ‘FINISH’ verbs in Liujiang Zhuang.
  1. ten⁴ jin⁴ le:u⁴/ju:n² ha⁶ tsan⁵ ?
    movie FINISH already Q
    ‘Has the movie finished already?’
  
• A derived function as a universal quantifier ‘ALL’ is available when they appear in the static context and occupy the sentence-final position.
  2. /uni0294 dau¹ tai⁶ t /uni026F k⁸ /uni02A6 e:n² le:u⁴/ju:n²
    inside bag COP money ALL
    ‘All the parts of the bag are packed with money.’

In the dynamic context, alternatively, the ‘FINISH’ morpheme serves as a binary-interpreted completive, signifying that an action/event has been performed completely and thoroughly.

  4. te¹ kjan⁵ kjan⁵ tuk⁸θo:n¹ tu² pja¹ le:u⁴/ju:n²
    3sg just catch two CL fish COMPLETELY
    i. ‘He just caught up both the two pieces of fish.’
    ii. ‘He just finished the action of catching fish.’
  
• Only one candidate, ‘le:u⁴’, undergoes the phonological erosion and functions as a perfect (or inchoative) aspect marker /le⁶/. This use is not restrictive in any context.
  5. ka:u¹ ko:n⁵ tsan⁵ jke⁶ hun⁵ ka:u¹ ni⁴ tau³ tsı⁶ khe⁶ hun⁵ le⁶
    time last NEG marry time this arrive MOD marry ALREADY
    ‘Last time [when I met him] he had not gotten married, but this time, he was already married.’

Finally, in a couple of Zhuang dialects, the ‘FINISH’ exhibits clause-combining functions when inserting into independent clauses.

  6. te¹ /uni0294 dai⁵ ni¹ /uni0294 dak⁵ θe:u⁵ θi³ ni⁴, le:u⁴/ju:n² le⁶, θo⁶ tsı⁶ tai¹
    3sg ACQ:PFV hear CL news this AND:THEN immediately cry
    ‘He heard this news, after that he cried immediately.’
  7. ka:i⁴ θa:u² pu² swa:i⁴ ko³ ha:n⁵ te¹, le:u⁴, te¹ tsı⁶ ẑi³ ẑwun⁵ ha³
    introduce CL handsome boy give 3sg AND:BUT 3sg MOD NEG want marry
    ‘[Her mother has] introduced a handsome boy to her, but she does not want to marry him.’
    (Jingxi)

Based on the data, I assume that the coexisting forms for ‘FINISH’ in synchrony imply a grammaticalization process of the ‘FINISH’ verbs in diachrony. To account for the grammatical change in Zhuang, I propose a polygrammaticalization model (FINISH > quantificational indicators,
FINISH > aspectual markers, FINISH > connectives), by examining its validity in some other languages (cf. Gerner 2007, M. Luo 2008, Haiman 2011, Huber 2011 and Thiengburanathum 2014, etc.) with an aim to survey this model in an areal and typological perspective.
Expressing Profanity In Kagan And Tausug Languages

Sajed Ingilan and Rodney Jubilado
University of Southeastern Philippines; University of Hawaii

This paper aims to present an analysis on the expressions of profanity used by Filipino Muslim speakers in Davao Region, Philippines. The Filipino Muslim speakers included in this study are Kagan and Tausug, two of the bigger groups of Muslims in Davao. Profanity includes cursing, swearing, and all expressions considered taboo, sexual, and vulgar. There are 10 Kagan and 10 Tausug speakers who participated through face to face interview and focus group discussion. As seen from the corpora, Islam plays an immense role in the lexicalized expressions of profanity in Kagan and Tausug languages like Syaytan ‘devil’, and Kafir ‘infidel’. It functions as identity marker of Kagan and Tausug as Muslims. Aside from religion, animal references are also found in the profane expressions among Filipino Muslims as in these examples: Kasingit mung babuy kaw ‘You are a greedy pig’ in Kagan, and Putingan kaw! Babuy kaw! ‘You are a liar! You are a pig!’ in Tausug. Cursing in Kagan and Tausug also includes expressions of destruction, sex, death, and sickness. Both societies believe that profanity is not good, and causes discomfort and unhappiness. The Tausugs and Kagans although separated by language are all the same Filipino Austronesians and Muslims. Filipino Muslims utter Astagfirullah ‘Forgive me God’ when profanity is used for it is considered haram in Islam.

Keywords: profanity, taboo, sex, Tausug, Kagan, haram

References:
Two-part negation in Yang Zhuang

Eric Jackson
SIL International

Zhuang languages, spoken by the largest of China's fifty-five official minorities, represent a significant portion of the Central and Northern branches of the Taiic language group (Li 1977, among others). Although Zhuang languages have been the object of Western research for decades, many Zhuang varieties remain under-documented. This talk analyzes part of the negation system in Yang Zhuang [yzgl], which employs a two-part negator unique among this area's Taiic varieties.

Zheng (1996) describes several negators in Yang, including buj [pu³³] “not” (which Zheng describes as borrowed from Chinese, rather than being cognate with mbouj of Standard Zhuang), zaengz [tsaŋ³¹] “has not (similar to Mandarin 没)”, and the unmarked native negator meiz [mei³¹] “not”. These sometimes occur in complex negative structures, but the basic use of the unmarked negator is shown in (1). (This example from Zheng 1996.)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Hauqlai nanz meiz ndaex wax de gangjgoj nauq.} \\
\text{hau³⁵ lai³³ na³³ mei³¹ nai³³ wa²² te³³ kax³³ ko³³ nau³⁵} \\
\text{very much long not get with him chat NEG} \\
\text{“I haven't chatted with him in a long time.”}
\end{align*}
\]

The negator meiz occurs pre-verbally, but always co-occurs with the clause-final element nauq [na³³]. Local speaker intuitions vary as to the acceptability of nauq with the aspectual negator zaengz; some consider it optional, while others find it unacceptable. Strikingly, nauq can also stand by itself as a single-word negative response to a question, like English no.

By comparison, to the west, in Nong Zhuang [zhp], nauq occurs as an adverb of degree meaning “all, completely”, suggesting for this structure in Yang a historical origin similar to the French two-part negation ne … pas “not a bit”. To the north, in Youjiang Zhuang [zyj], nauq occurs by itself as one of several possible pre-verbal negators. To the south, however, in Nung [nut] of Vietnam, mi is the pre-verbal negator, and Saul and Wilson's (1980) grammar makes no mention of any associated clause-final particles resembling the Yang nauq.

Because of the relatively small area across which nauq shows this association with negation, it may represent a relatively recent innovation by these Taiic varieties. Since the historical development of the Taiic negation system is a target of ongoing research (eg, Pittayaporn et al 2014), an analysis of the diachronic development and synchronic properties of nauq will both improve our understanding of this under-documented language group and deepen our understanding of the possible development of negation systems cross-linguistically.

References


'Get' as a grammaticalized modal in White Hmong: How and why it differs post-verbally from other MSEA languages

Nerida Jarkey
University of Sydney

In keeping with a parallel pattern in many languages of Mainland Southeast Asia (Enfield, 2003), in White Hmong the verb TAU ‘get, come to have’ has grammaticalized in post-verbal position to express the modal meaning ‘can’:

(1) kuv noj tau kua.txob
    1SG drink can red.pepper
    ‘I can eat red peppers.’

Enfield (2003, p. 194) shows that the position of TAU immediately after the verb and before the object, which is the norm in White Hmong, is unusual amongst languages of the area; in Lao, Khmer, and Kmhmu Cwang, for example, a morpheme with a similar meaning appears after rather than before the object of the verb.

In White Hmong, TAU can actually appear in both positions: not only directly after the verb and before the object but also outside the core, after the verb and its object. This position is most likely when it is modified by a negative or interrogative. Enfield (2003, p. 218) gives the following example of the alternation between the two possible orders, noting that the appearance of TAU closer to the verb (as in (2a) below) is more idiomatic:

(2) a. kuv haus tsis tau cawv
    1SG drink NEG can alcohol
    ‘I can’t drink alcohol.

b. kuv haus cawv tsis tau
    1SG drink alcohol NEG can
    ‘I can’t drink alcohol.’

Enfield (2003, pp. 218-219) suggests that the preferred placement of TAU immediately after the verb in Hmong may be due to the construction being at a more advanced stage of grammaticalization in this language in comparison to its neighbours. He suggests that this is a “distinguishing behavioural feature perhaps iconic of increasing semantic ‘proximity’ to the verb entailed by the modal function ‘can’.”

In this paper, however, the preference for the placement of the modal use of TAU immediately after the verb is attributed to its origin as V2 in a serial verb construction (SVC), referred to as an Attainment SVC. It is the optional appearance of TAU outside the core that is considered likely to be a result of the grammaticalization process.

While many of the other languages discussed by Enfield (2003) have a single basic ‘resultative’ pattern (A V1 O V2), White Hmong has two distinct constructions: the Cause-Effect SVC (A V1 O V2) and the Attainment SVC (A V1 V2 O). The function of V2 in the Attainment SVC, from which the grammaticalized use of TAU derives, is basically an aspectual one, involving nuclear-level juncture scope. As TAU grammaticalized to develop a modal interpretation with scope over not just the nucleus but the entire core, its placement after the object presumably became more acceptable. The post-core placement of parallel morphemes in many neighbouring languages may also have encouraged the development of this alternative pattern.

Reference
Emergent noun incorporation in Burmese as a syntactic phenomenon

Mathias Jenny
University of Zurich

Noun incorporation has been described as a derivational, i.e. morphological, process in a number of languages (Sapir 1911, Mithun 1984, among others). Generally, a noun that functions as P or, more rarely S (hardly A) argument, or peripheral relation, such as possessor, instrument, etc., is closely bound to a verb and the two become a verb with its own meaning and syntactic behavior. Jacques (2012) suggests that noun-verb collocations should be considered as incorporation only if, among other conditions, the combination constitutes a morphological and phonological word. This would exclude Burmese NV-compounds, but taking Mithun’s (1984) broader definition and classification of incorporation, Burmese can be seen as a language with incorporation up to stage 2 (case-affecting).

Burmese, variously described as isolating or agglutinating, has different combination possibilities for nouns and verbs, some looser, others closer. Real lexicalization usually occurs only when the compound is syntactically a noun, such as /uni0294/ ein.zäun ‘house guard’ and /uni025B/uni0294/ ye.d ⟨rising flood⟩, from the phrases /uni0294/ ein säun-de ‘watch the house’ and /uni025B/ ⟨the water rises⟩, respectively. The phonological and morphological wordhood of these compounds is shown by the voicing of the second part and by the fact that the noun can not be modified in any way.

NV-compounds with verbal meaning are less closely bound, but in some cases show syntactic behavior of words, rather than phrases, besides sometimes idiosyncratic semantics. While loose NV-combinations can be split by intervening adverbial modifiers and secondary verbs, this is not possible with more closely bound compounds. If a P argument enters into a closely bound compound with a verb, it may lose its argument status and the resulting compound is transitive, allowing a further P (not G) argument, suggesting that the original P argument is in fact incorporated. The incorporated noun may be separated from the verb only by a small set of particles, including the verbal negator /uni0259/ -, which always occurs as a verbal prefix. Example (1) shows a verb with a generic (non-referential) object (/uni02B0/uni0259/ mìn sà ‘eat’), which has different syntactic behavior than the incorporated expression /uni02B0/ nà-tëaun ‘listen’ in (2). Apart from the syntactic behavior, there are also differences in the transparency of the semantics and the possibility of dropping the noun in short answers. The omission of the noun is possible in the first case, not in the second. Only in very few cases the development, at least in some speakers’ informal usage, went further towards univerbation, resulting in verbal lexemes such as nà.daun ‘listen’, with the negative form /uni0259/ -nà.daun-bù. In this case case both the voicing of the verb onset and the position of the negation marker show that the collocation is indeed treated as a single word. These are the only instances of morphological noun incorporation found in Burmese.

The present study looks at the different degrees of incorporation in Burmese NV-combinations and presents a classification based on the syntactic and semantic closeness (wordhood) of the compounds as well as the semantic functions of the incorporated nouns. It can be shown that incorporation in Burmese is a syntactic (and semantic), rather than morphological phenomenon. It will also be seen that rather than discreet categories of phrasal vs. incorporated structures, Burmese exhibits a wide range of degrees of closeness of the NV combinations.
Examples:

(1) ważা (*pizza) .addColumn toName (cooked.rice) a.lot go NEG-eat-DES-NEG

'I don't want to eat a lot (*pizza).'

(2) েং তাহানি তামাকারা তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত তাহানি তামাখাত

'I don't want to go to listen to a lot of music.'

(3) েং পিও কান তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত তামাখাত

'Aren't you listening to what I'm saying?'

References:

Jacques, Guillaume. 2012. From denominal derivation to incorporation. Lingua 122, 1207-1231.
Argument Extraction in Isamal Ergatives

Rodney Jubilado
University of Hawaii

This paper aims at the elucidation of the movement of arguments in Isamal language – its computational processes, morphosyntactic properties, and the syntactic principles concerned. Isamal is an Austronesian language spoken (bilingually with Cebuano for there are no more monolinguals) by only 8000 indigenous people of Samal Island, Mindanao Philippines. The full realization of the standard computation of Isamal presupposes an agentive transitive verb phrase (VP). The structural realization of the full VP can be represented by this linear configuration: [VP: V, NP1, NP2], where VP is composed of the verb [V] and its complement sisters nominal phrase 1 (NP1) and nominal phrase 2 (NP2). The absence of one argument in this computation means that the construction belongs to an intransitive VP where only NP1 is available in the argument structure of the verb. When movement of NPs is warranted, this results to non-canonical structural realization of sentences. These movements assume various technical labels such as topicalization, focalization, fronting, passivization, etc. Considering these various terminologies, this paper makes use of the term extraction wherein the argument moves from VP to its clause-initial position. This paper limits its analysis on the extraction of the single argument of ergatives, a type of verb which has only singular argument marked <patient/theme> in its argument structure (Carnie, 2012) as can be seen in sample grammatical sentences (1), (2), and (3) below.

(1) Myaug ya iyug.
myaug: [V]: <theme>
Perf-Act-drop Det coconut
‘The coconut dropped.’

(2) Ya iyug myaug.
myaug: [V]: <theme>
Det coconut Perf-Act-drop
‘The coconut dropped.’

(3) Iyug ya myaug.
myaug: [V]: <theme>
Coconut Det Perf-Act-drop
‘It is the coconut that dropped.’

Sentence (1) is the general word order of an ergative construction in Isamal where the NP ya iyug follows the clause-initial verb myaug ‘dropped’. Sentence (2) is read with a pause between the moved DP ya iyug ‘the coconut’ and the verb myaug ‘dropped’ signifying the presence of movement, phonetically speaking. Sentence (3) shows the movement of the extracted monoargument iyug ‘coconut’ from its post-verbal position to its clause-initial position leaving the definite determiner ya ‘the’ stranded. Computational representation of structures is done by making use of the TP analysis which works on the derivation by phases (Chomsky 2001, 2005, 2008).
Productivity of morphological patterns and social domain analysis in Papuan Malay

Angela Kluge
SIL International

This paper discusses the question how the degree of productivity of morphological patterns can be established in diglossic situations where the target language is the LOW variety which experiences interference from a closely related HIGH variety (Ferguson 1972, Weinreich 1953). This applies to Papuan Malay, a non-standard variety of Malay spoken in coastal West Papua, which has a great deal of language contact with Indonesian, the official language in the area.

The discussion is based on narratives and spontaneous conversations between Papuan Malay speakers. The 16-hour corpus contains a considerable number of morphologically complex lexical items. The most commonly employed (historical) affixes are the prefixes TER- ‘ACCIDENTAL’, PE(N)- ‘AGENT’, and BER- ‘VERBALIZER’, suffixes -ang ‘PATIENT’ and -nya ‘3POSSESSOR’, and circumfix ke-/-ang ‘NOMINALIZER’.

In order to examine to what degree Papuan Malay speakers use these affixes to create new words, one method would be to conduct some kind of productivity testing. For the present study, however, productivity testing was unfeasible given the sociolinguistic profile of the Papuan Malay speech variety and communities. This profile involves: (a) substantial language contact between the LOW variety Papuan Malay, and the HIGH variety Indonesian, (b) ambivalent language attitudes toward Papuan Malay, and (c) Papuan Malay speakers’ lack of language awareness about the status of Papuan Malay as a language distinct from Indonesian.

This profile, together with the high degree of linguistic relatedness between Papuan Malay and Indonesian and the formal setting of a test situation, was expected to cause an undesirable amount of interference from Indonesian, which would have skewed testees’ naïve judgments. Instead a multifaceted approach was chosen. The attested affixes and derived words were investigated in terms of seven language-internal factors, including token frequencies and form-function relationships. Besides, the items were examined in terms of three language-external factors, pertaining to Fishman’s (1965: 86) “domains of language choice”: (a) the topics discussed, (b) speaker education levels, and (c) the interlocutors’ relationships. This domain analysis was conducted to establish to what extent sociolinguistic restrictions govern the uses of the affixes.

The findings indicate that TER- is only somewhat productive and PE(N)-, at best, marginally productive, while BER- is unproductive. In other eastern Malay varieties, by contrast, the corresponding prefixes are very productive. Furthermore, Papuan Malay -ang has only limited productivity, while -nya and ke-/-ang are unproductive. Three examples are given below:

- ter-tutup ACCIDENTAL-close ‘be closed’
- pen-datang AGENT-come ‘stranger’
- ber-buru VERBALIZER-hunt ‘hunt’

The multifaceted approach is illustrated on prefix BER- ‘VERBALIZER’.

References
The loss of the proto-velar finals in Standard Jingpho

Keita Kurabe

Tokyo University of Foreign Studies

The Jingpho (Singpho) language is a Tibeto-Burman language stretching from northeastern India across northern Burma beyond the Burma-China border into Yunnan. Standard Jingpho is the most well described and documented dialect of Jingpho spoken in and around Myitkyina, Bhamo and Kutkai, Burma. Although Standard Jingpho preserves the phonemes of Proto-Jingpho quite well, one of the notable exceptions to this is that it has irregularly lost the proto-velar finals in certain lexical items, as in jä ‘gold’ (cf. PTB tseyak ‘red / blood / gold’) and cəro ‘tiger’ (cf. PTB s/k-ron ‘cat / wild cat’). These final velars can be reconstructed for Proto-Jingpho based on data from other Jingpho dialects, as can be seen in Dingga Jingpho jèk ‘gold’ and cəlunŋ ‘tiger’. Note that this is an irregular innovation which occurred in some specific lexical items and the normal reflexes of the Proto-Jingpho *-k and *-ŋ in Standard Jingpho are -ʔ and -ŋ, respectively.

The purpose of this presentation is to identify and provide over thirty lexical items of Standard Jingpho which have lost the proto-velar finals based on data from the other Tibeto-Burman languages as well as on data from other Jingpho dialects collected during my own field work conducted in northern Burma. I will show that these lexical items are phonologically and semantically unrelated, and that this innovation can be used as an important criterion in the sub-classification of Jingpho dialects since it is an irregular development and thus it is highly unlikely that this innovation has occurred in some dialects independently.
Proto-Nuosu Language
Ziwo Qiu-Fuyuan LAMA
College of Yi Studies, Minzu University of Southwest China

Nuosu or northern Yi, a language of Nisoic of Tibeto-Burman family spoken in Sichuan and northern Yunnan provinces, has five tuyus or vernaculars, including Tianba, Yinuo, Shengzha, Suondi, and Adu. According to Chen et al 1985, Tianba, Yinuo and Shengzha belong to northern sub-dialect of Yi and Suondi and Adu are members of southern sub-dialect of Yi. Shengzha people, the majority of northern Yi, call themselves Nuosu and others bear a similar autonym with a slight sound variation. Therefore, we can use Nuosu as the general term to represent all these vernaculars. Generally speaking, the intelligibility among Nuosu ethnic groups is very high; especially, neighboring vernaculars are of high understandability due to geography proximity. Linguistically, Nuosu language patios have a much higher congruency among them compared to other Yi dialects or languages. Both Bradley 1979 and Lama 2013 propose the internal relationship of Nuosu, however, both of them didn’t study Nuosu tuyus in a detailed way. From the perspective of shared innovation theory, this paper is dedicated to explore the internal linguistic genetic relationship of these five Nuosu tuyus. It attempts to reconstruct the proto-Nuosu based on the phonemic corresponding sets. Finally, it proposes a linguistic family tree to capture the language evolution of Nuosu.

References
陈士林、边仕明、李秀清（编著）. 1985. 《彝语简志》. 北京: 民族出版社.
The present study aims to explore the modal system in Hlai, an aboriginal language group spoken on Hainan Island. Hlai is assumed as a branch of the Kra-Dai stock (Ostapirat, 2004). Hlai is a language group which consists of several dialects. The Gei language is the dialect on which we focus in the present study. The syntactic and semantic features of Hlai have rarely been explored in previous studies. This paper will try to fill this gap by focusing especially on modal structures.

Modals function to carry meanings involving the expression of possibility and necessity. For example, must in English expresses necessity and may expresses possibility. This paper aims to introduce the modal expressions in Hlai corresponding to the English modals, like can, could, will, would, shall, should, may, must, dare (to), need (to) and ought to. This paper provides data collected from the fieldwork by the author himself. The modal lexical items in Hlai are introduced by the modal categories proposed by Palmer (2001). This paper modifies Palmer’s categorization with some modification and four types of modality are presented: epistemic modality, deontic modality, circumstantial modality, and bouletic modality.

This paper will not only show the modal system of Hlai, but also demonstrate the corresponding negative forms of modals. The features of syntax and semantics of the modal system in Hlai are explored via the data collected by fieldwork.
Yang Zhuang Poetry
Hanbo Liao
Payap University

This paper aims to provide a brief description of the poetry of Yang Zhuang, a Central Tai language, which is spoken by approximately 600,000 native speakers mainly living in the southwestern corner of Guangxi, China (Jackson et al. 2011). Although there are many types of Yang Zhuang poetry with different social communication functions, literally all these different poetry forms can be put under two categories – "sorcery" and "poem".

Li Fang Kuei (1970) has analyzed the metrical and rhyming system of what he calls "songs" of T’ien-Pao (a variety of Yang Zhuang) which are actually under the categories of θejA1 and mọtDS2 respectively, and has concluded that the songs indicates “a poetic tradition common to Tho, Lao and Thai” (Li 1970:21). However, when comparing with the poetry of other Tai groups, although some types of Yang Zhuang poetry preserves an amount of Taic features, other types show more influence from classical Chinese poetry. Taking two sentences of mọtDS2 ləmA2 and mọmmtA2 θejA1 as an example, the former one has the same foot waist rhyme (脚腰韵) structure with the sole style in Southwestern Tai and Northern Thai groups, while the later one shares the same tail rhyme (尾韵) structure with classical Chinese poetry such as seven-character octave (律诗), as illustrated in (1) and (2).

(1) mọtDS2 ləmA2: Tai inherited rhyme structure

Former sentence | Later sentence
--- | ---
nonA2 | təmDS1
pa.R2 | kəwajB1

sleep deep god quickly awake get hear god quickly cough

My god, please wake up if you are asleep; My god, please give an answer if you hear me.

(2) Southern Debao mọmmtA2 θejA1: Sino-influenced rhyme structure

Former sentence | Later sentence
--- | ---
ninA1 | təmC1
laJS1 | əA1
ninA1 | təmC1

miss 2p much PRT miss 2p much miss 2p see cow misunderstand buffalo

Oh, I am missing you so much! I see a buffalo in mistake for a cow because my mind is wandering for missing you.

Besides, rhymes in Yang Zhuang poetry always follow a principle of píngzè (平仄, level and oblique tones) which is also found in classical Chinese poetry. According to this principle, words that have different proto-tones cannot rhyme with one another even though they have the same vowels and codas. Furthermore, Yang Zhuang poetry also presents some common Taic poetry features such as parallelism, elaboration, and grammatical efficiency.

References

Further exploration into the possible function of naak in Hakha Chin

Daniel Loss and Bawi Tawng
Payap University

Nominalization in the subgroup of Southern Kuki-Chin languages of Lai and Dai and in particular the productivity of the affix *naak* have received special attention (Hartmann 2001, Lehman & Hlun 2002). This study takes a further look at the *naak* in Lai (also known as Hakha Chin) with an aim to group more uses of *naak* and give more data for analysis. The analysis of nominalization in Daai Chin (So-Hartmann, 2009) shows multiple uses of *naak*, and while there are many similarities in Hakha Chin, some differences are noted: specifically its use as an applicative verb, and inability to verbalize. Examples in this paper are generated and analyzed by the authors one who is a native speaker of Lai. An attempt to use verb stem alternation to validate groupings is provided. Possible groupings for *naak* include, but are not limited to nominalization as in (1) and (2), applicative verbs as in (3), and its use in compounds in (4) and (5). Its use as a complementizer is found to be better analyzed as another instance of nominalization.

(1) Rawleehua-naak (INSTRUMENT)
    'cooker'

(2) Riantuan-naak (ABSTRACT)
    'work'

(3) mah fung khan ar ka thah-naak
    that stick with chicken 1SG kill -APPL
    I killed the chicken with that stick

(4) bia-kam-naak
    'promise'

(5) thiuc-huah-naak
    'blessing'

This work follows closely the research of Lehman & Hleun and primarily attempts to provide more descriptive detail for what has been described there. In particular how the various uses of *naak* interact with different verb stem alteration patterns.

References
Hartmann, Helga. 2001. Functions of *naak/nha* in Daai Chin with examples from other Chin languages. *Linguistics of the Tibeto-Burman Area Volume 24.2*
Lehman, F.K. & Hleun, C. 2002. On the so-called nominalizer *naak* in Lai (Hakha) Chin, with remarks upon its other functions in Chin languages and etymology. *SEALSXII: papers from the 12th meeting of the Southeast Asian Linguistic Society*
So-Hartmann, Helga. 2009. *A Descriptive Grammar of Daai Chin*
Light Verb in Urdu

Riaz Ahmed Mangrio
University of Gujrat

Light verbs are an important point of linguistic discussion on Indo Aryan languages. Their function is to coordinate main verbs and form V1-V2 complex verbal constructions in which V1 is main verb and V2 is light verb. In the complex verbal constructions, light verbs don’t express their lexical meaning but change the semantics of a sentence as a whole. A light verb forms a complex predicate - a verbal structure of two or more verbs in a sentence in which main verb is in lexical form, and the light verb forms the tense morphology, i.e. V1 (kha ‘eat’) + IV2 (līja ‘taken’) = complex predicate (kha līja ‘has/had eaten’).

There is a controversy over functions of light verbs. Contra Bukhari (2009) in N + V or A + V constructions that V is a light verb, this paper argues that V is in fact a dummy verb in such formations. The distinction between a light verb and a dummy is a point of argumentation here.

Secondly, most researchers claim that a light verb appears in sentence final position and takes tense morphology. Bukhari (2009) expresses a different opinion, namely that main verb may appear in sentence final position and take tense morphology. Supporting his claim, the paper argues that a light verb may allow the main verb to form tense morphology, though, it however functions as a semantic additive to the sentence, as shown.

1. Azan ne consin ko ghu¨sa ḍe mara.
Azan.s.m.erg rogue.s.m.acc fist.s.m give.bse hit.s.m.perf
Azan hit the rogue with his fist.

In the sentence above, the main verb mara “hit” takes tense morphology, but the light verb ḍe “give” however functions as a semantic additive to the sentence as a whole.

Finally, with some evidence, the paper brings into discussion some complex verbal constructions that contain two light verbs and a main verb.

2. Wania xof se bhag khairi hoi
Wania.3.s.f.nom fear.s.m.inst run.bse stand.f.s.bse happen.3.s.f.perf
Wania ran away with fear.

The example shows a further aspect of syntactic argumentation on the possibility of two light verbs e.g. khairi ‘stand’ and hoi ‘happen’, only latter one of which takes tense morphology, as shown. Both are however adding to the semantics of the sentence.

The appearance of two light verbs in imperative sentences is also interesting to discuss. This is a distinctive feature and has not been discussed elsewhere.

Selected References

Verbal suffixes of Mao
Elangbam Manimohon and Potsangbam Madhubala
Manipur University

Mao is a language of the Naga-Kuki groups of Tibeto-Burman language family and spoken mainly in the Senapati District, the Northern part of Manipur. The Speaker of Mao language is known as Mao. In this paper, an attempt will be made to give a description of the verbal suffixes of Mao. Verbal suffixes are the suffixes that are attached to the verbal roots, when this suffixes are added to the verb, it denotes an action, event and process etc. The various forms of verbal suffixes are - aspect marker, negative marker, imperative marker, interrogative marker, and adverbial marker. In the aspect marker, there are four forms of suffixes e.g –a ‘simple aspect’, -we ‘imperfective aspect’, -re ‘perfective aspect’, -le ‘unrealised aspect’. The negative suffixes –mo and –moi indicates realised negative and unrealised negative markers respectively. An imperative sentence, there are two verbal suffixes i.e. -lo ‘command marker’ and –so ‘prohibitive marker’. The suffix -ma is used as the interrogative marker. The verbal suffixes –so indicate the adverbial marker.

References:
Differences and similarities of the first and second person references: A comparison between Thai and Japanese

Natsuki Matsui
Chulalongkorn University

Thai and Japanese person references show different characteristics than person pronouns in European languages (Ratitamkul and Uehara 2012, see Suzuki 1973 for Japanese). There are person pronouns in Thai such as “phóm” (I) and “khun” (you), the first and the second person pronouns. In Japanese “watashi”(I) and “anata” (you) indicate the speaker and the interlocutor. However in both cases the usage does not completely agree with the way English speakers use “you” or “I.” In both Thai and Japanese, names, nick names, kin terms, and job titles are used as person references as well as person pronouns. Choices of person references must be made according to the formality of the situation and psychological distance between the speaker and the interlocutor in addition to the sex of the speaker (Suzuki 1973, Iwasaki and Horie 2000).

There are common characteristics in the usages of person references in Thai and Japanese. However, the usages are not entirely similar in the two languages. In fact, there are large numbers of Thai learners of Japanese and Japanese learners of Thai who do not command the usages of person references naturally in daily conversations. The object of this paper is to compare the characteristics of the person references in the two languages and to clarify the similarities and differences between the usages of Thai and Japanese person references, especially those which refer to the speaker and the interlocutor. This paper focuses on distinctly different aspects of the factors for the selection of person references between Thai and Japanese, and illustrates the features of these differences.

References
On the Semantics of Pragmatic Particles

Eric McCready

Dept. of English, Aoyama Gakuin University

The term particle is used to cover a broad range of kinds of linguistic objects with different kinds of functions (cf. papers in Slater, Lehonkoski and Phillips 2010). It can be extremely difficult to determine the meaning and felicitous use of a given particle, especially in the context of fieldwork, and especially for particles which mark information status, expectations about responses, or special discourse moves. The aim of this talk is to present some techniques for the analysis of pragmatic particles that have recently been proposed within formal pragmatics, show how they can be of use for practical analysis, and exemplify their application with several particles in (Central) Thai. The main goal is to extract the useful ideas from the obscuring formalism and make them accessible to scholars interested in descriptive aspects of particle meaning.

Field researchers do not tend to find formal semantics and pragmatics helpful, something understandable given the often narrow focus of those fields and the background they require (though field research using formal semantic tools is a rapidly developing area, cf. Bochnak et al. 2015). However, many of the assumptions of formal pragmatics in particular are helpful for the analysis of particles, where it is often not even clear where to start description. One example is the idea that conversations are structured around questions at issue, where participants work to resolve the question through their linguistic behavior, where degrees of resolution can then be compared; another is the use of (broadly) Gricean considerations about communication, formulated in a clear way which incorporates cultural variation about communicative norms; a third is expectations about `normal' events and conversational continuations.

These ideas have been applied to particles in Cantonese, German, and Japanese (e.g. Davis 2009, McCready 2008, McCready and Hara 2015, Rojas-Esponda 2014), and, together, can be taken as three key ingredients in the analysis of particles. After briefly introducing these previous applications, this paper gives an analysis of the Thai particles nā, nā (together with some phonological variants), nā?, and nī?, using the parameters in the previous paragraph (mostly following the descriptive characterizations of Cooke 1989). Concretely, nā is taken to indicate a shift in the current issue under discussion and nā? that the utterance has low relevance for the current issue, while nī? indicates the converse high level of relevance. The most complex case, nā, indicates speaker expectations about the hearer's behavior post-utterance, which are further conditioned by phonological variations in tone (nā) and length (nāa,nāa). (Time permitting, other particles will also be discussed.)

This analysis shows that the meaning and use of these particles can be characterized using the three parameters above, which points to their usefulness for the description of pragmatic particles elsewhere. Ultimately, the aim of this work is an empirically founded typology of the range of discourse particles in the world's languages.
Tonal sesquisyllables in Jinghpaw?

André Müller

University of Zurich

One of the most wide-spread areal features of Southeast Asia are the so called “sesquisyllables” (MATISOFF 1973:86). These are words with a full, stressed second syllable and a phonemically highly restricted first syllable – often called presyllable. There is a limited set of possible initials, no possible stress or tone, and in many cases a vocalic inventory of zero or one possible vowel, typically /a/ (cf. BUTLER 2004).

However, in Jinghpaw, a Tibeto-Burman language spoken in northern Myanmar, sesquisyllables seem to show a different behavior: DAI (1983 & 2012) and MARAN (1971) both cite presyllables with tone markings, with a subset of the language’s tonemes being allowed there. My analysis of the Jinghpaw lexicon shows that only certain combinations of tones in the sesquisyllable are possible, and that the tones given in DAI’s dictionary are partly predictable. The dictionary lists merely a handful of minimal pairs differing only in the presyllabic tone (e.g. kəpəŋ ‘pitchfork’ vs. kəpəŋ ‘clear’).

So far, my analyses in Praat of audio recordings of various Jinghpaw speakers from different parts in Myanmar has not shown any evidence of contrastive tonality in presyllables, and future plans involve collecting more data in the field to substantiate my claim that Jinghpaw actually does have “well-behaved” sesquisyllables according to the common definition.

During my talk, I will present my findings and an analysis of the alleged tones in Jinghpaw presyllables, and will attempt to explain to phonetic effects (e.g. downstep, anticipatory contours) which might have led DAI and MARAN to presume these tones.

Works Cited


Verb Serialization and lexical reanalysis: The case of compound verbs in Meiteiron (Manipuri)

Pramodini Devi Nameirakpam
Manipur University

Compound Verb is a phenomenon that occurs cross-linguistically in a number of languages of South Asia, the highlands of the Altai, and the Kirghiz, China, Korea, Japan, Turkey, Central Iran and major parts of East Asia (Masica 1976). Various aspects of the serial verb phenomenon have been the subject of study (Stalke 1970; Hyman 1971; Awubuluyi 1973; Bamgbose 1973, 1974; Li and Thompson 1973, 1914; Lord 1973, 1975, 1977, 1984; Givon 1975; Ekundayo, Akinnaso 1983 and Aikhanvald, 2005). This paper examines symmetrical and asymmetrical compound verbs in Meiteiron and gives special attention to the latter category of compound verbs which features particular kinds of affixes through grammaticalization. Although there has been growing interest in the semantics of serial verb constructions recently (Aikhenvald 2005), the construction has largely been viewed in syntactic terms. In line with findings from similar studies of serial verb constructions in languages such as Mandarin Chinese, Thai, Khwe and Yoruba, we will show through our data from Meiteiron that certain verbs not only undergo grammaticalization and lexical reanalysis historically in the context of serial constructions to become affixes and adverbs synchronically, but also some of these grammaticalized forms do undergo further lexical reanalysis and semantic depletion and ultimately become incorporated as affixal morphemes in compound verbs.
Origin of the numeral ‘five’ in the Northwestern Formosan languages:

Revision of the Proto-Austronesian numeral system

Izumi Ochiai
Kyoto University

Four Formosan languages in the northwest of Taiwan—Pazeh, Saisiyat, Babuza, and Taokas—are peculiar in that they do not share Proto-Austronesian (PAN) *lima ‘five’, which is also the word for ‘hand’. The above four languages have similar forms, which leads Sagart (2004) to reconstruct *RaCep ‘five’ as the PAN form. He also posits that *lima is an innovation, and that PAN has a quinary system (i.e. five numerals from one to five), not a decimal (i.e. ten distinct numerals). This paper proposes that the forms represented by *RaCep are separable into Ra-Cep and interpretable as ‘one-four’. The forms might have originated from Proto-Atayalic #taxa-sepat ‘one and four’, although this form is not synchronically attested in either Atayal or Seediq, the daughters of Proto-Atayalic. As seen in Table 1, the words for ‘five’ in the four languages show strong resemblances to the middle part of the Proto-Atayalic compound, #taxa-sepat ‘one-four’. In addition, the five languages are members of a single (but tentative) subgroup called the Northwestern group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td><strong>taxa</strong></td>
<td><strong>sepat</strong></td>
<td><strong>taxa-sepat</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pazeh</td>
<td>ida</td>
<td>supat</td>
<td>xasep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saisiyat</td>
<td>aha</td>
<td>/sapat/</td>
<td>/laseb/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babuza</td>
<td>na-t:a</td>
<td>naspaat</td>
<td>/$axab$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taokas</td>
<td>ta:-nu</td>
<td>(le)pat</td>
<td>hasap</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 ‘one’, ‘four’, and ‘five’ in the Northwestern Formosan languages

Proto-Atayalic #taxa-sepat may have been borrowed by a neighboring language, probably Pazeh because of its geographical proximity, and undergone aphaeresis and apocope, taxa-sepat > xasepat > xasepa > xasep, driven by a tendency to make words disyllabic, the typical word structure of Austronesian. Then, the shortened form may have been borrowed by other languages with minor changes. Saisiyat changed x to l, while Babuza deleted x and changed the s of -sep to x. Taokas changed x to h. All these changes are plausible. If these languages individually innovated ‘5’, segments in ‘1+4’ should show sound correspondences to the segments in ‘one’ (and ‘four’); however, no correspondence is observable for the consonants in ‘one’.

After these languages introduced words originating from xasep, Proto-Atayalic innovated the meaning of ‘5’ from Proto-Atayalic *lima ‘hand’ (which I suppose to have only meant ‘hand’ in the earlier stage of Proto-Austronesian), which triggered a parallel innovation of the word from PAN *lima in other Formosan languages, except for the Northwestern languages, with the result that PAN forms derived from *lima in most Formosan languages gained a double meaning; however Proto-Atayalic *lima lost the meaning of ‘hand’ afterwards, being exclusively used for ‘five’. The meaning of ‘hand’ is expressed by a word originated from PAN *gabaRa ‘shoulder’ (Atayal qba?, Seediq baga). If the hypothesis of ‘one-four’ is on the right track, the PAN numeral system can be revised as quaternary (i.e. distinct forms from one to four) since five could have been a composite of one and four.

References

Tai Khuen is a Southwestern Tai (Tai-Kadai) language spoken mainly in the Kengtung area of Eastern Shan State, Myanmar. The people and their language share close historical links with Tai Lue and Northern Thai. Part of this shared heritage is the use of the Tai Tham or Lanna script which spread through the then Lanna kingdom in the 15th century. So Khuen has been written for many centuries during which time there have been phonological changes including in the half century since Egerød’s (1959) description of the phonology and script (Gedney [1964] 1994a & 1994b; Rasi 1978; Owen 2012). This paper presents a phonological sketch of six contemporary Tai Khuen varieties as a basis for evaluating the adequacy of the orthography for representing the language today. The orthography is described in detail along with discussion of features whose usage varies within the Khuen community.

Apart from contributing to the understanding of the Khuen orthography, this paper should also be helpful for other non-Tai language groups in Shan State which have begun to develop orthographies based on Khuen.

References

Prosody and information structure in Burmese

Pavel Ozerov

La Trobe University

A prevalent assumption in many theoretical studies of prosody is that tone languages make a very limited usage of intonation for information structural purposes, because pitch movement is reserved for lexical distinctions. For instance, Féry (2010) clearly distinguishes between languages that employ pitch for the expression of pragmatic notions like focus (intonation languages) and tone languages that do not have this feature. She also proposes an additional class of phrase languages that use pitch to break down a sentence into phrases, yet show no pitch marking of the information status of separate lexemes.

This study examines verbal sentences in a corpus of Burmese (a tone language) recordings of read aloud texts. The only previous study of Burmese prosody found a certain degree of dependence between information structure and intonation, yet the functionality of this device appeared to be doubtful (Simpson and Watkins 2006).

At first sight, Burmese may appear to represent a case of Féry’s phrase language: each syntactic phrase marked by a particle (case marking, postposition etc.) appears to be segregated into its own prosodic phrase. This is interesting (a) theoretically, since Burmese has lexical tone, and (b) typologically, since Féry’s study is based on four South Asian languages.

However, it turns out that intonation is nonetheless related to information structure - inside prosodic phrases. For example, morphosyntactically unmarked subject can precede the final verb. In this case, it carries the main accent, if this is focal; yet in the case of a topical subject the accent will be located on the verb. Narrowly focused object results in the de-accentuation of the verb, while a broad focus on both object and verb results in a secondary accent on the verb. Hence, this study finds that the final (verbal) prosodic phrase in Burmese shows intonation patterns related directly to the desired information structural interpretations.

Moreover, the final verbal phrase is the only obligatory constituent, which is typically smaller than a full sentence. Only if this is required contextually, this unit is supplemented by additional information, expressed by preceding prosodic phrases. Hence, these are proposed to represent instances of autonomous incrementation of context with non-propositional constituents.

If so, a class of phrase languages that primarily regards the alignment of intonation in a sentence is biased by a sentence-perspective. The segregation into phrases expressed by Burmese establishes the corresponding syntactic unit, rather than a sentence, as the primitive constituent. It is a prosodic phrase (and not a sentence) that demonstrates a variety of intonation patterns. Typically, but not necessarily, these phrases can be chunked into a sentence.


Languages in contact: the case of Phu Thai

Jean Pacquement
Agrégé de grammaire détaché
Roi-Et Rajabhat University

Phu Thai, a PH language belonging to the Southwestern branch of the Tai family, is now well documented, and the areas where its varieties are spoken are identified. Described as a “displaced language” in the language hierarchy of Thailand proposed by William A. Smalley (1994), it however enjoys a high sociolinguistic status both in Northeastern Thailand and Central Laos. The places where Phu Thai speakers of Thailand claim to hail from (the toponyms of some of them being sometimes a part of present-day surnames) belong to a specific area of Central Laos (Vilabouly district and its surroundings in both Savannakhet and Khammouane provinces). The fact that quite a few distinct varieties of Phu Thai are still spoken in that area may suggest an “area of greatest diversity” for Phu Thai, and a natural move by some Phu Thai individuals as well as scholars doing research on Phu Thai has been to search for the Phu Thai and their language there.

Among the particularities of Phu Thai in Northeastern Thailand, one can find lexical items claimed by Phu Thai speakers as belonging specifically to their language. Most of these terms actually have cognates in other PH languages (in Lao, not in Thai) and in P languages of the Southwestern Tai group. This presentation will refer to a few cognates and other features shared by Phu Thai and Tai languages labeled as Tai Daeng or Tai Moei by their speakers (who occasionally call themselves Phu Tai), keeping in mind Michel Ferlus’ linguistic argument (the coalescence in the DL column) pointing to an origin of Phu Thai in “Tai Muong and Tai Yo regions of Nghệ An” (Ferlus 2008), if not from a broader area of language contacts (between PH languages and P languages as well as between Southwestern Tai languages and languages showing a Northern Tai substratum such as Tai Yo and Saek) in upper Central Vietnam.

In the case of present-day Phu Thai, contacts with other languages (prima facie Lao in its varieties spoken in Central Laos as well as Isan and Central Thai in Northeastern Thailand) remain a relevant feature. Whether in the Phu Thai “original” area of Central Laos or in its more recent locations of Northeastern Thailand, one can find, along with Phu Thai, a few Northern Katuic dialects known locally as Bru, So or Katang. Some aspects of the nonreciprocal linguistic relationship between Phu Thai and these Katuic languages, such as the absence of Austroasiatic substratum words in Phu Thai, will be introduced. Even though mainland Southeast Asia as a “linguistic area” has witnessed a good deal of syntactic convergence, a possible case of syntactic convergence between Phu Thai and Northern Katuic dialects will be discussed.

References


A Diachronic Study on Grammaticalization: Focusing on Directional Verbs in Thai

Kyung Eun Park
Hankuk University of Foreign Studies

In this research, I conducted a comparative analysis of some basic Thai directional verbs, in particular, the meaning of horizontal motional verbs, /paj/('go') and /maa/('come'), and their functions in sentences. This analysis was conducted by examining historical sources for diachronic consideration of the aspects of grammaticalization. Thai verbs /paj/ and /maa/ are words with multiple meanings and functions that have a very broad meaning extension. As discussed in one of my previous studies, these two verbs have attained additional grammatical functions because they gained additional meanings through cognitive mechanisms such as decategorialization. One of the typical examples of this grammaticalization is that they are used as auxiliary verbs with an aspectual meaning. In my previous studies, my research was limited to making an inference based on semantic similarities or the structural relatedness of /paj/ and /maa/ in explaining why there are situations where they have aspectual meaning. However, in distinguishing motivation from arbitrariness, one of the most definitive ways to verify the assertion that various meanings of words are derived from the same origin would be to verify systematic motivation; in other words, to analyze and explain based on diachronic language evidence. Thereupon I examined some of the representative historic sources that are available and examinable such as the inscriptions from the Sukhothai era(the very first kingdom recognized in Thai history), and some documents from the Ayutthaya era. I analyzed the polysemic structure, meaning and functions of /paj/ and /maa/ as they appeared in those documents as well as the differences in the aspects of grammaticalization in the respective period. As a result, I found that the meaning and functions of the verbs have become more subdivided and the grammaticalization has become more active in modern times than it was in the past. This diachronic consideration can provide a good example for the uni-directionality of grammaticalization that is claimed in Cognitive Linguistics and can also be an interesting basis for future change and development in the Thai language.
OCP Effects in Suffixes with Burmese Creaky Tone
Jeremy Perkins, Seunghun Lee, and Julián Villegas
University of Aizu; Central Connecticut State University; University of Aizu

Background: This study explores OCP effects involving creaky tone in Burmese. While cases of tonal OCP among adjacent tones involving F0 changes are well-documented, there are fewer cases where it occurs with phonation. Phonologically, since tone can include both F0 and phonation, it is expected that OCP effects should exist for phonation as well. There are four Burmese tones, which are differentiated based on a combination of F0 and phonation (Bradley, 1982; Gruber, 2011), providing a test case for this question.

Method: Eight native Burmese speakers were recorded. Stimuli contained low (L) and creaky (C) tone, and were placed in sentences with a root followed by a suffix. Four C tone roots and four L tone roots (two verbs and two nouns each) were combined with two C tone and two L tone suffixes, yielding 32 combinations. There were four stimuli with no prefix, resulting in 36 stimuli. Four repetitions were made, yielding a total of 144 sentences per speaker. C and L tone stimulus vowels were analyzed for F0 and creakiness. F0 analysis was done via Praat; creakiness analysis was done via a Matlab algorithm that uses a combination of acoustic features (Drugman et al., 2014). The output of the algorithm is a probability of creakiness.

Results: Creaky tone suffixes are subject to OCP when following creaky tone roots (“Ccsuffix” condition in Figures 1 and 2 below). F0 is lowered in suffixes in this case, but with increased creakiness also observed. These facts are explained if the OCP applies to F0 in creaky suffixes. However, the contrast is maintained via the increased creakiness. Figures 1 and 2 below show 95% confidence intervals of time-normalized creakiness and F0 contours respectively using a cubic smoothing-spline anova model (Gu, 2014). In the figure legends, the tone of the preceding root is the initial capital letter, with the suffix tone following it in lower case.

References:
**The extended functions of Northern Pwo Karen me’ ‘be.true’**

*Audra Phillips*

*University of Alberta and Payap University*

Northern Pwo Karen (N. Pwo), a Karenic language of Thailand, has two copulas, me’ and ke. The source of the me’ copula is the stative verb me’ ‘be.true’, illustrated in (1).

(1) **Folktale 54.67**

\[
\begin{array}{llllllll}
\text{pitho} & \text{uyé} & \text{k’we} & \text{we} & \text{dc} & \text{tə’ét}’ & \text{we} & \text{2ə} & \text{me’} & \text{tê} \\
\text{person} & \text{come} & \text{observe} & 3._\text{ABS} & \text{dc} & \text{say} & 3._\text{ABS} & \text{Ah!} & \text{be.true} & \text{certainty} \\
\text{jàu’} & \text{nê} & \text{inch} & \text{surely} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘The people came, looked at it (dead tiger), and said thus, “Ah! (It’s) really true!”’

In (1), the main clause describes people coming to observe the state of affairs, a dead tiger, which is referenced by wé ‘3.abs’. Then, in the speech complement which follows, they express their confirmation of this state of affairs with me’ ‘be.true’, along with the intensifying particles, tê and nê, and the inchoative particle, jàu’.

As a copula, me’ connects a nominal and its further specification, as illustrated in (2).

(2) **F3 King’s Story 9**

\[
\begin{array}{llllllll}
\text{uyet’hàt} & \text{tət} & \text{dâ’t} & \text{kà’} & \text{là} & \text{dc} & \text{besâ’t} & \text{kà’} \\
\text{return} & \text{walk} & \text{pleasure} & \text{consequently} & \text{to/at} & \text{dc} & \text{want} & \text{consequently} \\
\text{xàxò} & \text{də’} & \text{ni} & \text{me’} & \text{plàk’bài} & \text{tə’bák’kê} & \text{possessions} & \text{further} & \text{be.true} & \text{trousers buttoned.shirt} \\
\end{array}
\]

Lit. ‘(They) return walk pleasure consequently to (he) want consequently possessions further OK? be true trousers buttoned.shirt.’

‘Consequently, (they) were returning until (he) wanted possessions further, namely, trousers and buttoned shirts.’

In (2), the me’ construction consists of the nominal, xàxò ‘possessions’, the copula, me’, and the further specification of the first nominal in the form of the coordinated noun phrase p’làk’bài tə’bák’kê ‘trousers (and) buttoned shirts’.

In addition, me’ also connects a state of affairs and its specification, as illustrated in (3).

(3) **Folktale 54.16**

\[
\begin{array}{llllllll}
\text{tə’hê} & \text{là} & \text{2e’ jê xà’ me’} & \text{plâ’e} \\
\text{extend} & \text{descend} & \text{DAT} & 1._\text{ACC} & \text{stairs} & \text{be.true} & \text{be.fast} \\
\end{array}
\]

‘Let down the stairs quickly for me.’

In (3), the state of affairs is expressed by the imperative clause that precedes me’, consisting of the predicate, tə’hê là ‘extend descend’, the indirect object, 2e’ jê ‘for me’, and the direct object, xà ‘stairs’. The further specification that the event is to take place quickly is provided by the stative verb, plâ’e ‘be.fast’, which follows me’.

The me’ copula occurs in several other constructions which function at the clause and discourse levels, all with the ‘be.true’ flavour of the copula’s stative verb source. Thus, one essential aspect of the search for the parameters governing copula use in a multi-copula language, such as N. Pwo, is to consider the copula’s source and how it is used in discourse.
Distinctive Verbs of Thai Teenagers’ speech

Apisara Pholnarat
Kasetsart University

A verb, one of the basic and the most important word class in human languages. People of different age may select different words, particularly verbs to express their thoughts. Age is one of the important factors for language variations. The researcher noticed that Thai teenagers tend to create new words to be used among themselves. The word [thēp] originated as a noun referring to "angels", but teenagers commonly used it as a verb this word to give the meaning "to excel at something" as in (1)

(1) น่าจะเห็นเปิดมาดวดนัยห่วย
She's the only one who is really keen on computer in the classroom.

This article aims to: 1) analyze the verbs that represent characteristics of teenagers, following Lexicase Dependency Grammar, 2) examine the distinctive verb constructions used by Thai teenagers. 3) analyze the notable features of the language construction of Thai teenagers. The data were collected from 30 teenagers, aged 11-22 years, who used standard Thai in their everyday lives. Data were also collected from interviews, radio conversations and magazines. Verbs used by teenagers then were compared with those who are older.

The results of the study shows that 1) 23 verbs are found to be solely used by teenagers; 2) 5 kinds of word formation are found: clipping, borrowing, compounding, functional shift, and semantic extension; 3) The new pattern of serial verbs called ‘Stative Verb Construction’ (StativeSVCs) which has been found only in the teenagers’ speech. This SVC are found to violate the serial verb construction rules by having a stative verbs in the second or third position of SVC, as shown in (2)

(2) น่าจะดันเอาเจ้าส่าจ้าดม
"She walked fat in Siam."

These language features are found only among teenagers. They are then the language which can be used to identify Thai teenagers’ speech. People who would like to re-image themselves as teenagers might try to adapt such language features to feel young and fit in belong to the group and build up a new image as Amara Prasithrathsint (2556) said "language can build new image" called "linguistic constructionidentity".

References
Reduplication is a productive morphological process found in all spoken languages and sign languages. In spoken languages, reduplication has two main functions: augmentation and diminution (Hurch. 2005). Take Thai for an example. rew-rew is an augmentation of the meaning of the adjective ‘quick’. Meanwhile, caang-caang is a diminution of the meaning of the adjective ‘faded’. The purpose of this study is to examine the function of reduplication in Thai Sign Language (TSL) to see whether it has the same duty as it does in spoken languages. The researcher studied 1,000 signs of TSL vocabulary and found that reduplication in TSL serves two functions: to change from a verb to a noun. For example, the sign for ‘teacher’ is the reduplication of the sign for ‘teach’. Another function is to increase the degree of an adjective. For example, to sign ‘be fine’ twice means ‘be happy’. Changing from a verb to a noun by reduplication is also found in other sign languages (Pfau and Steinbach. 2005). We can conclude that in spoken languages, reduplication is a semantic process since it mainly affects the meaning of a word while it is also a syntactic process in a sign language since it changes a word class. In spoken languages, intonation plays an important role in meaning augmentation and diminution. However, in sign languages, speakers are not able to express their feelings through their voice and therefore use other strategies instead such as facial expression, the size of a sign and the exaggeration of the movement. This study sheds new light on word formation and shows that a semantic process in spoken languages may be a syntactic process in sign languages.

References


Verb Morphology in Rawang: A Comparison of the Lungmi and Matwang Varieties

Rachel Powelson
Payap University

Rawang [ISO: raw] is a Central Tibeto-Burman language spoken by approximately 62,000 people in Northern Kachin State, Myanmar. Matwang, the variety of Rawang used as a standard for writing, has been documented to a limited extent by Robert Morse in the 1960s and Randy LaPolla in recent years. Lungmi is thought to be the most divergent variety of Rawang (Lewis 2014). However, very little documentation has been done for this variety.

Rawang is an agglutinating language, and Matwang verbs contain markings for person, transitivity, directionality, tense, and aspect, as described by LaPolla. The person marking system has been described in his 2007 paper. The Matwang person marking system is hierarchical in that the verb will be marked according to the plurality of at least one of its arguments, giving preference to first and second person arguments. This system is shown in the following examples, taken from LaPolla 2007:

è-tø-shì-ē ‘You(dl) are short’
è-tø-nøng-ē ‘You(pl) are short’
è-shvt-shì-ē ‘S/he kill/hit you(dl)’
è-shvt-nøng-ē ‘S/he kill/hit you(pl)’

This paper will investigate the person marking system on Lungmi verbs to find how this system differs from that in the Matwang variety. Like Matwang verbs, Lungmi verbs show a hierarchical pattern of person marking. However, unlike in Matwang, the person markings used on transitive verbs are not the same as those used on intransitive verbs, as shown in the following examples:

latét í-na ‘He/she/they is/are short’
abeíng-go ‘S/he hit him/her/them’

On transitive verbs, Lungmi seems to give preference to markings for second person arguments.

l-abeíng-ge ‘You(sg) hit me’
l-abeíng-ge ‘You (sg) hit us(dl)’
l-abeíng-gan ‘S/he hit me’
l-abeíng-shi ‘S/he hit us(dl).’
abeíng-gan ‘I hit you(sg)’
abeíng-shi ‘I hit you(dl)’

References:


Identity and language use on Twitter: A comparative analysis of tweets by Thai celebrity and ordinary users

Woramon Prawatmuang and Warit Prawatmuang

University of Cambridge; Cobham Wireless

This study investigates the use of Twitter by two groups of Thai users with different identities, namely celebrities and ordinary people, by focusing on their purposes in using the service and linguistic properties of their tweets. Our analysis shows that Thai celebrities tend to use Twitter for a self-promoting purpose and their messages are likely to be written in a one-to-many fashion. On the contrary, ordinary people are more likely to use Twitter to communicate with specific Twitter users who are probably friends in their real life, thus sometimes writing tweets in a one-to-one fashion. Ordinary users are also more likely to write tweets that express their emotions.

Based on these differences, the study hypothesized that ordinary people's tweets contain more sensitive contents than celebrities' tweets. To test this hypothesis, we analyzed 203 tweets by Thai celebrity Twitter users and 264 tweets by Thai ordinary Twitter users using five linguistic predictors for tweet sensitivity provided in Houghton & Joinson (2012), namely third person singular pronouns, verbs, prepositions, present tense and future tense. According to Houghton and Joinson, sensitive tweets tend to contain more third person singular pronouns, verbs and prepositions, and fewer words that suggest present or future tense. Since third person singular pronouns are usually omitted in Thai and their number of occurrence in our data sample is very low, this predictor is not included in our further analysis.

Within the remaining four predictors, three of them (verbs, present tense and future tense) support our hypothesis that ordinary users' tweets are more sensitive than the celebrities' counterparts. Specifically, ordinary people's tweets contain a higher number of verbs indicating actions and feelings, with an average of 2.53 verbs per tweet, while the number for celebrities' tweets is 1.89 verbs per tweet. Fewer number of ordinary people's tweets mention events happening in the present or in the future, compared to those from celebrities. Tweets from ordinary people mentioning current and future events each take up 4.62% of their total number of tweets. The rest of their tweets are either in past tense or undefined for tense. In contrast, celebrities' tweets that mention current and future events take up 15.47% and 23.2% of their total number of tweets respectively.

One linguistic predictor for tweet sensitivity that is not supported by our data is the number of prepositions. Contrasting to a finding by Houghton and Joinson, our data do not seem to suggest that ordinary people use more prepositions in their tweets than celebrities do. Further analysis on functions of the four linguistic markers and their relationship with sensitivity of contents may explain why our results are partially in line with Houghton and Joinson's.

Reference:
Vietnamese Classifiers and the Expression of Definiteness and Indefiniteness
Kim Ngoc Quang, and Walter Bisang
Johannes Gutenberg University-Mainz

Numeral classifiers are an area characteristic of East and mainland Southeast Asian languages. In many of these languages, they do not only occur with numerals but also in the bare classifier construction [CL N] for expressing definiteness and indefiniteness (on Sinitic, cf. Cheng & Sybesma 1999; Li & Bisang 2012). In Vietnamese, the function of the [CL N]-construction is discussed controversially. While some authors (T. H. Nguyen 2004; Hanske 2013) argue that the classifier in [CL N] can express definiteness as well as indefiniteness, others claim that it only marks definiteness (Tran 2011).

The present paper will analyse the (in)definiteness function of the classifier on the basis of an experiment with 22 speakers of Vietnamese who were asked to tell what they saw in a film of ten minutes duration. The analysis of these texts clearly shows that the classifier are not obligatory and that they can mark definiteness as well as indefiniteness.

Obligatoriness: There are various factors that determine the use of classifiers. In discourse, protagonists of the narrative occur more frequently in the [CL N]-construction than nouns denoting backgrounded concepts. Classifiers are also used in the context of contrast and reintroduced topics. Semantically, the use of the classifier depends on the semantic property of [±relational]. Non-relational nouns take the classifier much more frequently than relational nouns.

On (in)definiteness: The paper will discuss (in)definiteness effects produced by verb class (stative, activity, accomplishment, achievement, copula), tense-aspect marking, resultative verbs and negation.

What is irrelevant for the interpretation of Vietnamese classifiers is word order. In most Sinitic languages, the (in)definiteness interpretation of the classifier in the [CL N]-construction crucially depends on its occurrence in the preverbal vs. postverbal position (Wu & Bodomo 2009, Li & Bisang 2012). In Vietnamese, the (in)definiteness interpretation is determined by a much larger number of factors as discussed above.

References:
An Exploration of Syntax Phonology Interface Problems in Khmer

Ivanna Richardson
Concordia University

The interface between phonology and syntax provides an active research base for theoretical linguistics. Facts of syntactic hierarchy can be explored through the manifestations of phonological alternations, referred to as liaison. Following Selkirk (1972) liaison in languages can be shown to provide evidence for hypothesized syntactic ‘closeness’.

(1) un marchand de [draps[z] anglais]
’a merchant of English sheets’
(2) un [marchand de draps[ɔ]] anglais
’an English sheet-merchant’

In examples (1) and (2) from Selkirk (1972), the syntactic ‘closeness’ between the lexical item ‘drapes’ and either the ‘merchant’ or the ‘sheets’ gives rise to evidence of liaison. The Syntactic structure is itself represented in the sound pattern of the utterance. In subsequent work on the phonology-syntax interaction, by Selkirk and others, the significance of the contrast between functional and open-class lexical items has played a significant role, the former typically showing "tighter" phonological effects with surrounding words than the latter.

In this paper I explore certain homophonous lexical items, one version of which is a functional element, the homophous other one being from the "open-class" category, subjecting the pair to detailed phonetic analysis in a wide range of phonological contexts. I will focus on segment duration within the homophones as well as phonological processes (assimilation and other low-level modification) arising from the relationship between the target words and adjacent words, particularly those with whom the target words bear a close syntactic relationship. My informants are native speakers of Khmer. The first was born in the eastern province of Cambodia, Kompong Cham in the 1950’s and immigrated to Canada when he was in his mid 20’s; he speaks French and English as second languages. The second is female. She was born south of Phnom Penh and immigrated to Canada in her 50’s and does not speak any other language. The third, whose data I rely on most heavily, was born in a refugee camp in Thailand and immigrated to Canada at age 2. He speaks Cambodian natively as this was the primary language spoken at home, as well as being a native speaker of French and English, having been exposed to these at school and at a very young age. All three are part of a larger family unit that settled in Canada during the 1980’s. My research methods follow the adopted norms for linguistic fieldwork and language documentation, and will provide a modern linguistic description of Khmer.

References:
Classifiers and gender in NE India: Evidence of language contact?

Hiram Ring

NTU

Northeast India has frequently been observed to be a contact zone for cultures and language groups (see Chelliah and Lester, 2014), a claim for which historical migrations and lexical borrowings have often been cited. More fine-grained analyses of potential borrowings of syntactic and conceptual systems, however, have yet to be done. The Khasian language family found in the Northeast Indian state of Meghalaya provides ample data for such analyses.

This group of languages belongs to the Austroasiatic phylum, but are separated from their closest relatives by Indo-Aryan and Tibeto-Burman languages. Previous research has noted the similarity in formal realization between Khasian and Tibeto-Burman nominalisation strategies (Ring, 2014), but work on gender has not yet looked at potential language contact influence.

The combination in Khasian languages of gender markers (a feature of Indo-Aryan languages) and numeral classifiers (a feature of Austroasiatic languages) within the Noun Phrase is relevant here. One observation is that Khasian languages, situated geographically in Northeast India, exhibit the South Asian feature of gender as well as the Southeast Asian feature of numeral classifiers. Even more interesting, while surrounding Indo-Aryan languages (which inherited gender from Sanskrit) no longer require gendered NP agreement, Khasian languages do. And while most Austroasiatic languages have a large number of numeral classifiers, the numeral classifier system of Khasian languages is much simpler.

This talk outlines the 3-term gender system of Khasian languages and the system of numeral classifiers. These features are compared to neighboring and related languages that exhibit gender and/or numeral classifiers, with a view toward generating discussion of the possible role of language contact in contributing to these features.

References


The Acquisition of Classifiers in Thai Preschool Children
Phetprapa Sangkharam
Kasetsart University

The acquisition of classifiers for preschool children is interesting because the finding is not yet affected by trainings; one can find the data in term of classifiers form the real concept of children. Tuaycharoen (1984) investigated the acquisition of classifiers of two Thai children, there are six developmental strategies in the use of classifiers from the age of two to five years; the early attempt (2;0-2;6), the noun identification (2;0-2;6), the identical noun deletion (2;6-3;0), the over-extension (3;0-4;6), the trial and error (4;6-5;0) and the dodging (4;6-5;0) (Rungrojsuwan, 2003: 26).

This study aims to investigate the acquisition of classifiers in Thai children from 3-5 years of age. The cross-sectional data was collected from 9 Thai children in Bangkok who use only standard Thai by one-on-one interview. The selected 6 categories of vocabularies were given to them, followed by the collection of naturalistic data.

Unlike previous analyses mentioned, I found some differences in the children's acquisition of classifiers. The finding reveals that Thai children at the age of three years use number counting most. At the age of four years, children tend to use of various classifiers. Specific classifiers are used more and the trial and errors are also found in this period. Finally, at the age of five years, the noun identification is found most. The use of classifiers in this period is less various than the age of four years.

The second interview was conducted gather more information about classifiers. Reasons behind the usage of classifiers can be explained. For example, a five-year-old child explains that the human in his view must be a child or a baby, and that is why the classifier “/lú:k/” is used for human in his speech.

Example:

(1) Noun: human
   Some children classifier using: /lú:k/ (child)
   Correction: /kon/ (human)

References
From Strength to Progressivity: A Diachronic Study of Thai /kamlaŋ/

Wannabha Sapphasit and Naruadol Chancharu
Chulalongkorn University; University of Cambridge

The word form /kamlaŋ/ in Thai is interesting from a historical linguistic perspective for at least two reasons. First, although it is loan word from Khmer and was not attested in any Thai inscription until around 1345 AD, /kamlaŋ/ has undergone such semantic and syntactic changes that make it distinctly different from the corresponding form in Khmer. Second, it is probably difficult to draw a link between its original function as a noun meaning ‘strength, power,’ as in (1), and its newly innovated function as a preverbal particle marking the progressive aspect, as in (4). In order to address these problematic issues, this paper investigates diachronic data of /kamlaŋ/ from 1345 AD to the present, analyzes the syntax and semantics of the form in different construction types, and reconstructs the historical pathways that underlie the development of the form over the course of time. It is found that /kamlaŋ/ can occur in four different constructions, A-D, with distinct semantic and syntactic characteristics. Constructions A and D have been mentioned and are illustrated in (1) and (4), respectively. In Construction B, /kamlaŋ/ functions a verb meaning ‘be ready/fit (to do something)’ or ‘be capable (of doing something),’ as illustrated in (2). Further, Construction C involves the use of the form as a clause-initial complementizer meaning ‘at the moment of (doing something)’ or ‘while’ as illustrated in (3).

(1) chăn màj mii kamlaŋ cà? tham ?à?raj léew
1SG NEG have strength IRR do what PFTV
‘I don’t have the strength to do anything.’

(2) máʔmûaŋ phôn níí kamlaŋ kin
mango CLF DEM be.ready eat
‘This mango is ready to be eaten.’

(3) jîn nán cun lák jutun khûn múa kamlaŋ máa hîc mîʔ dâj jût
woman DEM then rise stand up when at.the.moment horse race NEG PFTV stop
‘The woman, then, rose and stood up while the horse was racing non-stop.’

(4) mèe kamlaŋ thûst plaatuu hâj lûuk~lûuk
mother PROG fry mackerel BEN child~PL
‘The mother is frying mackerel for her children.’

It is found that the use of /kamlaŋ/ in Construction B (verb meaning ‘be ready’) can be linked formally and functionally to that in Construction A (noun meaning ‘strength’) by referring to the principles of syntactic reanalysis and pragmatic inferencing. Construction C (clause-initial complementizer of duration), further, can be derived from Construction A via the process of grammaticalization. Interestingly, the use of /kamlaŋ/ as a preverbal particle marking the progressive aspect in Construction D can be linked to either Construction B or Construction C. In the former link, the change involves a rather typical process of grammaticalization from a lexical verb to a verbal particle. The latter link, however, represents a less common historical pathway, i.e. the regrammaticalization of a complementizer into a verbal marker. The current evidence at hand is ambivalent as regards the two possible pathways. It is hoped that further investigation will shed more light on this residual issue.
On the plain-causative verb pairs in Lhaovo

Hideo Sawada

ILCAA, Tokyo University of Foreign studies

Lhaovo, a Burmish language spoken in Northern Myanmar and Yunnan Province of China has certain amount of phonologically related pairs of plain (non-causative) and causative verbs like Burmese. There are at least 60 pairs of verbs as far as I found. The causative members of the pairs show either of the two features, both of which are remnants of PTB *s-: V[+creaky] or C[+aspirate].

(1) Plain Causative
Class I pømL- "to wake up to" pømL- "to remind";
kyaukF- "to be scared" kyaukH- "to scare (vt.)";
yapF- "to sleep" yapH- "to get sb. to sleep"
Class II kyaŋF- "to lie down" kyaŋH- "to lay down";
pyitF- "to cut (vi.)" phyitH- "to cut (vt.)"

Almost all simple verbs with nasal/fricative/approximant/lateral initials have their causative counterparts of the class I because the initials do not have the aspirate counterparts. But even for simple verbs with stop/affricate initials, the causative counterparts of the class II are fairly less than those of the class I. Among them, there is no causative members of the class II with dental stop and dental fricative initials. For other stop and affricate initials, it seems unpredictable which class the causative member belongs to from the form of its plain counterpart. Many but not all causative members bear tone H irrespective of the tone of their plain counterpart. Again, it seems unpredictable whether a causative member bear tone H or not from the form of its plain counterpart.

Many plain-causative verb pairs also constitute a constructional pair as in the following example.

(2)a. khamL buŋH-TA-raH
door openVI-RLS-RA
yŋL khamL(-reF) phuŋH-TA-raH
b. he door(-ACC) openVT-RLS-RA

But it is not applicable to all verb pairs. In such cases as ngaŋH- "to be smooth" vs. ngaŋH- "to repair"; papL- "to be rotten" vs. papH- "to ferment" there must have occurred semantic change in the causative members (or perhaps both members). Several verb pairs show co-occurrence restriction between each member and its S/O argument as in the following example containing pyo?fF- "to break (vi.)" and phyo?fH- "to break (vt.)"

(3)a. yhaŋF/zeŋF pyo?f-TA-raH
house/bridge breakVI-RLS-RA
-ACC breakVT-RLS-RA

(4)a.*moLoL/fuŋH pyo?f-TA-raH
car/phone breakVI-RLS-RA
b. moLoL/fuŋH (-reF) phyo?f-H-TA-raH
-ACC breakVT-RLS-RA

Furthermore, even in the verb pairs which do not seem to involve semantic change nor co-occurrence restriction, my consultant recommends to modify either of the two or both by additional elements to enhance the reading of each constructions. Plain verbs with stative meaning tend to be occur with an auxiliary -vaH "REALIZATION", and causative members tend to occur with a pre-modifier verbs tsayH-V "to do something so as to V" and a post-modifier verb V-ke? "to V effectively".
SEALS 25 Papers
Contact and convergence in Northern Austroasiatic

Paul Sidwell

Australian National University

It is a striking feature of the Austroasiatic phylum that while the 13 or so branches all formed a long thousands of year ago, many have remained in close proximity to each other and in some cases it is possible to trace a history of mutual influence and borrowing. This causes problems for classification and historical reconstruction, especially when contact runs (apparently) historically very deeply.

Received classifications of Austroasiatic, presented over many decades, have tended to treat the Palaungic and Khmuic branches as sisters within a northern clade, often called “Northern Mon-Khmer”. These studies have been lexicostatistical (e.g. Headley 1976, Peiros 1998, 2004), based on identifying apparent old innovations (e.g. Diffloth 1977), or simply asserted without supporting evidence (e.g. Diffloth 2005).

The writer has been pursuing historical reconstruction of northern Austroasiatic branches by traditional methods, and augmenting this with computational phylogenetic analyses. The work has revealed strong indications that Palaungic and Khmuic share no special genetic relation within Austroasitic, but instead share a long history of contact and mutual borrowing that has tended to obscure the real story. Evidence will be presented to support a hypothesis that Khasian and Palaungic actually for a subgroup, with the former spitting away and migrating westward probably more than 2000 years ago. Since then Palaungic and Khmuic remained in contact experiencing gradual lexical convergence, including borrowing of forms that are readily mistaken for “Northern Mon-Khmer” innovations.

The geographical distribution of apparent borrowings suggests that they were predominantly (but far from exclusively) from Khmuic into Palaungic. We present and discuss a substantial list of these apparent loans and their interpretation, including implications for sub-grouping classification and reconstruction of settlement and migration routes.

References
Pronoun retention in RC formation of L2 learners of Thai

Wutthinan Sitecha
Valaya Alongkorn Rajabhat University and Kasetsart University

Relative clause is one way to elaborate one's speech. It is one of the commonly used constructions in both spoken and written languages. Pronoun Retention is one of the strategies that has been used to form relative clauses in many languages, including Thai and Chinese.

Considering the similarity and difference in relative clauses between Thai and Chinese, Chinese has prenominal relative clause construction whereas Thai has postnominal relative clauses. Although Thai and Chinese are similar in making use of gaps and pronoun retention strategies, they differ in the position of gaps and pronoun retentions. While Thai relative clauses optionally allow pronoun retention in all positions, Xu Yi (2011; p. 69) found that pronoun retention is obligatorily used in the relativization of Chinese indirect object (IO) and object of preposition (OBL) while the other positions are optional. However, it is noticed that some Chinese language learners fail to recognize what is acceptable in Thai. For example, a sentence meaning ‘the man who he came yesterday’ would be possible in Thai but most Chinese learners think it is unacceptable.

In this paper, the researcher would like to examine the use of pronoun retention in Chinese learners of Thai to see whether the typological differences of their first languages affect their acquisition of Thai relative clauses. The data were elicited by the sentence combination and grammaticality judgment tasks. The result showed that not only the gap strategy, but pronoun retention strategy is also used by the subjects to form Thai relative clauses. Chinese learners do not accept the use of pronoun retention to form a relative clause in direct object position. Moreover, the study showed the consistency between the first and second languages.

Reference

Globalization in Code-Mixing: A Case Study of Lanna (Northern Thai) Context

Phattharathanit Srichomthong

Faculty of Liberal Arts, Maejo University

This study explores globalization features involved as code-mixing in the Lanna or Northern Thai spontaneous context. Five groups of fourteen graduate students were asked to talk about their study in Lanna or Northern Thai, which is their mother-local language known among people of the 8 northern provinces of Thailand as “Kam Mueang”. They did not only use words in monolingual Lanna and Thai, but also in bilingual Thai and English, and especially in various mixtures of bilingual Lanna and Thai, Lanna and English, Thai and English, and multilingual Lanna, Thai and English. The code-mixing involving English was especially studied since English is considered the language of globalization, according to Hjarvard (2004), Gorter (2006), Huebner (2006), and Srichomthong (2014). The mix between Thai and English was used the most frequently. The use of monolingual English was at a high frequency when concentrating on all word patterns consisting of English. English words revealing features of globalization include general academic terms, specific academic terms, technology, telecommunication and cultures. English words have been widely used either in mixing with the local language or in borrowing, and both in terms of spoken and written forms in the Lanna area as well as in other places of the globe. The globalization sphere enters through English as a common feature into people’s lives rendering the present world society to become more and more borderless.
Comprehension of the Shecyü variety across Tangshang

Nathan Statezni

This study examines the extent to which Tangshang people in Myanmar from 55 different sub-tribes can understand the Shecyü (also called Shangke) variety, which is considered prestigious by many Tangshang people. The methodologies used included wordlist comparison of 48 sub-tribe lects, group interviews regarding dialect perceptions with 25 sub-tribes, and in-depth interviews with 187 people from the Shecyü and six other sub-tribes, including comprehension testing of a short oral Shecyü narrative. Comprehension testing was weighted highest, followed by wordlist comparison, individual self-reported comprehension, group self-reported comprehension, and finally data reported by the Shecyü regarding how other sub-tribes communicate with them.

Very few sub-tribes (5 out of 55) were found to understand Shecyü well.
The logic of kinship terms in Rawang  
Nathan Straub  
Payap University

The Rawang ethnic group of Northern Myanmar has a complex kinship system, which has never been formally described in English in any great detail, although some hints are given in Barnard 1934:114. (The closely-related Dulong group in China is analyzed in Gros 2005:316-341 in French, and a few customs are mentioned in Sun & Liu 2009:6 for Anong.) Sarep 1996:95 describes Rawang kinship as Iroquois-type in the north, with some features of the Omaha type in the central and southern areas due to influence from Jingpho. In this system, cross-aunts and cross-uncles are called by the same terms as parents-in-law, and parallel-aunts and parallel-uncles are called by the same terms as step-parents. Similarly, siblings and parallel cousins sometimes share the same terms, and terms for nieces and nephews are typically split by sister's vs. brother's side. Such affinities can be explained by reference to patrilineal and matrilineal concerns, and to certain marriage customs that affect both lifestyle and language even today. Data for this paper is drawn from published wordlists and personal interviews with speakers of several Rawang dialects.

Works cited:
Verb-Stem Alternations in Horpa Languages

Jackson T.-S. Sun and Qianzi Tian
ILAS, Academia Sinica, Institute of Sino-Tibetan Studies, Yunnan Normal University

In the vast Sino-Tibetan family, languages showing verb stem alternations of any sort are extremely rare. Well-known exceptions are Kuki-Chin, Tibetic, and Rgyalrongic languages. The latter subgroup comprises at least three distinct clusters: Rgyalrong, Lavrung, and Horpa, whose genetic unity is borne out among other things by uniquely shared alternation patterns in verb-stem formation, namely ablaut, aspiration and tonal flip-flop, and identity of stem form in the past and the progressive (J. Sun 2000a, 2000b). Within the highly innovative Horpa cluster, the above-mentioned alternation features are best preserved in Shangzhai, while only scant traces can be found in the Gexi and Geshiza varieties (Huang 1991, Duo’erji 1998, our own field notes). However, our recent fieldwork has unearthed several other Horpa languages with stem modification morphology comparable in complexity to those attested in Shangzhai.

In this paper, we present a comparative account of the segmental and suprasegmental alternations involved in the derivation of secondary verb stems in selected Horpa languages, as well as their functional distribution. Care will be taken to set apart archaic and innovative features, as only the latter can be invoked to shed light on the internal structure of the highly diverse Horpa linguistic group.

References
In Comparative Hmong-Mien linguistics, scholars have observed aberrant correspondence patterns in quite a few meaning items where tones and onsets show regular correspondences, but exhibit irregularities in terms of rhymes. In some of these cases, many Hmongic languages show a nasal coda, but the Mienic languages do not have a nasal in that position. Wang and Mao (1995), a reconstruction of Proto-Hmong-Mien (PHM), tend to treat such correspondences as coming from a common ancestral form. They reconstruct forms with a nasal coda for some meaning items, such as MOUSE *\u0110\u0129B, and forms without a nasal coda for others, such as DAY *hnw\u0103iA, but do not give any explanation on this issue. Ratliff (2010), the latest reconstruction, basically divides these cases into two etyma. I have found that nasals indicate a skewed distribution in Proto-Hmongic (Wang 1994, Ratliff 2010): a nasal onset does not occur in an open syllable in general. This observation is directly connected to the former observation. In this paper, I will try to explain the skewed distribution of nasal codas in Hmongic by identifying distinct patterns of nasal copying (NV > NVN) in the stage of Proto-Hmongic. Recognizing nasal copying as a historical change, we can relate some of the etyma that have been separately reconstructed in Ratliff (2010). Furthermore, we can dismiss some of the Proto-Hmong-Mien (PHM) rhymes that Wang and Mao (1995) and Ratliff (2010) reconstructed, thus, can simplify the picture of the PHM rhymes.

References
Linguistic Features of Mid-18th Century Yang Zhuang as Reflected in the “Sino-Foreign Translated Words”

Chung-Pui Tai and Hanbo Liao
The University of Hong Kong; Payap University

The “Sino-Foreign Translated Words” (Chinese: Huá Yí Yì Yǔ) is a series of bilingual glossaries and texts between Chinese and other languages. The series was first compiled in 1382 AD by the Hánlín Academy of the Chinese Imperial Court for the purpose of translating diplomatic documents and training the translators. In 1748 the series was expanded, following the imperial decree, to cover the languages of ethnic minorities in China. Among the new volumes there was a glossary titled “Translated Words of the Native Chieftain County Affiliated to Zhèn’ān Prefecture” (Chinese: Zhèn’ān Fǔ Shū Tǔzhōu Xiànshī Yìyǔ), which records the Zhuang dialect of present-day Débāo County, a Central Tai variety which is also known as Yang Zhuang. The sole copy of this glossary is now preserved in the Palace Museum (The Forbidden City) in Beijing. The content of this glossary has not been published yet.

The aim of this paper are to provide a comprehensive description of the entries in the glossary, and to analyze the structure of Zhuang characters in the volume. The paper will also attempt to investigate the linguistic features of mid-18th century Yang Zhuang, despite the fact that in the glossary the pronunciation of Yang Zhuang words was recorded in Chinese characters which reveal limited information on the sound value.

A few entries, however, do reflect the sound change in Yang Zhuang. For example the pronunciation for “mouse” was recorded by the Chinese character “奴” (Putonghua: nú), which contains a back vowel in nearly all Chinese dialects. In present-day Yang Zhuang, “mosue” is called [nį5] in the county seat of Débāo County and its neighboring villages, while in other townships it is pronounced as [nou1]. The record in the glossary, which was based on the variety of the county seat, reveals that the word was also pronounced as [nou1] during the mid-18th century, while the use of [nį5] was a later development.
The pragmatic functions of the question word what in Cebuano

Michael Tanangkingsing
National Taipei University of Technology
miguelt@ms19.hinet.net

The wh- words in Cebuano normally occur in clause-initial position in equational constructions. In this study, I will investigate in greater depth the pragmatic functions of these interrogative wh- words by unsa, which is equivalent to ‘what’. Using a five-hour conversation data, from where tokens of unsa expressions will be culled and analyzed, it will be shown that the interrogative word unsa has evolved many pragmatic uses; preliminary investigation results indicate that it can serve as a placeholder or a replacement word when a speaker is still searching for the right word to say, similar to the Cebuano expression ku’an and similar ‘whatchamacallit’ placeholder words in other languages (e.g., Indonesian anu, see Yap and MV Sri Hartini 2011; Cantonese matje, see Yap, Chor and Lam 2012; and Mandarin shenme, see Lee, Su and Tao [LST] 2014). It can also be used as an expression of complaint indicating the feeling of being treated unfairly. It has also grammaticized into a discourse marker, as well as a stance marker in the expression unsa=ka (diha’), literally, ‘what (are) you (there),’ conveying disbelief or surprise at an unexpected statement or action of another person. Similar to LST (2014), the study will show that these pragmatic uses are usually located in negative situations/circumstances, and that discourse context is significantly important in shaping and, especially, in revealing these nonreferential functions.

Examples (simplified for space reasons)

1. unsa as a placeholder
   na’a=ka=y mga ku’an mga unsa ni mga manghod
   EXIST=2SG.NOM=NEUT PL KUAN PL PH this PL younger.sibling
   ‘You have er…, younger siblings?’

2. unsa as an expression of complaint
   unsa=man=na’=kayo=sila oy!
   what=PAR=that=very=3PL.NOM VOC
   ‘They’re so . . . [word search].’ (lit., ‘They’re so like what!’)

3. unsa as a discourse marker
   unsa, na-lingaw=ka dong/
   DM AV-amused=2SG.NOM VOC
   ‘So, Dong, were you amused?’

4. unsa as a marker for disbelief/surprise
   na-unsa=ka diha’
   AV-what=2SG.NOM there
   ‘What are you thinking!’

Selected References


Functional Extension of the Verb for ‘to like’ in Thai to the Frequentative Aspectual Marker

Kachen Tansiri and Kingkarn Thepkanjana
Kasetsart University; Chulalongkorn University

It has been observed typologically as well as diachronically that lexical sources of habitual and frequentative markers are verbs meaning ‘to know’ ‘to sit’ ‘to be’ ‘to go’ ‘to live’ ‘to see’ and ‘to be used to’ (Bybee et al. 1994: 154). However, Thai exhibits another lexical source which is the verb meaning ‘to like’, namely, ชื่อ. The verb, ชื่อ, originally denotes a psychological state of the subject liking something or liking doing something, e.g. ฉัน ชื่อ กระเป๋า  보기 (I-like-bag-CLS-this) ‘I like this bag’ and ฉัน ชื่อ อาหาร ทำ (I-like-cook-food) ‘I like cooking.’ Interestingly, when the verb, ชื่อ, is followed by a verb phrase as in the second example, it is ambiguous in that it can express a psychological state of the subject or it can portray events repeated on different situations. The second meaning corresponds to the frequentative aspectual meaning. Thus, the second example, ฉัน ชื่อ อาหาร ทำ ‘I-like-cook-food,’ can have the two interpretations: ‘I like cooking’ and ‘I often cook’. The frequentative meaning is more salient in the construction whose subject is an inanimate participant as in ฝน ชื่อ ตก ที่ เย็น (rain-like-fall-at-evening-evening) ‘It often rains in the evening.’ In this case, ชื่อ does not function as a main verb but functions as a grammatical marker expressing frequentative aspect which is roughly translated as ‘often,’ ‘usually,’ or ‘frequently’ in English.

The aim of this paper is to discuss the functional extension of the aspectual meaning of ชื่อ from the lexical verbal source of ‘to like’ in Thai. It is argued that the functional extension chain of ชื่อ consists of four stages, i.e. the initial stage, the bridging context, the switch context and the conventionalization. The frequentative aspect of ชื่อ is argued to be pragmatically derived. It is interesting to investigate in future research whether the functional extension of ชื่อ presented in this study corresponds with grammaticalization of this verb viewed from a diachronic perspective. In addition, it is worth looking into both the synchronic functional extension and the diachronic grammaticalization of the verb for ‘to like’ across languages. Crosslinguistic studies of the verbs with this meaning may shed light on human cognitive processing at large.

Reference

Reading syllable-spaced vs. word-spaced text in Hmong Daw:  
Breaking up isn't so hard to do  

*Seth Vitrano-Wilson*  
*Payap University*

Language groups making decisions about how to write their language must consider not only how to represent different sounds, but also how to use spaces. Globally, languages that use the Latin script typically use spaces between words, as in European languages. Most linguists writing guidelines for orthography development assume that word spacing is optimal, and focus instead on exactly where word boundaries are located.

In Mainland Southeast Asia, the use of spaces is quite diverse, ranging from spaces between every syllable for Vietnamese to no spaces at all for Chinese. As a result, groups in the region often consider a number of options for spacing. While much research has compared reading speeds for word-spaced and unspaced text, the effects of word spacing and syllable spacing on reading speed have rarely been compared.

Three experiments were therefore performed to compare people reading word-spaced texts and syllable-spaced texts in Hmong Daw, using the Latin script orthography known as RPA. RPA text is commonly found in both word-spaced and syllable-spaced formats. Readers in both the United States and Thailand were tested. The first experiment, with Hmong readers in the US, examined the effect of spacing style on reading speed for a set of stories. In the second experiment, Hmong readers in Thailand read the same stories as the first experiment, but the stories were presented and timed one sentence at a time. In the third experiment, readers in both the US and Thailand read isolated polysyllabic words with and without intersyllable spaces.

The results showed no overall difference in reading speed between the two spacing styles when people read naturally connected stories. However, syllable spacing was found to be faster than word spacing for the test of isolated words, and for sentences with polysyllabic words that readers had not yet seen within the test. The results from the test of isolated words provide the basis for suggestions of which types of words tend to benefit most from joining or separation with spaces, and suggest that a purely linguistic definition of a word does not necessarily correlate with the optimal spacing style for ease of reading in Hmong Daw.

The lack of an advantage for word spacing in Hmong Daw, and the advantage for syllable spacing in certain contexts, is contrary to the common assumption among linguists involved in orthography development that word spacing is the optimal spacing choice for all languages. This study suggests that syllable spacing is a valid option for certain languages in the right sociolinguistic situations.
An investigation of the merger of -ak and -at/-ap finals in Burmese

Justin Watkins

SOAS

For some time, it has been apparent that the pronunciation of the syllable rhyme spelled ꗟ (Written Burmese [WB] -ak) has been changing from the pronunciation [e?] described in most standard descriptions of the language (e.g. Okell 1995) towards [a?]. This makes the pronunciation of ꗟ (WB -ak) very similar indeed, and in some cases identical, to the normal pronunciation of rhymes ꗞ and ꗞ (WB -at and -ap). WB -at and -ap are pronounced exactly the same. This apparent merge has serious implications for the vowel system of Burmese: the lexical burden of the WB -ak vs WB -at/-ap contrast is considerable and the collapse of this contrast introduces a large number of new homophones, such as:

- WB phyak ‘destroy’ [pʰjeʔ → pʰjaʔ] ꗞꗞ phyat ‘cut’ [pʰjaʔ]
- WB tak ‘ascend’ [tɛʔ → taʔ] ꗞ WB tap ‘install’ [taʔ]

There is documented evidence of such homophony in the form of spelling errors which seem odd to speakers who have not adopted the merger. Such as:

- at instead of -ak: ꗞꗞ WB a-khai, for ꗞꗞWB a-khai ‘difficulty’
- ak instead of -at: ꗞꗞ WB kak-kre”, for ꗞꗞWB kat-kre” ‘scissors’

Impressionistically, it seems that the first speakers in whose phonology these sounds have merged are young (perhaps 30 or under), urban (from Yangon, perhaps also Mandalay) and female.

Firstly, this study investigates the phonetics of the merger with an acoustic analysis of the formant frequencies of the WB -ak vs WB -at/-ap finals read by a large number of speakers. The data were collected using an internet-accessible questionnaire which elicited read speech in a variety of contexts.

Secondly, data selected from the continuum of variation found in the acoustic study were presented to Burmese speakers in a perception study to determine the extent to which speakers who have or have not adopted the merge still perceive them to be different.

Finally, a summary of qualitative data is presented. Burmese speakers who participated in the study were all asked if they are aware of the merger, what they think about it, and whether or not it is reflected in their own speech.

Reference:

Toward a typology of irrealis: A case study of White Hmong in its Mainland Southeast Asian context

Nathan White
Trinity Western University

This paper looks at the system of irrealis in White Hmong in its broader Southeast Asian context. First, the scholarly debate over irrealis and what exactly it marks is briefly reviewed, with special attention given to the cross-linguistic manifestations of irrealis as treated by Palmer (2001) and Givón (2001). Second, the irrealis systems of Thai (Smyth 2002/2014, Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom 2005, etc.), Lao (Enfield 2003, 2007), Cantonese (Matthews & Yip 1994), and Vietnamese (Thompson 1965, etc.) are considered, along with examples from other languages in the region, providing a background for discussion. Third, the irrealis system of White Hmong is presented in detail, drawing from original research as well as sources such as Mottin (1978) and Jarkey (1991, 2006). The system includes: 1) positive irrealis yuav ‘will’ and negative irrealis txhob ‘do not, should not’, 2) a system of modal verbs with at least three major varieties of ability marking, indicated by tau ‘general ability’, txawj ‘know how to’, and taus ‘physical/material ability’, and 3) a system of adverbs which includes an irrealis adverb mam (li) ‘will’ and six epistemic modal adverbs. Fourth, the system of White Hmong is compared and contrasted with the forms found in other languages in the region. Common traits shared between White Hmong and at least some of the other languages include a general irrealis marker that is closely tied to future time, a set of modal verbs that include multiple distinct markers of ability, and a finite set of modal adverbs. Several of the languages also possess one or more distinct negative imperative markers, a role that the White Hmong negative irrealis txhob serves.
Agency and ideology in Thai discourse: A case study of political science texts

Ingrid Wijeyewardene
University of New England

This paper reports on a study of agency in three Thai political science texts. Agency is a key notion that attributes power to and legitimates or delegitimizes some social actors and ideas over others. This paper draws on the tools of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (e.g., Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Pattama, 2006) to ascertain how the writers of three academic texts (Chaiwat, 2007; Khien, 2006; Pitch, 2007) construe participants and agency or the lack of agency in the exercise and contestation of power. To elicit conceptions of agency and ideology, I refer to Duranti’s (2007) definition of agency in language, and to Fairclough’s (1992) notion of discourse as the ideological use of language in social or cultural contexts. I argue that the writers of the three Thai texts attribute agency to social actors, events and ideas as a means to convey their position on the legitimacy of certain political events. The way in which the writers attribute agency reflects their different ideological positions. That is, their positions are expressed through the way that the authors attribute different degrees of control or lack of control that social actors have over their environment or other participants, or in the degree to which ideas or events are construed as impacting in some way on participants in the clause. This paper explores how the writers construe who/what does what to whom – which grammatical participants are agents, and which are affected by an action – and the manner in which the writers valorise some actors, events or ideas over others through the lexicogrammatical choices that they make in the texts. In particular, the study analyses the transitivity choices in these three texts and investigates how the three articles construe people and particular social groupings (phûu khon, prachaachon, phräi, phonlamuang), various institutions (ráthbaan, rát, tháháan), events (ráthaprahãan) and ideas, which of these are construed as possessing agency, and which are represented as passive or affected participants.

References


Works in Thai:

Hkongso word order: an anomaly
Jonathan Wright
Payap University

Hkongso is a Tibeto-Burman language of less than 5,000 speakers in Southern Chin State, Myanmar, and is spoken northeast of Paletwa along the Paletchaung and Michaung rivers. Hkongso immediately stands out as an anomaly in the area. Hkongso has no inflectional morphology, almost no derivational morphology, no verb stem alternation, and no classifier system. The most striking contrast is Hkongso’s SVO word order.

In this paper on Hkongso word order, a closer look at its word order typology reveals a language that is not only unique among its neighbors and the Tibeto-Burman family but throughout the world. About the Tibeto-Burman area, Dryer (2008: 11) states, “VO order is found in only two groups, namely Karen and Bai, and the remaining languages are all not only OV but generally fairly rigidly verb-final.” Hkongso is SVO but shows many OV word order features such as SComp and RelN, which make it anomalous in the world of SVO languages. In fact, the SComp feature is so rare, that Dryer (2012: 76) states, “The sole instance in my database of a VO language with final complementizer is Hkongso, a Tibeto-Burman language of Burma.”

RelN order in SVO language is also highly irregular. Not long ago this possibility was not even believed to exist. Payne (1997:326) states, “Languages which are dominantly VO in main-clause constituent order always have postnominal relative clauses.” More recently Dryer (2008: 22) states, “This RelN order is extremely unusual among VO languages.”

Other word order features to be discussed in comparison to other Tibeto-Burman languages include the order of negation in the verb phrase (NegV) and the order of dependents in the noun phrase (NAdj, DemN, NNum, AdjDeg).

This paper will also look into explanations as to how a language such as Hkongso came about, revealing the historical shift in the language as the people migrated across linguistic boundaries, which will further the work presented by Peterson and Wright (2009), calling for a new Tibeto-Burman grouping.

References:
Expressing Cantonese tone contrasts in musical intervals

Suki Yiu
University of Hong Kong

To record the principal phonetic characteristic of lexical tone, i.e. fundamental frequency (F0), Chao (1956) developed the 5-level transcription of tonal pitch variation with the use of sliding-pitchpipes. When the pitch of the pitchpipe matches the pitch of the linguistic tone, the pitch values of a linguistic tone (the starting and ending points, also a turning point between the two if any) can be notated on a staff. The major advantage of this method is that the relativity of pitch, and thus the spatial relationship among lexical tones, could be recorded musically. The tones are represented phonologically on a tone scale with five numeric values from 1 to 5, a method commonly adopted for Chinese languages. Echoing Chao’s method of notating the lexical tones via a musical means, this paper explores how linguistic tones can be understood in terms of musical intervals (MIs) based on the data obtained in Cantonese.

Six Cantonese speakers balanced for biological gender are selected. The F0 of the tones traditionally classified in the same tonal category are extracted with Praat (version 5.3.39) (Boersma and Weenink 2013), then time-normalized across syllables at 10% interval points of the rhymes with ProsodyPro (version 4.3) (Xu 2012). The mean values of the interval points of two relatively level tones are expressed in terms of ratio which is then used to match with the closest MI on the musical scale. A compatible treatment of contour tones is also provided for the two rising tones.

This paper demonstrates that the pitch levels of Cantonese tones correspond to MIs, given the converging ranges of MIs for different speakers and similar MIs of different tone pairs for different speakers. It shows that MIs are able to capture the tonal space, the spatial relationship among different tones, and the flexibility of tones in a tonal inventory. Also, MIs can possibly serve as a referential indicator of tone merger. For tone-melody mapping, results of this paper are comparable with those of earlier studies on the tonal transitions in Cantonese vocal songs (e.g. Ho 2009 and Chow 2012).

The demonstration of the relationship between linguistic tone and MIs is especially relevant for the examination of languages having a relatively complex tonal system, i.e. with more than a two-way tonal distinction and contour tones. It opens a new window to understand how linguistic tones and musical tunes are linked to each other.
Noun Incorporation in Tagalog

Louward Allen Zubiri
University of the Philippines Diliman

One of the probable causes of a higher degree of synthesis in a language is noun incorporation. This study explores the phenomenon of noun incorporation in Tagalog and focuses on three specific types, namely agent incorporation (1), locative incorporation (2), and instrument incorporation (3).

1. Ni-la~langaw ang=pagkain.
PV-IPFV~swarm.by.fly DET.ABS=food
‘The food is being swarmed by flies.’

2. Nag-SM na ako.
AV.PFV~go.SM already 1SG.ABS
‘I already went to SM.’

3. S<in>apatos ni=Maria si=Pedro.
<PV.PFV>hit.with.shoe DET.ERG=Maria DET.ABS=Pedro
‘Maria hit Pedro with a shoe.’

These constructions are often viewed under the lens of lexical derivation, and not noun incorporation. However, this paper maintains that these sentences are examples of an operation in the syntactic interface. The analysis predicts that Tagalog noun incorporation preserves Patient Primacy and that incorporated nominals belong to a natural class with a restricted semantic range. In contrast to classical noun incorporation, Tagalog noun incorporation utilizes a phonologically unrealized verb.
The Givenness/Saliency Hierarchy in Assamese

Larin Adams and Iftiqar Rahman
Payap University

Gundel (1993) proposes a givenness hierarchy (or salience scale) than can be used to describe the usage of English articles and demonstratives. This scale, repeated in (1), associates different constructions with an increasingly degree of information availability. The general idea is that the higher a construction is then the more salient it is to the hearer. Speakers are expected to help hearers in a gricean fashion by choosing the maximally salient construction for the hearer. Thus, if an entity is in the immediate visual context (“activated”) it is odd to use less salient construction like a NP (“type identifiable”) to refer to that entity.

(1) The Givenness Hierarchy (with English forms used for illustration):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>name</th>
<th>example</th>
<th>short description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>in focus</td>
<td><em>it kept me awake</em></td>
<td>this entity is already what your attention is on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>activated (visible)</td>
<td><em>this/that (train) kept me awake</em></td>
<td>this is a unique entity in your working memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>familiar (not visible)</td>
<td><em>that (one) train kept me awake</em></td>
<td>this is a unique entity in your extended memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uniquely identifiable</td>
<td><em>the train kept me awake</em></td>
<td>use just the nominal to identify a unique entity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>referential</td>
<td><em>this (one) train kept me awake</em></td>
<td>use the nominal and sentence to identify a unique entity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>type identifiable</td>
<td><em>a train kept me awake</em></td>
<td>understand that there is some instance of a type denoted by the nominal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This hierarchy has significant descriptive scope in English and several researchers have attempted to extend it to other languages with varying degrees of success. Hedberg (2010) applies it to Chinese and Japanese and interestingly fails to find the same distribution of form or function mapping. In this paper, the salience hierarchy is applied to Assamese. The results show that Assamese marks many of the same saliency levels and can be used to generate similar gricean effects. The examples in (2) show one basic meaning (“my friend”) expressed with decreasing degrees of salience. A description of the constructions associated with each level is the primary focus of this research.

(2)

Although Assamese marks many of the positions on Gundel’s givenness hierarchy, some divergences are also described.
Phonetic Variation and the Documentation of Phonology in Paiwan

Chun-Mei Chen
National Chung Hsing University

In this paper the phonetic correlates of segments of an indigenous language were examined as a case of supporting the argument that phonetic variation plays a role in the documentation of phonology. Paiwan is an Austronesian language spoken in Southern Taiwan, with around 53,000 speakers. All of the Paiwan speakers are aware of the segmental varieties within their territory, but none of the existing studies has drawn a clear picture on phonetic variation and the documentation of phonology in Paiwan.

Paiwan is notable for its large sum of consonantal phonemes, compared with the other Formosan languages. It does not show extensive mergers and splits among Proto-Austronesian (PAN) stops (Ferrell, 1982). Moreover, Paiwan phoneme inventory is directly comparable to the PAN inventory proposed in Dempwolff’s (1934-38) and Dahl’s (1973) reconstruction studies. Ho’s (1978) comparative study of five Paiwan dialects has shown both phonological (*tj, *dj, *dr, *r, *k, *w) and phonetic (*lj, *r, *k, *q) variation. Ferrell (1982) has reported that phonologically Paiwan villages tend to form a loose grouping, opposed to an even more heterogeneous grouping of northern and eastern villages. Yet, neither Ho’s (1978) nor Ferrell’s (1982) study has provided empirical evidence to show the phonetic or phonological variation among the Paiwan dialects. As a result, field researchers have adopted diverse transcription system to construct the phonology in the Paiwan language.

Fieldwork of the present study has shown that merger of consonantal phonemes was attested in some Paiwan villages, whereas the palatal and uvular stops were preserved in conservative villages. Voice Onset Time (VOT) measures were taken for the voiceless non-aspirated stops of Paiwan. The results indicate the shorter contact area might result in a short VOT for uvulars in Paiwan. Alveolar and palatal voiceless stops in Paiwan are not only two separate phonological phonemes but also have two independent phonetic representations.

It has been concluded that phonetic variation is relevant to the documentation of phonology of an indigenous language. Empirical and instrumental studies are needed to verify the phonetic variation and phonological representations in a speech community with diverse varieties. The comparison among the Paiwan villages has reinforced the understanding of the phonetic variation and phonological varieties spreading within the Paiwan territory. The documentation of Paiwan phonology cannot be accomplished without the examination of phonetic variation among the dialects.

References
An initial report of code mixing phenomena in Amis elders

Yi-Ting Chen

Wenzao Ursuline University of Languages

Though there’s growing interest of phonological and syntactic structures of Formosan, Austronesian languages, there are only a few looking into language use with naturally occurring data. The purpose of this paper is to present an on-going project which investigates code-mixing phenomena, using Muysken’s classification, among Amis elders, aged above 70.

This study analyzes natural occurring data. The recording took place in January 2014. Four recorders were carried by four people to record natural conversation of an Amis family. Two Amis native speakers have been helping the researcher on the transcription and gloss of the data.

The primary result shows out of 462 sentences transcribed to date, only 81 are found as code mixing, which includes nonce borrowing. Among 81 code mixing cases, 11 are inter-sentential code mixing, 8 alternation, 56 insertion, 2 congruent lexicalization, and 4 involving both alternation and insertion in one sentence. In terms of mixing language, 42 are cases of mixing with Chinese, 33 with Japanese, and 4 with Taiwanese. The basic finding conforms to Muysken’s (2001) argument that alternation is often found when “there is a considerable asymmetry in the speakers’ proficiency in the two languages” (p. 9) since the elders in this study are more proficient in Amis.
Adjectives as a distinct class in Mising

Sarat Kumar Doley
North Lakhimpur College

Mising is an Eastern Tani language of the Tibeto-Burman (TB) language family. There are 587,310 speakers of Mising, as per the 2001 Census of India, inhabiting some eight Assamese districts of: Lakhimpur, Dhemaji, Sonitpur, Tinsukia, Dibrugarh, Sibsagar, Jorhat, and Golaghat. The aim of the paper is to describe the form and distribution of Mising adjectives and adjectivals in their modificational and predicational functions. Mising has a small class of simple underived, i.e. non-nominalised adjectives (26a)-(26b):

(1) (a) anu
‘new’
(b) aku
‘old (+inanimate)’

As well as the following, which are kinship terms:

(13c) botta-kai (13d) ajji-kai
big-brother small-brother

These simple adjectives cannot be nominalised when functioning as predicate adjectives in copular complement constructions, as in (14a).

(14a) *galuk-d anu-*na
    galuk-d anu-a [>anno ]
    shirt-DEF new-COP
    ‘The shirt is new.’

Underived adjectives may be nominalised to become nominal-adjectives (nouns). In these cases, the nominaliser na is used. The meaning that results is specifically inchoative one the ‘getting old one’, as in (14b).

(14b) aku-na-da-m bi-tok
old-NMZ-DEF-ACC keep-IMP
    ‘Give away the one getting old.’

These underived adjectives take verbal inflections, for example the stative (15a), the stative-anterior (15b) and the......

(15a) galuk-da anu-dak
    shirt-DEF new-STAT
    ‘The shirt is new.’

(15b) galuk-da anu-dag-ai.
    shirt-DEF new-STAT-ANT
    ‘The shirt was new.’

Adjective’ refers to “terms which describe property concepts”. The term ‘adjectival’ is used because, in this language, words which describe property concepts are frequently derived from other word categories – primarily from verbs. Moreover it has been argued that Tibeto-Burman languages frequently do not support an independent category of adjectives and it is likely that they were not part of the proto-language. Thus this analysis can be brought to bear on the question of whether adjectives are a distinct and independent category in Tibeto-Burman and whether or not are they re-constructible to the proto-language.
A Preliminary Study on Phong Phonology

Niharika Dutta
Gauhati University

This paper is a preliminary description of the phonology of Phong, a variety of Tangsa spoken by a sub-tribe of Tangsa, known as Phong or Ponthai tribe, who live mostly in the Changlang district of Arunachal Pradesh and in the Tinsukia district of Assam. This paper presents a description of the syllable structure, consonants, vowels, and tones of Phong. The analysis is based on my fieldwork data collected from the Wagun Ponthai village situated near the Assam and Arunachal border in 2014. Consonant and vowel inventories will be presented along with some acoustic measurements to highlight certain phonetic features of consonants and vowels. I will include VOT measurements, F1 and F2 measurements plotted on a vowel space diagram, and vowel length measurements. I will also present the acoustic measurements of the pitch heights and contours of various tones. The following paragraphs provide a brief overview of my work so far.

Phong has a simple syllable structure, with no consonant clusters. A minimal Phong syllable may consist of just the nucleus vowel, and a maximal Phong syllable may consist of an onset and a rhyme with a coda. The three possible syllable structures found in Phong are illustrated below.

\[
\begin{align*}
V & \quad \text{i.rap} & \text{‘old’} \\
CV & \quad \text{lɔ} & \text{‘buffalo’} \\
CVC & \quad \text{ʒɔŋ} & \text{‘water’}
\end{align*}
\]

The consonantal inventory consists of 22 consonants. Nine of them are stops, three are nasals, four fricatives, two affricates, a trill, and an approximant. There are three series of stops, voiceless, aspirated voiceless and voiced, at Bilabial and Alveolar places of articulation, and two series of stops, voiceless and voiceless aspirated, at the Velar place of articulation. Phong has seven contrastive vowels. The vowel phonemes can be divided into three levels of height or aperture: high, mid and low and three levels of backness: front, central and back. There are three contrastive tones in open syllables and syllables with sonorous codas, no contrast has been found in closed syllables with stop codas. In open syllables, the pitch contrasts between low, high falling and mid-level.
Migration and Creation of New Language Contact Situation in the Chittagong Hill Tracts of Bangladesh

Razaul Faquire and Sano Mitsuhiko
University of Dhaka; Kobe Gakuin University

This study explores the effects of language contact situation which has been recently created in the Chittagong Hill Tracts of the south-eastern district by means of immigration of Bangla speaking people from other part of Bangladesh. The Chittagong Hill Tracts located in the south-eastern district of Bangladesh bordering with India and Myanmar is the abode of approximately 1.5 million of people, about 50% of which are minority speech communities, including the speakers of Tibeto-Burman languages like Marma, Tripura (Kokborok), Chak, Pankho, Mru, Murung, Bawm, Lushei, Kyang and Khumi. The remaining 50% are speakers of Bangla, the national and official language of Bangladesh. The new distribution of various speech communities with an overwhelming majority of Bangla speakers has been created by the Government of Bangladesh by a migration plan during the 1980s. The migration plan supplemented by the establishment of administration, communication and transportation systems under the government’s policy allowed the settlement of a huge number of Bangla speakers from other districts of Bangladesh.

The new distribution of different speech communities in the language situation of language contact in the Chittagong Hill Tracts has been a research issue which is worth investigating. The supplementing conditions which led to the creation of the language contact situation in the Chittagong Hill-Tracts can be listed as follow.

i) That the implementation of a common education policy for which the children of the Tibeto-Burman speech communities are to receive education through the medium of Bangla.

ii) That the people of Tibeto-Burman speech communities require using Bangla for the official, legal and business dealings under the government’s policy.

iii) That the Tibeto-Burman languages regularly come into contact with the dominant language, Bangla.

In the situation of language contact, the spoken languages of Tibeto-Burman speech communities are not mutually intelligible, though the speech variety of them have a common ancestry. Again, the speakers of Bangla cannot speak any of the languages of the minority speech communities. Therefore, both the speakers of minority languages as well as the speakers of Bangla inhabiting the Chittagong Hill Tracts communicate with each other in Bangla, the lingua franca for them, for their daily needs. Accordingly, people of these tribal speech communities are growing to be bilingual with different degrees of control in their second language, Bangla. In this way, the languages of the minority speech communities have been the recipient languages which require encountering the continuing effect of language contact from the dominant language Bangla in the new contact situation. Consequently, some of these recipient tribal languages, e.g. Marma, Murong and Tripura, etc. are now showing changes at different levels of their linguistic structures by borrowing and calquing from the Bangla language due to the effect of this contact.
Grammatical Sketch of Bisakol

Ana Cristina Fortes
Sorsogon State College

Bisakol is a regional variety spoken in the second district of the province of Sorsogon, Philippines. It is a mixture of Waray-Waray or Visaya and Bikol languages. The geographical location of the towns where this language is spoken becomes the primary reasons for Bisakol to be a fusion of Bikol and Visayan languages. Sorsogon is situated in the south eastern part of Bicol peninsula and is facing the island of Samar, a province in the Visayas.

With the implementation of Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education in the Philippines, Bisakol is being taught as subject content and is being used as medium of instruction in the primary level. The teachers are obliged to study and understand among themselves the linguistic features of this language. However, difficulties encountered by these educators include the absence of references like grammar books, dictionary of Bisakol, and published orthography.

This sketch grammar provides an analysis of the morphological, syntactic, and semantic properties of nouns, verbs, and adjectives and explores how these features work together in order to determine the structure of this language, distinct as a Bikol variety. The data were initially provided by the researcher herself being a native speaker of Bisakol and through elicitation technique.

From the morphological analysis of nouns, abstract nouns in Bisakol are formed by way of adding suffix –an to the root, yet the prefix ka- is still found in the initial position. However, the suffix –han, instead of –an alone, is added when the root ends in vowel, as in, ugma ‘happy’ becomes abstract noun, ka-ugma-han ‘happiness’. Similar with the account made by Lobel (2005) on the angry registers in Bikol, this study has also found the numerous angry registers in Bisakol.

Adjectives in Bisakol are derived from nouns and verbs which are usually formed by way of adding the prefix ma-, as in, galang ‘respect’ to ma-galang ‘respectful’. In another morphological formation, the prefix ka- is used with Bisakol adjectives, as in Ka-galang ‘very respectful’ and is followed by the ligature san and the noun being described, as in, Ka-galang san bata ‘the child is very respectful’. The findings on Bisakol adjectives corroborates with Dita (2010a) on Ibanag, one of the Philippine languages, that when bare adjectives functions attributely, they precede nominals and are conjoined by ligatures.

Bisakol verbs have focus, aspect, and classes. Its focus is usually dictated by the morphological aspect. Verbs can also be derived and inflected. Finally, Bisakol is a verb-subject-object order both when spoken and written and has no inversion marker when a speaker prefers to start the statement with non-verbal clauses.
Length contrasts of high vowels in the Thai language of Sukhothai period: What do inscriptions say?

Sireemas Maspong
Chulalongkorn University

The Thai language of Sukhothai period, as attested in the 14th-16th-century Sukhothai inscriptions, is one of the medieval languages in the Southwestern branch of the Tai language family. Because the Sukhothai Inscriptions are readily available sources of information, many scholars have reconstructed the language based on the orthography used in these inscriptions. One of the most puzzling finding of these previous studies is variation of vocalic symbols, especially involving high short and long vowels. Several researchers (Danvivathana, 1981; Dhananjayananda, 1997; Jansomwong, 1987) have thus suggested that length distinction might not have been phonemic in the Thai language of Sukhothai period. This view of Sukhothai Thai is in contrast with Proto-Southwestern Tai, which, has been mostly reconstructed to have length contrast in high vowels by most researchers (Li, 1977; Pittayaporn, 2009; Sarawit, 1973).

This paper studies the length distinction of high vowels in the Thai language of Sukhothai period based on the orthography in Sukhothai Inscription. Methodologically, it applies graphemic analysis (McLaughlin, 1963) to inscriptional data. After the graphemic system of each inscription is analyzed, each grapheme extracted from inscriptions is matched with Proto-Southwestern Tai phonemes to analyze possible sound represented by those graphemes. In cases of loanwords, the analysis is based on the correspondence between the grapheme and its pronunciation in the donor languages, e.g. Khmer, Pali and Sanskrit.

The result shows that even though there are a few patterns of variation among graphemes that representing high vowels, the graphemic system in each inscription is more or less systematic. Crucially, the inscriptions can be divided into two groups; those with the graphemic vowel length distinction (Type I) and those without the distinction (Type II). The sets of graphemes representing short and long high vowels in Type I match with PSWT vowel segments. While words written with short vowels have short vowels in the reconstructed PSWT forms and words with long vowel graphemes are reconstructed with long vowels. This evidence supports the existence of length contrast of high vowels in Thai language of Sukhothai period. As for the graphemic system in Type II, the lack of graphemic distinction seemed to have been a case of underrepresentation.

Reference

Grammaticalization has been traditionally considered as the process by which a lexical item attains grammatical functions, and the less grammatical become even more grammatical, following cross-linguistic evolutionary paths. Frajzyngier (2008:61-102) argues that the process of grammaticalization is not restricted to the traditional notion of ‘lexical to grammatical, and grammatical to more grammatical’, whereas, other linguistic categories as in phonological devices like tone, pauses, vowel reduction, linear order, the repetition of lexical item or phrases, also undergo grammaticalization. Whereby, Frajzyngier (ibid.) calls for an ‘expansion’ in the linguistic materials which are taken traditionally as the source categories which undergo process of grammaticalization. The idea is that ‘grammaticalization’ is seen as a process by means of which a grammatical function or meaning come into being in a language, irrespective of whether it is the lexical items or, other linguistic categories which undergo the process of grammaticalization. In the Indian languages, there is a cross-linguistically observed feature for expressing ‘simultaneity’. It is achieved by assigning ‘stress’ to the specific verb by means of lengthening the constituent vowel in the verb thereby elongating the verb. The lengthening of vowel can be considered as a marker for simultaneity and, case in turn a case grammaticalization
Merger of tones 3 (a thee) and 4 (hpluh see) in Sgaw Karen

Karl Reza Sarvestani

University at Buffalo, the State University of New York

This study describes a previously unreported apparent tone merger in Sgaw Karen. Previous phonological analyses of this language have usually identified six phonemic tones, reflecting the six tone categories recorded by Karen orthography (Jones, 1958; Saw Lar Baa, 2001; Watkins, 2001; Fischer, 2013). Although the phonetic realization of these categories has varied somewhat across descriptions, the categories themselves have been found to largely correspond across varieties. However, the present study finds phonological and phonetic evidence that, for at least some speakers of Sgaw, the tones *a thee* and *hpluh see* (named after the letters used to write them in the Sgaw orthography) have merged into a single category which is realized as a mid checked tone.

The tone merger discussed here is distinct from the apparent merger of the tones *uh thee* and *ha thee*, which has been previously observed in Pathein (Bassein) Sgaw (Jones, 1958). Similarly, Fischer (2013) finds acoustic evidence indicating this same merger. Based on perceptual evidence, Brunelle & Finkeldey (2011) suggest that *ha thee* may have merged, but do not speculate which tone it might have merged with. However, the speakers involved in the present study show a clear phonological and phonetic distinction between *uh thee* and *ha thee*.

This work was conducted in collaboration with members of the large and diverse Karen community living in Buffalo, New York. Due to this fact, it is unclear how widespread the observed merger is among Sgaw speakers generally. Similarly, it is unclear whether this merger is complete or is part of an ongoing process. Since the population includes speakers of several previously undescribed Sgaw varieties, this ongoing work sheds light on dialectal variation within Sgaw, as well as on the dynamics of language change within refugee communities.
A comparative study of Hpun and Myanmar sound systems

Tun Aung Kyaw
Taungoo University

The Hpun language is one of the moribund languages spoken in Myanmar. Hpun is closely related to Myanmar in comparative linguistic point of view. The similarity between the two invites comparison. These are consonant system, vowel system, syllable structure and tone system. The phonotactic constraints involve in the section of syllable structure. The phrase 'comparative study' refers to the standard comparative phonological technique of comparing a set of forms taken from cognate languages in order to determine whether a historical relationship connects them. If there were such a relationship, this analysis would then be used to deduce the characteristics of the ancestor language from which they were assumed to have derived (a process of 'comparative' or 'internal' reconstruction). There are many similar sounds and sound systems as the important clues of the Burmish, ancestor language, in the two sound systems.
Fourth International Workshop on the Sociolinguistics of Language Endangerment

Sponsored by: Comité International Permanent des Linguistes,
by La Trobe University Linguistics Discipline Research Program
and by Australian Research Council Centre of Excellence for the Dynamics of Language
Introduction: Parameters of the sociolinguistics of language endangerment

David BRADLEY

La Trobe University/Comité International Permanent des Linguistes

In the past, linguists have often neglected to document the sociolinguistic situation of languages, but in recent years this has changed. The discipline as a whole has also increasingly focused on language endangerment as an issue, and on documenting endangered languages as a matter of urgency. This workshop, like the three preceding it, combines these topics.

There have been many initiatives in these areas. For example, since 1991 the Comité International Permanent des Linguistes (CIPL) has worked tirelessly to raise consciousness about language endangerment (Robins & Uhlenbeck 1991), and with the help of UNESCO and many scholars worldwide and under the leadership of the late Stephen A. Wurm a series of conferences, atlases and many other research initiatives have followed. As the current president of CIPL, I am very pleased to continue this tradition.

This is the fourth workshop on the sociolinguistics of language endangerment which we have organized. It follows the first workshop at the School of Oriental and African Studies during the London/Lyons/Lund summer school in 2009, the second at the University of Colorado during the Linguistic Society of America summer institute in 2011, and the third at Yunnan Minzu University in 2014. All four workshops have received funding and support from CIPL, which is most gratefully acknowledged. This workshop has also received funding from the La Trobe University Discipline Research Program in Linguistics and from the Australian Research Council Centre of Excellence for the Dynamics of Language, and extensive and much-appreciated logistical and other support from Payap University. We gratefully acknowledge all these sponsors!

There have been many discussions and inventories of the sociolinguistic parameters affecting language vitality, foreshadowed in Bradley & Bradley (2002), summarized in Bradley & Bradley (2016) and exemplified by a range of studies in Bradley (2010) and elsewhere. These include attitudes and identity, language learning and use, language contact and change, language policy and its planning and implementation (standards and dialects, orthographies, dictionaries, pedagogical and other materials), and a wide range of extralinguistic factors: political, demographic, geographical, economic, historical, social, educational and so on.

Ultimately our goal as scholars is to document the endangered languages we work on, and as engaged scholars also to help communities to achieve survival and resilience for their languages and societies. To do this, we also need to raise public and official awareness of the need for mother tongue language maintenance and use, and attempt to influence and improve general attitudes as well as educational, social and other policies to facilitate this. To do so adequately, it is essential to understand the sociolinguistic background.

References:

Evaluating language endangerment:
What do we know? What do we need to know?

M. Paul LEWIS
SIL International

The evaluation of the status of a language, its vitality or level of endangerment, relies heavily on a consensus among researchers and practitioners regarding the relevant factors that affect the sustainability of a language. Different language rescue practitioners have identified multiple factors and categorized them in a variety of ways.

The Sustainable Use Model of Language Development (SUM) (Lewis & Simons 2015) is a recent attempt to provide a comprehensive framework for both the evaluation of language endangerment and sustainability on the one hand, and, on the other, the identification of focused interventions that address those underlying conditions. The SUM identifies five factors using the acronym FAMED (Functions, Acquisition, Motivation, Environment, and Differentiation).

This paper describes the FAMED conditions and compares and contrasts them to other approaches, the COD and CODP models (Grin & Vaillancourt 1997, Laakso et al. 2013) and UNESCO’s LVE (Brenzinger et al. 2003) in particular. This comparison reveals a core set of concerns that must be taken into account in both assessing the endangerment status of a language and in addressing that risk through language development efforts.

References:
Training indigenous scholars for language revitalization: Collaboration between academia and communities

Rolando COTO-SOLANO and Maureen HOFFMAN
University of Arizona

Recent trends in ethical research in endangered languages have advocated a shift from outsider-oriented research to community-based research. These programs attempt to go beyond the framework of empowerment research (Cameron et al. 1992), involving research on, for, and with communities, to a framework of research by communities themselves (Czaykowska-Higgins 2009), where indigenous scholars work within their own ideological frameworks to “tell [their] own stories, write [their] own versions, in [their] own ways, for [their] own purposes” (Smith 1999). This supports revitalization by empowering community members to develop and lead documentation and revitalization programs. The goal of this presentation is to demonstrate several approaches to training Native communities in linguistics to support language maintenance and revitalization from within the community. To this end, we will present overviews of three programs conducted at the University of Arizona that aim to develop the expertise of Native community members in linguistic and pedagogical methods for supporting Indigenous languages.

The American Indian Language Development Institute (AILDI) is a yearly institute directed at Native educators and activists, taught mostly by indigenous scholars. It is based on the principles of collaborative partnerships with educators and communities, and “transformative teaching”, where Native voices and identities are given a place within Academia, recognizing “revitalization efforts must continually address language at the social, emotional, political and spiritual level” (Nicholas et al. 2012).

Native students who want to continue to a graduate degree in linguistics can enroll in the Native American Languages and Linguistics Masters (NAMA), which seeks to train community members in documentation and revitalization. Many graduates return to support language revitalization efforts within their communities, while others continue on to Ph.D. programs in linguistics and other areas.

Finally, the University of Arizona hosted the “Strengthening Rural Primary Education for Indigenous Children [and] Indigenous Technical Supervisors in Mexico” program from 2010 to 2014. This program brought indigenous teachers and curriculum developers to the University to be trained in topics ranging from science and mathematics teaching to strategies for enhancing the sociolinguistic profile of their languages. These include books and teaching materials, but also websites, cartoons, and mobile apps in indigenous languages, designed and maintained by the teachers.

These three programs have a common goal: the training of indigenous scholars and activists who will lead language revitalization and reclamation efforts. This process is slow, but it demonstrates how academic institutions can foster long term collaboration with Indigenous communities, and help train new generations of indigenous scholars invested in language revitalization.

References:
Gender and age-related factors in the documentation of Paiwan lexicon and phonology

CHEN Chunmei
National Chung Hsing University

In this paper, issues of social factors in the documentation of an indigenous language were examined as a case of supporting the argument that linguistic forms used by women and men, old and young speakers, contrast in all speech communities. Paiwan is an Austronesian language spoken in Southern Taiwan, with around 53,000 speakers. All of the Paiwan speakers are aware of the segmental varieties within their territory, but none of the existing studies has drawn a clear picture on gender and age-related factors in the documentation of Paiwan lexicon and phonology. Three speech indigenous speech communities were investigated: Piuma, Tsalasiv, and Kuabar. The Piuma Paiwan speakers relocated to the present village in the late 1960s. Stress shift, the merger of uvular stops, and the free variation of palatalization are attested in Piuma Paiwan, believed to be one of the oldest speech communities among the Paiwan aborigines (Chen 2004, 2009a, 2009b). Sound change has occurred in Piuma Paiwan due to language contact or recent immigration. On the other hand, speakers from the Tsalasiv and Kuabar villages included both young and old speakers, and relocation, immigration, and language contact occurred in the speech communities. In the present paper, the interaction among preservation of lexicon, phonological change, and social factors was dealt with, and the principles and methodology in acoustic phonetics and sociolinguistics were used to verify the existing phonological variants and identify the correlation between social factors and lexicon distribution.

The Piuma Paiwan village has about 700 residents, and more than 95% of the residents in the community are the Paiwan aborigines. Non-Paiwan residents in the community are mainly spouses of Paiwan people. Paiwan is the primary language in the village. Social affairs are announced in Paiwan within the village. The younger generation speaks Mandarin or Taiwanese in public educational institutions and Taiwanese outside of the community. Eighteen Paiwan speakers participated in elicitation, recording, and interviews. Results show that Paiwan speakers below the age of 40 show the most advanced phonological variation, as more than 80% of the voiced tokens are innovative variants. On the other hand, more than 70% of the voiced tokens are conservative variants among the speakers aged 40 to 60. ANOVA analyses of variance have revealed that the effect of age was significant. The effect of gender was not significant; however, gender has been an important indicator in the documentation of activity-related lexicon, as males produced more verbs and landscape terms in the field than females.

It has been concluded that gender and age-related factors are relevant to the documentation of lexicon and phonology of an indigenous language. Empirical and instrumental studies are needed to verify the phonological variation and lexical distribution in a speech community with diverse varieties. The comparison among the Paiwan villages has reinforced the understanding of the sociolinguistic factors, lexical distribution, and phonological varieties within the Paiwan territory.

References:
**Ethnolinguistic vitality of the language of Atchin, central Vanuatu: A survey of the language’s status, institutional support and demography.**

*Marie DUHAMEL*

*Australian National University*

*Nale Totsan*, the principal language spoken on the island of Atchin in Central Vanuatu, shows overall good ethnolinguistic vitality, however its position remains fragile. I propose that the language’s vulnerability has recently increased and that this is due mostly to the steady departure of young male islanders to the two main urban centres of the country, Port Vila and Luganville.

In this presentation I will survey the language’s demography, institutional support and status. The language is spoken by all generations with the majority of islanders speaking the local language, and in most domains. The remote island of Atchin is infrequently visited by the rest of the Vanuatu population or by foreigners. Explicitly protected by the government, the language’s maintenance is encouraged by the institutions and the speech community values its local language.

Yet, at just over 600 islanders, even by Vanuatu standards, the population of Atchin is small. On the island, other dominant languages (Bislama, English and French) are spoken in some domains, especially in church and school, and the language remains under-described and absent from new domains and media. This is compounded by the reported increasing departures of young male islanders and the consequently decreasing number of young families in this virilocal community.
Language endangerment factors: A case study with Bih

Tam NGUYEN
Ho Chi Minh City University of Social Sciences and Humanities

This paper examines sociolinguistic factors that have caused Bih, a Chamic Austronesian language spoken in Vietnam, to become endangered. Currently, there are about 490 ethnic Bih people but only ten fluent elderly speakers remaining.

The first significant influence occurred during Vietnam War with the forced resettlement of the Bih people to Buon Ma Thuot city, a center of Ede population. Upon return to their homes, some continued to speak Ede which is closely related to Bih. This later became a trend, as many Bih went to the city in search of jobs.

In addition, people from other ethnic groups now live in Bih communities, making Bih less useful for communication. Intermarriage is a factor, as parents choose what to speak at home. Native speakers have increasingly rejected Bih, and choose Ede, the dominant Chamic language in their area, or even Vietnamese, the national language, because they offer greater opportunities for a better life. Although there are still native speakers who would like to speak Bih, they sometimes feel that Ede words should be used instead. The youngest generation does not have any motivation to speak Bih.

Another factor in Bih endangerment is the absence of official status, both linguistically and ethnically. Professional linguistic organizations and listings such as ISO 639-3 do not recognize Bih as a different language from Ede. Under the Vietnamese government’s official classification of ethnic groups, the Bih are part of the Ede ethnic group. One Bih speaker says that this discourages them from working on their language.

This paper suggests some steps to help maintain the Bih language, but not necessarily to revitalize it. One dedicated consultant in the Bih documentation project which ended in 2012 continues to work on Bih vocabulary, unpaid, on her own. The next step to continue documentation work is to find funding to publish Bih folktales in Bih and Vietnamese. Then, together with the other materials currently available in the community, the choice to revitalize Bih will be in their hands.
Lopez Agta: Rediscovering its language and people

Aldrin L. SALIPANDE
National University, Manila, Philippines

Some estimates suggest that half of the world’s languages spoken today are going to disappear by the end of the 21st century. Furthermore, a considerable number of these languages have not been documented until now. Lopez Agta is a distinct undocumented Negrito language of the Philippines spoken by a yet undetermined number of speakers in and around the remote mountainous areas of Lopez Town, southern Quezon Province. In principle, the language is widely assumed to be identical to that of the better-known Agta of Alabat Island, whose population is claimed to be nearly dominated by migrants from Lopez, and thus sometimes classified as a member language of the Manide-Alabat Philippine Austronesian sub-group.

This ethnographic paper provides an initial investigation on this language and its speakers. Notably, based on observations and accounts of the indigenous Lopez Agta and a number of Tagalog who have lived and worked with them, the language appears to be critically endangered as the speakers are now in diaspora and it is gradually losing child speakers due to intercultural contact with different larger linguistic communities, and yet no extensive documentation exists hitherto. So far, the very limited available accounts and studies on this ethnic group and their spoken language offer no evidence to establish its similarity to or difference from the Agta spoken in Alabat Island and neighboring areas.
The process of preserving Moken from extinction

Naw Say Bay

This paper presents various kinds of information on the Moken, whom Myanmar people call Salone and who are one of the groups included in the Thai category Chao Thalee ‘sea people’.

There will be a brief talk about the progress of the compilation of the archive data of Moken vocabulary in the form of trilingual wordlists as well as their linguistic contexts.

Since 1974, many trips to Moken settlements in Myanmar from Mergui to the south were made to investigate the similarities as well as the differences between northern Dung, central Jait and southern L’be dialects. More recently, various trips were also made to Moken and Moklen settlements in Southern Thailand from the Myanmar border south to Phuket Island to test mutual intelligibility between Moken in Myanmar and Moken and Moklen in Thailand, which is fairly high.
An update on the status of Rengmitca and further insights into its endangerment

David A. Peterson

Dartmouth College

At the last SoLE workshop I outlined initial observations on the endangerment of Rengmitca, a moribund Kuki-Chin language spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts of southeastern Bangladesh. Members of the Rengmitca community self-identify as Mru (another Tibeto-Burman group), and they are dominant in that language, but the oldest members of the community speak a second language, Rengmitca. As discussed in my earlier talk, the language is not being learned by children, and it is on the verge of disappearing as soon as the current generation of speakers is depleted.

By the last workshop, I had only had contact with a handful of speakers. I had collected a list of around thirty individuals who were said to speak the language proficiently. Earlier this year, I held a workshop in Bangladesh with speakers of the language, and am now in a position to better assess the severity of the situation. There are likely only around a dozen or fewer relatively proficient speakers of the language; a number of others may be able to regain proficiency that they report to have had in their youth, but this remains to be seen.

Factors such as marriage patterns and disparities in the size of the speech communities of Rengmitca and Mru were assumed to be major contributing factors in the language’s endangerment. These are still thought to be the primary reasons for its retraction. The last speakers of Rengmitca reveal that their language was spoken by everyone living in five villages when they were young, but the populations of these villages have largely been dispersed. Moreover, their parents and grandparents reportedly did not even have significant proficiency in Mru. The shift to Mru appears to have begun only about the time that Löffler did his initial 1960 study of the language.

Discussions with the remaining speakers reveal another unexpected potential factor. Speakers insist that they were actively encouraged to stop speaking the language by speakers of Mru because of specific words in Rengmitca that closely resemble taboo words in Mru. Among these is, most prominently, the first person singular pronoun in Rengmitca, kay, which is identical to the word kay in Mru (‘vagina’). Notably, unlike other Kuki-Chin languages, where an independent pronoun can be avoided by using verbal marking, Rengmitca does not have discernible participant coding, and independent pronouns, such as kay, occur frequently. Another high-frequency word presenting a similar issue in Rengmitca is t’pô ‘give’, which closely resembles the word t’pô in Mru (‘to have intercourse’). At this point, it is difficult to gauge whether this is more a folk rationale that speakers have decided to give for the loss of the language, or whether it truly was a significant contributing factor, but it was independently suggested to me as a cause by almost everybody identified as current and former speakers of the language.
Challenge to discover endangered Tibetic varieties in the easternmost Tibetosphere:  
A case study on Dartsendo Tibetan  
Hiroyuki SUZUKI and Sonam Wangmo  
National Museum of Ethnography, Japan and University of Oslo

Dartsendo (dar-rtse-mdo in Written Tibetan), also known as Kangding in Chinese, is the easternmost town in the Tibetosphere, located in Ganzi Prefecture, Sichuan, China. This town has played an important role in the tea-horse trade from the Ming Dynasty onwards, and is inhabited by both Tibetan and Han Chinese. Thus, extensive language contact has existed for a long time.

Dartsendo Tibetan is a vernacular of the Minyak Rabgang dialectal group of Khams Tibetan, and it was once considered as a *lingua franca*-like variety in the Minyak Rabgang area. It was recorded twice by Han officers in Chinese-Tibetan vocabularies *Xifanguan Yiyu* (16th century AD) and *Xifan Yiyu* (18th century AD) as well as by a French missionary in the 20th century. However, at present Dartsendo Tibetan is nearly extinct.

In this paper, presented from the viewpoints of a linguist and a local anthropologist, we will discuss: 1) the historical background and language situation in Dartsendo; 2) the current language situation of Tibetic languages spoken in the centre of the town; and 3) the process of endangerment of the local variety. Even though Dartsendo Tibetan is highly endangered and nearly extinct, similar dialects are still spoken elsewhere in the Minyak Rabgang area, which may help us to reconstruct Dartsendo Tibetan by also using the records from the 16th, 18th, and 20th centuries.
The linguistic situation in the Indo-Burma border area, particularly in the northern Chin State of Myanmar and Churachandpur District of Manipur, India

S. Dal Sian Pau
Zomi Language & Literature Society
Lamka, Churachandpur, Manipur, India.

From a sociolinguistic point of view, the Indo-Burma border area languages of the Northern Chin State in Myanmar and Churachandpur District of Manipur are all within the Kuki-Chin branch of the Tibeto-Burman language family. Linguistically, they have developed many regional varieties of pronunciation, which has made them into different groups. When they are deeply studied through comparison of their languages, there are only few dissimilarities.

This paper will cover various sub-topics: 1) historical background of the people; this sub-topic will include changes of society, developments of the language, changes of the community group names, and the diaspora of the people. 2) structure of the society, including the clan and regional base of the language situation; 3) culture and traditional system; 4) origin of language and linguistic heritage of the land; 5) similarities and dissimilarities of languages; and 6) historical reconstruction of their earlier language.
A brief introduction of the historical development of the Achang

XIONG Shunqing
Yunnan Minzu University
xsq324@163.com

The Achang, also known as Ngachang, Ngochang or Ngechang, are a group who speak a Burmish Tibeto-Burman language in southwestern Yunnan, China and northeastern Myanmar. They originated from the Xunchuan [寻传] group of the 8th century AD. The name Achang [阿昌] or Ngechang [峨昌, 颉昌] first appeared in historical documents of the 13th century AD. More descriptions about the Achang are found in historical documents of the 14th to 19th century AD. The Achang used to include all the present Achang as well as the Zaiwa, Langsu, Leqi and Bola subgroups of Jingpo, as well as the Langwo subgroup of the Yi. This paper discusses when and why the Achang split into different groups, and presents some linguistic similarities among all the languages of the descendants of the ancient Ngachang.
The Lamu language of the Lahu in Binchuan County, Yunnan

LIU Jinrong
Yunnan Minzu University
15911566299@139.com

Lamu is a language spoken by a small group of under 300 people in northeastern Binchuan County, Dali Prefecture, Yunnan, China. These people live mainly in three villages in Zhongying Township and are officially classified as part of the Lahu national minority. Their language is closely related to Lisu, as Bradley (2004) has shown. They intermarry with the local Lipo people of the Lisu national minority, and sometimes with the local Lolo people of the Yi national minority.

Their language is severely to critically endangered, with no monolingual speakers; nearly all Lamu speak Lipo and local Yunnan Chinese, and many also speak Lolo. We are starting a project to document this language, and look forward to presenting more detailed information in the future.

References:
Workshop on Issues in Kuki-Chin
D. J. C. MacNabb's Handbook of the Haka or Baungshe Dialect of the Chin Language (Rangoon: Government Printing, 1891) is the first attempt to describe the Lai language. Considering that the British gained control of Upper Burma in 1885 and the effective pacification of the Chin and Lushai Hills dates from 1896, it is a rather remarkable work. The intended purpose of the Handbook was 'to bring the acquisition of a useful knowledge of this language within the reach of all officers either Military or Civil in the Chin Hills.' It consists primarily of 31 lessons each containing a vocabulary illustrated by sentences. Aside from a few notes in the Introduction, there is no explicit discussion of pronunciation, and the grammar consists of short lists of sentences in various tenses and moods, or interrogation and negation. This is supplemented by a 'conjugation' of the verb ding 'drink' and a collected vocabulary.

MacNabb does not describe his background or how he learned the language. This paper will examine his Lai sentences in the light of Lai as it is spoken today. Among the grammatical phenomena of particular interest are agreement between verbs their subject and object, and what is usually referred to as 'verb stem alternation'. Observed differences between the example sentences as collected by MacNabb and as used today may be attributed to language change in the past century or to gaps in his command of Lai grammar.
Variation of tonal contours due to contextual influence has been attested in certain languages such as Mandarin and other East Asian languages (Xu, 1997). The otherwise well-defined and stable tones in these languages undergo variations depending on the context in which they are produced, i.e., the preceding and following tones. In the present study we try to analyze the contour of two Mizo tones viz. Low and Rising, in the context of other tones in which they occur. Mizo, a Tibeto-Burman language of the Kuki-Chin group is primarily spoken in the north-east Indian state of Mizoram and its neighboring areas. While scholars disagree on the phonetic properties of Mizo tones, it has nevertheless, been described as having four phonological tones, namely, high, rising, falling and low (Weidert 1975, Chhangte 1986, Fanai 1992 and Sarmah & Wiltshire, 2010). It has been observed 78 that Mizo tones are largely dynamic, except the H tone which is a static tone. Fanai, (1992) establishes three different types of Tones in Mizo: a level tone (H), a contour tone (L) and two complex tone clusters (F and R). She also reports the presence of an ‘extra-low’ L tone in syllables with a glottal stop in the coda in derived environments.

Data for the preliminary investigation was collected from 8 native speakers of Mizo. The data list consisted of Mizo words with L and R tones spoken in various tonal contexts. Each word was spoken in isolation as well as in a sentence. Preliminary analysis showed that preceding tones with high offset (H and R) raise the following L tone. So do following tones with high onset. Both carry over and anticipatory influences have been found to be largely assimilatory except for one case in which the following tone is falling. It has also been observed that L tone in the context of a preceding and following H tone rises the most. Tone in the context of R and H tone also rises with an onset almost similar to that of the H tone. However, we do not see any rise in the context of a preceding and following R tone. The preceding tones with a high offset do not seem to have much influence on the onset of the following tone. In case of R tone, following tones with high onset (H and F) reduce the tone to an L tone. However no significant effect of the preceding tone has been seen on the R tone.

References:
Verb paradigms in Monsang

Linda Konnerth and Koninglee Wanglar
University of Oregon and Manipur University

Monsang is spoken by about 2,000 people, spread across six villages in Chandel District, Manipur, Northeast India. It belongs to the Northwestern branch of Kuki-Chin (NWKC), formerly referred to as the “Old Kuki” branch.

The NWKC branch is heavily underdocumented. While some basic information is available on a few languages, such as Tarao (Singh 2002), Koireng (Singh 2010), and Lamkang (Thounaojam and Chelliah 2007), the branch has remained little known. This talk gives an overview of the verb paradigms in Monsang found so far. The discussion covers both the formal and the functional sides of the argument marking systems.

On the formal side, we find two types of morphemes involved in person marking: a set of prefixes and several sets of postverbal elements. The prefixes are an innovation at the Kuki-Chin level and are a consistent feature of the branch. Since they always match the possessive prefixes in the individual languages, they must have their origins in possessive prefixes on nominalized verbs. In Monsang, the prefixal set of person markers only indexes S and A arguments. More specifically, while A arguments are regularly indexed via the prefixes, this is only the case for S arguments in certain morphosyntactic constructions such as subordinate clauses.

In contrast to the prefixal set, there are several sets of postverbal elements that bear slight but intriguing differences. Phonologically, they generally do not attach to the verb and are sometimes referred to as ‘agreement words’ in the literature (DeLancey 2014). The most basic postverbal set involves ɪŋ ‘1SG’, ʊŋ ‘1PL.EXCL’, mɛŋ ‘1PL.INCL’, tɔŋ ‘2SG’, and tsʊ ‘2PL’. Furthermore, the intransitive negative future includes different second person forms: tɛn ‘2SG’ and tenʊ ‘2PL’. While these elements generally form a paradigm, there are certain transitive inflections in which first and second person markers can co-occur, e.g., ɪŋ-tɔŋ ‘1SG>2SG’ or ʊŋ-tsʊ ‘1PL.EXCL>2PL’.

On the functional side, we find several aspects of hierarchical agreement. An inverse marker ɛŋ-(ɛm-ɛŋ-) occurs in the basic transitive paradigm and marks the 2,3>1 and 3>2 scenarios. On the other hand, all first person A scenarios have the respective A (SG/PL.EXCL/PL.INCL) prefix. Furthermore, all local (speech act participant) scenarios bear the respective second person suffix (SG/PL), independent of syntactic role (A or O). Interestingly, in the negative transitive paradigm, we find an unexpected marking of third person O plurality in the difference between mɛŋ ‘1PL.INCL>3SG’ and mɛŋʊ ‘1PL.INCL>3PL’.

The discussion of the Monsang agreement paradigms is wrapped up by a consideration of the historical-comparative perspective that connects these data to what we know about verb agreement in the other Kuki-Chin languages (DeLancey 2013).

References

Complex Sentences in Lemi Chin
Helga So-Hartmann and U Reng Sung
Foundation of Applied Linguistics, The Seed Company

Introduction

Lemi is a Tibeto-Burman language and belongs to the Southern branch of the Kuki-Chin languages. It is spoken by approximately 10,000 people in the Paletwa township of the Southern Chin Hills of Myanmar. Lemi is closest related to Khumi Chin and to Mro (also called Mrokhimi).

Lemi is a SOV language and has a nominative-accusative case system. Unlike most Chin languages it does not have verb stem alternation and also no evidence for a verbal agreement system can be found.

1. Scope of this paper

The goal of this paper is to deal mainly with complementation and to give also an overview over other inter-clausal relations and complex sentences in Lemi.

The three types of inter-clausal relations in found in Lemi are:

1. Complementation
2. Adverbial Clauses
3. Clause chaining

Complementation and adverbial clauses are subordinate structures. Complement clauses are clauses that occur as complements of a predicate. They typically functional as subject or object arguments of other clauses.

2. Complementations

In Lemi we are mainly dealing with complementation in which a sentence or clause is an argument of a predicate. Lemi complements are all nominalized structures, however there is no special marker through any kind of complementizer.

Complement-taking verbs can be divided into complement-verbs that require a sentential complement and verbs with so-called multiple membership.

Complement taking verbs in Lemi are mainly perception-cognition-utterance verbs and rarely modality or manipulation verbs.

3. Adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses in Lemi are temporal clauses, manner clauses, purpose clauses, reason-result clauses and conditional-predictive clauses.

4. Clause-chaining

Clause-chaining is used frequently in Lemi, however few sentences contain only clause chains. Most sentences are mixed structures, such as clause chains with pre-posed adverbial clauses and may have embedded complements. The complements may consist of one or more nominalized clause chains. Embedded structures are quite frequent in Lemi sentences, as will be shown in this paper.

The topic of this paper is rather expansive and I do not attempt to treat it exhaustively but still want to give an impression of what is going on in the Lemi complex sentence. It also has to be mentioned that this is still work in progress and that there may be pattern that I have not yet discovered.
Pitch Realization in Thadou

Anusree Sreenivasan

The English and Foreign Languages University, Hyderabad

Pitch research over the past few years have been concerned with pitch lowering over the course of an utterance. There is a clear trend in many languages—both tonal and non-tonal—that F0 values tend to drift down in an utterance, particularly in declarative sentences. This could be because of different downtrending phenomena like the declination, downdrift or downstep (Connel 2001).

This study investigates pitch realizations in Thadou, a Tibeto-Burman tonal language spoken in North-East India. It was Hyman (2007) who reported downstep, a peculiar property of the African languages to be found in Thadou, a South-Asian language. Even though Asian and African tone languages are reported to have many differences, the tone system in Thadou behaves very much like those in African languages. Thadou has three underlying tones—H, L and HL, where contour tones appear only in utterance endings or before a pause. In all other situations they are either H or L.

In this paper I examine: (1) whether declination affects all tones of the language to the same degree; (2) if there is any possible correlation between the rate of declination and utterance length; (3) nature of downstep as well as (4) the nature of downdrift in Thadou. For the study, five female native speakers of Thadou were recorded. The subjects read the utterances with a minimum of three repetitions each. They were recorded using a Sony ICD-UX533F IC recorder. The recordings were then analyzed acoustically using Praat software (ver.5.2.22). Utterances with like tone sequences (all Hs and all Ls) were used to tests declination as it would give more clarity to the data analyzed. The data reveal that utterances with all L tone sequences have more declination than utterances with all H tone sequences. Utterance length do have an effect on the rate of declination as longer utterances are seen to decline more than the shorter ones. Both automatic downstep (also known as ‘downdrift’) and non-automatic downstep (known simply as ‘downstep’) are present in the language.

References


I intend to discuss the tone system in Eastern Gungrupara Hyow (EGH) of Bandarban (situated in the Chittagong Hill Tracts of Bangladesh) in this talk. I will focus on some issues regarding the EGH tone system and tonal typology first. The consecutive sections of the talk will deal with different tonal categories in EGH based on two syllable types: smooth and checked and the tonal sandhi process in EGH. Tone plays a significant role in Hyow, as like many other TB languages. For example, the cross-referencing prefixes for the first person plural inclusive ([i33n44]) and the third person plural ([i33n33]) take the same form, but are only distinguishable by the tones that the syllables in the forms have. Like other Kuki-Chin languages, Hyow has two forms of verbs: Form I and Form II. Form I of some verbs take mid-level tones or low level tones, while Form II of the same verbs take high level tones. The tonal analysis in this talk is based on EGH, which has a high-level tone (H), a low-level tone (L) and a falling tone (F). The nature of tone is complex in EGH and tone sandhi is a necessary study to understand tone patterns in the context (in speech) in EGH. It is rightly said by Watkins 2013 that an extensive analysis of tones in Southern Chin Languages looks very difficult, as the tone system varies across dialects. In a less than 4 kilometers of distance, I have observed two different tonal systems in the Gungrupara Hyow: one (Western Gungrupara Hyow or WGH) with two rising tones and the other (EGH) with two level tones and a falling tone. Generally, the tone pattern in a non-relational or monomorphemic disyllabic word in EGH is H-H. The tone of the reduced syllable of the non-relational disyllabic words depend on the stem, while the tone pattern in the monomorphemic disyllabic words have a preference of H-H. In a context, if an F (44) or an L (44) tone is preceded by an H (44) tone, it gets an H tone. I mark the output H tone as 44, using the numerical convention of marking tones by Chao 1930. Through this talk, I will try to illustrate a picture of tonal behaviours in Eastern Gungrupara Hyow of Bandarban in the CHT of Bangladesh.

References

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contributor</th>
<th>Email</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Larin Adams</td>
<td><a href="mailto:larin_adams@sil.org">larin_adams@sil.org</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark Alves</td>
<td><a href="mailto:mark.alves@montgomerycollege.edu">mark.alves@montgomerycollege.edu</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. Daniel Arisawa</td>
<td><a href="mailto:t.daniel.ari@gmail.com">t.daniel.ari@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nathan Badenoch</td>
<td><a href="mailto:baideanach@gmail.com">baideanach@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misriani Balle</td>
<td><a href="mailto:misriani_balle@kastanet.org">misriani_balle@kastanet.org</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bianca Basch</td>
<td><a href="mailto:biancabfoundation@gmail.com">biancabfoundation@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walter Bisang</td>
<td><a href="mailto:wbisang@uni-mainz.de">wbisang@uni-mainz.de</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David Bradley</td>
<td><a href="mailto:d.bradley@latrobe.edu.au">d.bradley@latrobe.edu.au</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brad Chamberlain</td>
<td><a href="mailto:brad_chamberlain@sil.org">brad_chamberlain@sil.org</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naruadol Chancharu</td>
<td><a href="mailto:naruadol@outlook.com">naruadol@outlook.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yen-Ling Chen</td>
<td><a href="mailto:yenling@hawaii.edu">yenling@hawaii.edu</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yi-Ting Chen</td>
<td><a href="mailto:yitingchen0901@gmail.com">yitingchen0901@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chun-Mei Chen</td>
<td><a href="mailto:chench@dragon.nchu.edu.tw">chench@dragon.nchu.edu.tw</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doug Cooper</td>
<td><a href="mailto:doug.cooper.thailand@gmail.com">doug.cooper.thailand@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S. Dal Sian Pau</td>
<td><a href="mailto:zomilai2014@gmail.com">zomilai2014@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kalyan Das</td>
<td><a href="mailto:kalyanpbc2@gmail.com">kalyanpbc2@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leena Dihingia</td>
<td><a href="mailto:leenadihingia@gmail.com">leenadihingia@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shirley Dita</td>
<td><a href="mailto:shirley.dita@dlsu.edu.ph">shirley.dita@dlsu.edu.ph</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rikker Dockum</td>
<td><a href="mailto:rikker.dockum@yale.edu">rikker.dockum@yale.edu</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sarat Kumar Doley</td>
<td><a href="mailto:doleysarat@gmail.com">doleysarat@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patricia Donegan</td>
<td><a href="mailto:donegan@hawaii.edu">donegan@hawaii.edu</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marie Duhamel</td>
<td><a href="mailto:marie.duhamel@anu.edu.au">marie.duhamel@anu.edu.au</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niharika Dutta</td>
<td><a href="mailto:ndatta26@gmail.com">ndatta26@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Razaul Faquire</td>
<td><a href="mailto:bangla1999@hotmail.com">bangla1999@hotmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ana Cristina Fortes</td>
<td><a href="mailto:anacristinafortes05@gmail.com">anacristinafortes05@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ryan Gehrmann</td>
<td><a href="mailto:ryangehrmann@gmail.com">ryangehrmann@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matthias Gerner</td>
<td><a href="mailto:mgerner@cityu.edu.hk">mgerner@cityu.edu.hk</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David Gil</td>
<td><a href="mailto:gil@eva.mpg.de">gil@eva.mpg.de</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poppy Gogoi</td>
<td><a href="mailto:poppy.gogoi86@gmail.com">poppy.gogoi86@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elizabeth Hall</td>
<td><a href="mailto:ellie_hall@sil.org">ellie_hall@sil.org</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marykim Haokip</td>
<td><a href="mailto:marykimhaokip@gmail.com">marykimhaokip@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norihiko Hayashi</td>
<td><a href="mailto:jinozu@yahoo.co.jp">jinozu@yahoo.co.jp</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tyler Heston</td>
<td><a href="mailto:theston@hawaii.edu">theston@hawaii.edu</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maureen Hoffman</td>
<td><a href="mailto:mhoffman@email.arizona.edu">mhoffman@email.arizona.edu</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kamolchanok Hongthong</td>
<td><a href="mailto:h.kamolchanok@gmail.com">h.kamolchanok@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andrew Hsiu</td>
<td><a href="mailto:andhsiu@gmail.com">andhsiu@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yang Huang</td>
<td><a href="mailto:elvishwang.hk@gmail.com">elvishwang.hk@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sajed Ingilan sajedingilan@yahoo.com
Eric Jackson eric_jackson@sil.org
Nerida Jarkey nerida.jarkey@sydney.edu.au
Mathias Jenny mathias.jenny@uzh.ch
Rodney Jubilado rodneycj@hawaii.edu
Angela Kluge Angela_Kluge@sil.org
Linda Konnerth lkonnett@uoregon.edu
Keita Kurabe kurabek0926@gmail.com
Wendy Laihminghlui wendy.hlui@gmail.com
Ziwo Qiu-Fuyuan Lama lamaziwo@163.com
Seunghun Lee juliolee@gmail.com
Hui-Chi Lee hclee6@mail.ncku.edu.tw
M. Paul Lewis paul_lewis@sil.org
Hanbo Liao mayxreux@gmail.com
Jinrong Liu 15911566299@139.com
Daniel Loss lossdaniel224@gmail.com
Theraphan Luangthongkum Theraphan.L@chula.ac.th
Potsangbam Madhubala pmadhubala@gmail.com
Riaz Ahmed Mangrio riazmangrio@yahoo.com
Elangbam Manimohon boinao86@gmail.com
Sireemas Maspong sireemas.m@gmail.com
Natsuki Matsui natsupicobibira@gmail.com
Eric Mccready mccready@cl.aoyama.ac.jp
Sano Mitsuhiko micco.sano@gmail.com
André Müller esperantist@gmail.com
Naw Say Bay faithsaybay@gmail.com
Tam Nguyen tam.nguyen8@hcmussh.edu.vn
Izumi Ochiai izumi.ochiai@gmail.com
Wyn Owen wyn_owen@sil.org
Pavel Ozerov ezerinsh@gmail.com
Jean Pacquement jeanpacquement@gmail.com
Denis Paillard denispaillard1@gmail.com
Kyung Eun Park pkethai@gmail.com
Jeremy Perkins jerperkins@gmail.com
David A. Peterson david.a.peterson1@gmail.com
Audra Phillips aephilli@ualberta.ca
Apisara Pholnarat thaicmu@gmail.com
Nattaya Piriyawiboon npwiboon@yahoo.com
Rachel Powelson rachel_powelson@sil.org
Resmi Prakash resmiprakash@gmail.com