

# FOREGROUNDING IN SOME SELECTED SOUTHEAST ASIAN NARRATIVES

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## **1. Introduction**

This paper presents the syntactic devices which are used to foreground the parts of the narrative which relate events belonging to the skeleton structure of the discourse. These events determine an 'event line' or 'storyline.'

The data consist of narratives from eight Southeast Asian languages selected from available texts which are transcribed in phonetic symbols with word by word translation and free translation. The eight Southeast Asian languages belong to the Tai-Kadai language family and Mon-Khmer language family. The former includes Thai, Lue, Bouyei, Northern Zhuang, and Kam; the latter has Northern Khmer, So, and Vietnamese. The Thai narratives are drawn from *The Structure of Thai Narrative* (Somsonge 1991); the Lue, Bouyei, Northern Zhuang, and Kam narratives from *Kam-Tai Oral Literatures* (Somsonge et al 1998); the Northern Khmer narratives from *Discourse Level Cohesion in Northern Khmer* (Somkiet 1982); the So narratives from *A Grammar of So---A Mon-Khmer Language of Northeast Thailand* (Migliazza 1998); and the Vietnamese narratives from *Cohesive Devices in Vietnamese Folktales* (Suksiri 2000).

## **2. The notion of foregrounding**

Jones and Jones (1979:6) mention that some scholars have viewed discourse information as "an essentially bipartite structure composed of more significant information (often called backbone or foreground) and less significant information (background)."

Hopper (1979:213) refers to events as "the language of the actual storyline" and nonevents as "the language of the supportive material." The former is referred to as foreground and the latter as background.

Hopper and Thompson (1980:280) refer to grounding as “linguistic features associated with the distinction between foreground and background.” Each language makes use of particular features to mark foreground and background.

Longacre (1996) uses the term “storyline” to refer to foreground, i.e., the main line of development in a discourse which is foregrounded in varying ways in various languages. In languages with tense-aspect systems, such as English, the verb systems facilitate discourse. That is, differing tense, aspect, mood, and voice forms have different functions in discourse. In narrative discourse, for example, simple past-tense forms report successive actions and events which advance the story, whereas past-progressive forms report concomitant activities or nonstoryline. On the other hand, the languages which do not have much richness of structure in regard to tense-aspect distinction may distinguish foreground and background by a conspiracy of nonsystemic way.

Kanchana (1970:39) points out that “There are many languages in which verbal inflections are grammatical devices to reflect human time concepts; whereas many other languages use other devices to fulfill the same purpose without having to do with verbform changes or requiring any verbform marker (auxiliaries).” The languages of the Tai-Kadai language family and Mon-Khmer language family under this study have neither verbal inflections nor auxiliaries to convey time concepts. Instead, context or the juxtaposition of an adverb of time signals whether a spoken event is in the present, past, or future. As mentioned above, the foreground or storyline of English narrative is characterized by verbs in the past tense or in the completive/perfective aspect. On the other hand, the languages of Tai-Kadai family and Mon-Khmer family have no specific markers of past versus present tense. Clauses are ambiguous as to time reference. Types of verbs, such as nonstative verbs having perfective meaning, perfective auxiliaries, temporal expressions, and context will work in conjunction with each other to imply time. It is, therefore, the purpose of this paper to investigate how languages without a tense system, such as the languages of Tai-Kadai family and Mon-Khmer family, foreground the main line of narrative discourse.

This study has found that the major grammatical devices which are used to foreground certain parts of the

narratives include serial clause construction, the temporal auxiliaries, and aspectual auxiliaries as discussed below.

### 3. Serial clause construction

Sequentiality is a significant feature of foreground clauses. The events realized by foreground clauses succeed one another. Hopper (1979:214-15) refers to this succession as being in iconic order, i.e., “the same order as their succession in the real world.” The sequentiality of foreground events requires that an event occur after the completion of a prior event. He also refers to foreground events as being dynamic and active.

The languages of Tai-Kadai and Mon-Khmer family use the serial clause construction to foreground the main events which are sequentially tied. The serial clause construction consists of a series of clauses which report events that are salient and are the most dynamic element in a discourse. The series of clauses has only one overt subject present in the initial clause. The following clauses have zero anaphors as their subjects. All clauses in a series are very strongly sequential. The serial clause construction is exemplified in the Bouyei and Vietnamese languages in examples (1) and (2), respectively. In these two examples, the clauses following the initial clause have zero anaphors as subjects. All clauses in each series are foregrounded and strongly sequential.

#### (1) Bouyei

CL1	<i>θoŋ<sup>1</sup></i> two	<i>pi<sup>4</sup>nuan<sup>4</sup></i> brother and sister	<i>te<sup>1</sup></i> that	<i>ɕi<sup>3</sup></i> then	<i>pa<sup>4</sup></i> PREP	
	<i>ʔdan<sup>1</sup></i> CLS	<i>te<sup>1</sup></i> that	<i>ʔbuut<sup>7</sup></i> pick	<i>ma<sup>1</sup></i> come	<i>la<sup>3</sup></i> down	
CL2	<i>ʔau<sup>1</sup></i> use	<i>wa<sup>6</sup>ta:u<sup>1</sup></i> knife	<i>tai<sup>5</sup></i> from	<i>neŋ<sup>2</sup></i> top	<i>te<sup>1</sup></i> it	<i>kuen<sup>2</sup></i> carve
	<i>pan<sup>2</sup></i> have	<i>soŋ<sup>6</sup></i> hole	<i>deu<sup>1</sup></i> ne			
CL3	<i>ʔau<sup>1</sup></i> use	<i>wa<sup>6</sup>kuu<sup>3</sup></i> hoe	<i>pa<sup>4</sup></i> PREP	<i>ŋui<sup>6</sup></i> seeds	<i>te<sup>1</sup></i> it	<i>wau<sup>6</sup></i> dig

*ma*<sup>1</sup>    *đo*<sup>6</sup>  
come    out

CL4    *leu*<sup>4</sup>    *çi*<sup>3</sup>    *ʔau*<sup>1</sup>    *su*<sup>5</sup>    *kuu*<sup>2</sup> *ʔda:t*<sup>7</sup>    *pa*<sup>4</sup>  
finish    then    take    in    hot place    PREP

*te*<sup>1</sup>    *ta*<sup>3</sup>    *đo*<sup>2</sup>  
it    dry    dry out

‘CL1 The two brother and sister picked the biggest gourd.  
CL2 (They) used a knife to carve a hole on it top.  
CL3 (They) used a hoe to dig the seeds out.  
CL4 Then (they) took the gourd to dry in a hot place.’

(2) Vietnamese

CL1    *Nàng*    *nhớ*    *chồng*    *thương thân*  
3<sup>rd</sup>PER    miss    husband    self-pity

CL2    *bé*    *con*    *ra*    *ngoài*    *chùa*  
carry    child    out    outside    temple

CL3    *trèo*    *lên*    *một*    *mỏm*    *đá*    *cao*    *chót*    *vót*  
climb    up    one    top    stone    tall    very    tall

CL4    *nhìn về*    *hướng*    *chồng*    *đi*  
look forward    direction    husband    go

‘CL1 She missed her husband very much.  
CL2 (She) carried her child out of the temple.  
CL3 (She) climbed up to the top of the mountain.  
CL4 (She) looked at the direction that her husband went.’

Diller (1992) studies all the Tai varieties of Assam and has found that binary discourse structures are quite common. The binary discourse structures are parataxis with asyndeton in which clauses are coordinated without the use of overt conjunctions. These structures may be iconic in indicating repeating or continuing actions or events. The parataxis with asyndeton structure is also common in the languages under this



study as found in the serial clause construction discussed above.

4. The temporal auxiliaries

Dry (1983) mentions that the more salient happenings are reported in foreground clauses—clauses in which the action of the narrative takes up and time begins to move forward. The foreground clauses make reference to sequenced temporal points, rather than spans of time, and these points are usually the endpoints of situations. These clauses are on a narrative timeline and constitute the foreground of a narrative.

In the languages studied the foreground clauses are signalled by the juxtaposition of chronological successive clauses in iconic order, i.e., prior clauses refering to prior actions or events in a reported event sequence discussed as serial clause construction above. Other devices include the use of temporal auxiliaries, expressions, or an adverbial clauses to indicate the temporal succession of happenings and the use of aspectual auxiliaries to mark the completeness of actions or events. The major concern of this section is the use of temporal auxiliaries and the next section will discuss the aspectual auxiliaries.

The most dominant feature which accompanies the foreground clauses to move the story forward is the temporal auxiliary. The appearance of this grammatical form in the narrative past time frame signals that the following happenings are foregrounded. All eight languages of the Tai-Kadai and Mon-Khmer family have this grammatical device which is realized in various forms as listed below in Table 1. These forms are glossed in various ways such as ‘then, particle, topic marker.’ The given meanings of these forms suggest that these forms are discourse particles which signal the chronological succession of happenings and the thematic or foreground events or actions.

Table 1. Discourse particles for foregrounding  
Tai-Kadai Language Family

Languages	Locations	Forms
Thai	Bangkok, Thailand	<i>kɔː<sup>3</sup>, cuŋ<sup>1</sup></i>
Lue	Sipsongbanna, PR China	<i>kɔː<sup>4</sup></i>
Bouyei	Guizhou, PR China	<i>ɕi<sup>3</sup></i>
Northern Zhuang	Guangxi, PR China	<i>ɕou<sup>6</sup></i>
Kam	Guizhou, PR China	<i>ɕu<sup>33</sup></i>

## Mon-Khmer Language Family

Languages	Locations	Forms
Northern Khmer	Buriram, Thailand	<i>kəʔ</i>
So	Sakonnakorn, Thailand	<i>ka:</i> , <i>pat</i>
Vietnamese	Hanoi, Vietnam	<i>thì</i> , <i>bèn</i>

The Northern Zhuang language illustrates the use of the temporal auxiliaries.

## (3) Northern Zhuang

*tu<sup>2</sup> pja<sup>3</sup>    ɕou<sup>6</sup>    huən<sup>3</sup> pa:i<sup>6</sup>    huən<sup>2</sup>    pai    lo*  
 Thunder God    then    go up    upper part    go    PART

*tuŋu:k<sup>8</sup>    ɕou<sup>6</sup>    ɣoŋ<sup>2</sup> pa:i<sup>6</sup>    la    pai<sup>1</sup>    lo*  
 dragon    then    go down    lower part    go    PART  
 'The Thunder God then went up to heaven. The dragon then went down into the water.'

The temporal auxiliaries *kɔ:<sup>3</sup>*, *kɔ:<sup>4</sup>*, *ɕi<sup>3</sup>*, *ɕou<sup>6</sup>*, *ɕu<sup>33</sup>*, *kəʔ*, *ka:*, and *thì* have the same function, that is, they highlight succeeding events which form the foreground or storyline of the narrative. Syntactically, the word *thì* in Vietnamese is different from other temporal auxiliaries in that *thì* is the sentence conjunctive which occurs between two clauses whereas the rest are preverbal. If the second clause has the same subject as the first one, it is usually omitted and *thì* has a preverbal structure in the same manner as other temporal auxiliaries.

The temporal auxiliaries *cuy<sup>1</sup>*, *pat*, and *bèn* in Thai, So, and Vietnamese are all preverbal. They function in a similar way to *kɔ:<sup>3</sup>*, *ka:*, and *thì*, respectively, but they also imply a consequence of the previous event as illustrated in comparison with *kɔ:<sup>3</sup>*, *ka:*, and *thì* in the examples below.

## (4) Thai:

*kɔ:<sup>3</sup>*  
*muə<sup>3</sup>    saŋ<sup>2</sup>    khon<sup>1</sup>    ʔaw<sup>1</sup>    na:m<sup>4</sup> rɔ:n<sup>4</sup>    pay<sup>1</sup>*  
 when    order    person    take    hot water    go

*ra:t<sup>3</sup>    mæ:<sup>3</sup>    khɔ:<sup>5</sup>    ton<sup>1</sup>    lɛ:w<sup>4</sup>*  
 throw    mother    of    self    already

*na:ŋ<sup>1</sup>lu:k<sup>3</sup>sa:w<sup>5</sup> kɔ:<sup>3</sup> ʔɔ:k<sup>3</sup>ma:<sup>1</sup> tɔ:n<sup>3</sup>rap<sup>4</sup> na:y<sup>1</sup>phra:n<sup>1</sup>*  
 daughter then come out welcome hunter  
 ‘When she told someone to throw hot water on her mother,  
 the daughter came back to welcome the hunter.’

*cuiŋ<sup>1</sup>*  
*pra:<sup>1</sup>kot<sup>2</sup> wa:<sup>3</sup> sop<sup>2</sup> mɛ:<sup>3</sup> ma:<sup>5</sup> nin<sup>1</sup> da:y<sup>3</sup>*  
 appear that corpse mother dog Nin get

*kla:y<sup>1</sup>pen<sup>1</sup> tho:ŋ<sup>1</sup> pay<sup>1</sup> thaŋ<sup>4</sup> tua<sup>1</sup>*  
 become gold go all body

*cuiŋ<sup>1</sup> wiŋ<sup>3</sup> pay<sup>1</sup> thu:n<sup>1</sup> sa<sup>1</sup>wa:<sup>5</sup>mi:<sup>1</sup>*  
 so run go tell husband  
 ‘It appeared that the Nin’s corpse became gold all over.  
 She then ran to tell her husband.’

(5) So

*ka:*  
*bat an ci.tah.ra.mɯa cɣ:*  
 when 3PSG wake up already

*an ta.waŋ sɛ:ŋ puŋ*  
 3PSG look for go down story

*an ka: hɣ:m maŋ ci.li:a cum ʃi cɣ:*  
 3 PSG then see only thorn to pile all already  
 ‘When he woke up already, he looked down and he saw  
 only thorns piled up everywhere already.’

*pat*

*muyy sa.ŋa:t pat ku.ci:t*  
 tired withered then die  
 ‘The banana tree got tired of withering so then it died.’

(6) Vietnamese

*thì*  
*Đến khi người mẹ về thì*  
 until person mother return then

*con gái*      *đã*                      *ngồi dậy*      *được*  
 girl              to experience      sit up              able  
 'When their mother returned, To Thi could sit up.'

### *bèn*

*Bấy giờ*      *hồn*      *trăn trăn*      và      *Đại Bàng*      *khó sở*  
 at that time      spirit      python      and      eagle              unhappy

*đói*      *khát*      *đi*      *lang thang*,      *thất thủ*,  
 hungry      thirsty      go      wander              stumble on

*tình cờ*              *gặp*      *nhau*      *bèn*      *bàn định*  
 unexpectedly      meet      together      then      discuss and decide

*mưu kế*      *trả thù*      *Thạch Sanh*  
 trick              revenge      Thạch Sanh

'Now both the dragon and the eagle spirit were unhappy, hungry and thirsty. They roamed around and unexpectedly they met each other. Then they planned their revenge on Thạch Sanh.'

The temporal auxiliaries *cung*<sup>1</sup>, *pat*, and *bèn* are not as dominant as *ko*;<sup>3</sup> *ka*; and *thì* which play a more important role in the narratives. The preverbal temporal auxiliary *bèn* is not even productive anymore. It is no longer used in everyday conversation and appears only in the old texts.

## 5. The aspectual auxiliaries

Aspectual auxiliaries are verbal elements that modify the meanings of the co-occurring verbs in terms of aspect. Comrie (1981) classifies aspect into two main categories, i.e., perfective and imperfective. The perfective denotes a complete situation, with beginning, middle, and end. The semantic element of perfective is the termination of the situation, that is, the situation is viewed as a single complete whole. The imperfective indicates a situation in progress and pays essential attention to the internal structure of the situation (duration, phasal sequences).

The aspectual auxiliary which is the main focus of this section is perfective. The perfective auxiliary which plays an important role in the narrative discourse is as follows:

Table2. Perfective auxiliary forms in Tai-Kadai and Mon-Khmer

Tai-Kadai language family

languages	meanings	
	‘already’	‘to experience’
Thai	<i>lɛ:w<sup>4</sup></i>	<i>da:y<sup>3</sup></i>
Lue	<i>lɛ:u<sup>4</sup></i>	<i>day<sup>3</sup></i>
Bouyei	<i>leu<sup>4</sup></i>	<i>ʔdai<sup>4</sup></i>
Northern Zhuang	<i>liu<sup>4</sup>/le:u<sup>4</sup></i>	<i>dai<sup>3</sup></i>
Kam	<i>la:u<sup>2</sup></i>	<i>li<sup>3</sup></i>

Mon-Khmer language family

languages	meanings	
	‘already’	‘to experience’
Northern Khmer	<i>sneeh</i>	<i>baan</i>
So	<i>cɣ:</i>	<i>buu:n</i>
Vietnamese	<i>rôi</i>	<i>đã</i>

As mentioned earlier, the languages of the Tai-Kadai and Mon-Khmer families do not use verbal inflections nor auxiliaries as a grammatical device to indicate time. The perfective auxiliaries listed above are neutral as to time reference. They signal the completion of a situation in both accomplished and projected timeframes. However, since they usually mark a telic situation viewed in its entirety, they have a past or accomplished time implication. The timeframe of the narrative is usually in the past therefore the narrative is represented as having already taken place. So the clauses having the perfective auxiliaries have perfective aspect in the past timeframe.

The presence of the perfective auxiliaries meaning ‘already’ indicates the completion of the preceding foreground event. That is, the event tagged by the postverbal *lɛ:w<sup>4</sup>* *lɛ:u<sup>4</sup>*, *leu<sup>4</sup>*, *li:u<sup>4</sup>/le:u<sup>4</sup>*, *la:u<sup>2</sup>*, *sneeh*, *cɣ:*, and *rôi* has already happened before the following foreground event starts. It should be noted that these perfective auxiliaries usually co-occur with the temporal auxiliaries. The co-occurrences of temporal auxiliaries and perfective auxiliaries will encode foreground

events which are the most salient discourse information in the whole narrative as seen in examples (4) and (5) above.

Example 4 is drawn from a Thai narrative. The first event--she told someone to throw hot water on her mother—is tagged by the perfective auxiliary *lɛ:w*<sup>4</sup> and is built upon by the second —the daughter came back to welcome the hunter. The second event is foregrounded by the temporal auxiliary *kɔ:*<sup>3</sup>. Example (5) is from a So narrative. The first happening—he woke up already -- is built upon by the second event—he looked down--which is built upon by the last event—he saw only thorns piled up everywhere already. The first and the last happenings are tagged by the perfective auxiliary *cɣ:* which signals the completion of both happenings. The last event is highlighted by the temporal auxiliary *ka:* which signals that the last event is in chronological succession to the preceding one.

Another perfective auxiliary which indicates that an event or action has taken place and thus foregrounds that event or action is the word meaning ‘to experience’ which is realized by the forms *da:y*<sup>3</sup>, *day*<sup>3</sup>, *ʔdai*<sup>4</sup>, *dai*<sup>3</sup>, *li*<sup>3</sup>, *baan*, *bu:n*, and *ḍā* in Thai, Lue, Bouyei, Northern Zhuang, Kam, Northern Khmer, So, and Vietnamese, respectively. When perfective auxiliaries function to foreground a happening, they are preverbal as in example (7).

(7) Northern Zhuang

<i>pau</i> <sup>5</sup> <i>lok</i> <sup>8</sup> <i>tau</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>ɕou</i> <sup>6</sup>	<i>ɣam</i> <sup>3</sup>	<i>fai</i> <sup>4</sup>	<i>ɕa:u</i> <sup>4</sup>	<i>fei</i> <sup>2</sup>
Pauloktau	then	cut	wood	make	fire

<i>yun</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>ɕou</i> <sup>6</sup>	<i>dai</i> <sup>3</sup>	<i>kun</i> <sup>1</sup>	<i>ɕuk</i> <sup>8</sup>	<i>lo</i>
man	then	to experience	eat	cooked	PART

‘Pauloktau then cut wood to make fire. Men then ate cooked food.’

In this example, the first event—Pauloktau cut wood to make fire—is foregrounded by the temporal auxiliary *ɕou*<sup>6</sup> ‘then.’ This event is built upon by the second event—Men ate cooked food—which is made prominent by using both the temporal indicator *ɕou*<sup>6</sup> ‘then’ and the perfective auxiliary *dai*<sup>3</sup> ‘to experience.’

The perfective auxiliaries *da:y*<sup>3</sup>, *day*<sup>3</sup>, *ʔdai*<sup>4</sup>, *dai*<sup>3</sup>, *li*<sup>3</sup>, *baan*, *bu:n*, and *ḍā* may co-occur with the temporal auxiliaries. Both auxiliaries work together to foreground a happening as seen in example (7) above and the Lue language

below. In this example the completion of the first event—Xamtsan died—is also indicated by the word (*se:*<sup>1</sup>) *le:u*<sup>4</sup> which foregrounds this event. The following event—He reborn as a moon in the sky—is foregrounded by the temporal auxiliary *kɔ:*<sup>4</sup> and the perfective auxiliary *dai*<sup>3</sup>.

(8) Lue language

*xam*<sup>2</sup>*tsen*<sup>1</sup> *ta:*<sup>1</sup> *pai*<sup>1</sup> *se:*<sup>1</sup>*le:u*<sup>4</sup> *kɔ:*<sup>4</sup> *dai*<sup>3</sup>  
*Xamtsan die leave after then experience*

*pai*<sup>1</sup> *ky:t*<sup>9</sup> *pi:n* *dy:n*<sup>1</sup> *ju:*<sup>5</sup> *fa:*<sup>4</sup>  
 leave birth become moon stay sky

‘Xamtsan died. Then (he) reborn as a moon in the sky.’

It should be noted that in the Kam language the perfective auxiliary *la:u*<sup>2</sup> is not frequent in the narrative under study. Instead of *la:u*<sup>2</sup>, the Kam language frequently uses the temporal word *ta:*<sup>33</sup>*lan*<sup>11</sup> to signal the completion of the previous event and the beginning of a new event such as in example (9).

(9) Kam

*ta*<sup>33</sup>*len*<sup>11</sup> *ju*<sup>33</sup> *mau*<sup>55</sup> *ja:*<sup>11</sup> *qe*<sup>35</sup> *ta*<sup>453</sup> *ten*<sup>11</sup> *pai*<sup>55</sup>  
 afterward PREP he/she two CLS go up mountain go  
 ‘Afterward they went up the mountain.’

## 6. The occurrences of temporal and aspectual auxiliaries out of the narrative timeline

The narrative is presented as occurring in the past/accomplished time, therefore the occurrences of the temporal and aspectual auxiliaries within the narrative timeframe signal foreground happenings. However, the temporal and aspectual auxiliaries are neutral as to time reference so they may occur both in accomplished and projected timeframes.

When the temporal and aspectual auxiliaries occur in projected time as in quotation, they indicate temporal succession of events which have not yet occurred. Example (10) illustrates the occurrence of the temporal auxiliary *ɕi*<sup>3</sup> and the aspectual auxiliary *leu*<sup>4</sup> in quotation in the Bouyei language.

## (10) Bouyei

*θu<sup>1</sup> pa<sup>4</sup> te<sup>1</sup> ʔdam<sup>1</sup> su<sup>2</sup> ʔdai<sup>1</sup> θuan<sup>1</sup>*  
 you PREP it plant in inside garden

*suuŋ<sup>2</sup> te<sup>1</sup> ma<sup>3</sup> la:u<sup>4</sup> leu<sup>4</sup> paŋ<sup>2</sup> ʔdan<sup>1</sup> leu<sup>4</sup>*  
 wait it grow big already have fruit already

*θu<sup>1</sup> ɕi<sup>3</sup> ʔbuut<sup>1</sup> ʔdan<sup>1</sup> tsui<sup>5</sup> la:u<sup>4</sup> te<sup>1</sup> ma<sup>1</sup> la<sup>3</sup>*  
 you then pick fruit biggest that come down  
 ‘(The Thunder God said to the two brother and sister)’  
 “You plant the gourd seeds inside the garden. Wait until the  
 gourd plants have gourds. Then you pick the biggest one.”

In the above example the event sequence in quotation is displaced forward in time. This event sequence is foreshadowing which is said before the events are actually asserted to have taken place. Therefore, the temporal and aspectual auxiliaries do not function to propel narrative time.

The aspectual auxiliaries *da:y<sup>3</sup>*, *day<sup>3</sup>*, *ʔdai<sup>4</sup>*, *dai<sup>3</sup>*, *li<sup>3</sup>*, *baan*, *buu:n* and *đã* may occur in clauses encoding events or activities which are displaced backward in time such as flashback. Example (11) illustrates the flashback information which is signalled by the aspectual auxiliary *đã* in Vietnamese language

## (11) Vietnamese

*Chàng hồi nhớ lại những ngày xa xăm,*  
 3<sup>rd</sup> PER recall again some day very far

*cái ngày chàng lỡ tay ném đá vào*  
 CLF. day 3<sup>rd</sup>PER miss hand throw stone in

*đầu em, tưởng em*  
 head younger sister think younger sister

*chết nên đã đi lang thang không*  
 die so to experience go roam not

*dám trở về nhà, rồi được một*  
 dare return house already get one



*người buôn thuốc bắc đem*  
 person sell chinese tradition medicine carry

*về nhà nuôi ở Trùng Khánh,*  
 return house bring up at Trung Khanh

*thuộc tỉnh Cao Bằng.*  
 belong to province Cao Bang

‘He recalled his past. It began when he had thrown a stone hitting his younger sister. He thought that she had died then ran away. One day, he had met a herbal seller who brought him up at Trung Khanh, Cao Bang province.’

In this example the event—running away-- has taken place in the previous part of the story. The preverbal *đã* indicates that the event has completed in the distant past. The postverbal *rồi* is also used to mark a sequence of events which is displaced backward in time.

Besides the foregrounding function discussed previously, some temporal auxiliaries also have other syntactic functions. For example, the words *kɔː*<sup>3</sup> and *kɔː*<sup>4</sup> in Thai and Lue, respectively also function as an additive conjunction and conditional marker and the word *thì* in Vietnamese functions as a topic marker and a conditional marker. Compare *kɔː*<sup>4</sup> and *thì* functioning as a conditional marker in example (12).

(12) Lue

*kan<sup>2</sup> hɔːt<sup>8</sup> ja:m<sup>2</sup> dɜːn<sup>1</sup> ho:k<sup>7</sup> dɜːn<sup>1</sup> tse:t<sup>7</sup> maː<sup>2</sup>*  
 if arrive time month six month seven come

*taː<sup>1</sup> van<sup>2</sup> kɔː<sup>4</sup> hɔːn<sup>4</sup> mai<sup>3</sup> maː<sup>2</sup>*  
 the sun also hot scalding come

‘If it is June and July, the sun will become very hot and scalding.’

Vietnamese

*Hễ có tai biến gì thì cứ gọi ta,*  
 if have disaster what then keep on call 1<sup>st</sup>PER

*Tasẽ vè ngay!*  
 1<sup>st</sup>PER will return immediately  
 'If any problem occurs, call me. I will be back immediately.'

The perfective auxiliary may have other functions in other syntactic positions. The perfective auxiliaries *da:y<sup>3</sup>*, *day<sup>3</sup>*, *ʔdai<sup>4</sup>*, *dai<sup>3</sup>*, *li<sup>3</sup>*, *baan*, and *bui:n* may function as a main verb meaning 'to get, to obtain' or as a modal in postverbal position meaning 'able, can' as illustrated in the So language below.

(13) So

main verb

*ɲcah n̄aw pi:t p<sup>h</sup>u: bui:n ɲcah kuk*  
 side Mr. turtle person get side base

*an ka: a.u: a.du:ŋ cɔ*  
 3PSG then carry in arms take fight

*lo:t lew<sup>?</sup>*  
 PRT cmd PRT emph

'For Mr. Turtle's side, who got the base part of the tree, he then quickly carried it to plant.'

postverbal position

*p<sup>h</sup>ɔ pa:y an cɔ:n a.lu:a:ŋ mpi:ayh*  
 because said 3PSG go up wood NEG

*bui:n nay lew<sup>?</sup>*  
 can this PRT emph

'Because that he (turtle) cannot climb up the tree.'

The perfective auxiliary *ḍã* in Vietnamese is different from *da:y<sup>3</sup>*, *day<sup>3</sup>*, *ʔdai<sup>4</sup>*, *dai<sup>3</sup>*, *li<sup>3</sup>*, *baan*, and *bui:n*. It does not occur as a main verb or a postverbal modal. In other syntactic position besides the preverbal position, it tags a clause as an adverb meaning 'first of all' as in example (14).<sup>1</sup>

(14) Vietnamese

*Nghi mot cai ḍã.*  
 Rest a while first of all  
 'Let's take a rest first.'

On the other hand, there is another Vietnamese word which occurs as a main verb and a postverbal modal in the same manner as *da:y*<sup>3</sup>, *day*<sup>3</sup>, *ʔdai*<sup>4</sup>, *dai*<sup>3</sup>, *li*<sup>3</sup>; *baan*, and *bui:n*. It is the word *được* meaning 'to get, to receive' in main verb position and 'able, can' in postverbal position (see example 6). This word also occurs in preverbal position but its function is not a completive marker as *đã*. In preverbal position, *được* occurs in the so-called passive construction which has a positive connotation in contrast to the passive construction which has the word *bị* 'passive marker' conveying an inherently adversative meaning as illustrated below.

(15) *được*

*hắn được vua phong chức Đô đốc.*  
 3<sup>rd</sup> PER PASS.MK king nominate position admiral  
 'He was nominated as an admiral by the king.'

*bị*

*yêu quái bị giết chết*  
 evil spirit PASS.MK kill die  
 'The evil spirit was killed.'

## 7. Discussion

According to Longacre (1996), the main line of narrative discourse is foregrounded in varying ways in various languages. As a language with tense-aspect system, English uses the verb systems to report various kinds of discourse information. For example, in narrative discourse simple past-tense forms report successive actions and events which advance the story, whereas past-progressive forms report concomitant activities or nonstoryline.

The languages of Tai-Kadai and Mon-Khmer family under study do not have a tense system. The foreground part of the narrative is not characterized by the verbal inflection. It is the main purpose of this paper to examine the grammatical devices that these languages use to foreground the main line of development in narrative discourse.

The first grammatical device which is frequently used to foreground events or actions is serial clause construction. This syntactic construction is iconic in indicating continuing events or actions. It has one overt subject present in the initial clause. The subjects of the following clauses are realized by

zero anaphors. All clauses in a series are very strongly sequential and report events that are salient and are the most dynamic element in a discourse.

Another device is temporal auxiliary which is used to indicate the temporal succession of happenings. The clauses which are chronologically tied may be given prominence by flagging the clauses with the temporal auxiliary. The foreground clauses preceded by the temporal auxiliary make a good abstract of the narrative. All languages have the temporal auxiliaries meaning 'then.' They are *kɔː*<sup>3</sup>, *kɔː*<sup>4</sup>, *ɕi*<sup>3</sup>, *ɕou*<sup>6</sup>, *ɕu*<sup>33</sup>, *kə*<sup>?</sup>, *kaː*, and *thĩ* in Thai, Lue, Bouyei, Northern Zhuang, Kam, Northern Khmer, So, and Vietnamese, respectively. Thai, So and Vietnamese also have other temporal auxiliaries meaning 'consequently,' namely, *cuŋ*<sup>1</sup>, *pat*, and *bèn*, respectively.

Comparing the forms of the temporal auxiliary meaning 'then,' we can conclude that the words *kɔː*<sup>3</sup>, *kɔː*<sup>4</sup> in Thai and Lue have Khmer origin because all languages of Mon-Khmer family, except Mon and Vietnamese, have cognates of *kɔː*<sup>3</sup> and *kɔː*<sup>4</sup>, whereas only the languages of the Southwestern group of the Tai-Kadai language family have these cognates and the languages of the Northern group have different forms. When Thai people migrated from China to the south, they adopted this form from Khmer during the time the Khmer empire was at the zenith of its civilization (Somsonge Forthcoming). Qin Qiaohang<sup>2</sup> (p.c) makes a remark that the forms *ɕi*<sup>3</sup>, *ɕou*<sup>6</sup>, and *ɕu*<sup>33</sup> in Bouyei, Northern Zhuang, and Kam, respectively, are borrowed words from Chinese because they have similar pronunciation to the temporal auxiliary *jiu* 'then' in Chinese.

Besides the serial clause construction and the temporal auxiliaries, the languages of Tai-Kadai and Mon-Khmer family also use aspectual auxiliaries to foreground crucial events or actions. These aspectual auxiliaries are the words meaning 'already,' i.e., *lɛːw*<sup>4</sup>, *lɛːu*<sup>4</sup>, *leu*<sup>4</sup>, *liːu*<sup>4</sup>/*leːu*<sup>4</sup>, *laːu*<sup>2</sup>, *sneeh*, *cɣː*, *rôi* and those meaning 'to experience': *daːy*<sup>3</sup>, *day*<sup>3</sup>, *ʔdai*<sup>4</sup>, *dai*<sup>3</sup>, *li*<sup>3</sup>, *baan*, *buuːn*, and *ḍã* in Thai, Lue, Bouyei, Northern Zhuang, Kam, Northern Khmer, So, and Vietnamese, respectively. The aspectual auxiliaries *lɛːw*<sup>4</sup>, *lɛːu*<sup>4</sup>, *leu*<sup>4</sup>, *liːu*<sup>4</sup>/*leːu*<sup>4</sup>, *laːu*<sup>2</sup>, *sneeh*, *cɣː*, and *rôi* have perfective or completive aspect. They indicate a completion of a happening and signals a beginning of the following happening. In so doing, these aspectual

auxiliaries foreground crucial events which constitute the storyline of the narrative. The aspectual auxiliaries *da:y*<sup>3</sup>, *day*<sup>3</sup>, *ʔdai*<sup>4</sup>, *dai*<sup>3</sup>, *li*<sup>3</sup>, *baan*, *bu:n*, and *ḍā* also have perfective or completive aspect. They indicate that someone has experienced something. The non-stative verbs which are preceded by these auxiliaries are usually thematic.

Comparing the forms of the aspectual auxiliaries *lɛ:w*<sup>4</sup>, *lɛ:u*<sup>4</sup>, *leu*<sup>4</sup>, *li:u*<sup>4</sup>/*le:u*<sup>4</sup>, *la:u*<sup>2</sup>, *sneeh*, *cɿ:*, and *ròì*, the forms of the Tai-Kadai languages are similar. It may be speculated that these forms are originally Tai-Kadai word. However, more data from other Tai-Kadai languages as listed below show that other different forms are also present.

LinGao	Dehong	Mulam	Sui	Maonan	Li
<i>leu</i> <sup>4</sup>	<i>he</i> <sup>1</sup> ; <i>he</i> <sup>1</sup>	<i>lai</i> <sup>3</sup>	<i>ljeu</i> <sup>2</sup>	<i>ljeu</i> <sup>4</sup>	<i>ba:i</i> <sup>3</sup>

(Minority Language Institute 1985)

Dehong and Li (Baoting) have different forms, *he*<sup>1</sup>; *he*<sup>1</sup> and *ba:i*<sup>3</sup>. Considering the word with the same function in Chinese, we observe that the word *lǎ/liǎu*<sup>214</sup> has a similar form to the Tai-Kadai languages (Qin Qiaohang p.c). Therefore the Tai-Kadai forms should be borrowed from Chinese. This conclusion agrees with the finding of Schlege (1902) that the word *lɛ:w*<sup>4</sup> in Thai is a Chinese loanword.

The aspectual auxiliaries *da:y*<sup>3</sup>, *day*<sup>3</sup>, *ʔdai*<sup>4</sup>, *dai*<sup>3</sup>, *li*<sup>3</sup> also have similar forms. Other languages of Tai-Kadai family also have cognates of these forms as illustrated below.

LinGao	Dehong	Mulam	Sui	Maonan	Li
<i>lai</i> <sup>3</sup>	<i>lai</i> <sup>3</sup>	<i>lai</i> <sup>3</sup>	<i>ʔdai</i> <sup>3</sup>	<i>dai</i> <sup>4</sup>	<i>ʔia</i> <sup>1</sup>

(Minority Language Institute 1985)

Compared to the forms of the aspectual auxiliaries in Chinese, Northern Khmer and So, these languages have different forms. Chinese has *tə*<sup>35</sup> with a similar function (Qin Qiaohang p.c.). Northern Khmer and So have *baan*, and *bu:n*. Therefore, it is not likely that the aspectual auxiliaries of the Tai-Kadai languages are Chinese or Mon-Khmer loanwords. They must be originally Tai-Kadai words. It is also interesting that the aspectual auxiliaries in all languages under this study, except Vietnamese, have similar functions. They may be a main verb meaning 'to get, to obtain'; a preverbal meaning 'to have experienced'; and a postverbal meaning 'able, can.' Qin

Qiaohang (p.c.) mentions that the word  $tə^{35}$  in Chinese, as spoken in the southern part of China, is used as a preverbal meaning 'to have experienced', as in the sentence  $uo^{214} tə^{35} tɕ^h u^{51}$  *Beijing uan*<sup>35</sup> 'I have been to Beijing', so it is possible that this syntactic construction is borrowed from Tai-Kadai languages which are spoken widely in that area. In Vietnamese the word *đã* functions as a preverbal meaning 'to have experienced' and an adverb meaning 'first of all.' This word does not occur as a main verb and a postverbal modal in the same manner that *da:y*<sup>3</sup>, *day*<sup>3</sup>, *ʔdai*<sup>4</sup>, *dai*<sup>3</sup>, *li*<sup>3</sup>, *baan* and *bui:n* do. In these syntactic positions, the word *được* occurs instead. In a preverbal position, *được* does not function as a completive marker but as a passive marker conveying a positive connotation. In comparing the form of *đã* with its genetically-related languages such as Northern Khmer and So, it has a different form from the words *baan* and *bui:n*. As for the postverbal auxiliaries, *ròi*, *sneeh*, *cɿ*, all three languages have different forms.

The temporal auxiliaries and aspectual auxiliaries are neutral in reference to time. They can be displayed in present, past, and future. The time settings in the narrative such as temporal words, phrases and clauses or the context will give a clue to specific time. The aspect auxiliaries *da:y*<sup>3</sup>, *day*<sup>3</sup>, *ʔdai*<sup>4</sup>, *dai*<sup>3</sup>, *li*<sup>3</sup>, *baan*, *bui:n*, and *da* are usually glossed as 'past tense marker.' However, it has been found that these words are not past tense markers but they imply past tense because of their perfective aspect value. As the default timeframe of the narrative is past time or accomplished time, when the temporal and aspectual auxiliaries occur in past time, they highlight foreground events. However, if these auxiliaries occur in clauses encoding events which are displaced backward in time such as flashback or events which are displaced forward in time such as quotation, they do not foreground the storyline.

## Notes

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- <sup>1</sup> The data is from Sophana Srichampa (p.c.), a Vietnamese specialist of the Institute of Language and Culture for Rural Development, Mahidol University.
- <sup>2</sup> Qin Qiaohang is a professor of Linguistics at the Central University for Nationalities, Beijing. He is a native speaker of the Northern Zhuang language.

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