Heritage Welsh: a study of heritage language as the outcome of minority language acquisition and bilingualism

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Heritage Welsh:

a study of heritage language as the outcome

of minority language acquisition and bilingualism

A dissertation presented by

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Abstract

This dissertation analyzes the language used by 20 adult heritage Welsh speakers now living in London, i.e., bilinguals who shifted to English dominance in childhood, and whose Welsh proficiencies now show divergences from baseline norms as a result of incomplete acquisition and attrition. The grammars of these heavily imbalanced bilinguals are compared with baseline informants (20 Welsh-dominant controls) on a narrative elicitation task, in which the informants tell the story of a children's wordless picture book (*Frog, Where Are You?* by Mercer Mayer). The samples collected for this project (Appendix II.1) constitute the first corpus of heritage Welsh.

Particular attention is paid to indicators of fluency (mean length of utterance, frequency of embedded clauses, speech rate, vocabulary recall delay, retraces, and retraces with correction), simplification in the system of initial consonant mutation, reanalysis of tense and aspect in verb construction, any non-native agreement morphology, and the availability of a null subject in the heritage Welsh samples. The heritage Welsh samples are examined for evidence that divergence in the heritage grammar results more from a trend toward simplification and access to Universal Grammar than influence from the speaker's dominant language, English.

Part I investigates topics which are pertinent to the study of heritage language—its definition and connection to the Critical Period Hypothesis, the distinction between incomplete language acquisition and attrition, and theories of bilingual language systems. Part II details the analysis of the heritage Welsh samples in particular. The concluding remarks broaden the focus to the minority status of the baseline language in Wales, presenting the inevitability of heritage speakers there as well if childhood exposure to Welsh does not reach the critical level necessary for full native proficiency and if the language is not maintained in adulthood. This project introduces the terms "heritage Welsh" and "heritage speaker" into Welsh linguistics, and presents a framework with which to discuss this previously neglected category of bilinguals.

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This dissertation is a study of the grammatical consequences of language shift in the language proficiency of Welsh speakers in London. In a sense, Welsh in London is a minority language twice over, as an immigrant language which is also a minority language in the home country. A description of the language proficiency which is exemplified by these speakers—i.e., heritage Welsh—is the principal object of this project. Heritage Welsh is not, however, a phenomenon which is restricted to expatriate communities. Language shift has dominated the history of Welsh in Wales for the past century or more, and consequently, heritage speakers of Welsh exist there as well. I return to the implications of recognizing heritage Welsh as a distinct linguistic profile in Wales in the Conclusions of this dissertation.

The field of heritage language research has been growing for the past twenty years, but this project is the first to apply its theoretical apparatus in a study of Welsh. As a starting definition, heritage language is, in the narrow sense, the language proficiency possessed by speakers who were raised with the language in the home but who subsequently became dominant in another language. This describes a common scenario in the Welsh speaker community, in which bilingualism is more often imbalanced than balanced, and overwhelmingly in favor of English. In particular, any outmigration from Wales into England leads to an inevitable population of heritage Welsh speakers living outside of the language community. The research into their retained language abilities which is presented in this dissertation fills an egregious gap in our understanding of the state of Welsh today, and the literature about heritage speakers of other languages provides a reference and starting point for my analysis of grammatical divergences between heritage Welsh speakers and speakers of the baseline, or standard Welsh.

Defining the term "heritage language" is the focus of Chapter 1, though describing

heritage language phenomenon is the subject of all of Part I. Chapter 1 reviews the heritage

speaker profile as it has been established by linguists working with other languages. The

particular domains of the grammar which are more or less likely to be divergent from the baseline

in those languages are predicted to be likewise in heritage Welsh. The heritage Welsh speaker is

also characterized within that framework, with reference not only to the expected grammar but

also to its attendant reduction in speaker confidence. The heritage speaker profile is a description

not only of language abilities but also of language attitudes.

Chapter 2 investigates the validity of the Critical Period Hypothesis and its relevance to

the study of a language that was only incompletely acquired during childhood or which suffered

attrition from full proficiency thereafter. This theoretical assumption privileges the child mind as

a naturally superior language acquiring instrument, and thus necessarily limits the adult mind's

capacity for language acquisition. It follows from this presupposition, as has been argued by

Montrul (2008), that the critical period for language acquisition, i.e., childhood, is also

particularly vulnerable to language attrition should the acquisition process be restricted or cease

altogether. The results of this specifically childhood-based language exposure are precisely what

heritage language is, therefore an understanding of the arguments which have been made in favor,

and against, the validity of the critical period as a useful construct is also an element of a

complete description of heritage language.

Chapter 3 discusses the two processes which potentially contribute to the adult heritage,

as opposed to fully proficient, grammar. Distinguishing incomplete first language acquisition

from first language attrition emerges as both a problematic as well as, perhaps, futile endeavor in

the heritage language context. Comparisons are made with attrition in the language proficiencies

of aging monolinguals and with incomplete second language acquisition, but the heritage

language scenario may prove to be too complicated to tease apart these otherwise distinctive

processes. This follows closely on the discussion of the previous chapter and the indeterminate nature of language acquisition in childhood, its clear development, the attainment of milestones, or successful and fully established proficiency.

Chapter 4 describes bilingualism as a cognitive state, and reviews the theoretical literature on the arrangement of languages in the bilingual mind. The potential for transfer or interference from one language to another is particularly pertinent to imbalanced bilingualism, and therefore also to heritage language. The linguistic system of the bilingual is argued to be demonstrably different from that of the monolingual, and the manifestations of that difference are more than the ostensible confusion of her two languages. The general cognitive processing advantages which seem to result from lifelong bilingualism are also investigated in some detail. The bilingual continuum as a model representing the range of speaker proficiencies very clearly includes those of the heritage speaker, who are reiterated to be bilinguals as well. In this light, the divergent grammar of the heritage Welsh speaker may begin to be looked upon more favorably by the language community, a topic to which I return in the Conclusions.

Having once established the object of study in the chapters of Part I, Part II analyzes the particular characteristics of heritage Welsh. The data under analysis are a corpus of heritage Welsh speaker transcriptions of the *Frog, Where Are You?* narrative task. Twenty native and fully proficient speaker controls also performed the task and are used as the baseline comparison. The Introduction to Part II fully explains the nature of my fieldwork and its resulting language corpus. The twenty interviews with heritage Welsh speakers—recorded, transcribed, glossed, and translated—comprise the first collection of heritage Welsh speaker data to date. (Appendix II.1) The corpus has also been made available online for further research. (Boon 2014)

Chapter 5 problematizes the notion of fluency and offers a complex of metrics as a proxy for this otherwise vague and impressionistic concept. The "fluency" of the speaker is often the

first point of judgment in lay descriptions of speaker abilities, but it is far from a universally understood term. The ease of speech flow, rather than grammatical accuracy or breadth of vocabulary, is determined to be the critical factor in the impression of fluency. Valid component measurements of the speech flow which can stand in for "fluency" are argued to be mean length of utterance (words per utterance unit), speech rate (words per minute), frequency of embedded structure, frequency of vocabulary recall delay, frequency of retracing (or "do-overs"), and frequency of retracing with correction. The fluency of the heritage Welsh speakers is then described in terms of these measurements and correlations with language use patterns are analyzed for potential effects. Regular conversational use, exposure to Welsh language media, the amount of formal Welsh instruction obtained in childhood, and the age at language shift are discussed as they relate to those fluency measures.

Chapter 6 investigates the manifestation of the Welsh system of initial consonant mutation (ICM) in its heritage form. The three types of mutation (soft mutation, nasal mutation, and aspirate mutation) are described as they appear in the baseline samples, as well as how they are expected to appear according to formal grammatical texts, and their contexts are reviewed. Divergences from the baseline in the heritage ICM system abound, but the system is certainly not lost altogether, nor do the maintained mutation effects appear to be random. Disambiguation and salience emerge as the determining factors of whether or not a mutation will occur. Grammatical gender, homophonous lexemes, and the personal pronominal adjectives are of particular interest as triggers of mutation, but each context which occurs in the samples is thoroughly reviewed.

Verb formation and agreement patterns are the foci of Chapter 7. Synthetic verb forms are found to occur far less frequently in heritage Welsh than in baseline Welsh. The analytic, *bod*-periphrastic option predominates. I argue that the reduced processing load of the periphrastic forms is the likely reason for this asymmetry between the speaker populations, though the possible influence of English constituent order (SVO as opposed to VSO) is also discussed.

Agreement patterns are found to be quite native-like, on the whole, though a handful of divergences are investigated individually. Yet, despite the conformity in agreement morphology, it is in the expression of verbal formation that the heritage speakers most obviously evince their divergent grammars. The reduction of tense inventory is discussed as a reanalysis of aspect markers as tense markers, the overwhelming preference for the present tense is interpreted as a loss of tense options, and any occurrence of a null subject is regarded to be more likely the result of phonetic convenience than a sign of the full availability of the null subject option.

A thorough analysis of heritage Welsh as a potential outcome of childhood bilingual language acquisition in a minority language situation is a necessary and complementary step in the study of the survival of Welsh. Generational and regional differences are already a focus of Welsh linguistics, but the real grammatical outcome of language shift has, inexplicably, attracted little attention until now. The divergences between baseline and heritage Welsh are not only informative of these post-shift grammars in particular, but may also foreshadow the simplification which will occur in the baseline language if exposure is reduced below sufficient levels on the community scale. This is a legitimate concern in Wales, despite recent gains by the language maintenance movement. Welsh does persist as a language today despite the historical persecution of its speakers, but it also remains under the looming shadow of English and the lure of its global currency. The reality is that Wales is a bilingual country, in which even severely imbalanced bilinguals must be recognized as Welsh speakers if an evaluation of Welsh language ability in the country has any productive purpose. Fortunately, the advantages of the heritage language framework go beyond its crosslinguistic insight into reanalysis and simplification in incomplete grammars. The terminology itself fills a gap in the dialogue of the Welsh language revival and maintenance movement in Wales, where an accurate account of *all* language abilities is a continuing priority. In the Conclusions, I return to the importance of the inclusion of heritage speakers as members of the Welsh language community.

Heritage Welsh speakers may be the Welsh living abroad, those who grew up in English dominant areas of Wales, or the generations in Wales that lost much of their proficiency due to the official supremacy of the English language in the twentieth century. (cf. Davies 2000) Heritage speakers may go uncounted by the census and unnoticed by language activists, lost somewhere between the Anglo-Welsh and the Cymry Cymraeg[1]. They can speak the language to some degree but do not confidently think of themselves *as* speakers of the language. They know Welsh language culture but do not feel that they belong to it. They both are, and are not, native speakers. This quandary is not unique to the Welsh language, but neither is there a single "heritage speaker" profile. We will see that the category of speakers we consider "heritage language" speakers is most accurately described as a continuum, with varied proficiencies and a range of cultural ties to the language. Though the term "heritage" carries a connotation beyond its technical use in this dissertation, in this context it denotes that the speaker has some proficiency in the language due to her personal history, a childhood during which she was exposed to Welsh outside of school or an otherwise formal language learning environment.[2] In the following pages I hope to take full advantage of the body of international research into this HL phenomenon in profiling and describing this neglected category of Welsh speakers.

Joshua Fishman's (2001) definition of heritage language is the probably the broadest in the field. He describes three groups which can be considered heritage languages in the American

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[1] i.e., fluent native Welsh speakers in Wales

[2] This dissertation is not concerned with the language outcomes of traditional classroom-based language learners, who in Wales may be children studying Welsh in the school system as part of the mandatory curriculum. Children who only begin to acquire Welsh in the school system are not here considered to be heritage speakers in the narrow sense, though an argument can be made that, in some cases, these children consider Welsh their heritage language in the broadest sense, as a cultural symbol.

context—indigenous heritage languages, colonial heritage languages, and immigrant heritage languages. By "indigenous heritage languages" Fishman is referring to indigenous languages of the Americas which were spoken in North America before the arrival of foreign colonizers. Each of these languages has an intimate connection with its respective territory as the sole region in which it is spoken. To lose ground there is to move toward language extinction. "Colonial heritage languages" in North America are the languages of colonizers predating the American Revolution, including Dutch, French, Spanish, German, and even Welsh. (Fishman 2001, 83-84) These languages have roots in the early phases of new world development but rely now on reinforcement from immigrants as they have long since lost their status to English.[3] The presence of actual speakers of these first two categories of heritage languages is irrelevant, in his definition, to their inclusion as heritage languages. A cultural or historical connection with the community is sufficient.

In the US context, the most common of Fishman's heritage languages are "immigrant heritage languages." These are the heritage languages which are given the most attention in the literature and which will be described at length in this chapter. Importantly, like the colonial heritage languages, these languages are generally thriving dominant languages elsewhere, though they are minority languages in their heritage form. They do not, therefore, exist under the threat of obsolescence as do the indigenous heritage languages. That is not to say that they are not pressured by the dominance of English in the US, however. Not only have immigrant heritage languages been neglected as a national resource in international business and politics, (Peyton et al. 2001; Polinsky and Kagan 2007, 389-390) but have also suffered from a pervasive American

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[3] Fishman (2001, 84) points out one notable exception to this pattern, Pennsylvanian German, which has remained the language of a particular community only through their "jealously guarded physical and cultural distance from the American mainstream." This example is proof of the extreme measures a group of people would have to go to in order to maintain a minority language in the face of English encroachment. The circumstances of the survival of Pennsylvanian German speak to the infeasibility of minority language maintenance in the US, rather than its possibility.

mentality intent on obliterating all but English as the national language. Not only do immigrants feel an implicit pressure to assimilate to American culture, but occasionally a social undercurrent of anxiety and xenophobia manifests as legislation against foreign languages. In 1919, a time of strong anti-German sentiment in the US, the state of Nebraska enacted a law which restricted foreign language education. One of Nebraska's defending arguments during the Supreme Court case (which overturned the law) was that early exposure to a foreign language was injurious to national loyalty. (*Meyer v. Nebraska*, 262 U.S. 390 (1923)) This sort of paranoia about bilingualism is only compounded in the immigrant context, in which the language in question is actually the first language. (Fishman 2001, 82-87)

For our purposes Fishman's definition is too inclusive (and too American), but the parallels with the Welsh language in Wales cut across each of Fishman's three categories. Historically, this Celtic language is indigenous not only to the area of Britain known today as Wales, but in the sixth century was also spoken in the West Midlands of England, northward through present-day Lancashire, Yorkshire, and into the lowlands of Scotland. (Jones 1993, 536) Like Fishman's indigenous languages of America, to lose ground in Wales is truly to inch closer toward the extinction of the language as a whole. In this way, Welsh fits into Fishman's first heritage language category—a minority language even in its native nation. From this perspective, not only may fully proficient native speakers of Welsh in Wales be speaking a heritage language, but so also may monolingual English speakers in Wales consider Welsh to be their heritage language. It is a heritage language on the scale of the community as a whole.

Despite any perceived cultural bilingualism, the de facto status of English as the culturally dominant language in Wales throughout the twentieth century has produced a state in which there are far more bilinguals who are imbalanced in favor of English than in Welsh. Perhaps some have had lifelong exposure to Welsh from their family or local community, possibly even including formal lessons in school or even some amount of education through the

medium of Welsh, but are nevertheless dominant in English. These speakers are very clearly

heritage Welsh speakers. The 2011 Census for England and Wales asked Welsh residents to state

their Welsh language abilities under three categories—'can understand spoken Welsh only,' 'can

speak Welsh, and 'can speak, read, and write Welsh.' Those who self-identified in the third

category are the most likely to be balanced bilinguals or more proficient in Welsh than English.

The first two categories, however, very likely incorporate heritage speakers of differing

proficiency.[4] 24.3% of Welsh residents identified themselves by one of these two criteria (5.3%

can understand spoken Welsh only; 19.0% can speak Welsh). (Office for National Statistics

2012) Although the Census categories are clearly too imprecise to accurately calculate heritage

speaker figures in Wales, especially considering the possibility that lower proficiency heritage

speakers very likely report no Welsh abilities at all, these data do very strongly hint toward the

presence of heritage speakers in Wales. As a minority language in a bilingual country, its

speakers will span the full range of proficiencies, which inevitably includes those of the heritage

speaker.

My own fieldwork (Part II of this dissertation) will focus on Fishman's third category of

heritage speaker—the immigrant heritage language. A well-known complaint from the Welsh

language lobby in the UK is that the Census does not specifically ask about Welsh language

proficiency on surveys distributed outside of Wales. The questionnaire does, however, allow the

respondent to report her primary language if that language is not English, and during the 2011

Census over 8,000 residents of England did, indeed, report that Welsh was their primary

language. (Office for National Statistics 2013a). The number of other Welsh speakers living in

England, e.g., heritage speakers, is likely to be much larger. That Census also found that over

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[4] While it is entirely possible for a bilingual to be literate in only their weaker spoken language
(likely because of the cultural dominance of that language), the census respondents who did self-
identify in the comprehend, speak, read, and write category are the *least* likely to be heritage
speakers in the narrow sense. Those who replied that they can speak but not read or write Welsh
can not be differentiated as heritage or fully proficient by these data.

290,000 residents of England self-identified as 'Welsh' when asked about their national identity, and a further nearly 57,000 self-identified as 'Welsh and British.' (Office for National Statistics 2013b) There are natural reasons for Welsh speakers to move around within the UK, one being that it is, in fact, a united state. But if 'Welsh' is how an individual self-identifies, then he is certainly a *cultural* immigrant in England, and if Welsh is a language he speaks, then it is an immigrant heritage language in that case as well. For these speakers, the circumstances governing the survival of their Welsh abilities will parallel those of other immigrant languages. Fishman's (2001) definition of the immigrant heritage language clearly applies to our Welsh speakers in this situation.

Another early definition of the heritage speaker comes from the first full volume dedicated to heritage language education, *Teaching Heritage Language Learners: Voices from the Classroom* (Webb and Miller 2000). Here a heritage language learner is defined as

> "..someone who has had exposure to a non-English language outside the formal education system. It most often refers to someone with a home background in the language, but may refer to anyone who has had in-depth exposure to another language. Other terms used to describe this population include "native speaker", "bilingual" and "home background." While these terms are often used interchangeably, they can have very different interpretations." (Draper and Hicks 2000, 19)

This definition opens the term "heritage speaker" to those who have been exposed to the language outside of the home, rather than restricting the label to its connotation of *family* heritage. In the Welsh context, this would allow for the children of English parents who moved into Wales to be considered heritage Welsh speakers if they grew up with Welsh spoken around them and/or took Welsh classes in school, a point with which I find no argument. There need not be a genetic connection to the language community for someone to claim that language as a heritage language.

Even more important than these formal definitions, perhaps, is the acknowledgment that to identify as a heritage speaker is a deeply personal and individual self-labeling, connected to

one's own life experiences and perceptions of what makes oneself unique within the larger community. It is an identification that both indicates membership within a minority population, and therefore inclusion in a selective group, but also sets the individual apart from the greater, dominant-language community, in effect excluding oneself from the average majority. Both sides of this label, the inclusion and exclusion aspects, are something that must be selected by the heritage speaker herself. (Carreira 2004) The term "heritage speaker" does not yet have currency in the Welsh language community, but in the course of recruiting heritage speaker participants for this project, I introduced a number of speakers to the heritage language profile and found that the importance of self-labeling was just as important in that context as it would have been had "heritage language" already been a familiar and recognized concept.

The Draper and Hicks definition also draws attention to some troublesome terminology— "native speaker" and "bilingual." These are often very loaded words, to linguists as well as laymen, and must not be used casually. The term "native" does not exclusively designate a first language by order of acquisition, nor does "bilingual" entail a balanced proficiency. When intended synonymously with first language, a speaker can have more than one native language, in which case the key characteristic is only that it was acquired naturally, without formal instruction, beginning as a small child. The speaker will then have an intuition and implicit knowledge of the language that distinguishes her from a second language learner who studies the language consciously and through formal lessons. (Gass and Selinker 2008, 8-15) But native language may sometimes also refer to a language of cultural significance to the individual, or a heritage language in the broadest sense, in which case no real proficiency is necessarily implied. (Draper and Hicks 2000)

"Bilingual" can refer to a speaker who acquired two (or more) languages from birth, as well as to the second or foreign language learner. The term is actually quite broad and includes all the speakers who fall on the "bilingual continuum," a framework developed to account for the

vast range of speaker profiles and abilities contained under the bilingual label. (Silva-Corvalán 1991; Valdés 2001, 41) The idea of the perfectly balanced bilingual is purely hypothetical and empirically non-existent. There will always be a slight imbalance in the language proficiencies of any individual speaker, but she is "bilingual" nonetheless. The bilingual continuum covers a range of fluencies that extend from native-like proficiency to elementary abilities only, but the concept of bilingualism as a possible mental state is an incredibly complicated one and will be examined in great detail in Chapter 4 of this dissertation.

Further complicating the immediate subject of this study—heritage Welsh—is the minority status of Welsh in Wales. To be a speaker of a language like Welsh, such a politically and culturally loaded issue in itself, introduces even more subtle complications into the vagaries of the terms discussed above.[5] Many people who consider themselves native Welsh speakers may only have one parent who spoke Welsh at home, for example. Perhaps they began to acquire Welsh first but gradually became dominant in English sometime around middle childhood, though they still acquired Welsh naturally during their childhood also. These speakers may consider themselves "native" and "bilingual" speakers, despite being somewhat more proficient in English and never using that "native" Welsh language with one of their parents. Their proximity to full proficiency will, then, be the only determining factor of their descrption as heritage speakers rather than fully proficient speakers, regardless of any similarities across their personal language histories.[6] Disentangling fully proficient native speakers from heritage

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[5] Whether the weight of this significance is something under which a language can survive long is debatable. The strongest speakers of the language, those for whom Welsh is just the natural default choice for communication, should not feel the responsibility of maintaining a minority language—as soon as they do, the language is in danger. To remove the casual comfort of defaulting to Welsh and making it a conscious choice in every statement is a stress that speakers may begin to avoid.

[6] There are many facets to the Welsh language in Wales situation. Though regions may be more or less dominated by English, with those of higher Welsh speaking proportions considered heartland areas, the two languages exist in parallel throughout the country. An individual

speakers *in Wales* is a far more complicated subject than what I am attempting in this dissertation. I avoid the issue by interviewing heritage Welsh speakers in England only, the methodology of which will be presented in the introduction to Part II.

During the course of my fieldwork, I encountered many heritage speakers who had trouble answering when I asked what was their first or native language. The reason seemed to be their lack of a sense of ownership over Welsh, their heritage language. It may have been their "first" language acquired according to chronological order, though not their "first" language by rank of proficiency and comfort. Does a semi-proficient heritage speaker of Welsh have the right to call herself a "native" speaker of Welsh? As I have said, the distinction is one which should be left to the speaker to decide. These are labels of self-identification and are more inclusive than at first they seem. "Heritage" as a label does not preclude "bilingual" or "native," rather, the three terms are complementary.

While it is surprising that it has only been relatively recently that heritage speakers, particularly in the classroom setting, have been given special attention as a different category of speaker/learner, with distinct advantages and particular needs, the field has been increasingly gaining ground. For our purposes, Valdés' (2001) frequently cited definition is most apt. Hers is directed more at explaining the resulting grammar of these speakers than categorizing the possible cultural connections to the heritage language.

> In the US, "foreign language educators use the term *heritage language* to refer to a language student who is raised in a home where a non-English language is spoken, who speaks or at least understands the language, and who is to some degree bilingual in that language and English. For these educators, the heritage language student is also different in important ways from the traditional foreign language student. This difference,

speaker's family and social group will determine her language profile more than her location. Additionally, there is a certain amount of ambient Welsh throughout the country resulting from official requirements in the form of mandatory bilingual signage, Welsh education, bilingual official forms, and so on. (see Jenkins and Williams 2000; Jones 1993; Morris 2010; Thomas and Williams 2013)

however, has to do with developed functional proficiencies in the heritage language." (Valdés 2001, 38)

I will be using this definition as the starting point for my Welsh study, where the key defining characteristic of these heritage speakers is the dramatic language shift to English which took place during childhood. Development in Welsh would have been significantly reduced or halted altogether. This could have been due to a move out of a Welsh-speaking area, even out of Wales itself, or due to social pressures upon entering school or transitioning from primary to secondary level. This heritage speaker profile clearly applies to the Welsh speakers who moved into English dominant communities as children, but also to many speakers who experienced the shift more subtly as they grew up in a bilingual community. The intention of this dissertation is to analyze the phenomenon of incomplete language acquisition in the extreme cases of removal from the language community, i.e., to England, but always with reference to the analogous, though subtler, process of language shift in Welsh speaking Wales as well. As a Welsh-dominant child grows up and begins to expand her social circle, ever increasing her exposure to the wider community, locally as well internationally (through books and television, e.g.), her language choices will evolve to fit into that community. For minority language speaking children, this all too often means a decrease in motivation to develop the minority language in favor of the dominant language, in this case English. The status of Welsh in Wales as whole is so fundamental to this issue of heritage language development that the decline of Welsh on a national scale will be revisited in the Conclusions of this dissertation.

The field of heritage language research is not an old one. The term "heritage language" originated in Canada in the 1970s, but became prevalent in international language policy and research only in the 1990s. (Hornberger and Wang 2008, 3) The need to acknowledge this type of speaker and to characterize her abilities, however, was apparent for many years before the term was coined. Notable early research was Nancy Dorian's work with East Sutherland Gaelic (ESG).

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Her study of the "semi-speakers" of that language was a landmark of early research into actually describing the proficiencies of what we now call heritage speakers, though she was using them principally to document the decline of that dialect as a whole. Dorian (1976) describes the decline of gender as a grammatical category in the speech of these ESG speakers, particularly, she proposes, because of their dominant use of a gender-less language, English. Dorian's work in describing a language community undergoing shift provided insight into what she termed "imperfect speakers." "They lacked sufficient exposure or motivation to become fully proficient speakers of ESG and have never at any time spoken a grammatically normal form of the language." (Dorian 1982, 51) These speakers are actually perfect examples of what we are here calling heritage speakers. Dorian defines them by their excellent passive knowledge of ESG but halting speech and deviant grammar. These are the very qualities we will also expect in our heritage Welsh speakers. Dorian's research on this Celtic language may have been one of the earliest descriptions of heritage language, but it has been only recently that heritage language research has returned to documenting the connection between the heritage language phenomenon and the decline of these minority languages in their home countries.

Most often, heritage language studies have focused on the immigrant languages of Canada and the United States, especially those which are actually major, and healthy, world languages. A quick glance through the issues of the *Heritage Language Journal*[7] shows that there is far more work being done with major world languages as heritage languages than with endangered languages, either as heritage languages in their home country or as immigrant heritage languages. A reason for this is the need to develop educational tools for heritage speakers in foreign language classrooms. The clear priority, then, is to address the needs of the greatest

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[7] "The *Heritage Language Journal* (HLJ), an online, blind-refereed journal, was established in 2002 to provide a forum for scholars to publish the results of their research and to advance knowledge about educating heritage speakers. HLJ is published by the National Heritage Language Resource Center at UCLA and is housed on a server hosted by the UCLA International Institute." (http://www.heritagelanguages.org/about.aspx?about, accessed 3/29/13)

number of heritage speakers, which in the US is almost certainly heritage speakers of Spanish. It is no surprise, then, that the University of California, Los Angeles, is home to the National Heritage Language Resource Center, one of the fifteen Language Resource Centers established by the US Department of Education in 1990. Its principal mission is to "develop effective pedagogical approaches to teaching heritage language learners," (National Heritage Language Resource Center 2013) and it hosts the *Heritage Language Journal*.

More than simply speaking these languages for their own sake, aiding the development and maintenance of heritage languages spoken in the American workforce facilitates involvement in the international community and global economy. The Alliance for the Advancement of Heritage Languages makes clear this research aim and its workplace potential in its mission statement:

> "The Alliance for the Advancement of Heritage Languages (the Alliance) is a collaboration among individuals and organizations invested in language development for heritage language speakers in the United States. The Alliance is committed to fostering the development of the heritage language proficiencies of individuals in this country as part of a larger effort to educate citizens who can function professionally in English and other languages." (Alliance for the Advancement of Heritage Languages 2010)

The importance of heritage language maintenance must also be understood for indigenous languages, however, which generally possess little international business advantage. The heritage languages in the first category of Fishman's (2001) definition are also worth preserving because of their value to their own speaker communities, if not to broader society. It is these indigenous American languages as heritage languages which seem at first to be most similar to the status of the Celtic languages in their home countries. But the *grammatical* characteristics of the heritage language and, consequently, the pedagogical model for the heritage language classroom, do not differ among Fishman's categories. His heritage language classifications are not particularly relevant when it comes to the practical needs of heritage speakers. The key

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commonality among heritage speakers, then, relates not to the category of heritage language which they speak, but rather to their similar language experience profile—early home or community exposure and some amount of real proficiency in the heritage language.

With mandatory Welsh language education in Wales, the need to recognize the heritage speaker and address her particular pedagogical needs has become more urgent. Additionally, both inside and outside of Wales, Welsh for adults classes have been popular for decades and are often attended by students who are actually, in our terms, heritage speakers of the language. (cf. Morris 2000) By no means is the heritage speaker new on the education scene, but the advantages and particular needs of the heritage speaker which set her apart from the typical second language learner have yet to be officially addressed by Welsh language educators.[8] In the largely parallel Irish language context, "heritage speakers" of Irish have just been introduced as a concept, and an investigation into the role of input in bilingual acquisition has begun. (Guilfoyle 2012a; Guilfoyle 2012b) This dissertation, however, is the beginning of research into Welsh as a heritage language and is the first collection of a specifically heritage Welsh language corpus (Appendix II.1). This project is not particularly interested in heritage language pedagogy (though in the hope that its results have significance in that field indirectly), but prior research into heritage languages in the classroom context elucidates the general characteristics of the heritage speaker more broadly as well. Some of the principal considerations in a language course aimed at developing heritage language proficiency are issues of register, dialect, and confidence, each of which will be addressed in turn below.

Typically, the background of the heritage speaker does not include formal education in the heritage language. As a result, the heritage speaker may never have acquired literacy in the heritage language, nor developed a formal, academic or professional register of speech. The

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[8] The Education Scheme published by the Welsh Assembly Government makes no specific mention of heritage language learners of Welsh, neither the term "heritage language" nor any other similar label. (Welsh Assembly Government 2010)

degree to which literacy must be taught overtly is not without some debate. Cummins' (1984) "interdependence principle" posits that a skill such as literacy can develop as a deeper conceptual understanding in either of a bilingual child's languages, and need not be treated as a discreet, language specific skill. The "underlying cognitive/academic proficiency" is "common across languages." (Cummins 1984, 143) From this we could assume that a heritage Welsh speaker would only need basic instruction in orthography in order to transfer literacy skills from her, presumably, already proficient English literacy. Though some, especially younger, heritage Welsh speakers have actually had some amount of formal Welsh language education in their school years, the ability to understand the literary Welsh register can not be assumed to be part of their language skill set. There is quite a difference between spoken and literary Welsh, which is not strictly an issue of literacy per se. Literary Welsh is almost a dialect of its own, with distinct grammatical conventions and variant inflectional forms.[9] Literacy in Welsh is not a skill which can transfer from English, despite the possible transfer of some of the pragmatics of literacy. Welsh literary forms must be learned overtly and over years of exposure. The deliberate attention necessary to acquire this aspect of Welsh proficiency makes it an unlikely component of the heritage Welsh speaker profile.

The formal spoken registers that would have developed in the classroom setting are also absent from the repertoire of a heritage speaker with little or no formal Welsh language education. The result is that the heritage speaker typically speaks a sort of "kitchen" or "farmyard" Welsh—i.e., an informal or familial register only. She may be very comfortable in friendly chats on casual topics, but struggles to carry on conversations about business or politics, for example, in a more formal setting. The grammatical structures preferred in communicating

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[9] Compare Thomas's (1996) *Gramadeg y Gymraeg* (Welsh Grammar) to King's (2003) *Modern Welsh: A Comprehensive Grammar* to appreciate the differences. Thomas's is a grammar of literary forms, King's is primarily of colloquial Welsh. The literary language is far more conservative—e.g., the predominance of synthetic over analytic (periphrastic) verb forms in literary Welsh is not mirrored in the colloquial language.

abstract or complicated ideas (i.e., embedded structures) have not been completely acquired, nor has the vocabulary for these topics developed sufficiently. Switching to the dominant language in these cases, if it is an option, is practically inevitable. Thal and Bates (1990) point out that children use reading skills to increase their lexicon and to develop complex syntactic structures, which may explain why the heritage speaker, with her underdeveloped Welsh literacy, would struggle in these areas.

A lack of confidence in her own language abilities is a major component of the heritage speaker profile as well. The heritage speaker may identify with the heritage culture, but feel remote from it at the same time due to an insufficient exposure to the heritage language during childhood. This disconnect is one that should be addressed with sensitivity by educators and researchers. In discussing indigenous American languages and their learners, Carreira (2004) advocates for heritage language education programs to focus on identity and language as they connect to the speakers' own background. The cultural and community relevance of the heritage language is the key motivator for these speakers. The heritage language learner is already a member, to some degree, of the heritage culture. To treat her as a foreign language learner would risk negating that already fragile part of her identity and extinguishing the desire to develop her proficiency in the heritage language.

The missing school exposure to the heritage language is a critical factor in the heritage speaker's reduced confidence. Many times have I encountered a fairly fluent speaker of Welsh who felt that her Welsh was not as good as an adult learner's Welsh, or that she didn't speak "correct" Welsh, because she was never taught the standard[10] language in school. Heritage

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[10] In fact, Welsh does not have a standard variety in the way that other European languages can be said to have a standard (high or public) register. There is no single prestige dialect nor has there been a deliberate standardization process of the spoken language, like the Irish Official Standard (though prescriptive grammars may be consulted for a sort of literary standard of Welsh). The "standard" language, when referred to casually, is generally meant as a stand-in for educated or refined language skills of any dialect.

speakers like this are only familiar with their local dialect or the dialect that their family uses at home, and that dialect may be heavy in idiom or regional vocabulary. The psychological component of speaking a heritage language is not one which I feel qualified to address, but a lack of language confidence is manifestly one of the characteristics of the heritage speaker, and therefore is to be included in the heritage speaker profile being constructed in this chapter.

Issues of dialect are also of particular concern to researchers of heritage language phenomena. The *baseline* for comparison to heritage speaker proficiency in any language cannot be the "standard" of that language. It must be the particular dialect to which the heritage speaker has been exposed. The case for recognizing the true baseline of heritage speakers has been argued well by several researchers. (Beaudrie and Ducar 2005; Au and Oh 2009; Parodi 2008; Wong and Xiao 2010; Pires and Rothman 2009; Rothman 2007) Rothman (2007) points out the role of literacy in shaping Brazilian Portuguese speakers' use of the inflected infinitive. Educated adults have mastered this piece of grammar only through formal education, while the heritage speakers of his study have not reached target proficiency because of their lack of formal linguistic exposure. Using the standard language as the baseline for comparison to the heritage grammar would have obscured the extent of any divergence from expected norms because the form at issue, the inflected infinitive, is not actually present in the spoken, colloquial input to which the heritage speakers are exposed. These heritage speakers, therefore, have not incompletely acquired the inflected infinitive, it is simply not a part of the language (i.e., dialect) of which they are heritage speakers. Research into any language is vulnerable to this sort of oversight, and Welsh is no exception. The true baseline, or target dialect proficiency, must always be accounted for in heritage language research.

While there are clear differences in the style of grammar and vocabulary of the various dialects of Welsh, there is a general North Welsh/South Welsh divide. The subtler divisions between dialects within those two broad dialects—North and South—may, however, be

weakening. The Welsh which is taught to students in the school system, either as the medium of instruction or in dedicated lessons, is inevitably flavored by the dialect of the teacher, despite region specific language instruction materials. Welsh speakers today are also very mobile, carrying their local dialects with them as they relocate, and often landing in the urbanized south of Wales where proficiency in Welsh is an employment advantage. Compound these factors with the homogenizing effects of Welsh language television and radio, and the real differences between the various dialects, especially for younger speakers, often reduces to little more than slight vocabulary idiosyncrasies. A particular focus of linguistic research in Wales is the documentation of these diminishing dialect differences.[11] (Thomas 2000) The dialect loss phenomenon can be viewed negatively, as the denuded remains of a once vibrant dialect spectrum, or as a sign of the strength of the language in its continued survival. The ability to have national television and radio programming, to share teaching materials across the country, to conduct business in Welsh on a national scale, and to reach the broadest audience with new literature is a great advantage to maintaining and promoting the use of this minority language at a time when English can so easily fill the role of lingua franca—but it is perhaps not conducive to maintaining dialect distinctions.

Dialect in the heritage language context is not always a simple identification, however, which complicates the establishment of the heritage speaker's baseline. Wiley's (2008) case study of a Taiwanese heritage speaker illustrates this point, while also providing a lesson in the need for classroom sensitivity to heritage speaker dialect. This heritage speaker lived in a Taiwanese and Mandarin speaking household until he emigrated from Taiwan at age 5, but it is important to note that his family's Mandarin was always code-mixed with Taiwanese. Taiwanese had been his

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[11] An ambitious example is the *Syntactic Atlas of Welsh Dialects*, funded by the British Academy. The *Atlas* is a joint project being conducted by David Willis, Maggie Tallerman and Robert Borsley seeking to determine the extent of syntactic variation across present day dialects of Welsh. The project is ongoing.

stronger language and it was Taiwanese that he continued to occasionally speak with his mother after moving to the US. He stopped attending a community Saturday Chinese school during Middle School, but he chose to enroll in Chinese courses again as a university student. As is most common in the US, all of his Chinese courses were in Mandarin. Whether that dialect is really his heritage language is debatable. He certainly had exposure to the Mandarin spoken by his community in Taiwan, but his Mandarin was heavily influenced by Taiwanese. His experience with reading and writing, both in Taiwan and in his Saturday school, was in the traditional rather than simplified characters, and his spoken Mandarin was with a Taiwanese accent. Both of these characteristics were penalized in his university course—Chinese reading and writing for native speakers. This heritage speaker was willing and eager to reconnect with his Chinese heritage language, even if it was Mandarin rather than Taiwanese, but he did not return to those Chinese classes after that first semester. The instructor stigmatized his previous exposure to the language rather than consider it an asset. In the research context, such disregard for the true baseline of the heritage speaker could also obscure any interesting observations of the heritage language diverging from expected language norms.

The true baseline of the heritage language is essential information in any attempt to understand the non-native proficiency of a heritage speaker. A slight grammatical divergence can be overemphasized if the comparison is with the standard rather than the baseline. Rothman's Brazilian Portuguese example and Wiley's case study both illustrate this point nicely. As I explained above, the dialect differences in Wales are not as great as the differences between Taiwanese and Mandarin, and there is no real spoken standard Welsh acting as the tempting comparandum, but dialect recognition in establishing the baseline is still an important consideration. Because of the nature of the heritage speaker's acquisition, at home, colloquial and familial, the dialect differences may loom larger in their language than in that of a fully proficient speaker. The language that is most mundane and most frequent—the home language rather than

the standard or written variety—may disproportionately carry more of the uniqueness of a dialect than does more formal language. Without the leveling effect of exposure to written or formal Welsh (news media, government documents, and so on), the vocabulary and grammatical forms unique to the spoken baseline dialect are the only linguistic data the heritage speaker has access to. Given these factors, I might hypothesize that dialect variation may be even more pronounced among heritage speakers than in the Welsh speaking population as a whole.

Specific observations about heritage Welsh will be discussed at great length in Part II, but following from the discussion above and from further research into the heritage language phenomenon to be discussed below, we can confirm that there are certain patterns to heritage languages cross-linguistically. A common profile of the heritage speaker and the characteristics of her heritage language grammar begin to emerge. Heritage language in the narrow sense employed in this dissertation is characterized by an often near-native phonology, limited vocabulary, infrequent embedded structure, and the potential for grammatical innovation—but that is not to say that all heritage speakers are exactly alike. The actual language abilities and skill profile of individual speakers fall along a spectrum between extremes from near-native seeming proficiency to barely being able to produce even short utterances in the heritage language. (Polinsky and Kagan 2007, 370-371) Rather than diminish the usefulness of the unifying heritage language label, this "heritage language continuum" actually emphasizes that, despite the varied proficiency levels of heritage speakers, those proficiencies do pattern in ways which effectively distinguish heritage speakers from both fully competent native speakers as well as adult L2 speakers.

The early exposure to natively spoken input results in a phonological advantage over learners coming to a language as adults. Heritage speakers of Spanish in the Los Angeles area have been found to have completely internalized the phonological system as well as mastered the stress and intonation patterns of Spanish. (Parodi 2008) In another study, heritage Korean

speakers with childhood speaking experience are compared with those who only overheard the language but never spoke it themselves. The results show a clear advantage in both production and perception of Korean phonemes for the childhood speakers, but also a clear perceptual advantage for the over-hearers as compared to novice adult learners. (Oh et al. 2003) This observed advantage, however, is not absolutely native-like. The perception of geminate consonants in Lucchese was found to have been lost among some first and second generation Italian immigrants in San Francisco, (Celata and Cancila 2010) and the alignment of pre-nuclear tone in L1 German was found to have shifted after a move to Anglophone Canada during late adolescence. (De Leeuw et al. 2011) So while it is clear that early linguistic exposure confers a greater intuition about phonology than late L2 learning, it is not at all assumed that the phonology of the heritage speaker will be perfectly native-like.

The most obvious sign of a heritage speaker's reduced proficiency may be her limited vocabulary, as it frequently acts as a stumbling block in conversation and can prompt a switch to the dominant language. The ease of code-switching between Welsh and English reduces the motivation to develop or maintain a large vocabulary in Welsh. A frequently cited characteristic of heritage ability is the home or "kitchen" vocabulary, particularly dialectal and insufficient for professional or academic discussions. This limited vocabulary is one of the factors in the heritage speaker's reduced range of registers, but the grammar itself is limited as well. Complicated sentence structure, with embedded clauses and infrequent verbal forms, is understood as an indicator of a high level of fluency—so much so that this will be used as a measure of proficiency in the analysis of Part II of this dissertation. The heritage speaker does not have access to this level of grammatical complexity because of her language's incomplete development. These intricate constructions are characteristic of more sophisticated conversation than is necessary in the home or family language environment where the heritage speaker was exposed to the language. The limited vocabulary, reduced range of registers, and discomfort with infrequent or

opaque grammatical structures are the hallmarks of heritage ability. (Parodi 2008; Polinsky 2008a; Douglas 2008)

Some very interesting analyses have also shown that there is more to heritage language than these gaps and simplifications from the baseline. In some cases the heritage speaker has reanalyzed the grammar, innovating grammatical structures that are consistent within her grammar's logical system but non-native. Russian has grammatical Case, as does the heritage, American Russian analyzed in Polinsky (2008a), but the heritage grammar has a reduced case system. The nominative, citation form is used predominantly for subject and object, for which the accusative form does not appear to be available in the heritage grammar. The accusative form does appear, however, as the case used for goals, or indirect objects, and it is used by the heritage Russian speakers quite consistently with pronominal goals, if variably with nominal ones. This is unexpected and non-native in the target language, but it is a reasonable reorganization of the grammatical information available to these heritage speakers. The American Russian speakers have also been found to reanalyze the gender assignment of nouns based on the ending of the citation form rather than the declensional cases of full Russian. (Polinsky 2008b)

This sort of reanalysis, as a particular focus of heritage language research, can be truly fascinating in a cognitive science sense. We still understand frustratingly little of how the human brain functions, but the field of linguistics contributes to that understanding by its study of this particular product of the brain—language. Language is a uniquely human talent, shared by all in the species, and though the apparent linguistic diversity in the world would seem to indicate that different languages are entirely dissimilar systems, common patterns are easily discerned. (cf. Greenberg 1963; Greenberg 1966) Despite the great variety of languages around the world, there are universal principles guiding the shape of possible grammars that do more to explain the universality of human brain functioning than they do any inherent necessity of vocal communication. A foundational assumption of Generative Linguistics is the role of Universal

Grammar in determining the shape of possible linguistic systems and the ease with which the human child acquires her native language. (cf. Borer 1996; Chomsky 1965) All languages make sense to us as linguistic systems, thus there must be a logical framework common to the cognitive functioning of humans as a species. The discovery of these universal patterns in the spontaneous and innovative language of a heritage speaker—grammar which is not part of the baseline language nor adapted from the speaker's dominant language, but somehow utilized in spontaneous language production—must be taken as a sign of the innate, logical language programming of the human brain. This is a fascinating avenue of research in heritage language and will be explored further with our heritage Welsh samples in Part II.

A preliminary profile of the heritage language speaker then includes these basic characteristics: native-like phonology, familiarity with a dialect rather than the standard language, reduced vocabulary, limited grammatical range, better conversational than literary proficiency, and possible grammatical innovation. But how is this distinct from the description of a foreign or second-language learner? Montrul (2005) goes so far as to say that factors acting on fossilization[12] in L2 grammar may be the same as those acting on language "arrest" in bilinguals, i.e., the influence of a previously acquired linguistic system (or in this case, a simultaneously acquired linguistic system), developmental errors arising from language universals, amount and quality of input, and frequency of use. But in a comparison of L2 Spanish learners and heritage speakers of Spanish, Montrul found that, while typical intermediate and advanced L2 learners were comparable to heritage speakers in their mastery of the syntax and semantics of the Spanish

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[12] "Fossilization" refers to the state of a language form, feature, rule, etc., that has become permanently established in the second language of a learner (or her "interlanguage") despite being deviant from the target language norm and regardless of further exposure. (Gass and Selinker 2008, 14)

unaccusative,[13] the low intermediate level of heritage speakers outperformed the low intermediate

learner on the same proficiency test. There must, therefore, be some fundamental difference

between the type of proficiency attained by the heritage speaker with her natural, simultaneous

dual L1 acquisition and that of the L2 learner with only classroom exposure. Neither is

fossilization of the endstate L2 grammar like what we see with heritage speaker grammars. The

language skills are not frozen at the age of language shift, as we have already seen that there is

the possibility of reanalysis in the incomplete grammar which reshapes the output of the heritage

speaker. (Polinsky 2008a; Polinsky 2008b) We also do not generally expect foreign language

learners to acquire a dialect rather than the standard, and to acquire it with as little explicit,

metalinguistic awareness as the heritage speaker tends to possess. The second language learner

uses metalinguistic knowledge of the prescribed grammar as the structure around which she

composes a sentence, but a heritage speaker uses her own intuitively created utterances to

determine what the grammar of the language may be, in the same way as a native monolingual

speaker might. The heritage and L2 skill sets are almost inversions of each other, the L2 learner

being generally more proficient in written than conversational uses, whereas the heritage speaker

is often so native-seeming in conversational fluency that her incomplete grammar is obscured.

(Douglas 2008)

This chapter is intended as an introduction to the heritage speaker as a distinct type of

language user, but the linguistic consequences of the heritage speaker profile deserve to be

discussed further. In the following three chapters, a few of the particularly pertinent issues within

the field of language acquisition will be discussed in the heritage language context. The early

exposure of the heritage speaker necessitates an understanding of the so-called "Critical Period

Hypothesis," which posits that a particular language learning advantage exists during the years of

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[13] An unaccusative verb is an intransitive verb whose argument is not a semantic agent but rather
is similar to the object of a transitive verb or the subject of a passive verb. (e.g., *She died; He fell;*
but not *I ran*)

childhood. To understand the source of the heritage speaker's deviant proficiency we also must consider the differences between incomplete language acquisition and language attrition, teasing apart the signs of an unfinished language acquisition process from those which indicate the later loss of once fully acquired language abilities. The final topic that deserves our particular attention is the bilingual mind itself. Despite the imbalanced proficiencies of the heritage speaker's dominant and heritage languages, she is bilingual nonetheless, and we will see that to be "bilingual" means more than the compound state of two monolinguals in one mind.

> "I have long wondered ... about secondary education from the safe distance of a neurological clinic. I have wondered why the curriculum was not adjusted to the evolution of functional capacity in the brain. ... Before the age of nine to twelve, a child is a specialist in learning to speak. At that age he can learn two or three languages as easily as one. It has been said that an Anglo-Saxon cannot learn other languages well. That is only because, as he grows up, he becomes a stiff and resistant individualist, like a tree—a sort of oak that cannot be bent in any graceful manner. But the Anglo-Saxon, if caught young enough, is as plastic and as good a linguist as the child of any other race."
>
> > (excerpt from a speech by Wilder Penfield at Lower Canada College, 1939; quoted in Penfield and Roberts 1959, 235-6)

The Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) has endured as one of the best known theories in the study of language acquisition since its formalization in the middle of the twentieth century. Even laymen interested in language learning have heard of the "critical period" and its repercussions in the field of second language learning. Based on empirical observation and the frustrations of older learners, the CPH seeks to explain how it can be that young children seem to acquire language so effortlessly, and eventually reach the perfect competence of the native speaker, while adults and older children struggle toward outcomes that are often far from native-like. The CPH posits that this asymmetry originates from biological factors, privileging the language knowledge acquired during early childhood. Because heritage language is precisely this sort of language, language which was acquired during the "critical period," a thorough understanding of the validity of the CPH and its implications clearly has a place in a study of any heritage language. Heritage language also offers a unique perspective on the CPH as the resulting grammar of an acquisition process which not only began during the "critical period," but which ended there also.

Penfield's quote above perfectly illustrates the common and traditional view that language learning is a natural talent of youth and, at the same time, an unyielding frustration to

the mature. But this belief far predates Wilder Penfield's speech in 1939. In the fifth century BC,

Herodotus told the story of the Egyptian King Psammetichos and the two children he ordered be

raised in silence in an effort to discover which language they would develop spontaneously

without any environmental input. His was not a curiosity about whether they would speak at all,

but simply *which* language would emerge without the bias of any particular language spoken

around them. This experiment was repeated in the twelfth century by Emperor Frederic II and in

the sixteenth by King James IV of Scotland. Alas, none of these attempts produced any

linguistically interesting results.[1] (Marx 1959, 443, 450-1)

During the nineteenth century, linguists such as Wilhelm von Humboldt sought to

remove the theory of language from the sphere of philosophy and situate it within the realm of

science as part of man's natural endowment. Its biological properties seemed confirmed by the

observation that all children acquire language at about the same time, and von Humboldt wrote

that it is "characteristic for the unfolding of other biologically given attributes that a certain time

is denoted for their development." (quoted in Marx 1959, 458) And so it was that the step which

brought linguistics into the field of science crucially depended on the modeling of language as a

natural attribute, described by a biologically determined period of development. But it was not

until the 1960s that Eric Lenneberg, the acknowledged "father" of the CPH, (Singleton and Ryan

2004, 33) formalized the idea of a so-called "critical period" in language acquisition.

> "Between the ages of three and the early teens the possibility for primary language
> acquisition continues to be good; the individual appears to be most sensitive to stimuli at
> this time and to preserve some innate flexibility for the organization of brain functions to

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[1] These "experiments," while of course cruel and unscientific by today's standards, had they been executed carefully, might have produced some interesting results. The investigators were interested in the question of a divine or God-granted language, innate in humans regardless of external stimulus, and that hypothesis may be closer to what we now know about language than at first it might seem. The language to emerge would surely not have been Greek or Latin, for example, but some system of communication, whether vocal or sign, would certainly have developed naturally between the isolated children and their caregivers, something which we would understand today as language despite being innovated by those individuals.

carry out the complex integration of subprocesses necessary for the smooth elaboration of speech and language. After puberty, the ability for self-organization and adjustment to the physiological demands of verbal behavior quickly declines." (Lenneberg 1967, 158)

In the time since Lenneberg's work, the CPH has become the predominant theory of language acquisition with respect to age-related asymmetries in outcomes. It is a simple explanation of well observed phenomena. Indeed, it merely restates a common belief in scientific terms. During the second half of the twentieth century, the CPH was especially attractive within the emerging generative framework of linguistics which fundamentally relied on the notion of language development as a pre-programmed and biologically determined human ability. (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 31; cf. Chomsky 1965; Pesetsky 2009) Based on observations of babbling infants and deaf children, Lenneberg proposed that the ideal language learning period, when the mind is perfectly primed for the rapid and successful acquisition of language, extends from the age of three until puberty. (Lenneberg 1967, 178-182)

Infamous cases of language deprivation in childhood seemed to support the CPH. "Genie" was a captive in her home from infancy until being taken into protective custody at age 13;9. She was held in complete isolation, without exposure to language, and had matured beyond puberty before she began to acquire English subsequent to her rescue. As a result of this language vacuum, presumably, she never achieved native-like proficiency in her overall English grammar despite intensive tutoring and a rapidly growing vocabulary. "Victor," the eighteenth-century "wild boy of Aveyron", was supposedly raised by wolves. He repeatedly eluded capture (by well-meaning townspeople) until the local government commissioner for Saint-Sernin took charge of him and sent him to an orphanage. He was estimated to be between 12 and 13 years old at that time. Victor appeared healthy and used a few simple signs to communicate with his caregivers, but his only vocalizations were cries and grunts and he never developed much language beyond the word for "milk". (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 46-53) Observations of these "feral children"

seem to suggest (in the obvious absence of any way to ethically create controlled experiments to test this hypothesis) that without any language input during the critical period, the lack of early exposure is devastating to the endstate language ability. It cannot be reversed by language immersion later in life. The language opportunity lost is lost forever after the closing of the critical period.

However, these exceptional case-studies can also be dismissed as evidence for the CPH. The conditions of Genie and Victor's early lives certainly also caused severe social and psychological harm in addition to the linguistic damage. This confuses the evidence and makes it impossible to discuss their stories as examples of an otherwise normal process of language development. In Victor's case, too little is reliably recorded to draw any firm conclusions, and in Genie's, there is no way to determine whether the language deprivation itself or her total lack of socialization and traumatic isolation were the real causes of her doomed linguistic faculty. These children have even been used as evidence *against* the CPH. Genie, in particular, was able to make improvements to her slowly growing grammar, eventually being able to speak in simple three- or four-word utterances, produce negative sentences and use possessives and plurals correctly. (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 52-53) It would certainly be an overstatement to claim that she was able to develop language post-critical period in the same manner that a young child does, but neither should her modest achievements be overlooked completely. At the very least Genie's story shows that language acquisition is not such an all-or-nothing prospect across the boundary of the critical period.

Studies of the acquisition of sign language by deaf children have seemed to provide further support to Lenneberg's CPH and its claim that language acquisition begun after the critical period almost invariably falls short of native norms. Only between 3% and 8% of deaf children are born to deaf parents. (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 42) This means that, for many of these children, sign language acquisition may be delayed during their early years of development.

In the absence of effective first language input, the children often develop their own systems of sign gestures to communicate, but do not move toward fluency in a full sign language until they are diagnosed as deaf and begin their exposure to that language. By asserting that the critical period begins after age two rather than birth, Lenneberg was able to account for how these children can begin their language acquisition process a few years later than hearing children, though still attain native proficiency. His decision to set the onset of critical period at age 2 (modified from the above stated age 3) was determined by work with partially deaf children who were able to develop good speech habits if sound training and prosthetic aid was received by that age. (Lenneberg 1959, 179) Unfortunately, there are also studies of completely deaf individuals who were not exposed to sign language until after the age of 12 or much later, due to early misdiagnosis of mental delay rather than deafness. "Chelsea" is another oft-cited example of a late first language learner. She did not begin to learn American Sign Language (ASL), her first language, until she was in her thirties. Like Genie and Victor, she never reached native standards in morphology and syntax despite her rapid lexical and semantic development. (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 43-44) Even after 30 years of daily use, deaf American adults have been found to vary in their control of ASL morphology based on age of acquisition. (Newport 1990)

Given the difficulty of testing the Critical Period Hypothesis in first language monolingual development, evidence is most often sought in the field of second language acquisition (SLA), where the professional opinion of language teachers and the personal experiences of students tend to confirm the basic claim of the CPH. It could even be considered common knowledge that children are better foreign language learners than adults. Though testimony of this sort is certainly not admissible as evidence of the critical period on its own, such anecdotal support should not be dismissed out of hand, and, indeed, many early SLA studies also seemed to corroborate the CPH. Research with controlled language learning tasks, as well as

studies of naturalistic SLA by immigrants and classroom-based foreign language learning, have

indicated a role played by a critical period in the variable success of adult language acquisition.

Yamada et al. (1980) tested 30 Japanese students in learning 4 English words chosen

from a list of 40. None of the subjects had any exposure to English prior to the test. They were

divided into 3 age-groups, 7, 9 and 11 years old, and tested in two learning sessions separated by

24 hours. The study found that the younger the learner, the better they were able to learn the

vocabulary. The researchers conclude that the success of language acquisition (or the vocabulary

component of language acquisition, at least) diminishes with age, but not necessarily according

Lenneberg's strict period of sensitivity. Asher and García's (1969) study of the English

pronunciation of 71 Cuban immigrants in California, aged between 7 and 19 years old, also

showed that the younger the learner, the better the outcome. The age of initial exposure to English

proved to be a better predictor of successful pronunciation than the length of residence in

California, but here also, the age of puberty was not found to be the distinct boundary predicted

by the CPH. Moving away from a strict critical period, Yamada et al. (1980) soften the theory to

a prediction of "optimum ages" for the acquisition of each component of grammar.

> "A number of question-begging arguments on the critical period for language learning
> seem to indicate that there is no single optimum age for learning language as a whole but
> that there are different optimum ages, depending on which particular aspect of the
> language and which particular learning conditions are being considered."
> (Yamada et al. 1980, 245)

Morphosyntactic judgment was tested in another well-known study of immigrants in the

US. Johnson and Newport (1989) looked at the English acquisition of 46 adult Korean and

Chinese immigrants who had been in America for at least 5 years but who varied in their age of

arrival. Those who had arrived before the age of 7 performed with near-native competence, but

performance declined linearly with age of arrival for those who had arrived between the ages of 7

and 15. That pattern disappeared for those subjects who had arrived around the age of 17 and

their morphosyntactic judgments were reported to be random. This would support the idea of a definite end-boundary to the optimum period of language acquisition, albeit a later one than that of Lenneberg's CPH. Despite these (and many other) studies of age effects in SLA, however, which seem to confirm the anecdotal evidence of foreign language teachers and support the claim of cognitive sensitivity during a critical period, later reviews have found that some of these research observations can be interpreted very differently. There are other factors related to aging that should be taken into account when claiming an age effect in learning.

Using more data than the studies cited above, Hakuta et al. (2003) tested the predictive power of the CPH in SLA using information from the 1990 US Census. The self-reported English proficiency scores of 2.3 million immigrants with Spanish or Chinese language backgrounds (self-selected from 5 English ability options ranging from "not at all" to "speak only English") were plotted and compared to the key prediction of the CPH—that language ability scores should drop off dramatically when the age of acquisition (in this case, age of arrival) passes the end of the critical period, and the relationship between learning and age should be different inside and outside this critical period. But the results do not support this claim. Rather than observing a different slope before and after the end of the critical period, the researchers found that the decline in language learning outcome continued steadily beyond the end of that period, even when the edge was extended as far as age 20. This is in direct contradiction to the Johnson and Newport (1989) study discussed above.

Recall that Johnson and Newport (1989) very neatly split the English language learners into 3 predictable age groups. Learning begun before age 7 was a near-total success, while the 7 to 15 range varied as a function of age of acquisition. However, their cutoff at around age 17 for the predictive power of age of arrival on performance is contested in Bialystok (1997). Her reanalysis shows that age of arrival continues to correlate with outcomes even if the cut-off of the critical period is extended from age 17 to age 20, well beyond the end of the traditional CPH

formulation which posits puberty as the end of neural plasticity and consequently language learning sensitivity. The inconclusive nature of these results suggests that variables other than childhood specific neural development may be at work in early language learning sensitivity.

The concept of critical periods is not unique to the study of human language, and so came into linguistics already a well-tested theory. The idea of a biologically pre-determined period during which some ability must be developed or some competency learned has also been applied in the animal world. The process of imprinting by goslings and ducklings is a perfect example. For the hatchling, the critical period is no more than 36 hours during which it must attach to a parental figure. (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 32) If the mother is absent, the hatchling will instead "imprint" on a toy or a human in preference to its mother, continuing to follow that rather than its mother should she return. (Asher and Garcia 1969, 334) Another example is a study by Wiesel and Hubel (1963) which found that kittens who were temporarily blinded in one eye from birth to three months never fully developed vision in that eye. The "critical" in "critical period" refers to a finite period during which the relevant neurons are plastic enough to make the connections which are necessary for normal development. In biology, the term implies a specific beginning and end beyond which the process may neither begin nor continue, but language may prove too complex a competency to be limited to such a period. The CPH specifically proposes brain development as the determining factor of age effects in language learning, but the development of the brain is not so well understood yet that we can securely parameterize an age range during which the language acquisition process would be different from any other period. Indeed, language learning—its initial acquisition as well as its refinement—seems rather to be a process which continues throughout the lifespan as skills like literacy and creative expression are developed.

The neurobiological evidence used in support of the CPH has proven controversial. Fundamentally, language acquisition is supposed to occur before the lateralization of the brain, or the period when the dominant hemisphere specializes for the language function (usually the left).

It is generally agreed that the child's brain is more plastic than the adult brain and studies of speech recovery after brain damage or surgery usually show that children tend to be more successful than adults in transferring a particular cognitive function from a damaged to an undamaged area. (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 131-133) This has been taken to mean that, for the purposes of language learning, the brain becomes progressively "stiff and rigid" after about age nine. (Penfield and Roberts 1959, 236) But the connection between this neural flexibility, which gradually decreases with age, and the commonly drawn corollary of a critical period specific to normal language development has been difficult to prove. A looming question seems to be, if adult language learning is physiologically handicapped, how is it possible at all for adults to learn foreign languages? (Newmark and Reibel 1968, 154ff.)

Dehaene et al. (1997) seems to provide evidence of a fundamental difference in the cognitive processing of early acquired language and that of a later learned second language. Using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), the investigators were interested in where brain activation would occur during language comprehension in French-English bilinguals. The subjects were native French speakers and had learned English after age 7. The investigators observed that the areas of the bilingual brain which were activated during first language (L1) processing were not also consistently recruited for second language (L2) processing. They interpret this to indicate that L1 and post-critical period L2 are not processed in the same area of the brain, and therefore that L1 and L2 acquisition are fundamentally different processes.[2] This conclusion does not, however, give adequate consideration to the unmatched proficiency levels of the L1 and L2 reported for these speakers.

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[2] Interestingly, this would also call into question the validity of using any study of second language acquisition as data for claims about first language acquisition or language acquisition as a single unified process. If the areas of the brain utilized during language processing are different depending on the sequence in which a bilingual's languages were acquired, or the age at which they were acquired, can we then also claim uncontroversially that the language acquiring mind, at any age, always has access to the innate human linguistic faculty, or Universal Grammar? This is a question of considerable debate (cf. Borer 1996; Pesetsky 2009)

In a direct challenge to these conclusions, Chee, et al. (1999) also use fMRI to address this unsolved question of how multiple languages are organized in the bilingual brain. In this study, two groups of mandarin-English bilinguals were recruited—15 participants had been exposed to both English and Mandarin before age 6, and 9 participants had not been exposed to English until after age 12. The areas of the brain shown to be activated during a word-production task (cued by pictures) were the same for both groups and in both languages. The researchers interpret this result as a rejection of the claim that L2 processing is organized in the right hemisphere, as Dehaene et al. (1997) claim, and as a rebuttal of the lateralization argument for the CPH.

> "...it is generally accepted that it is easier to acquire L2 and to do so more completely if one is exposed to it earlier ... However, there is no *a priori* reason to expect a different cortical organization of L2 to account for these differences in processing. The similarity in activations seen in early and late bilingual subjects argues against a change in the cerebral plasticity for language with age in terms of where (rather than how) word processing occurs." (Chee, et al., 1999; 3055)

As this quote shows, the Chee et al. (1999) study does not preclude the possibility that there is a childhood advantage in language learning, but the researchers do argue that there is no particular support for a critical period in the cortical arrangement of L1 and L2. This is, indeed, a blow to the CPH, which is based upon the assumption that the brain does physically differentiate early and later acquired languages.

The evidence reviewed so far has not entirely debunked the validity of age of acquisition as a fairly reliable predictor of eventual proficiency. The CPH seems consistent with those few cases of total language deprivation where less-than-native fluency was the best that could be achieved by post-puberty L1 learners. And once the critical period has been relaxed to a set of optimal ages for the acquisition of each grammatical component (as in Yamada et al. 1980), early childhood language acquisition still seems to be privileged. There is a great deal more evidence

yet from the field of SLA, however, and that evidence does not consistently support the idea of a diminished language learning capacity after puberty. Older children and adult second language learners are frequently observed to fall short of native speaker norms, but what is usually reported in the research is a linear decrease of ability with age, not a linguistic cliff after middle childhood. Importantly, the rate of that age-related diminishing capacity is not equal among the various components of the language grammar—morphosyntax, the lexicon, and phonology. Language is not acquired as a single whole, it seems, but rather its component systems develop during their own acquisition periods, Yamada et al.'s (1980) "optimum ages," which extend to greater or lesser extents beyond the edge of Lenneberg's critical period.

Linguists have come to appreciate that even monolingual first language acquisition continues beyond the edge of the critical period, even if that critical period is stretched as far as into the teenage years. Nippold (1998) goes so far as to say that "it is difficult to identify any point in the lifespan when the process of language development is truly complete". (Nippold 1998, 1) Feofanov (1960) claims Russian-speaking children struggle with prepositions well into their teens; Thurstone (1955) says English verbal comprehension is only 80% of adult competence at age 18; Lynch (2003) reports that Spanish subjunctive, conditional and perfect forms are not acquired until after age 12. The obvious sign of this ongoing process, of course, is the continuing growth of the lexicon throughout the lifespan, most notably with the eager acquisition of slang during the teen years. But even beyond vocabulary, the language system as a whole, including that of a monolingual, has been shown to continue to develop after the end of what has been supposed to be the critical period for language acquisition.

Literacy promotes the growth of the lexicon, but it also fosters the recognition of grammatical well-formedness as children learn to compose and recognize the sentences of their native language metalinguistically. As conscious knowledge of the grammatical structures available in the native language expands with literacy, the child is also made aware of literary

styles and formal grammatical options which are often more complicated than colloquial forms. Literacy, and the realization it necessitates that language is a system of abstract representation which can be shaped as much by expressive choice as by the real world it is meant to describe, is itself a lesson to children about their own language. (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 26) The importance of formal education is also clear in the development of differentiated registers during adolescence, one for home and family, possibly another for the friend-group, and, crucially, one for the academic environment. The ability to appropriately modulate one's register of spoken language is also a component of language proficiency that continues to mature after childhood. Indeed, the absence of these normal language learning experiences in the profile of the heritage speaker were discussed in Chapter 1 as contributing factors to the divergence which is consistently observed in heritage language grammars.

Sentence length and information density within an utterance also increase through the teen years as the use of embedded clauses and less-frequent grammatical structures becomes more fluent. Even the expression of the adolescent's developing personality follows from the expansion of "linguistic individualism," especially in the areas of pragmatic and semantic growth. The development of social tact leads to a better understanding of linguistic pragmatics and the rapidly broadening base of experience results in an ever improving semantic capacity to define abstract nouns, idioms and proverbs. (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 55-60) Morphology has also been shown to continue to develop into adulthood. Smedts' (1988) study of L1 derivational morphology in Dutch shows that children produce native-like adult forms at surprisingly low rates—17% by 7-year olds, 51% by 13-year-olds, and most surprising, only 66% by 17-year-olds. Clearly, the critical period, even loosely defined, is not determining the end boundary of native morphosyntactic development if adult competence in Dutch morphology is not reached even by age 17.

After rejecting puberty as the cut-off for successful language acquisition, we should also reexamine the onset of Lenneberg's "critical period," age two. There is certainly no consensus on the validity of this either.

> "Language cannot begin to develop until a certain level of physical maturation and growth has been attained. Between the ages of two and three years language emerges by an interaction of maturation and self-programmed learning." (Lenneberg 1967, 158)

Several studies to date challenge the notion that it takes as long as two years before the infant mind can "begin to develop" language. At 4.5 months old, children can recognize their name, which shows that some amount of linguistic knowledge must be present already. (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 38) The emergence of phonological awareness is investigated in de Boysson-Bardies et al. (1984). In this study, adults are shown to be able to recognize whether it is their own language being acquired by 8- and 10-month old infants based solely on the intonation patterns of the infants' babbling. The language acquisition process must already be well on its way at this age in order for native language specificity to have progressed to such recognizable levels. Indeed, babbling itself can be considered part of language, just one of its earliest stages of development. Because cooing and babbling were not considered by Lenneberg to be part of language proper, timing this stage prior to the critical period was not a problem. But these are exercises by which the infant first explores syllable structure and phoneme formation, and this is the period when patterns emerge that begin to reflect the language of the child's environment. (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 12-13)

Yet even more impressive are the studies by Eimas et al. (1971) and Streeter (1976) which provide evidence that infants as young as 1-month-old are able to discriminate between the phonemes of their own language, and to disregard sound contrasts that are not relevant in that language. Ramus et al. (1999) even suggests that infants become biased to the sounds of their native language while still in utero. The age-2 onset of the critical period is so thoroughly rejected

by Thal and Bates (1990) that they claim language acquisition is essentially *complete* by age 3, after which language development is simply a matter of lexical development and the increase of grammatical proficiency with practice. The studies discussed above in connection with the end boundary of the critical period would seem to cast a great deal of doubt on that particular assertion, but Thal and Bates must observe a great deal of language development before age 3, indeed, in order to make such a claim.

With so much research contradicting the boundaries set by Lenneberg's critical period, linguists have also returned to his foundational assumption. Is it empirically true that young learners are always better than older learners? Even if the strong view of the CPH, limiting the learning period to extend no further than puberty, cannot be maintained after the discussion above, a weaker view may. Many proponents of the CPH now allow for a continued acquisition process after the end of the critical period, though they maintain that learning accomplished younger is inherently more efficient. (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 33) However, not all linguists would agree with that formulation either. Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978) present results in direct opposition to the predictions of the CPH. In this study of L2 Dutch acquisition by native English speaking immigrants, the investigators used several measures to test L2 learners of 5 age ranges—3-5, 6-7, 8-10, 12-15, and adult—who were learning Dutch in the Netherlands through immersion, i.e., by picking it up from their surroundings at school or work rather than through a formal classroom method. The participants were tested at three intervals during the first year after immigration, and a language learning advantage was found for the adults and teenagers, rather than the younger children. Contrary to the predictions of the CPH, the learners whose acquisition was most rapid and successful overall during the first year were the 12-15 year olds. The group which consistently scored the worst on all measures tested was that of the 3-5 year olds. In the initial period, the only test in which the 12-15-year old and adult age groups did not show the most rapid improvement was in pronunciation. Clearly these results are inconsistent with the

CPH, whether the strong or weak view, though a possible exception for phonology may exist. As was discussed in Chapter 1, the heritage speaker profile generally includes near-native phonological knowledge, supporting the claim that youth is privileged for the acquisition of this component of the grammar, at least, and I will revisit the phonological advantage below.

Further support for an older learner advantage comes from a study of SLA and the effect of length of language use on outcome. Ramsey and Wright (1974) tested the English proficiency of school-age immigrants in Toronto. Vocabulary, perception, intonation, and functional and idiomatic knowledge were compared to grade-level norms for native speakers. From their data, these researchers conclude that there is a clear negative relationship between age of arrival in Canada (or age of acquisition onset) and test performance for those children who had arrived after age 7. This is a result which is fairly consistent with the CPH. But Cummins (1981) takes issue with this conclusion, pointing out that if the researchers control for length of residence, the data show instead that the children who were older when they arrived actually outperform younger learners in approaching grade norms. The determining factor in proficiency is not how old the children were when they immigrated, but rather how *long* the children had been learning and using English. The younger ages of arrival correlate with longer residencies in this study, confusing the initial analysis. The better language skills of older students can also be attributed to the fact that much more sophistication is expected in the linguistic expression of students in the higher grades. Younger children have a much lower standard to reach in order to meet the native language abilities of their peers. Like Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978), Cummins' (1981) arguments support a reversal of the basic tenets of the CPH.

The reasons for any observed asymmetry in age-related SLA outcomes may have nothing at all to do with a connection between language acquisition and childhood neuroplasticity, which has already been called into question by Chee et al. (1999). The rigidity of the brain is surely only one factor among many complex interactions and influences which potentially influence language

learning outcomes, both for L1 and L2. Childhood is remarkable as a stage in the human life cycle for more than simply being the period during which language emerges. Other social and cognitive developments which may develop in early childhood, such as theory of mind[3] and basic computational skills, are important prerequisites to language development—theory of mind because by age 4 children are able to comprehend why vocal communication is necessary (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 45) and basic computation because it is argued that the foundation of phrase construction in human language follows from our ability to combine linguistic objects into sets (cf. Chomsky 1995, 225-235). These and other reasons may explain why it is *possible* for language to emerge during this period, but not that it is *necessary* for it to happen during this period.

It is important to take note of methodology in any study supporting or refuting the CPH. I have already alluded several times to the variable importance of early acquisition to each of the component systems of grammar. The critical period has already been discredited above in relation to morphosyntax, but lexical development is most clearly the module of language which is least reconcilable with the CPH. Vocabulary continues to develop throughout the speaker's lifetime, as changing technological jargon is introduced or new interests are developed, so positing a critical period for the lexicon is immediately problematic. Phonology, however, seems to have emerged as the least controversial claim within the CPH literature.

Oh et al. (2003) and Knightly et al. (2003) have shown, through their analyses of heritage speakers in fact, that an argument can be made for the importance of early acquisition to attaining (near) native-like phonological skills. Oh et al. (2003), as was discussed in Chapter 1, found that adults who were childhood speakers of Korean for a few years have an advantage over novice

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[3] "Theory of Mind" (ToM) refers to the ability of an individual to attribute mental states, thoughts, beliefs, desires, intentions, etc., to himself and to others, while understanding that those of others may be different from his own.

learners in the perception and production of Korean speech sounds. And Knightly et al. (2008) found that even those heritage speakers who had merely overheard their heritage language, Spanish, during childhood have a pronunciation advantage over novice late L2 learners. These two studies are representative of the value heritage language research has to the parallel fields of L1 and L2 acquisition research. As the language acquisition of the heritage speaker is so intimately connected to the period in childhood considered to be so important in language acquisition, the resulting grammar is able to uniquely highlight the particular language talent (or lack of talent) that is truly possessed by the childhood mind. The heritage speaker's abilities are not, generally, contaminated by continued language use and development after the end of childhood.

Flege et al. (1999) also posits a childhood advantage to learning phonology while at the same time rejecting the CPH for other aspects of grammar. 240 native speakers of Korean who varied by their age of immigration to the US were evaluated for foreign accent and knowledge of English morphosyntax. Age of arrival became a non-significant predictor of scores on the grammaticality judgment test[4] after the amount of education in the US and the amount of English used on a regular basis were controlled for—but the age of arrival could still reliably predict the foreign accent rating. Studies such as Fathman and Precup (1983) and Tahta et. al (1981) also support the view, without necessarily supporting the CPH generally, that age crucially determines ultimate phonological acquisition. These studies report a decrease in the aural-oral, language comprehension and production, skills of older learners as compared to those of younger learners.

It would seem that the theory of an early exposure advantage for successful acquisition of phonology is less controversial than an early exposure advantage for other areas of language

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[4] Grammaticality Judgment Tasks are typically written tasks in which participants are presented with some number of language samples and asked to rank or otherwise indicate whether or not those samples are permissible in the language based on their (often intuitional) understanding of that language. These tasks are used with both L1 and L2 speakers.

proficiency. The reasons for this exception to the anti-CPH position are still uncertain. It is not disputed that hearing acuity deteriorates with age, though whether or not this deterioration is significant enough (especially during the teen and young adult years immediately following the supposed sensitive period) to affect the language acquisition process is doubtful. (Singleton and Ryan 2004, 119-121) Some, though, have argued that there is a neuromuscular basis of phonology and for this reason it must be considered separately from other aspects of language. (Scovel 1988, 101) Because phonology develops also as a physical skill, with the growth of the child's mouth, tongue, and inner ear, it is easy to set it apart from the rest of a language system which is exclusively cognitive.

Alternatively, Tomasello and Bates (2001) propose that it is the process of learning the first language itself which closes the mind off to repeating the process with a new language later in life, that the operations involved in acquiring a language can only be carried out efficiently one time. In a similar vein, Flege (1981) offers an explanation of the younger learner's advantage in phonology in particular with the suggestion that the very young learner is not simply "translating" the sound system of her L1 into that of the L2, rather that she is developing the two systems independently and concurrently and so is able to come closer to the native values in the way a monolingual acquirer would. (Flege 1981) However, despite all the possible explanations presented here, there is still no consensus about why the child learner is so often more successful in learning the sound patterns of a second language than the adult learner. And, while acknowledging this nuance to the CPH debate, it also important to point out that none of the studies cited here which support a phonological advantage to childhood acquisition claim that the data support a strong version of the critical period. Rather, success in acquiring the phonology of a new language *gradually* decreases with age, even beyond the supposed cut-off of the critical period.

With the flexibility now required to make the beginning and end of the critical period consistent with all the research, it is not surprising to also conclude that the CPH is no longer a well-defined hypothesis and ought to be rejected as too narrow and empirically disappointing. That is not to say that many of the observations on which it was originally founded were inaccurate, but that they still require explanation. The CPH has been tweaked and weakened so much over the years that the evolution of the idea of a childhood advantage in language learning has turned fully away from a biological explanation and toward a social one. Age-related asymmetries in language acquisition may be due rather to a complex of factors, such as motivation, amount and quality of exposure, literacy and the transferable skills of formal education, cross-linguistic influence, as well as (or instead of) cerebral development at the age of initial exposure. "By the adolescent years, a quite distinct array of social and cognitive factors determining language acquisition and use is at play." (Lynch 2003, 1)

One of the problems evident in many of the studies discussed above is an underestimation of the importance of the length of residence to an immigrant's L2 acquisition. This is a question about the amount of exposure to the language, and one which may depend on more than just the number of years in a country. The amount that the language being acquired is used at home and in social circles, in addition to school or the workplace, can have a large effect on language learning outcomes. This seems like a trivial observation but it is often the true reason behind the lack of success older learners tend to have in learning a new language. An adult immigrant with a social network already in place in the L1, possibly including, as in the Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978) study, a linguistically accommodating workplace, will have far less motivation to acquire the L2 than the child. By motivation, in this sense, I do not mean the enthusiasm of an eager language student so much as the real practical necessity to use the L2 in order to communicate and function in the new society. A school-age immigrant is under much more pressure to conform to the new community and its language in order to succeed academically and socially. This social

motivation may be the root of the successful acquisition of Dutch by the 12-15 year olds in the

Snow and Hoefnagel-Höhle (1978) study. This is, arguably, the age group most driven to

socialize in the new country, and perhaps also the school-level under the most pressure to catch

up linguistically.

Ben-Rafael and Schmid (2007) also highlights the importance of motivation in language

learning outcomes. Looking at the language profiles of immigrants to Israel, the investigators

observed clear patterns based on the ideological motivation to learn Hebrew. Francophones who

had emigrated in the 1950s and 1960s, moved onto kibbutzim, and were motivated to build a

nation were found to be far less likely to have maintained their L1 than Russian immigrants in the

1990s, who kept their L1 and taught it to their children. In discussing the linguistic choices of

immigrants (a point which is of particularly relevance to heritage speakers also) Jia and Aaronson

(1999) propose the Dominant Language Switch and Maintenance Hypothesis:

> "Younger arrivals may experience a dominance language switch process, that is,
> acquiring L2 is a dramatic process of *switching* their dominant language from L1 to L2.
> Older arrivals may experience a dominant language maintenance process, that is,
> acquiring L2 is *adding* a new language to their consistently dominant L1, the prototypical
> L2 acquisition process traditionally assumed in the literature." (Jia and Aaronson 1999,
> 302)

These two processes are not equivalent, and the speakers undergoing them are experiencing

different language learning pressures. This may be a better explanation of any difference in their

ultimate L2 attainment than the CPH—at the outset, these learners do not comprise a

homogeneous group and so cannot be compared for proof of a critical period. (Jia and Aaronson

1999, 302)

These observations about the variable motivations of L2 acquirers of different ages have

pertinence in the context of heritage language as well. Our working assumption in this chapter,

particularly in touting the usefulness of the heritage speaker in testing the predictions of the CPH,

has been that the heritage speaker ceases to use her heritage language after the interruption of acquisition in childhood. We know from Chapter 1, however, that this is only one possibility. Heritage speakers may also continue to use their heritage language to a greater or lesser extent during later childhood and adulthood, and that extent is partially determined by precisely the sort of motivational factors discussed above in connection with L2 acquisition and L1 maintenance. Heritage speakers of Welsh, in particular, whose grammars are very often not the result of simultaneous (imbalanced) bilingualism but of language shift and the replacement of the dominant community language for the minority language, are as affected by sociolinguistic factors in maintaining their L1 as are the speakers discussed above. Social pressures which acted against the maintenance of Welsh in the early and mid-twentieth century undoubtedly affected those who became heritage speakers at that time, like Jia and Aronson's younger immigrants. But younger heritage speakers, who live in a modern Wales where employment opportunities are considered to be plentiful for Welsh speakers, are likely to pattern more like the older immigrants of this "Dominant Language Switch and Maintenance Hypothesis." Despite their incomplete initial Welsh acquisition, these speakers may be motivated to maintain whatever abilities they do have. Motivation as a factor affecting childhood bilingualism is not restricted to the domain of SLA, but is also a very prominent part of heritage language acquisition and maintenance as well.

We have seen that the common assumption that younger children are the best language learners is not supported by empirical studies. Many factors beyond neurological development seem to dominate the language acquisition process, both in L1 and L2. In fact, adults and older children often outperform the supposedly superior language acquisition abilities of young children in L2 acquisition. Krashen, et. al (1979) summarizes these seemingly contradictory observations with the following three hypotheses:

> "(1) Adults proceed through early stages of syntactic and morphological development faster than children (where time and exposure are held constant). (2) Older children acquire faster than younger children (again, in early stages of morphological and

syntactic development where time and exposure are held constant). (3) Acquirers who begin natural exposure to second languages during childhood generally achieve higher second language proficiency than those beginning as adults." (Krashen et al. 1979, 573)

The strength of the younger learner is of a psychological, rather than biological, nature, and relates as much to the influences of other childhood experiences as it does to the innate language faculty. The motivation and social development of children seem more likely to be their advantages than any age-restricted neurological plasticity, and those advantages are not necessarily exclusive of older children or adults.

With the complications of the CPH debate laid out, the implications to heritage language should be clear. It is the very question at issue, the importance of language exposure during childhood, that particularly characterizes the heritage speaker and distinguishes her from the second language learner. Following from the CPH, we should expect that childhood learning is privileged, and therefore that there is some advantage evident in the heritage language acquired during the critical period, however loosely defined. If we take the CPH to be entirely debunked, however, there should be no such advantage to any early acquired heritage language proficiency. Heritage speakers who attempt to return to the language as adults after a long period devoid of exposure may potentially offer a decisive answer on the privileged status of early language acquisition.

Without privileging their childhood exposure, these heritage speaker should present with the same skills and language outcomes as incomplete adult acquirers. If, on the other hand, we adopt the modified CPH, and expect childhood exposure to the language to have been stored more successfully than incomplete adult L2, then the heritage speaker should have linguistic proficiencies equaling those of the native speaker. Neither of these hypotheses truly explains the heritage speaker profile, however. Following from the discussion of this chapter, we should actually expect the only truly advantaged component of the heritage grammar to be phonology,

and indeed, native-like phonology is part of the heritage speaker skill set. The lexicon should not be particularly large simply because of the early exposure, though the heritage language vocabulary is certainly shaped by the nature of that childhood exposure, as was discussed Chapter 1. Morphosyntax has proven to be a more problematic subject, however, both in connection to the critical period and as a divergent component of heritage language. It would seem that, judging by the pattern of these three components of the heritage grammar, heritage language proficiencies do seem particularly shaped by their association with particularly early exposure.

Research related to the CPH is ongoing, but, of particular interest to this dissertation, heritage language speakers can offer a singularly informative insight into the issue. Evidence against a position any stronger than the tentative formulation posed above (Krashen 1979) comes from a study of Korean adoptees in France. Investigating L1 rather than L2 knowledge, Pallier, et al. (2003) explores the possible storage strength of Korean in the minds of Korean adoptees who were completely removed from exposure to Korean after their adoption. The participants of this study are heritage speakers at the extreme end of language exposure curtailment, being abruptly cut off from the language that had been their only native language during early childhood. The subjects of the study ranged in their age of adoption, i.e., in the age at which their exposure to Korean ended, from 3 to 9 years old, but none were found to have more knowledge of Korean than monolingual French speakers. In the study, Korean, Japanese, Swedish, Polish and Wolof sentences and words were produced, and the subjects were asked to identify the language. The adoptees performed only as well as the native monolingual French controls in recognizing which were the Korean samples and, using fMRI scans, the investigators also observed that the adoptees experienced brain activations similar to the French controls. There seemed to be no advantage to having been exposed to Korean as young children, even when that exposure extended as late as age 9.

In a related study, Ventureyra et al. (2004) tested whether these Korean-French adoptees would be able to identify Korean phonemes better than native French speakers. Again, there was no significant difference between the performance of the adoptees and that of the monolingual French speakers. Evidently, the early exposure to the Korean sound system was not permanently stored. After the conclusions of these two studies in particular, the argument that the critical period is one of unique neuroplasticity, during which the brain is perfectly primed for the acquisition—and therefore storage—of linguistic knowledge cannot be maintained. This has clear implications for how we think about language attrition, a topic to be explored in the next chapter, but it is also another example of the supposedly extraordinary linguistic organ, the child brain, disappointing investigators who seek evidence of its unique aptitude.

On the other hand, recall from Chapter 1 that Au et al. (2008) argued convincingly for a phonological advantage for childhood overhearers and childhood speakers (both heritage speakers), in the cases when the language continues to exist in the environment. A critical point to make is that the researchers working with the Korean adoptees (Pallier et al. 2003; Ventureyra et al. 2004) were not working with heritage speakers of a similar profile. Their Korean adoptee subjects were completely isolated from linguistic exposure to Korean after adoption, and this vacuum, while informative about storage strength, it is not often the experience of the heritage speaker. Tees and Werker (1984) offers a counter example to the Korean adoptee study. Those investigators found a phonological advantage over adult learners in the speech of heritage speakers of Hindi, but that study contrasts in one important way with the studies of the Korean adoptees. Despite the complete shift away from hearing the language in their environment, the Hindi heritage speakers continued to be exposed to some Hindi phonemes in the accented English that was spoken around them. The result was that those Hindi heritage speakers could more accurately perceive some Hindi speech sounds than could adult novice learners. The crucial factor

seems not to be the age of initial exposure, but the amount of sustained exposure, and thus really has nothing to do with the CPH at all.

The CPH, then, has been thoroughly weakened as an explanation of any observed asymmetries between child and adult language acquisition. The neurological support, the lateralization of the young brain and the cortical arrangement of L1 and L2, has been undermined with fMRI studies. Research of immigrant SLA has not only demonstrated that the upper bound of Lenneberg's critical period is far too young, but even that there may be an acquisition advantage *after* that boundary. The only component of the grammar which remains in support of the supposition that language acquired young is acquired better is the phonology. Childhood exposure to and use of the sound system of a particular language has been demonstrated to be a significant indicator of ultimate phonological proficiency. Any advantage in acquiring morphosyntax during childhood, however, has been seriously problematized.

Heritage speakers are clearly a very informative test population for evaluating the predictions of the CPH. In fact, the very phenomenon under investigation in heritage language research—the switch from a home to a culturally dominant language—demonstrates the opposite of what the CPH predicts. Language shift is the process by which the child begins to learn the new language *after* the beginning of the critical period, often even well inside the critical period, but nevertheless becomes dominant in that new language at the expense of the heritage, or home, language. The language loss in this so-called "subtractive" bilingualism should be severely limited if the CPH holds, but that is clearly not the case. The early exposure does not win out over the later, social dominance of the L2, and the L1 suffers attrition as the L2 develops, even in older children. Studying this dramatic language transition during middle childhood, right in the middle of the critical period, could either confuse or elucidate our problems with the CPH. The adult heritage speaker should be able to access that early learned language, if the brain was especially sensitive at that time to language acquisition. But if language shift exists as a phenomenon in

which the L1 can potentially be completely lost under pressure from the dominant L2, then the critical period cannot be as privileged a language learning phase as the CPH predicts. In the samples of heritage Welsh analyzed in Part II, we will be looking for aspects of grammar accessed with more or less ease. Phonology is not tested, but instances of deviant morphosyntactic production will give us fodder for re-analyzing this position on the CPH, and perhaps provide some clues as to which parts of the grammar are best learned young and which are stored sufficiently enough to be accessed after the cessation of regular use in adulthood.

With the CPH challenged, and the storage strength of early acquired language in doubt, how are we to characterize heritage language? The emergent grammar is very obviously not simply frozen in a state of child-language in perpetuity. An initial assumption may be that, between the childhood exposure to the baseline language and the adult heritage grammar, the L1 was somehow "forgotten," but with the added complication that childhood language knowledge can not now be assumed to have been acquired flawlessly at the outset, the picture begins to look far more complicated. There are in fact two distinct processes which may have acted in reshaping the resultant grammar of the heritage speaker.

Fundamentally, heritage language is a result of language shift, they are two sides of the same coin—one social and one grammatical. Much more on this subject will be explored in the Conclusions of this dissertation, but fresh from a consideration of the CPH, this chapter focuses on the grammatical consequences of language shift during childhood, and whether they should be termed incomplete acquisition or attrition. "Attrition" refers to the loss of a linguistic structure due to interference from another, dominant language or simply from lack of use. The structure had been acquired completely at some stage, but it was lost from the grammatical system over time. "Incomplete acquisition" describes a steady-state grammar in which the structure in question had not ever been fully acquired. These are simplified definitions, and there is room for debate about how these terms should be used properly, but they will serve as a starting point for the discussion of this chapter.

If language shift is a sociolinguistic phenomenon, in which language attitudes, choices, and motivation play crucial roles, heritage language is the actual grammatical result of that social process, reflected in the proficiency of its speakers. Important to both issues is that the language

switch occurs in middle childhood, during the previously discussed critical period, a time when the acquisition status of the first language is not known with complete certainty. Linguists continue to debate whether the native language is or is not fully acquired before adulthood, as we saw in Chapter 2. There are serious empirical problems as a result of this. It may not be possible to know whether the first language was fully acquired by the time of shift in order to claim that the divergent grammar of the adult heritage speaker is the result of attrition. That grammar could, on the other hand, be evidence of normal native language acquisition extending beyond childhood and well into adolescence, in which case an argument might be made that these heritage grammars were stunted mid-development at the point of shift. This is one of the most fundamental questions of heritage language research—is the deviant grammar of a heritage speaker to be classified as attrition or incomplete acquisition, and what does that tell us about the normal language acquisition process? We will see, however, that the distinction might turn out to be unknowable.

Much of the research discussed in Chapter 2 supports the theoretical position that the adult native grammar is not fully acquired before adolescence. (cf. Feofanov 1960; Lynch 2003; Nippold 1998; Smedts 1988; Thurstone 1955) This is one of the primary counterarguments to the CPH, and may also be an argument against the heritage language as L1 attrition position. If the first language is not fully acquired before the learner shifts to primarily acquiring and using a second language, then the resulting L1 grammar cannot be the result of attrition alone. Some of the missing or divergent structures in the adult heritage grammar are likely to be also missing or divergent in child grammar. This argument naturally gets stronger the younger the heritage speaker is at the time of her shift to the dominant language. Smedts (1988) showed that Dutch morphology had not reached adult norms even by the teenage years. Even as a first language, 7-year-olds showed only 14% mastery of Dutch derivational morphology, 13-year-olds 51% mastery, and 17-year-olds only 66% mastery. If this is the case, a speaker who ceased her

acquisition process during childhood, even as late as during the teenage years, can not be expected to control Dutch grammar as proficiently as native speakers who completed the acquisition process (whenever the end point of that may be). Even when her abilities were at age-level norms for acquiring the language natively, she was not yet at an adult level of proficiency.

Recall also the Korean adoptees discussed in Pallier et al. (2003) and Ventureyra et al. (2004) who seem to prove that the native language of children as old as nine years old can be entirely lost after removal to a new linguistic environment. These studies are some of the strongest evidence for the incomplete acquisition position, but, as with most of the topics under discussion in this dissertation, not all researchers have had such clear results, and so the debate continues. Fromm's (1970) case study of age-regression under hypnosis is an interesting example of the other side to this debate. A Japanese-American adult, with no recollection of ever having spoken Japanese, spontaneously produced that language after being hypnotically age-regressed to 4 years old. This must be considered strong support indeed for the positions which consider early storage to be paramount to language acquisition. I am inclined, however, to agree with the more recent conclusions of the research looking into adoptee language memory, which collected data from a greater number of subjects and found their Korean skills to be non-existent—though Fromm's case-study may be taken as a small bit of evidence of the great storage strength of childhood language exposure, if not its recall strength.[1]

There is no a priori reason for incomplete acquisition to be the only source of divergence from native norms in the heritage grammar, however. Attrition of those pieces of the grammar that had been acquired to completion may be playing a role also. Studies which match heritage speaker subjects to normally acquiring children of the same age as the heritage speakers' age of shift, and find that those children do show mastery of a particular grammatical structure, are then

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[1] The terms "storage strength" and "recall strength" will be explained in detail below.

able to evaluate whether or not that structure was likely to have been completely acquired by the heritage speaker at some point as well. If the adult heritage speaker does not show the same control as the children, then that linguistic information may have suffered attrition.

Polinsky (2008a) exemplifies this methodology with a study of heritage Russian speakers in the US. The grammars of the child and adult heritage speakers do not resemble one another closely enough to support the simplistic view that the heritage language of the adult was simply frozen at the age when acquisition stopped. Influence from the dominant language, in this case English, as well as from universal rules governing the possible forms of human language, over time, are presumed to shape the mental representation of that already incompletely acquired language. The resulting grammar is one which has been reanalyzed from the childhood linguistic exposure and shaped by the entire linguistic experience of the heritage speaker, including knowledge of the dominant language as well as any innate language forming asset (Universal Grammar). That reanalysis is itself a form of attrition—the heritage grammar diverges from that of the target language, but was presumably native-like before the period of language shift. More on the influences at work in the bilingual language system, the possibility of interference and transfer between languages, will be discussed as the particular subject of Chapter 4.

Evidence of attrition is usually sought in the language skills of bilinguals, but it is not exclusively a bilingual phenomenon. Attrition related to aging in monolingual adults has also been well studied and may potentially provide an informative comparison with incomplete acquisition, which, of course, can only occur in bilinguals. The modules of language found to decline most dramatically with aging are lexical retrieval and the production of complex grammar. Interestingly within the context of this project, these are areas of particular weakness in heritage language as well, as was discussed in Chapter 1.

Goral (2004) reviews several studies of language attrition suffered by healthy aging adults in an effort to relate this phenomenon to attrition in bilinguals, such as the heritage speakers of this dissertation. Studies intended to test the production ability of older speakers who have potentially suffered attrition generally consist of picture-naming tasks and a calculation of "tip-of-the-tongue" (ToT) states.[2] Picture-naming tasks are designed to elicit expected lexical items and to record the speaker's speed of retrieval. A gradual decrease in lexical access is observed in speakers over 50 years old, but a sharp drop in performance on two of the picture-naming tasks was found for those over 70. Speakers in the over-70 group produce significantly more errors than those of all other age groups, i.e., they failed more often to recall the correct vocabulary item. (Nicholas et al. 1985) Frequency of ToT states has also been found to correlate with aging, but Burke et al. (1991) cautions that infrequent and non-recent use of these particular lexical items may have as much to do with the speakers' poor recollection as general age-related language decline.

Theories about aging and the general deterioration of cognitive processes could, of course, explain these results which seem to show a loss of linguistic access, but there may be other causes as well. One variable in the Transmission Deficit Hypothesis (TDH) (Burke et al. 1991; MacKay and Burke 1990) is recency of use. This is posited as a factor in lexical retrieval speed under the conditions of normal monolingual aging, but may also play a role in attrition observed in bilinguals. The TDH postulates that, while connections between neural nodes become stronger with use, those connections are weakened when use decreases. This idea is similar to the Activation Threshold Hypothesis (ATH) of Paradis (2007), which posits frequency of use as the critical variable determining the ease with which something is retrievable. According to the ATH, frequency of use as well as recency of use affect the "activation thresholds" of particular pieces of

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[2] A "tip-of-the-tongue" (ToT) state refers to a speaker's temporary inability to access a lexical item which is, however, in her lexicon. (Burke et al. 1991)

language, which in turn determine the speed of access. But further research is warranted to determine whether the retrieval difficulties of aging adults are similar enough to those of younger bilinguals to allow the theoretical framework of one to transfer to the other. Furthermore, a difficulty common to all theories in this field is the trouble in isolating the real causes for the observed phenomena, even when theories predict the data. The detailed workings of the brain are still very much a mystery to us. The deterioration of aging cannot be assumed to be the same effect as the loss of language access in a healthy and younger brain assumed to be occurring under attrition.

A fundamental difference between L1 attrition in aging monolinguals and that of younger bilinguals is the absence of a L2 which is possibly influencing the L1 system. More about the bilingual mind will be discussed in Chapter 4, but the importance of the L2 in attrition studies warrants a brief comment here. Paradis' activation threshold is not only about the importance of frequent use to ease of access, but also the role of inhibition, or the act of suppressing unwanted information. The bilingual mind must ignore the grammar and vocabulary of the unused language when forming semantically equivalent utterances in the target language. Without this function of the brain, there would be no way to suppress all the knowledge that is stored in the mind when trying to recall a single fact, and to speak more than one language with any degree of fluency would be, presumably, impossible. In the heritage grammar, which operates under the dominance of the L2, those inhibition abilities have been weakened through lack of use. This effect may be directly responsible for any influence of the L2 on the heritage L1, both lexically and morphosyntactically, but inhibition of a L2 is not necessarily playing a role in the age-related monolingual attrition discussed above. Goral (2004) concludes her comparison of age-related and bilingual attrition with the following statement:

> "It is conceivable that similar cognitive mechanisms and common neuronal changes underlie the attrition processes in both study populations, but there is currently insufficient data to support or refute such hypotheses." (Goral 2004, 45)

Consequently, we must content ourselves here with trying to tease apart evidence of bilingual attrition from incomplete L1 acquisition, with little help from the field of monolingual attrition.

Paradis' Activation Threshold Hypothesis (ATH) has been rather influential in attrition research and deserves further explanation here. The ATH predicts that language disuse will lead to gradual language loss, that the most frequently used elements of the L2 will replace their lesser used L1 counterparts, that comprehension will outlast production abilities, and that vocabulary is more vulnerable than phonology, morphology, or syntax because items stored in declarative, as opposed to procedural,[3] memory are more susceptible to attrition and interference from the L2. (Paradis 2007, 121)

> "This hypothesis proposes that an item is activated when a sufficient amount of positive neural impulses have reached its neural substrate. The amount of impulses necessary to activate the item constitutes its activation threshold. Every time an item is activated, its threshold is lowered and fewer impulses are required to reactivate it. Thus, after each activation, the threshold is lowered—but it gradually rises again. If the item is not stimulated, it becomes more and more difficult to activate over time. Attrition is the result of long-term lack of stimulation. Intensive use/exposure to one of the languages in a bilingual environment leads to a lower activation threshold for that language (i.e., it requires fewer resources), even in early, fluent, behaviorally balanced bilinguals." (Paradis 2004, 28).

The "activation threshold" described here is an abstract concept representing the amount of effort required to access some piece of linguistic information. It is primarily a model predicting the access strength and storage strength of linguistic information in a bilingual mind. That level of effort is, most importantly, set by the amount of practice the mind has had in accessing that information recently. Put simply, the more some item, linguistic or otherwise, is accessed in the mind, the easier it becomes to access that item again in the short term. This is conceptually similar to the benefits of exercising one's muscles or of studying before an exam. The difference

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[3] Procedural memory is automated information, routinized and accessed implicitly. Declarative memory is stored consciously and accessed explicitly. (Bowles 2011, 250)

between declarative and procedural memory and the influence of the L2[4] are important in explaining which areas of the grammar are more or less likely to suffer under attrition.

If we accept the ATH and allow that regular, continued use is fundamental to the ease of retrieval for a given linguistic item, then its application in the field of heritage language research is obvious. The lesser used language will gradually become more difficult to access. But despite this tidy theoretic package in which to wrap up our observations of heritage grammar, can we be certain that attrition is in fact the correct label? Experiments that are able to isolate attrition as the cause, as opposed to incomplete acquisition, are the best means of answering this question. Polinsky (2011) tested heritage speakers of Russian, both child and adult, in relative clause comprehension and compared them with child and adult monolingual controls. It was predicted that if the heritage speakers struggled, they would more likely understand the subject relative clauses than the object relative clauses (following from the accessibility hierarchy (Keenan and Comrie 1977)[5]), and that if the child and adult heritage speakers deviated from the baseline (i.e. the target language) in the same way, incomplete acquisition would explain that deviation rather than attrition.

Because of the direct comparison with the child heritage speakers, any observed differences among the 4 groups Polinsky tested could be expected to differentiate attrition effects from incomplete acquisition in the adult heritage speakers. If the child heritage speakers have

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[4] L2 interference and the organization of the bilingual mind will be discussed at greater length in Chapter 4.

[5] The Accessibility Hierarchy captures the crosslinguistic generalization in relative clause formation that if a language is able to relativize at a given position on the hierarchy then it will be able to at every higher position as well. For example, if a language only allows one position to relativize, it will be the subject; if it allows the indirect object to relativize, then it will also allow the direct object and subject.
     Accessibility Hierarchy:
     subject > direct object > indirect object > oblique object > possessor > standard of comparison (Keenan and Comrie 1977)

more native-like control of relative clauses than the adult heritage speakers, then incomplete acquisition of the relative structure is not the source of divergence, rather, the adult heritage speakers will be shown to have suffered attrition. Children comprehend all types of relative clauses by age 4 in monolingual environments. (Polinsky 2011, 307) The child heritage speakers were all older than 4, so, if incomplete acquisition were observed, it would only follow from the conditions of heritage language acquisition in particular, i.e., in this case, being exposed to the heritage language only at home. The results showed that only one group of speakers significantly deviated from the others in relative clause comprehension—that of the adult heritage speakers. And, as predicted, those adult heritage speakers performed far better with subject relative clauses than with object relative clauses, despite the fact that English, their dominant language, allows object-relative clauses.[6] The child heritage speakers performed as well as the monolinguals. They had successfully acquired the structure under investigation by that age, supporting the claim that the process leading to an adult heritage grammar is in fact one of attrition, rather than incomplete acquisition.

Seliger (1989) presents a case study of a child bilingual who immigrated to Israel from the US at age 7. Observations of her two linguistic systems mixing after 2 years in the new linguistic environment are put forward as evidence in favor of what Seliger calls the "Redundancy Reduction Principle." Her exposure to Hebrew began with the move, after which, we can assume, the girl's L1 English, her heritage language in our terms, was no longer used. The family had also switched to using Hebrew in the home after their move, in order to ease the child's transition to the new language. The primary claim of Seliger's theory is that bilingual

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[6] This observation is of particular interest because it refutes the lay intuition that the influence of the dominant language is *always* the source of divergence observed in the proficiency of an imbalanced bilingual. These adult heritage speakers' reanalysis of baseline Russian is not based on a borrowing from the dominant language grammar, rather, it is an independent simplification which follows from universal principles of human language formation. This is a topic which will be revisited often in Part II of this dissertation.

language systems undergoing attrition will not diverge from native norms in a random or un-patterned way. An L1 which suffers attrition will often take on properties of the L2 following from this principle:

> Redundancy Reduction Principle (RRP): "If both languages contain a rule which serves the same semantic function, that version of the rule which is formally less complex and has a wider linguistic distribution (i.e. can be used in a greater variety of linguistic environments) will replace the more complex more narrowly distributed rule." (Seliger 1989, 173)

The evidence from his study specifically focuses on the apparent simplification of relative clause formation in the child's English after two years in the Hebrew, L2, environment. Her grammar, unlike those of the monolingual controls, does not allow any relative pronouns other than *that*, and treats *that* as a relativizing morpheme like *še-* in Hebrew. This not only reduces the lexical inventory of this speaker, but also changes the formal status of the relative clause, from a subordinate relative clause to an independent clause with attached relative marker. Closely connected to this formal distinction, the subject's English relative clauses contain a resumptive pronoun[7] (with the exception of subject relatives), like Hebrew but unlike English. (Seliger 1989, 180) Some examples from this study are provided here for clarification. In a grammaticality judgment task, the Hebrew-English bilingual (7b, 8b) and the native controls (7c, 8c) were given a sample sentence (7a, 8a) and asked to make it better. Attrition is clearly evident in the way described by Seliger in the heritage speaker's sentences (7b and 8b).

      7a.   There is the man who I talked to you about him.

      7b.   There is the man that I talked with you about him.

      7c.   There is the man who I talked to you about.

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[7] A resumptive pronoun restates a reference which was made previously in the sentence. (e.g. "This is the boy I told you about *him*," which happens to be ungrammatical in English, but may not be in other languages.)

8a.   The man who the dog bit him is angry.

8b.   The man that the dog bit him is angry.

8c.   The man who the dog bit is angry.

(Seliger 1989, 179; Seliger's numbering)

These data support the claim that the child bilingual undergoing attrition of her L1 is suffering a transfer effect—the simpler, more broadly applicable and less cognitively taxing linguistic process is replacing the less efficient rules of English relativization.[8] The Hebrew rule is the more efficient one because it allows the same clause structure to be used in conjoined as well as independent sentences. (Seliger 1989, 182) The presence of Hebrew in the bilingual system is clearly contributing to the particular shape of this simplification, therefore, which then differs fundamentally from the process of monolingual, age-related attrition. This simplification must be interpreted as attrition rather than incomplete acquisition because of the observable order in the reshaped bilingual grammar—had the L1 simply been incompletely acquired, this pattern of redundancy reduction would not be detectable.

The research which supports incomplete acquisition as the process resulting in heritage language is convincing as well, however. Also referred to as "interrupted acquisition," this is the view which seems intuitively more accurate to describe the state of a grammar shaped by sudden language shift at a young age. For those heritage speakers who grew up with the heritage language as the home language, however, the "incomplete" in incomplete acquisition is more abstract. The bilingual child's linguistic exposure has been divided between the two languages. In balanced bilinguals, this split exposure is actually quite quickly resolved and the two languages develop essentially as they would for a monolingual child. (Montrul 2008, 94-97) For childhood

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[8] Transfer will be discussed at greater length in Chapter 4.

heritage speakers, however, the exposure to the heritage language presumably never reaches a level high enough for full and successful acquisition of that language. The "incomplete" in this case is not a sudden interruption of exposure after language shift, but rather a sustained insufficiency of input and use over time. The burden is on the researcher, then, to find the ways in which the bilingual with reduced exposure and the sudden language shifter are both heritage speakers, with similar grammatical traits and language classroom needs.

Several analyses of incomplete acquisition as a possible outcome of insufficient exposure have focused on late L2 acquisition and the importance of the "critical period" to successful outcomes, (Sorace 1993; Schachter 1990; Bley-Vroman 1989) but Montrul (2008) convincingly argues for incomplete grammar to be a possible outcome of L1 acquisition as well, even in cases when exposure began during the so-called critical period. A study of incomplete L1 Korean (Flege et al. 1999) evaluated the pronunciation of 240 L1 Korean speakers who differed according to the age at which they migrated to the US (between 1 and 23 years old). An evaluation of pronunciation was performed by native Korean speakers who gave ratings of perceived foreignness in the Korean-Americans' accents. The speakers' age of arrival was found to be a significant predictor of these accent ratings.

However, you may recall that the Flege et al. study was also discussed in Chapter 2 as evidence against the Critical Period Hypothesis. The accent rating test was accompanied by a grammaticality judgment test on which the subjects' performance also decreased gradually with age of arrival—but that effect could be negated if factors associated with age were controlled for (i.e., amount of education in Korean and amount of regular use of Korean). Once these were included in the calculation, the subjects' age of arrival was no longer significant as a predictor of grammaticality judgments. The age of arrival did, however, remain significant for some of the subjects' *accent* ratings. For those subjects who had left Korea before age 12, age of arrival was a significant predictor of accent rating, but was no longer significant if the age of arrival exceeded

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12 years old. This can be taken as evidence of a critical period for phonology at least, or, perhaps less controversially, as evidence that the process of natively acquiring Korean phonology requires at least 12 years. The heritage speakers of the study had *incompletely acquired* this component of the Korean language because they experienced language shift too early. This is a clear example of the different domains of a language having separate requirements for complete acquisition by the heritage speakers.

Montrul (2008) evades the distinction by considering incomplete acquisition to be a possible product of L1 attrition as well as the result of shifting too young. "Incomplete acquisition" simply describes the endstate of the grammar. She also re-defines the critical period as a time exceptional not only for the brain's sensitivity to language acquisition, but also as a period during which linguistic structures which may have already been acquired are particularly vulnerable to attrition. The proficiency of a child, therefore, does not signify a permanent competence if reduced use and exposure are significant enough to induce attrition during this critical period. The resulting grammar is what she defines as "incomplete acquisition," a term applicable only to the final, steady state of the grammar. (Montrul 2008, 123)

Montrul's hypothesis about a maturationally determined period of language (loss) vulnerability is supported by Pecenek's (2010) case study of two boys, ages 5 and 8, who were learning Italian as a L2 after emigrating from Turkey. The older boy was able to maintain his Turkish in the new linguistic environment but the younger boy had more difficulty using Turkish after one year in Italy. The younger brother would not have firmly acquired the L1 grammar to the same extent that the older brother had at the time of the move, and because the language had not reached a steady level of proficiency, it seems, his was the more likely to suffer under attrition in the changed linguistic environment. This is the sort of situation in which teasing apart the differences between L1 attrition and incomplete L1 acquisition is especially problematic. After one year in Italy, the older of the two brothers was the stronger Turkish speaker, but he was

also less comfortable in Italian than his younger brother. This could be taken as support for Montrul's position that the younger the shift, the more vulnerable to attrition, but the study may also be interpreted as evidence of that the grammar was not complete at this age anyway.

The greatest of the younger boy's weaknesses in Turkish are lexical in nature. His proclivity to code-switch is a lexical issue, and one which Pecenek explains as context-based—the boy learned about certain concepts in his L2, Italian, only and therefore only knows the Italian terms, not the Turkish. As was discussed in the previous chapter, lexical knowledge is not of particular interest in language acquisition because it continues throughout the lifespan and is declarative rather than procedural knowledge. Pecenek also points out, however, that the difference in age of language shift in the two boys meant that they had not reached the same level of "mastery in semantic and pragmatic domains." (Pecenek 2010, 287) This is clearly not an issue of the information suffering under attrition. It was never there in the first place if "mastery" is a criterion necessary for full acquisition.

When the evidence is certain that the piece of linguistic information has not been learned before shift, as with the younger brother's semantic and pragmatic awareness, then incomplete acquisition is the cause. Where it can be shown that speakers at a certain age do possess the linguistic information of interest, but heritage speakers of that language fail to produce it even if their age of shift was subsequent to that supposed age of acquisition (as in Polinsky 2011), then the explanation seems to be attrition. But if "incomplete acquisition" can describe the post-attrition steady-state grammar as well, as Montrul would have it, then the distinction is almost impossible. Without any certainty either way, discriminating between these theoretical causes is entirely muddled, and the most accurate description of the state of the grammar may mean that attrition and incomplete acquisition have both impacted the heritage grammar. Given Montrul's reformulation, perhaps the question of a "critical period" should be reframed as a question of the

critical amount of exposure necessary to set the child's grammar safely beyond the point of particular vulnerability.

If the difference between attrition and incomplete acquisition, however, relies on the researcher being able to identify the exact mental linguistic state of the child speaker, then it is not a distinction which has yet been proven. It can be said that language is continually being acquired, or at least that it requires constant reinforcement—that it is a fluid skill, and not one that can be learned fully once and always recalled. This is certainly the experience reported anecdotally by foreign language learners, but may be true for L1 as well. If a linguistic structure was observed in the speech of a child just before language shift begins, we cannot really be certain whether that structure has suffered attrition or had simply never been firmly integrated into her linguistic system. Even while Polinsky (2011) argued for the attrition explanation over incomplete acquisition, the inherent difficulty in separating the two is acknowledged:

> "The longer answer to this question will probably take many years to develop because answering it amounts to mapping out the entirety of natural language: which aspects are robust and which are more fragile, which can be learned with greater or lesser difficulty, and so on." (Polinsky 2011, 306)

But an important point to make here is that an argument for attrition is not necessarily an argument against incomplete acquisition. The two may be complementary and overlapping processes, neither an accurate description of the heritage language phenomenon on its own.

The frequency of particular linguistic information in the input might then be significant in determining early language proficiency—but reifying the concept of "frequency" as a tangible variable is not as simple as it might seem. Frequency does not actually prove to be such a decisive piece of the puzzle. If Paradis' activation threshold is relevant not only to production but also to comprehension, then merely hearing an item and understanding it will contribute to lowering that threshold. This hypothesis supposes an important role for early linguistic input in the process of

language acquisition and storage. Input can be language addressed toward the child or other speech overheard in her environment. Despite one of the foundational theories of modern linguistics, that human beings create language far more quickly and efficiently than could be possible if the infant mind were building that system from scratch rather than using an innate linguistic faculty, (cf. Chomsky 1965) exposure to a certain amount of input is clearly necessary for successful outcomes. The unfortunate language deprivation cases presented in Chapter 2 are testament to this fact. But just how much or how little linguistic input is required, and the nature of that input, is a debate that has filled volumes on its own. I will only very briefly touch on some of the relevant points here.

In the context of incomplete acquisition, the question arises of why it takes so long to reach native norms and how it can be that speakers exposed to their heritage language for as many as 9 years or more are not fully proficient, as was seen in the Pallier et al. (2003) and Ventureyra et al. (2004) studies. To say that the *amount* of linguistic exposure is paramount in the bilingual acquisition debate is a rather blunt and uninteresting argument. Of course it is the case that a bilingual home will be splitting the child's linguistic exposure between the two languages and, consequently, studies have shown that there is a slight delay in the very earliest stages of even balanced bilingual language production, though it is quickly resolved. (Ben-Zeev 1977; Gathercole 2002; Hakuta 1987; Thordardottir 2011) This situation describes many of our heritage Welsh speakers and so will naturally have affected their grammars. Following from that research, some of our heritage Welsh speakers' deviation from native speaker outcomes can be credited to the split-language home environment, but that cannot explain everything. They do not all come from a bilingual household, nor would this account for all the deviation in the grammar of those who do. We also cannot assume that home language use is a universal quantity, constant across families and easily measured. What does "amount of input" actually mean? "Input" as a concept eventually breaks down into the frequency with which the learner is exposed to different

grammatical structures and lexical items. "Frequency," then, must be the variable that is really at issue here. But frequency is, itself, a poorly understood concept. A sharp criticism of this problem is found in Yang (2007): "Frequency effects is simply the professional's preferred term for this pedestrian intuition: the greater the exposure, the greater the imitation." (Yang 2007, 389)

The difficulty comes from translating that intuition—that more exposure means better understanding and storage—into a describable and quantifiable cognitive process. The difficulty comes from trying to determine the steps in the process of remembering an item. If several exposures are required for a linguistic item or structure to be remembered (and therefore be produced and comprehended) how is the mind recording those instances of exposure until the threshold is reached after which it will be remembered? Are subparts of this information being stored and added together after each exposure? Is it a process of *learning* after one exposure but refining with each subsequent exposure? Is there some ongoing tally of instances in which the information is heard, counting up to some threshold? Complicating these already muddy, and unanswered, questions is the reality that those instances of exposure will inevitably be slightly, or even significantly, different each time. Grammatical structures are in the abstract realm of morphosyntax, where the vocabulary used in those structures is always changing, but the child is able to learn that abstraction nevertheless. If frequency itself is something the learning mind is keeping track of, it is no more than counting. This is not the same as learning, which must be a much more flexible process. This is especially so with language, which is a system rather than a collection of facts, in which the simple words actually uttered belie the complexity of the grammar in their seemingly countable instantiations. (Roeper, 2007)

Polinsky (2005) was able to use known word frequencies in adult native speech in order to study their possible effect in a more scientific way. Heritage Russian speakers were tested in their comprehension of word class distinctions (such as noun, verb, and so on). Interestingly, this study found that frequency was not the strongest predictor of her heritage speakers'

comprehension. The findings instead suggest that other factors, such as the class of the words itself, may be playing a larger role. Complicating the issue, as Polinsky points out, is the caveat that frequency counts will inevitably be different from adult norms in the language directed at children, and therefore also the input of heritage speakers. We may not ever be able to quantify frequency effects without doing individual, long-term case studies—an infeasible prospect.

Further evidence also shows that the frequency of lexical items can not be the primary factor in their being acquired. If that were the case, the most frequent items would be learned first. But the most frequent lexical items in English, for example, are function words (e.g., *and*, *is*, *not*, etc.), and they rarely appear first in the child's speech. (Gathercole and Hoff, 2009) Djurkovic (2007) similarly argues that the order of acquisition of grammatical constructions in Serbian goes from simplest to more complicated, with less regard for the frequency of those structures than the "pedestrian intuition" of frequency effects would suppose. So what we are left with, again, is a loose understanding of the cognitive processes of language acquisition deduced only from the observation of their results. Input and frequency must be important, but they do not play a simple role by any means.

If we suppose that linguistic input continues to reinforce and refine grammatical structures, as well as to affect a speaker's ever-changing lexicon, then there can be no easy way to pin down the end of acquisition at all. In the case of vocabulary, we have no reason to believe acquisition ever stops. Even in the domain of morphosyntax, the acquisition process goes on as long as input reinforcement is required, and that may take as long as 20 years or more. (cf. Smedts 1988) Language is not a knowledge learned the way facts are, but instead is a system of which the foundations can be acquired in childhood but mastery takes a far longer period of continued use. Theoretically, language acquisition may continue well into adulthood if reinforcement is necessary for solidifying the grammar and is considered a part of the acquisition process, even past the point when adult native norms are ostensibly comprehended and produced.

Certainly, the CPH can not be maintained under this position, but there are implications to the incomplete L1 versus L1 attrition debate in heritage language as well. Blurring the upper bound of what age range determines complete and successful acquisition renders it nearly impossible to establish the effects of incomplete acquisition for those heritage speakers who shifted before well into adulthood.

An area of research outside of linguistics proper which is obviously parallel to attrition studies is that of the psychological basis of forgetting. Ecke (2004) reviews some of the more prominent theories in the hopes that they might offer some insight on the problem of defining attrition once and for all. Memory is made up of three components: encoding, storage and retrieval. Encoding is the initial processing of input, its understanding and computing by the brain. Storage is the next step in the process of remembering a piece of information, in which the item is put away in the memory for future access. Retrieval, as it sounds, is the process of recalling that information from memory for repeated use in the future. The process of encoding as a brain function should be assumed to be healthy and normal for the typical heritage speaker, and we've already seen how the ATH describes a weakened retrieval mechanism, affecting the ability of the heritage speaker to access known linguistic information, so what's left to discuss is this idea of "storage strength."

The CPH fundamentally relies on the idea that storage is inherently more efficient and lasting if it is done during childhood. This also privileges storage as a determining process in language acquisition. We saw in the previous chapter that the CPH probably over-emphasizes the importance of that specific learning period, but recall the summary of Krashen et al. (1979) which stated that an earlier start to the acquisition process yields better long-term outcomes. (Krashen et al. 1979, 573) This may ultimately come down to a question of storage strength. However, this over-simplifies the real issue. Information learned early also tends to be information used frequently over time. The strength of the initial storage cannot usually be separated from the

strength gained from frequent retrieval. Assumptions about the inherent strength of early storage

also overlook the examples we have of the total loss of early language, such as Pallier et al.

(2003) and Ventureyra et al. (2004) and their work with Korean adoptees in France. The apparent

weakness of language storage in those subjects suggests that continued, rather than early, use is as

essential to storage strength as it is to retrieval strength.

It is not surprising to learn that many questions remain open in the psychological

understanding of forgetting as well. Is it the loss of information, or just the loss of access to that

information? Does information remain stored in the mind even when the individual has

"forgotten" it? Forgetting has been described in Freudian terms as a process of suppression or

repression, it has been emphasized as a process of distortion of real memory affected by personal

biases, it has even been described as the evaporation or decay of information, as though such

knowledge had a physical state in the mind. First formulated in 1941, Jakobson's Regression

Hypothesis (RH) postulates that information is forgotten in the reverse order that it is acquired.

(Keijzer 2004) Language learning was thought to be the ideal process for this model, in which

childhood language acquisition is layered and each stage is built upon the previous. Forgetting

language, then, is the peeling away from more to less recent grammar and vocabulary. This would

predict that language that has suffered attrition looks like child language, but we know that this is

not the case. Heritage speakers are a perfect counter-example to the RH. Adult heritage speakers

never produce language that could be mistaken for child language. This is due partially to the

nature of adult topics and world understanding, obviously producing different language to

describe it, but the heritage grammar also does not look like a regressed, simple sentence

formulator similar to child speech. We will see in Part II of this dissertation that our heritage

Welsh speakers still produce function words, for example, that are invariably still in operation

even for those speakers with very small vocabularies, which, incidentally, do not resemble child

vocabulary either. Without sufficient supporting evidence, the RH has fallen out of favor in psychology as well as linguistics.

The actual mechanisms of the brain which are controlling the flow of information are, unfortunately, poorly understood. The activation threshold is itself only a metaphor, though it is based on the observed transmission of signals between neurons. (Köpke 2007) If we look to these somewhat tangible and measurable workings of the brain for an explanation of the intangibles of knowledge we come to some more compelling, and possibly helpful models of forgetting. The ATH and theories like it, that are built on the mechanical workings of neurons are the most useful for us. Elimination of information is not a helpful, or empirically accurate, way to think about forgetting. Rather, a slowdown or failure to access information can be described in terms of signal strength between neurons and as a product of lack of use. This can either be caused by new information being accessed more frequently or, particularly for our discussion, from a L2 being accessed more frequently, to the detriment of access to the L1.

But we need not stray too far from the main issues under discussion here. The complementary concepts of information-forgetting and language-attrition can be usefully compared in one more way—the idea of cue dependency to successful memory access is very relevant to heritage language also. If labels, or cues, are available to the mind in order to find information quickly among its large collection of facts and processes, then recognition of those cues is crucial to successful access. Cue availability would depend on the consistency of the individual's internal states, his feelings and mood, as well as on the external environment in which the learning and retrieval of information take place. A change in context of use can reduce the availability of those "labels" which cue access to the desired information. (Ecke 2004) For our heritage speakers, this would translate to the importance of social context to the success of access. Speakers who are accustomed to using a language only in the home or among close friends who are suddenly called upon to use Welsh to speak about new topics or in new social settings cannot

be expected to recall the heritage language as well as they would their dominant language, the language they usually "cue" up for these situations.

More than the linguistic context alone may trigger interference, in fact. Chinese immigrants in America have been found to be affected by visual context cues as well. Zhang et al. (2013) tested the English proficiency of recent Chinese immigrants in the US under priming from their L1. Speaking to a Chinese, as opposed to American, interlocutor hindered fluency (as it was determined by the impressions of judges), as did exposure to iconic symbols of Chinese culture. In recognition and naming tests, those speakers were also affected by Chinese icon priming. Clearly, the processing of an L2 can be disrupted by heritage culture priming, and it is not a stretch to assume the same occurs in the heritage language of L2 dominant speakers. A particular language is stored with appropriate context cues, both linguistic and visual, and consequently will be accessed with more difficulty when processing occurs contrary to those cues. Interestingly, for our heritage Welsh speakers, those cues will vary by individual. For some, the language will be tied closely to family and time spent in Wales, but for others, the cues may be entirely London-based, associated with a friend group or activity. A heritage Welsh speaker who only uses the language while watching rugby on television at a certain London pub will not necessarily experience a positive priming effect when speaking with Welsh family. For that speaker, going to Wales or speaking with relatives in Welsh may be more difficult than speaking with a stranger who happens to be present at that pub in London and wants to discuss rugby. Fortunately for our heritage Welsh speakers, the situational priming of a heritage language can gradually change if the speaker comes to use the language more in new contexts.

The ATH also makes reference to the difference between procedural and declarative memory. (Paradis 2004, 7-10) Procedural memory is what a speaker uses when forming a sentence, intuitively placing the nouns and adjectives in the correct order and using the correct tense of the verb. It is the implicit knowledge of the language. The declarative memory is what

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can be learned explicitly, the lexicon and the metalinguistic knowledge that was taught in school to typical native speakers of a socially dominant language. Implicit, or procedural, knowledge is much more fundamental to language. The language of young children is exclusively implicit, and explicit, declarative language skills emerge only later and continue to develop throughout the lifetime to a greater extent than implicit skills. The parts of language that are most likely to suffer attrition are those sustained by declarative memory, i.e., the lexicon. (Bolger and Zapata 2011) This is also the area most likely to suffer in the L1 from interference from the L2, (Paradis, 2007) and, from Chapter 1, we know that vocabulary does seem to be the most vulnerable to being "forgotten" by our heritage speakers. The ATH assumes that procedural memory has far greater storage strength than declarative memory. Whether the terms "procedural" and "declarative" actually describe a fundamental difference of type of memory or whether they simply divide what is probably a spectrum of how successfully something has been learned—i.e., to the point of being automatically recalled or not—is beyond the scope of this discussion, but it is a distinction that accurately predicts what we observe in heritage language, that vocabulary suffer the most, followed last by the basics of word order and pronunciation.

Regardless of the attrition or incomplete acquisition debate, never is the process of attrition or the result of an incompletely acquired grammar simply a question of more or less language. The metaphor that heritage speakers seem to have pieces of their language missing belies the real, and very interesting, condition of that language. The resulting grammar is theoretically a functional and possible language, even if it is only slowly accessed by the speaker. The divergences from native speaker norms show signs of either, or both, innovative reanalysis or interference from the dominant language. We saw in the Seliger (1989) study discussed above that the Hebrew relativization process had been extended to the eroded English L1, but also in the Polinsky (2011) study that English L2 does not always transfer positively into the eroded Russian heritage language system. There must be factors at work beyond simply the process of language

shift and/or the bilingual state of mind which are affecting how and where the grammar diverges from expected norms. Incomplete acquisition/attrition may explain *why* some heritage systems lack certain linguistic structures, having suffered reduced exposure before the normal age of complete acquisition of that structure, or because of language shift at some point after the age of successful production but before the age of mastery—but how does the heritage speaker communicate around these "gaps" in the grammar?

One of the most interesting properties of human language globally is that all known languages abide by certain universal principles.[9] If these universal principles of language are also observed in the restructured L1 system under attrition, then we have further evidence that not only do these universals describe the shape of full community languages, but that they also constrain the shape of any possible human language. The grammars of the speakers of heritage Russian studied in Polinsky (2011), as well as the Hebrew-dominant child bilingual discussed in Seliger (1989), both followed the Accessibility Hierarchy (Keenan and Comrie 1977) in their construction of relative clauses, despite their very different personal language histories. The subject of the sentence is the only possible candidate for relativization if the grammar of any language allows for only one, whether that language is the complete L1 of a native speaker or an attrited and reanalyzed heritage language.

The frequency of a structure or lexical item in the linguistic input can not be maintained as a principal motivating factor in its retention by the heritage system, but an argument can be made for more transparent and easily acquired grammatical structures being retained over opaque ones, and that ease of acquisition almost certainly relates to linguistic universals and Universal

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[9] Linguistic universals are patterns that are observed across natural languages regardless of contact or influence. These patterns potentially reveal generalizations about an innate human capacity for language (i.e., Universal Grammar) and the biologically determined ability of the mind to organize and process this kind of information. (cf. Chomsky 1965, 27-30; Comrie 1989; Greenberg 1963; Greenberg 1966)

Grammar. Seliger (1989) compares the complexity of relative clause formation in English to the simplicity of the Hebrew system and finds that the more complex system is marked crosslinguistically—it is typologically less common across world languages. The predominance of languages which allow fewer relativizing structures is predicted by the Accessibility Hierarchy (a linguistic universal), which also predicts that relativizing structures will be absent in the heritage grammar after attrition according to a predetermined order. This is not to say that every individual's mind is computing the typology of each linguistic structure, but that related to ease of acquisition is this concept of universality. Ease of acquisition and its role in possibly shaping the heritage grammar will be revisited in the research presented in Part II of this dissertation.

Lexical semantics is also very susceptible to loss in heritage language, as well as in age-related attrition. Olshtain and Barzilay (1991) interviewed American immigrants in Israel, who had continued to use their English L1 as their primary language despite near-native control of Hebrew and 10 to 20 years of residence abroad. These L1 English speakers were found to have weaknesses in the area of word meanings. Recollection of infrequent, specific nouns in English was found to have suffered attrition when the participants were pressed during directed semantic searches. (Olshtain and Barzilay 1991) In a task much like that which has been put to the heritage Welsh speakers to be discussed in Part II of this dissertation, the American-Israeli bilinguals were asked to narrate the story told through the pictures of Mercer Mayer's *Frog, Where Are You?* children's book. The participants paraphrased or code-switched rather than successfully recall the specific English nouns of what was pictured in the story. Especially problematic were the words *pond* and *gopher*. The particular circumlocutions of the subjects are discussed at length in the study, but here we need only note that the difficulty with the lexicon is expected from the insight gained from the ATH and Paradis' description of the vulnerability of declarative memory. Without consistent use, infrequently recalled nouns such as these would become extremely difficult to draw from memory, though likely not lost from storage.

The same difficulty with lexical retrieval was found in a longitudinal case study in which the personal letters of an aging German L1 and English L2 speaker were examined for signs of lexical loss. (Hutz 2004) The findings show that, in this domain at least—the metalinguistic, literary mode—the morphosyntax of the speaker remained stable far longer than the lexicon, where English loanwords were frequent because of their American cultural context. In addition to code-switching, the speaker extended the meanings of words in the L1 under the semantic influence of the L2, which is evident both in her calquing of English phrases into German and in her selection of L1 lexical items which are similar in phonology, though different in definition, to her intended meaning in English (e.g., *schmal* 'narrow' to mean 'small'; *gültig* 'valid' to mean 'guilty'). (Hutz 2004, 198)

Current theories locate the particular vulnerability of a language under attrition at the interfaces between syntax and the other component systems of grammar. (cf. Sorace 2011) It is at these junctures that transfer from the dominant language into the heritage language is most likely to occur. In particular, Tsimpli et al. (2004) reports on the vulnerability of L1 syntax to attrition under L2 influence at the Logical Form (LF) interface, "where semantic and discourse-related features which are represented in the syntactic structures become available for further processing in central cognition." (Tsimpli et al. 2004, 263) L1 Greek and Italian speakers who had acquired English as an L2 were tested on their production and interpretation of preverbal and postverbal subjects in their L1, and were found to place their subjects preverbally more than would the controls. This was presumed to be a result of attrition at the syntax-LF interface and following from the fact that English does not allow postverbal subjects. L1 attrition, then,

> "involve[s] interpretable features that are linked to parametric choice that differs between the L1 and the L2. In this way, an interpretable feature that is specified in L1 in a particular syntactic structure will become unspecified due to the absence of a similar interpretable feature in L2 in the same syntactic context." (Tsimpli et al. 2004, 263)

Cuza and Frank (2011) examines the effect of transfer from English to heritage Spanish in the comprehension of double-*que* questions. The investigators propose that English is affecting these speakers' Spanish at the syntax-semantics interface, where even highly proficient bilinguals are unable to perceive the semantic shift introduced by the double-*que*. Bolonyai (2007) examines the incomplete Hungarian of six Hungarian-English bilinguals. She argues that rather than attributing the morphological errors of these bilinguals to the fossilization of the L1 grammar or to an incompletely acquired, immature system, the consistent trouble observed in these heritage grammars can be blamed on a mapping problem between syntax and lexico-semantics, where the morphology is spelled out. In particular, her subjects seem to be mapping the semantics of English *have* onto the Hungarian *van* and using it like a light verb in the absence of the morphology Hungarian would naturally use.

Interface vulnerability of this kind has also been noted for adult L2 learning where the mapping of abstract syntactic structures to their concrete morphological representations can remain an obstacle even in highly successful bilinguals. (White 2003, 201) Gabriele and Canales (2011) tests the interface hypothesis with L1 Spanish and L1 Japanese learners of English. Theoretically, the difficulties at the interfaces should persist regardless of a structure's similarity to or difference from the L1. The subjects were given a task which tested the acquisition of information that passes between the syntax and pragmatics interface, in this case, the difference between the simple present and the present progressive in English. Indeed, the same pattern of difficulty was observed in both sets of learners. For those who were L1 speakers of Spanish, the similarity of this structure in the L1 did not facilitate the learning process. From this research, we can predict that the particular vulnerabilities of heritage language under attrition will manifest at interfaces. In particular, the syntax and its communication with other components of the linguistic system seems to be a recurring source of divergence from native norms.

This chapter has presented the potential distinction between incomplete L1 acquisition and L1 attrition as they relate to heritage language, but has also presented several predictions about their respective effects on the bilingual grammar and some possible frameworks with which to describe heritage language phenomena. At this point it may be impossible to determine whether the heritage grammar is the result of attrition or of incomplete acquisition with absolute certainty, though the differences of the two are perhaps less significant than they may have appeared at the beginning of this chapter. The important conclusion to draw from this discussion is that both processes are influencing the heritage grammar throughout the lifetime of its speaker.

> "Incomplete bilingual L1 acquisition may precede or co-occur with attrition, the erosion or restructuring of the L1 in extensive contact with the L2. ... When this happens, linguistic outcomes of incomplete acquisition and those of incipient attrition may be rather difficult to distinguish." (Bolonyai 2007, 4)

It may be the unique combination of these two processes, neither of which is sufficiently explanatory on its own, which is the defining experience of the heritage speaker. Both positions have something to contribute to the study of heritage Welsh presented in this dissertation, but only their combined effects can describe the heritage grammar completely.

"It is, of course, an advantage for a child to be familiar with two languages: but without doubt the advantage may be, and generally is, purchased too dear. First of all the child in question hardly learns either of the two languages as perfectly as he would have done if he had limited himself to one. It may seem on the surface, as if he talked just like a native, but he does not really command the fine points of the language. Has any bilingual child ever developed into a great artist in speech, a poet or orator? Secondly, the brain effort required to master the two languages instead of one certainly diminishes the child's power of learning other things which might and ought to be learnt. ... The worst of the system is, that instead of learning things necessary to us we must spend our time and energy in learning to express the same thought in two or three languages at the same time." (Jesperson 1922, 148)

Until midway through the twentieth century the assumption had been that bilingualism was a cognitive disadvantage. So-called "intelligence tests" became popular in the twentieth century, particularly after the U.S. army used such tests on draftees at the outbreak of the First World War. (Romaine 1989) But more commonly these tests were used by prejudiced researchers in order to test the abilities of immigrant populations. In the US, Henry Goddard (1917) went so far as to recommend to Congress that testing facilities be present at all ports of entry into the country in order to exclude "feebleminded aliens." Of particular interest to this dissertation, a famous case of the use of intelligence testing against bilingualism is Saer's (1923) study of Welsh and English in Wales. He studied 1,400 bilingual children in five rural and two urban areas, and claimed to have found a correlation between lower IQ and bilingualism. He also proposed that urban children in Wales were better able to resolve their emotional conflict between the use of Welsh and English at an earlier age than were rural children, who were handicapped by their dominance in Welsh, which he considered the inherently poorer language. This study, however, is problematic for its methodology and statistical analysis, as well as for its poorly drawn conclusions. The correlation Saer saw existed only in rural areas, and not among bilingual children in urban areas. The fact that the testing was done in English (an egregious bias)

disadvantaged the rural bilinguals for whom English was the weaker language. Similar results

were reported in another study comparing monolingual (Anglophone) and bilingual Welsh

children conducted by Smith (1923), and many of the same criticisms hold against that study as

well. Smith's reasoning seems almost circular, testing the English skills of the bilingual children

and then judging them to be weaker in that language than the monolingual children, without

taking into account the fact that their stronger language was Welsh.[1] It was no wonder they spoke

English less proficiently than their monolingual counterparts, but to extend that into a judgment

about intellect reveals nothing but the prejudices of the time.

Bilingualism research has come a long way since the days of these studies and their

biases. We now understand that it is more likely the natural state of the human mind to be in

command of more than one language, even to move fluidly between them in a single conversation

with fellow bi-, or multilinguals. (McCloskey 2001, 20-21) Speakers of multiple languages, in

fact, seem also to benefit from a cognitive flexibility that appears to be concomitant with the

bilingual mental system. The fallacy of the child's scarce mental resources has rightly given way

to discussions of dual language immersion in primary schools and early L2 exposure, and to the

recognition that very gifted language artists, indeed, may be bilingual.[2]

Once the belief that bilingualism is a handicap had been shed, even early studies into the

mental abilities of this population found that bilingualism proved to be an advantage on verbal as

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[1] These reports are reminiscent of the Reports of the Commissioners of Inquiry into the State of
Education in Wales (1848), commissioned by the British government and known in Wales as the
"Treachery of the Blue Books." The conclusions of the Commission equated the Welsh language
with ignorance, poverty, and low-status by calling it a barrier to the moral progress and
commercial prosperity of the Welsh people—because they were in ignorance of the world which
existed around them in English. The obvious logical gap in this assessment was the fact that the
language was first socially and economically oppressed by the English, which was the real cause
of those disadvantages rather than any intellectual hindrance of the language itself. (Jones 1993,
547)

[2] Examples include the English language author, though native Polish speaker, Joseph Conrad,
and the native Russian speaker Joseph Brodsky, who wrote in both English and Russian.

well as non-verbal IQ tests. The social climate of Peal and Lambert's (1962) seminal study was very different from the Welsh examples discussed above. In 1960s Canada, when the Official Languages Act of 1968-9 was on the horizon, the importance of bilingualism on the political scene was already obvious. The audience of their study was a population of concerned middle class parents who were still wary of the possible harm of bilingualism to the cognitive development of their children. (Romaine 1989, 103) These researchers were careful to administer the intelligence tests only to subjects whom they considered balanced bilinguals, and those subjects were found to perform better than their monolingual, age- and socio-economically matched, peers. The bilingual children performed particularly well on the subtests requiring mental manipulation and reorganization of visual patterns, which is not an area intuitively related to language. At the time, their conclusions were quite significant, culturally as well as academically.

> "Intellectually [the bilingual's experience] with two language systems seems to have left him with a mental flexibility, a superiority in concept formation, and a more diversified set of mental abilities, in the sense that the patterns of abilities developed by bilinguals were more heterogeneous. It is not possible to state from the present study whether the more intelligent child became bilingual or whether bilingualism aided his intellectual development, but there is no question about the fact that he is superior intellectually. In contrast, the monolingual appears to have a more unitary structure of intelligence, which he must use for all types of intellectual tasks." (Peal and Lambert 1962, 20)

Everything we have said about heritage speakers has been about their unique qualities, neither exactly a native speaker nor a second language learner. But it is also important not to overlook the fundamental similarity either—heritage speakers are a kind of bilingual also. Along with this characterization comes all the complications of using a term like "fluency," which is usually determined by a monolingual norm, in describing the dual language systems of our heritage speakers. The bilingual mind, and its organization of linguistic knowledge, has been shown to be different from the monolingual mind. The organizational properties used in keeping the languages distinct, while still understood to serve the same communicative purpose, if not

entirely synonymously, extend beyond the languages themselves. The language system is more than the sum of its parts, and with that come certain cognitive advantages. But the separation between the languages is not absolute, and some evidence of the occasional blurring of languages is observed even in the most proficient of balanced bilinguals. The difference between these bilinguals and our heritage speakers will only be seen after an examination of the uses and fluidity of the balanced bilingual's mixing as compared to the inadvertent interference evident in the heritage system (which will be detailed in Part II of this dissertation). The heritage speaker, then, may best be described as a point on a spectrum of bilingual competence in which the monolingual truly has no place. Rather, the balanced bilingual is the proper model of comparison, and the proficiency of the heritage speaker in her weaker language will determine her distance from that target. This chapter describes bilingual language systems in general, and the emergent qualities of two languages in contact in the mind, but also positions the heritage speaker as a true bilingual, with all the implications attached the term.

The Unitary Linguistic System Hypothesis claims that children acquiring two languages simultaneously are delayed in approaching age-level milestones in their respective languages. It supposes an initial monolingual stage during which the child confuses all aspects of the two languages, combining them into a single system. Two stages follow, one in which the child separates the lexicons but uses the same syntactic rules for both languages, and finally one in which the child may truly be called bilingual, having established two distinct syntactic systems as well. These stages are not passed until around three years into the acquisition process. (Volterra and Taeschner 1978) More recent work on these simultaneous bilinguals, however, has shown that even in the domain of morphosyntax the child acquires language specific representations and organizes them autonomously from the beginning of the acquisition process, even keeping pace with the normal language development of monolinguals. (Genesee and Nicoladis 2009) These

bilinguals should be considered to have developed two L1s, native speakers of both languages, from the very beginning.

Many of our Welsh heritage speakers were on their way to becoming proficient simultaneous bilinguals like these, but a dramatic shift toward the dominant use of one of their languages led to the heritage system's divergence from a native-like language outcome. Many others acquired their languages sequentially, their first being the heritage language (HL), Welsh, and only later the second and dominant language, English. In both cases, Welsh acquisition was begun in infancy and should have been advantaged by any particular language learning aptitude possessed by the young mind, if such exists, though to varying degrees would the early language system be called "bilingual." In either case, by the time English has become the dominant language and Welsh the lesser used HL, the language system is undeniably bilingual, and an understanding of bilingualism should aid us in describing the heritage speaker as well.

One domain in which the bilingual mind shows a particular talent is metalinguistic awareness. De Houwer et al. (2006) reports that simultaneous bilingual children develop a comprehension of translation equivalents in their two languages early on, understanding that there can be two words for a single real-word item in the same way that adult bilinguals do. Similarly, an awareness of the arbitrary nature of linguistic labels is observed in Foursha-Stevenson and Nicoladis (2011). There, the researchers compared bilingual and monolingual pre-school age children in their metalinguistic awareness through the use of a grammaticality judgment test.[3] Overall, the bilingual children scored higher than the monolingual children in accepting the

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[3] The onset of an ability to judge well-formed sentences and reject ungrammatical ones emerges around age four, and continues to develop until age seven and beyond. The Grammaticality Judgment test (GJT) is used by linguists with subjects of all ages in order to test the linguistic competence of lower proficiency speakers, determine the acceptability of certain linguistic structures in native grammar, etc. It usually consists of a list of possible sentences which the participant rates in terms of how grammatically acceptable she finds them. (Foursha-Stevenson and Nicoladis 2009)

grammaticality of adjective to noun ordering, the obligatoriness of a determiner (e.g. definite article), and object pronoun placement. These results show that bilingual children develop a better syntactic awareness earlier than monolingual children, and therefore grasp that language is a formal system from a young age. The implications of a small child understanding that something is a system, that there are such things as "systems" in which to organize information, could be huge. It is in this abstract formalism of language, not in the languages themselves, that the researcher must find an explanation for any extension of cognitive facility that the bilingual exhibits in non-linguistic domains.

Ianco-Worrall (1972) similarly reports on the ability of bilingual children to recognize earlier than their monolingual peers that language is an abstract system, distinct from the tangible world which it is meant to describe. Afrikaans/English bilingual children in South Africa aged between 4 and 9 were asked to suppose they were making up names for things. Could they call a cow a dog and a dog a cow? Most bilingual children answered "yes" while only a minority of the monolingual children allowed it. Ianco-Worrall concludes that the arbitrary connection of a word in a particular language to its real-world object becomes apparent to bilingual children earlier than it does to monolingual children because of their regular use of two words for the same object. The obvious value of this skill is in its application to learning even more languages. The very nature of being bilingual facilitates multilingualism, which is, of course, a highly valuable extension of this bilingual cognitive state. Children exposed to more than one language from a young age would have less difficulty in acquiring a third, at any age, than their monolingual peers. (cf. Klein 1995)

Bilingual cognition has also been found to surpass the abilities of monolinguals in areas that do not necessarily have anything to do with language itself. So-called "mapping insights" may derive from a lifetime spent navigating two ways to say the same thing. Bialystok et al. (2005) reports on the results of several studies testing the ability of both monolinguals and

bilinguals of many ages to control attention in order to inhibit misleading information. Participants were asked to ignore the position of a stimulus in order to report its color, i.e ignore the misleading placement and only pay attention to the question at hand—the Simon task. The bilinguals performed better than the monolinguals in early childhood, adulthood and later adulthood, being evenly matched only during young adulthood when, it is supposed, the mind is at its peak efficiency anyway. The researchers suggest that bilingualism provides not only better cognitive control over attention in childhood but also provides a defense against the normal decay of this control which comes with aging. This is a process largely reliant on the inhibitory mechanism discussed in Chapter 3, by which problem solving involves mentally blocking the activation of irrelevant details while simultaneously enabling intentional focus. The extensive regular practice of the bilingual mind in alternately activating and inhibiting its two language systems in the face of semantic or situational overlap may contribute to a more efficient level of control over these processes. This enhanced control is, itself, then part of the bilingual toolbox, to be applied across all domains of cognitive processing rather than being limited to the linguistic faculty alone.

The implications of this enhanced inhibitory control in relation to age-related cognitive decay has been the particular focus of much research. Craik et al. (2010) reports on 211 patients who had been diagnosed with Alzheimer disease. Of those, 109 were classified as monolingual and 102 as bilingual. Even though these two groups were equivalent on measures of cognitive and occupational level, with no gender or immigration status effect, and though the monolinguals reported more formal education, it was the bilinguals who reported the onset of Alzheimer symptoms an average of 5.1 years later than their monolingual peers. They were also diagnosed with the disease an average of 4.3 years later than the monolingual group. The investigators believe that this supports their claim that lifelong bilingualism confers a sort of protection against the onset of the disease. This effect appears not to be attributable to the other factors of education,

occupational status, and immigration which were also reported in the study. Bilingualism itself is acting in some way as a cognitive reinforcement, compensating, at least for a time, for the effects of accumulated neuropathology associated with Alzheimer disease. An earlier study by these researchers found that age-related dementia not associated with Alzheimer disease was also affected by bilingualism in a similar way, i.e., delayed by four years on average. (Bialystok et al., 2007) These are significant findings indeed. The Alzheimer study does not claim that bilingualism delays the build-up of plaques in the brain that are associated with the disease, rather that the symptoms are offset by the unusual abilities of the bilingual mind—but even this delay in the onset of symptoms is remarkable. It is evidence that this particular cognitive exercise, the processing of two languages in alternation, can have a positive health effect on the brain in a similar way as lifelong physical exercise on the rest of the body.

The positive effects of bilingualism are not exclusively related to aging, however. Creative, also called "divergent," thinking is described by certain characteristics—fluency and flexibility, or the abilities to rapidly produce and consider a large number of solutions to a problem simultaneously and to readily modify information as needed, as well as a talent for producing original ideas and elaborating the details of those ideas in order to carry them out (Guilford 1967, 138). Such "divergent thinking" may also be an emergent property of bilingualism related to the cognitive control discussed above. These qualities of thinking were observed in Kkarkhurin's (2010) study which compared monolingual and bilingual verbal and non-verbal creative behavior. The study focused on the fact that any creative advantage from bilingualism seemed not to extend to the verbal domain, but the subjects were primarily late L2 (English) learners being tested in that language rather than the L1 (Russian). A weaker command of verbal skills in a later learned language seems hardly worth arguing. But for our purposes, we need only note that the observations about non-verbal creativity, a domain not inherently related to language, showed a bilingual advantage. The subjects were given the Abbreviated Torrance

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Test for Adults (ATTA), with three types of divergent thinking prompts—suppose you can walk or fly on air without a plane, what sort of troubles would you encounter? (the verbal divergent thinking test); complete as many pictures as possible with the given incomplete figures, and draw as many pictures as possible with nine given triangles arranged in a three-by-three matrix (the two non-verbal divergent thinking tests). The bilinguals performed significantly better than the monolingual controls on the two non-verbal creativity tasks.

> "This advantage of bilinguals may arise from routine ambiguity inherent to their multilingual practice, in which the same basic idea may have different nuances in different languages... This tolerance for ambiguity in turn may facilitate their ability to keep a pool of possible solutions open long enough to generate a creative idea." (Kharkhurin 2010, 220)

We see that creative thinking, as well as its correlate, intentional control, can be considered part of the bilingual advantage. Here we have evidence that sequential, even late bilinguals do possess the cognitive advantages that correlate with bilingualism. There is no reason to believe, therefore, that those benefits will be restricted to simultaneous bilingual heritage speakers either. The sequential versus simultaneous bilingualism distinction is not considered a necessary qualification for our heritage speakers for these cognitive advantages, nor should the age of language shift or emergence of English as the dominant language determine the extent to which the heritage system is a bilingual system, benefitting from all of these advantages. The heritage speaker, being an imbalanced bilingual like the Russian/English bilinguals of the Kharkhurin study, is not excluded from the potential cognitive advantages discussed above. Even those heritage speakers who use their weaker language far less frequently than their dominant language will be exercising the cognitive control attributed with these positive effects when they *do* use their HL. There may be some threshold of use which is the minimum quantity of bilingual language activation which is necessary to maintain these cognitive benefits, but that level has not yet been established. My working assumption, therefore, will be that the heritage speaker who

maintains some level of functional proficiency in the HL will also be considered to benefit from the cognitive advantages of bilingualism.

Hakuta (1987) found that there are bilingualism effects on cognitive abilities related to spatial reasoning which are particularly pronounced in younger children. Using tasks drawn from Raven's Progressive Matrices[4] and Thurstone's Primary Mental Abilities[5] (essentially IQ-testing), Hakuta designed a longitudinal study of Puerto Rican children in bilingual education programs in New Haven, Connecticut. The children were in transitional stages of bilingualism, as so-called "bilingual" educational programs in the United States are generally designed to transition the students from monolingualism in the home language to a fluency level in English which is sufficient to transfer them to monolingual English mainstream classrooms. This subtractive bilingualism, in which the development of a second language comes (intentionally) at the cost of the first, surely has implications for the study's findings, but Hakuta accounted for these by testing proficiency in both Spanish and English. Those measures were then used as independent variables which could affect the cognitive abilities he was testing. The interesting results came during the subjects' kindergarten to first grade years, when degree of bilingualism positively correlated with performance on the tests of non-verbal measures of "intelligence"—the more balanced the bilingualism, the better the spatial reasoning. In a similar study using so-called intelligence measuring tests, Ben-Zeev (1977) attributed such a skill-set to the strategy required of bilinguals in distinguishing their two languages. The most direct way to do this is to pay attention to the systematic aspects of language, a skill which would transfer to other tasks of

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[4] Raven's Progressive matrices is a nonverbal group test, intending to test the subject's reasoning ability, in which the subject is presented with sixty multiple choice questions and asked to identify the missing element that completes a pattern (often in the form of a 4x4, 3x3, or 2x2 matrix, hence the name). (Raven 1936)

[5] Thurstone defined "Primary Mental Abilities" as verbal comprehension, word fluency, number facility, spatial, visualization, associative memory, perceptual speed, and reasoning. He also developed the method of measurement still used in IQ testing today. (Thurstone 1938)

system recognition, such as spatial reasoning, in which structure is sought in perceptual situations and reorganization of those perceptions is necessary. The correlation in the Hakuta study between *balance* in the bilingual system and greater spatial reasoning does weaken the argument that heritage speakers will experience this spatial reasoning advantage, but knowledge of such a benefit could go a long way toward encouraging our heritage speakers to (re)develop their weaker language. This is part of the set of practical implications for language maintenance which follow from this project on Welsh as a HL and which will be further addressed in the Conclusions of this dissertation.

A quick, though important, note is necessary here. I caution against reading these studies as true tests of intelligence. The validity of these measures as values of actual "intelligence", a tricky concept to define in itself, has been a question of serious debate for several years. Many researchers now believe that intelligence testing itself may be biased for racial or socioeconomic background and cannot be taken as the impartial indicator it was initially believed to be. (cf. Nisbett 2009) The above discussed studies of bilingual cognitive abilities do not make claims about intelligence or IQ scores themselves. Rather, the researchers are using IQ-testing methods to measure the actual skill sets tested by those tasks—spatial reasoning, pattern recognition, and so on—without then taking the next step of interpreting those measures as intelligence itself. I do not want to imply that research shows bilinguals to be "smarter" than their monolingual peers. We can, however, observe a significant difference in performance *on these tasks* which is representative of some underlying divergence in thinking between these two populations, mono- and bilinguals.

It would be disingenuous, however, to suggest that bilingual acquisition proceeds exactly as monolingual development does except for the added bonus of some extra cognitive abilities. The cost of developing two language systems simultaneously may be small but it does exist. Ben-Zeev (1977) and Hakuta (1987) both found that vocabulary development in bilingual children

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was surpassed by their monolingual peers. A similar delay was observed in the acquisition of Spanish gender in Gathercole (2002). The significance of reduced exposure to each language, however, must not be overlooked. Thordardottir's (2011) study examining French-English bilingual acquisition in Montreal shows that vocabulary development in each of a bilingual child's two languages is closely connected to the amount of exposure the child has had to each language. Though she found that vocabulary comprehension was greater than vocabulary production, there was a clear connection between the amount of exposure to a language and vocabulary performance in that language. This is a fairly intuitive result of situations in which the total amount of language exposure must be shared between the child's two languages. It is also interesting, however, than these observations of delayed development tend to be limited to the lexicon, rather than the syntax. As was discussed in Chapter 3, "input" and "exposure" are loaded terms related to the importance of frequency effects, and that is not a topic about which there is a consensus among linguists. I am unaware of any studies to date which observe a specifically morphosyntactic delay in bilingual language acquisition. Even Schwartz et al.'s (2009) study of delayed inflectional morphology in Russian-Hebrew bilinguals was limited to irregular forms, arguably a lexical rather than inflectional phenomenon. The disadvantages of dual language acquisition in childhood, therefore, can be said to be restricted to lexical development and are far outweighed by the positive effects conferred by the bilingual cognitive system.

If a cognitive advantage can be found to correlate with bilingualism in domains which do not relate to language processing itself, then the question is: where does this ability come from? Kharkhurin (2010) and Ben-Zeev (1977) have been discussed above, but an accounting for the mental flexibility that is correlated with bilingualism has been attempted by many linguists in the past few decades. The metalinguistic advantage is the most straightforward—knowledge about language as an abstract system can come more quickly to those children who are regularly disentangling their two languages from each other, and in the process separating both from their

real-world representations (as seen in De Houwer et al. (2006) and Foursha-Stevenson (2011)). The bilingual is more likely to understand the arbitrariness of word-to-meaning assignment than a monolingual, who would have experienced the same kind of label sorting only when faced with synonyms.

The other cognitive advantages of bilingualism are more difficult to account for. Cook (1992) attributes this bilingual effect to what he calls "multicompetence", or the compound state of a mind with two grammars. The combination of two grammars amounts to more than just the equivalent of two monolingual systems side by side. Rather, the two grammars combine into a sort of mega-grammar, still sortable by markers so as to prevent constant interference, but not completely immune to transfer from one language to the other. Uncertainty remains about the location of second language storage in the brain, but if we follow Chee et al. (1999) and assume that the same areas of the brain are activated for L1 and L2 processing in balanced bilinguals, then Cook's theory, arguably, has a physical reality as well. The "multicompetence" theory relies on evidence of bilinguals mixing their two languages. Recall the Hebrew-English bilinguals of Seliger's (1989) study which was discussed in Chapter 3. His "Redundancy Reduction Principle" assumes that there is some amount of communication from the L2 to the L1, and presumably vice versa, pressuring the English L1 to adopt the simpler relative clause syntax of the Hebrew L2— i.e., using only '*that*' as a relative marker and losing the range of relative pronouns that would be used in any other English relative construction. The multicompetence of this speaker, then, contains a different knowledge of English than the system of a monolingual. The two languages are presumably interacting, even communicating changes and compromises between the available linguistic options allowable in each language. Phonology, likewise, has been shown to exhibit L2 on L1 effects as a result of this "multicompetent" linguistic system. Flege (1987) observed that

French learners of English have longer voice-onset time[6] when pronouncing French voiceless /t/ than do monolinguals of French. This effect is attributed to English voicing, which has affected both languages rather than remaining restricted to the bilingual's English domain.

The simple model of coordinate bilingualism, in which the bilingual mind is effectively two monolinguals in one, is too tidy to account for the blending which is repeatedly observed in bilingual speech. Interference from one language to another is a thoroughly documented effect. Pavlenko (2004) outlines five processes which can occur as a result of the interaction between two languages—borrowing, restructuring, convergence, shift, and attrition. Importantly, these distinctions mean that not all influences of the L2 on the L1 are signs of attrition. Interference is usually seen as a negative effect, as the slow and steady damage caused by a dominant language to the lesser used language. But it is important not to lose sight of the linguistic enrichment that can come from being bilingual. The borrowing and restructuring of one language under the influence of another can add a level of nuance to the communicative capacity of its speaker, especially in the company of other speakers with similar linguistic profiles. Seliger's (1989) Hebrew-English bilingual is a clear example of an L1 losing out to the L2, but steady-state balanced bilinguals will show evidence of interference as well, without it needing to be considered a threat to either system. Code-switching, lexical borrowings and semantic extensions are examples of this kind of language blending which need not necessarily be considered a sign of damage to either language system.

Crosslinguistic influence like this, however, is a controversial topic in itself. If multiple languages were constantly intruding on each other in the bilingual mind, then the ability to produce utterances exclusively in one language or the other would be an accomplishment indeed.

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[6] Voice-onset time (VOT) refers to the amount of time that passes between the release of a stop consonant and the initiation of voicing, or the vibration of the vocal folds. This may include voicing that begins during the period of closure for that consonant, i.e., before the stop is released.

The mental energy required to sort the linguistic information of two languages every time the speaker forms an utterance surely must be alleviated by some method of storage with cultural or situation specific tags. Evidence of this tagging method can be seen in the study of Chinese-English bilinguals and cultural priming which was discussed in Chapter 3 above. (Zhang et al. 2013) Intentional language mixing in the right context is also a well-known phenomenon, however. Code-switching, when a bilingual speaker smoothly transitions from one to another language and back, mid-utterance, in order to produce a nuanced meaning conveyed only through one of her languages, has been repeatedly shown to be intentional and controlled. (Tracy and Lattey 2009) It is not the product of a jumble of languages spitting out confusion rather than sentences. Cook (1992), though, sees this acceptable linguistic option, the code-switch, as evidence that the two languages are intimately connected in the brain rather than compartmentalized. Clearly, the evidence could be argued either way—code-switching shows a compartmentalization where language is only intentionally accessed, or it represents the product of a single system, where all linguistic information is available in any utterance. At any rate, the speaker does *know*, metalinguistically, which grammar and which vocabulary belong to each of her respective languages, and the fine control that a balanced bilingual exhibits in switching between the two is evidence enough that bilingualism involves keeping the languages apart. Indeed, it seems to be the defining characteristic of bilingualism. The level of control over those two linguistic systems is a way of defining proficiency in those languages. Imbalanced bilinguals who exhibit interference from one language to another are not evidence of a blurring of the two languages, but rather of the weakness of one grammar using the other as a crutch.

Crediting bilingualism with the ability to distinguish multiple grammars rather than blend them into a mega-grammar is fundamental to explaining the cognitive advantages correlated with bilingualism. If those advantages are caused by an efficient method of recognition and navigation, then the bilingual must in fact recognize her languages as distinct systems rather than as the

single compound grammar of Cook's "multicompetence." A fair prediction would be that just as the degree of balance in the bilingual system correlated positively with spatial reasoning skills in Hakuta (1987), so should it correlate negatively with vulnerability to crosslinguistic influence. Control over the systematicity of language form emerges again as the important variable. But without a better understanding of the actual neurological processes involved, and therefore constrained by the necessity of metaphorical, inevitably unsatisfying description, it is best just to recognize that it is empirically true that each of a bilingual's languages is often observed to be slightly off the baseline by one measurement or another. Transfer from a dominant to a weaker language, intentional code-switching, and added shades of nuance to the lexicon of both languages are all examples of this divergence from the monolingual norm.

The characteristics of the bilingual language system—its conferred non-linguistic cognitive advantages as well as its organization of the languages themselves—should be exhibited by the heritage speakers as well. Again, recognizing that the heritage speaker is a type of bilingual, the level of proficiency the speaker controls in the HL will determine the extent to which her speech shows signs of Pavlenko's five processes of language interaction. We can also predict, therefore, that the non-linguistic cognitive advantages experienced by other types of bilinguals will also be experienced by heritage speakers to a degree determined by their proficiency in the HL. Being the weaker of a bilingual's languages, the HL is in many ways more interesting to the researcher than the speaker's proficiency in the stronger, dominant language. Not only will it reveal the patterns of language that the human mind defaults to in the absence of sufficient language-specific input, but it will also be the factor deciding the shape of the entire language system.

The term for a second language (L2) learner's grammar in L2 acquisition research is the "interlanguage." (White 2003b, 1) The theory supposes that any divergence from native speaker proficiency in an L2 grammar is not random. The language produced by a learner is still a

possible language, if not exactly correct according to the native speaker baseline. The system is still rule-based, it is consistent, and it follows the same patterns as those observed across world languages, supporting the idea of Universal Grammar.[7] White (2003a) offers an example of a fossilized[8] L2 interlanguage grammar. Even fluent L2 speakers of a language show some signs of non-native-like performance. The interlanguage is this grammar, i.e., not entirely free from influence from the L1 (or other acquired languages), and also probably falling short of native competence. The speaker may have plateau-ed in his learning, or reached a level of proficiency sufficient to communicate as well as he needs or wants to, but short of full native proficiency norms. The term is not restricted to transitional states of grammar, but can be applied to a steady end-state. An example of stable optionality of this kind is White's (2003a) case study of a Turkish first language speaker who had acquired English as her L2. The speaker's inconsistency in producing accurate forms of inflectional agreement in English is described as a quality of the interlanguage that sets it apart from native norms but does not reduce the system to incomprehensibility.

Interlanguage is analogous to the grammatical phenomena observed in heritage grammars as well. The heritage grammar also falls short of native speaker norms, but is rule-governed and systematic in the same way a fossilized L2 grammar is. Recall the description of HL in Chapter 1. The heritage grammar should also, like interlanguage, be characterized as a possible real-world

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[7] Universal Grammar (UG) refers to a "genetically prespecified body of knowledge about human language," hard-wired into the brain and independent from the actual linguistic exposure perceived in the environment. "If a fact about an individual speaker's grammar turns out to be a fact about grammars of all the world's languages, if it is demonstrably not a fact acquired in imitation of input data, and if it appears to be specific to language, then we are warranted to suspect that the fact arose from a specific feature of UG." (Pesetsky 2009; cf. Chomsky 1965; Chomsky 1966)

[8] "Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL [native language] will tend to keep in the IL [interlanguage] relative to a particular TL [target language], no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL." (Selinker 1972, 215)

language, if one that is divergent from the target baseline language. The Spanish L1 speakers

living in the L2 (English) environment of Los Angeles, California, in Silva-Corvalán's (1991)

study exhibit this rule-governed behavior in their weaker, heritage L1. Silva-Corvalán proposes

that a reduction of the verb system in these Spanish grammars, the loss of tense forms, is a result

of a process of simplification, in which the universally more marked, language-specific system

would be avoided in favor of the cognitively lighter load of a more basic, yet still principled

system.

> "What is remarkable about the manner in which the system changes is its regularity.
> Patterns of simplification and loss are never random but at all stages conform to a
> predictable trend to develop a least grammaticalized system within the constraints of
> universal grammar possibilities and preferences." (Silva-Corvalán 1991, 163)

The theoretical explanation for the restriction of possible grammars to rule-governed

systems, even in the interlanguage of beginning learners, relies on the supposition that the speaker

has access to Universal Grammar (UG), or the innate human faculty for constructing language

from an input which seems insufficient to induce all possible utterances. Borer (1996) points out

that UG is "first and foremost a set of constraints on possible language grammars, and only

secondarily, and not according to all models, a language acquisition device." (Borer 1996, 719)

The debate about whether learners of a second language have access to this UG in the same way

that a child acquiring her first language does continues, but, as the HL is the L1, few would argue

that that system would not have been shaped by access to UG. Consequently we avoid the

controversy and conveniently have a means of accounting for our observations that HL is, indeed,

a logical system rather than random and unordered speech. If we see that the heritage grammar

follows these universal constraints and abides by a logical system of linguistic form, even if it is

novel and unique, then the advances made in L2 research toward recognizing the interlanguage

(at any stage) as a natural language can be borrowed in understanding HL as natural language as

well. The proficiency of the heritage speaker and that of the late L2 learner have also been found

to resemble each other, (Montrul 2005) perhaps precisely because of the universal nature of linguistic formulation upon which both kinds of these atypical speakers are relying in order to produce coherent, if non-native, utterances.

The qualities of the heritage or L2 grammar which distinguish it from the baseline, while decidedly rule-based, may or may not be dictated by the other language. "Transfer" or "interference" are the terms used in explaining the phenomenon of finding a linguistic structure from one of a bilingual's languages active in the other, and in the case of Welsh, for example, English is very often blamed for the abnormalities observed in the grammar of a speaker for whom it is the weaker language (more on this in Part II of this dissertation). But this simple intuition ignores the sophistication of the language faculty. In some cases, the speaker's other language can be blamed fairly for divergence from the baseline, but in others, it is the speaker's own innovation and her recourse to UG which must be the explanation. The best subjects to use in testing crosslinguistic transfer, given the predictions outlined above, are balanced bilinguals. Even speakers who are nearly equally proficient in their two languages have been argued to exhibit signs of linguistic transfer. We have decided that the ability to control two languages in the same mind is the defining characteristic of bilingualism, but the "deactivated" language is not always completely shut out of use. A speaker may code-switch intentionally, but they may also use a sort of hybrid utterance accidentally, such as the interference evidenced by semantic extension discussed above. The bilingual system, even if it exists in a balanced steady-state, is therefore not immune to crossover between the two (or more) languages.

If Pavlenko's (2004) same five phenomena of language contact are observed across all bilinguals, though to greater or lesser extents, then the clean distinctions implied by much of the literature on L2 learners and native speakers, monolinguals and bilinguals, is clearly inadequate to describe these populations. A more fluid and integrated model of all kinds of multilingualism must be imagined. Herdina and Jessner (2002) offers a dynamic model of multilingualism which

accounts for the phenomena of transfer and attrition as effects which follow from the constantly shifting system of bilingualism. The continual processes of language loss and maintenance are central to their theory. The "dynamic system" they employ is theoretically based on analogy to other models of living organisms as dynamic systems, or a set of variables that mutually affect each others' changes over time. (Herdina and Jessner 2002, 77-8) Consequently, the manipulation of a single parameter in this systems-theoretic model can have an effect on the state of the system as a whole, and so also on the state of other individual parameters in the system. Applying this model to the bilingual mind imagines not only the speaker's languages as components of a holistic system, but each individual linguistic construction or vocabulary item as an independent actor in the model. Alterations to grammatical structures, higher or lower activation frequencies of those structures, or additions of new grammatical options would therefore be able to influence the other language.

Clearly, this dynamic model presupposes a single, interconnected language system in the mind. The idea of a constantly adapting grammar is an appealing one, and one which seems intuitively accurate, but the combination of multiple languages into a single system is, as we have seen, controversial. The dynamic model as it stands may over-generate crosslinguistic transfer where the evidence describes a more isolated phenomenon, nor does the linguistic system need to be considered holistically—the various sub-modules may be more or less affected by language transfer. Syntax is arguably internal to the mind and to the linguistic faculty, but pragmatics is connected very intimately with the cultural knowledge of the speaker, and as such may be more vulnerable to divergence from native norms in cases where the speaker is less familiar with the weaker language's community. Influence of the dominant language over the weaker one seems particularly pronounced in the pragmatic domain. Pinto and Rachio (2007) explores request formation in Spanish among heritage speakers who are dominant in English. The downgrading, or

use of circumlocution, which is considered polite in English requests has found its way into the bilinguals' Spanish, despite that language's preference for more direct question formation.

The influence of a dominant over a weaker language is not always found to be the culprit in language simplification, however. In a L2 context, Kanno et al. (2008) found L1 English to be less active in forming L2 Japanese grammar than has often been assumed. In a bilingual acquisition context, Austin (2009) explores factors related to bilingual exposure, rather than to bilingualism itself or cross-linguistic interference, as causes of speaker divergences. Bilingual children acquiring Basque and Spanish natively produce more root infinitives than monolingual Basque children, but this discrepancy is attributed to the different patterns of exposure to Basque that these two groups receive, not to any interference from Spanish. The question of language simplification may reduce to the distinction between language-internal abilities and language-external awareness, and so we arrive back at the theory of interface vulnerabilities discussed in Chapter 3. The interface between syntax and pragmatics is affected by the limited cultural experience of the heritage speaker, and consequently the syntax appears stunted as well.

I have tried to be clear when reviewing studies whether they are looking only at balanced bilinguals or also at unbalanced bilinguals, because it is a distinction which can have enormous implications. The connection between the cognitive advantages of bilingualism and a certain balance between the speaker's languages has already been discussed, but what, then, does the term "bilingual" necessarily imply? Can we successfully fit the heritage speaker into this mold and consequently also expect her languages to be mentally organized in the same way? The bilingual does not conform to a single model. Indeed, there is arguably no such thing as a "balanced bilingual" at all. Silva-Corvalán (1991) describes instead a continuum of fluencies in her study of L2 English spoken by native Spanish speakers in Los Angeles.

> We should imagine a bilingual continuum "similar to a creole continuum in that one may
> identify a series of lects ranging from full-fledge to emblematic English depending on

whether the bilingual is more or less dominant in Spanish or English. Even further, these individual lects do not correspond to fixed dichotomies of the type "compound-coordinate", or "balanced-unbalanced." Rather, at the individual level they represent a wide range of dynamic levels of proficiency in the subordinate language, i.e., it is in principle possible for an individual to move or be moving toward one or the other end of the continuum at any given synchronic stage of his life." (Silva-Corvalán 1991, 151)

This is the model to represent bilingualism in all situations, and arguably for both languages—always in flux. Given the similar discussion of the heritage speaker continuum in Chapter 1 (in particular Valdes 2001), it seems fairly clear that heritage speakers are indeed as accurately described as bilinguals as are more balanced bilingual speakers or speakers whose L1 is their stronger language. The heritage speaker, with his dominant language being the later acquired of the two, may intuitively seem to be a different phenomenon, but the very diversity of abilities on this bilingual continuum make it possible to compare speakers across the entire range of proficiencies and levels of proficiency balance.

I have frequently been asked about the difficulty of doing HL research with a language like Welsh, where the entire population of speakers is bilingual and no one can serve as a truly monolingual control group, but this is in fact the ideal comparison for the heritage speaker. Grosjean (2008; 2010) has argued at length against the monolingual as the ideal model for comparison against L2 learners. It is for the same reason that the monolingual should not be the exemplar for heritage speakers either. The ideal end-state for heritage speaker bilinguals is a mind controlling two language systems with equal proficiency, with all the cognitive benefits which have been shown to follow from that state. In a way, every individual in the population of Welsh speakers, no matter how fluent, falls somewhere on the same spectrum of bilingual proficiency outlined above. For many, their English proficiency may far surpass their Welsh proficiency, but they are bilinguals nonetheless. In fact, most will fall below a perfect balance between Welsh and English, and are more likely to be imbalanced in favor of English. But the range of proficiency on this bilingual continuum is broad enough to accommodate both the heritage speakers as well as

those who will be used as the controls in this study—nearly balanced or Welsh-dominant speakers. By acknowledging that heritage speakers are true bilinguals, the first step is taken toward integrating this population of Welsh speakers into the language community.

My intention in describing Welsh as a HL in this dissertation is not simply to point out the ways in which the HL grammar falls short of native norms, harking back to previous terminology for these speakers as "semi-speakers," "non-traditional speakers," or other such negative and exclusionary labels. This chapter is intended to also point out the practical gains experienced by these true bilinguals, the heritage speakers, despite their history of language shift. There is a positive side to their story as well, including potential cognitive advantages like improved spatial reasoning, metalinguistic awareness, delayed onset of dementia, and so on, which is part of the current description of the bilingual mind. This is an alternative and favorable characterization which these heritage Welsh speakers might choose to identify with, as opposed to any definitions of their language abilities which primarily imply some level of deficiency in their grammar. The "heritage" component of this research field is brought to the fore here, in which the intimate connection between the HL and the speaker's personal history is recognized as something which must be respected rather than criticized. Accommodating the heritage speaker on the bilingual continuum is perhaps the most important theoretical step which can be taken in accomplishing that goal.

Part II. Analysis of Heritage Welsh Narrative Samples

Introduction to the fieldwork

One of the primary objectives of this dissertation project has been to build a corpus of heritage Welsh, a previously unrecorded form of the language. (Appendix II.1; Boon 2014) The collection and analysis of language corpora is an essential early step in the study of any language. The researcher must be able to mine a large body of data in order to pinpoint any noteworthy phenomena. Only after finding an interesting pattern in a language corpus will further and more targeted studies be designed. The corpus of heritage Welsh is not an end in itself, nor do the observations of heritage Welsh described in this dissertation fulfill its only purpose. Rather, this project serves only as a first step.

Naturally, corpus building is a laborious endeavor. Once the form that the language samples will take has been decided, the informants must be recruited and recorded, and these interviews later transcribed, glossed, and translated. The heritage Welsh corpus is a collection of 20 heritage speakers (and 20 fully proficient native controls) narrating the story presented to them through the pages of a children's picture book—Mercer Mayer's *Frog, Where Are You?* (Mayer 1969) Though there is an English title on the cover, the 29 pages of the book are wordless, making it an ideal text for this purpose. The *Frog* story follows the adventures and mishaps of a boy and his dog as they wander in the woods in search of their missing pet frog. The *Frog story* is a standard text in research of this sort. (cf. Berman and Slobin 1994; Knightly et al. 2003; Montanari 2004; Polinsky 2008a; Polinsky 2008b; Polinsky 2011; Treffers-Daller 2010; Ueno and Polinsky 2009)

The requirements of the narrative are not particularly taxing. It is essentially a task of describing the pictures on the page, in which the heritage speaker is able to choose her own

grammatical constructions and vocabulary, avoiding the forms she is least comfortable with. For

adults, the storybook may seem silly, which also serves to ease any anxiety about a perceived test

environment. The heritage language's association with specifically childhood language

experience, however, may also be cued by the nature of the task, and such a cueing effect may

actually facilitate access to Welsh, as was discussed in Chapter 3. At the very least, it can be

hoped that the awkwardness or unfamiliarity of speaking with a foreign researcher might be

mitigated by the lightness of the story. The only aspect of the narrative task which directly

challenges the proficiency of the heritage speaker informant is in the necessary vocabulary.

Specific lexical items are prompted by the story, and the speaker's ability to produce them is one

of the components of fluency particularly discussed in Chapter 5.

Heritage speaker participants were recruited exclusively in the London area. In restricting

the sample population to these expatriates, I was able to limit the potentially muddying factor of

continued ambient exposure to the Welsh language in Wales, e.g., bilingual signs, translations on

official forms, radio or television media, Welsh language newspapers, overheard Welsh-language

conversations, and so on. The amount of exposure to the Welsh language in London is a far more

easily measured variable, and one which the informants were able to provide with some degree of

certainty. This measure of exposure becomes particularly important in Chapter 5 in the discussion

of its possible effect on the components of fluency under analysis. Had I not been able to

precisely determine the quantity of that exposure to Welsh, it would not have been possible to

analyze its effect on this feature of heritage Welsh—but that is not to say that the exposure

variable is not important in Wales as well. Heritage speakers certainly exist in Wales, but their

individual language exposure profiles are undoubtedly more complicated than those of heritage

speakers who live in England. The quantity of their regular exposure to the language is, of course,

just as significant as it is for the heritage Welsh speakers under analysis here, but it may exist in

far subtler forms than what I am prepared to investigate in this project.

I recruited these London-based heritage speaker participants through word-of-mouth and strategically distributed flyers. A common characteristic possessed of all the heritage Welsh informants who participated in this project was their own self-identification as Welsh heritage speakers (once the term was explained to them) and, perhaps just as importantly, as culturally Welsh. I conducted the fieldwork while in residence in London during the 2012-2013 academic year, during which I based my contact with the Welsh community there at the London Welsh Centre.[1] The flyers that I distributed were also targeted at the Welsh living in London who maintain some tie to the Welsh culture. The majority were left at the few churches and chapels in London which still conduct bilingual services in English and Welsh. The fact that the speakers who volunteered for the interviews do maintain a personal connection and self-identification with Welsh (and often Welsh-language) culture, does not necessarily have any implications for the linguistic study here, but it does tie in with the discussion of the heritage speaker profile in Chapter 1. Self-identification and a perceived personal connection to the heritage language are often components of the heritage speaker profile, but there are no direct linguistic consequences of this beyond those indirectly affected by a speaker's motivation to maintain the heritage language.

The heritage Welsh speakers were recruited under a specific profile. The breadth of the terms "heritage speaker" and "heritage language" was explored in Chapter 1, but the specific focus of this project is the real grammatical consequence of reduced exposure to an otherwise naturally acquired language in childhood. That eliminates those who are heritage speakers only broadly defined. Chapter 3 investigated the differences between incomplete L1 acquisition and

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[1] "The London Welsh Centre Trust is a charitable organization whose objective is to promote Welsh culture and language in London. Our home is the London Welsh Centre, a beautiful building in the Holborn conservation area on Gray's Inn Road which is run by our dedicated staff and volunteers." (Cymry Llundain/London Welsh 2014)

L1 attrition, finding that the distinction is perhaps unknowable in the heritage language context, but there is likely a differentiating effect determined by the age of language shift. Age of shift is, therefore, one of the variables investigated in Chapter 5. Consequently, the heritage speakers were recruited with a range of childhood language experience. The sample group was restricted to speakers who acquired the Welsh language at home, but it may have been either as the L1 which was only later restricted due to the emergent dominance of the L2, or as one of 2 native or first languages which were acquired simultaneously.

The issue of dialect is also worth a note here. Standard Welsh, as was discussed in Chapter 1, does have dialect variation, most generally speaking along a North Wales-South Wales boundary, but distinct dialects are also recognized on a smaller regional scale. Therefore, the dialect of the heritage speakers must be taken into account in establishing their baseline language. The heritage speaker samples, however, were found to exhibit very little differentiation by dialect beyond slight vocabulary differences. Dialect-specific grammatical forms were observed in the narratives provided by the controls, but when using the analytical present tense sentence construction, the differences between the dialects are largely lost. As this was (by far) the most common construction employed by the heritage speakers (see Chapter 7), any potential for dialect specification in their samples was obscured. I will note, however, that there may also be a leveling effect of London itself. Those heritage speakers who do maintain their heritage language with some amount of regular conversational practice in their London-based social community will undoubtedly not be limiting their interlocutors to speakers of the same dialect. This regular conversational use (a variable collected for the analysis of Chapter 5) was most often reported to take the form of chats at church or chapel, at the pub, or at the London Welsh Centre, for example. These are not dialect-restricted environments, and as such the heritage speakers will be exposed to, become accustomed to, and perhaps also adapt to dialects other than their own. Dialect, therefore, is not a noteworthy aspect of this project.

Predictably following from the discussion of Chapter 1, the heritage speakers, taken as a whole, also conformed to the heritage speaker profile in subtler ways than will be analyzed in the following chapters. For example, the typical low language confidence of the heritage speaker is clearly evident in the narrative samples, and disparaging comments about their own Welsh abilities can be found in the transcriptions of several of the informants.[2] This confidence, I hasten to note, seems to be more immediately connected to the speaker's expectations of the proficiency she may feel she *should* have, given her childhood exposure, rather than a judgment of her abilities more objectively. For these speakers, reduced confidence is not necessarily tied to low proficiency as much as to disappointment, and fairly fluent speakers are not an exception.

The following three chapters each detail a particular aspect of the heritage Welsh grammar observed in the corpus. Chapter 5 operationalizes the idea of language fluency and then examines the potential effects of measurable language exposure variables on the fluency outcomes of the heritage speakers. Chapter 6 closely examines the restructured heritage Welsh system of Initial Consonant Mutation, one of the most commonly studied aspects of standard Welsh as well. Chapter 7 investigates verb formation and agreement patterns in heritage Welsh, both of which show signs of reanalysis. The results of these three chapters confirm not only that heritage Welsh is divergent from baseline Welsh, but also that those divergences reveal informative patterns which have predictive power in relation to the language outcomes of heritage speakers.

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[2] The hesitations of the heritage speakers can be observed from a quick glance through Appendix II.1. Each speaker's pauses are marked with #, indicating a one second interval of silence, and -@fp, indicating a filled pause such as "um" or "uh." Interjections in the narratives such as "my Welsh is getting worse as I'm reading this" and "my Welsh is terrible" are examples of some of the speakers' critical opinions of their own language abilities.

fluent, adj. :

1.
        a. That flows, flowing.
        b. *transf.* and *fig.*; esp. of things compared to a stream or to the tide.
        †c. Flowing readily as a consequence or inference. *Obs.*
2.
        a. Having the property or capacity of flowing easily; ready to flow; fluid, liquid. Of a painter: Producing a fluid or liquid effect.
        b. *fig.* and of non-material things: Fluid, liable to change; not stable, fixed, or rigid.
 3. *transf.*
        a. Of hair: Growing in abundant quantity and falling in graceful curves; flowing.
        b. Moving easily or gracefully; not stiff or rigid.
†4.
        a. Flowing freely or abundantly. Also, abounding *in*. *Obs.*
        b. Giving freely, generous. *Obs.* exc. *dial.*
 5.
        a. Of speech, style, etc.: Flowing easily and readily from the tongue or pen.
        b. Of a speaker, etc.: Ready in the use of words, able to express oneself readily and easily in speech or writing.

. . .

        ("fluent, adj. and n.". OED Online. December 2013. Oxford University Press. http://www.oed.com.ezp-prod1.hul.harvard.edu/view/Entry/72067?redirectedFrom=fluent& (accessed January 02, 2014).)

        The nebulous meaning of the term "fluent" deserves careful consideration, especially in the context of heritage speaker (HS) proficiency. It is a word universally employed in describing the abilities of speakers of any language and proficiency level, but it is in fact a very imprecise term. In casual usage it has a subjective and variable connotation, and is understood only in context. It may be intended as synonymous with native-level proficiency, in which case "fluent" is the standard of ability toward which the language acquirer progresses. But it may also merely denote basic speaking competence, or the lowest threshold across which the language learner may consider herself able to communicate in the language. In the natural setting, though a speaker

may self-identify as fluent or not depending on context, the term primarily refers to the impression of the listener and not to any obvious or easily measured characteristics of the speech flow. The factors affecting that impression are what I focus on here, and I argue for a method of quantifying those factors as a proxy for the concept of "fluency," which is itself more accurately understood as a spectrum than as a binary property of language proficiency.

The common thread among the definitions cited above is one of fluidity and the image of water flowing quickly and unimpeded. It is the image of language in motion. (Segalowitz 2010, 4) But the factors that lead to an overall speaking competence in a first or second language are more varied than those which would contribute to the movement of water in a stream, and certainly there is nothing tangible that is truly in flow, only words and thought. This metaphor makes sense in the language context only in the most impressionistic of ways. In order to better operationalize this construct of "fluency," and therewith measure the differences between our HS and baseline informants, we must understand what contributes to the overall impression of speaker fluency—because fluency is, above all, an *impression*. It can be no surprise, then, that fluency studies are an entire discipline in themselves.

By no means is this seemingly intuitive concept an easy one to measure. Not only do laymen use the term loosely, but linguists and language education professionals have not come to any consensus on which measurements determine perceived fluency either. In line with the water metaphor described above, speed and effortlessness seem to be the main characteristics of a fluent performance, but "fluency" must not be mistaken for overall language proficiency—a distinction between these two constructs should be maintained. (Chambers 1997, 536-7) Currently dominant language pedagogy—Communicative Language Teaching—stresses communicative competence, defined as the combined abilities of linguistic (grammatical and vocabulary) competence, sociolinguistic (socially appropriate) competence, discourse competence (navigation through a conversation) and, in particular, *strategic* competence, or the ability to effectively communicate

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despite other break-downs in communication. (Brandl 2008, 5-6) The ability to speak at an appropriate speed and without interruptions does not necessarily require perfect linguistic competence according to this model.

> "Fluency differs from other elements of oral proficiency in one important respect. Whereas such elements as idiomaticness, appropriateness, lexical range, and syntactic complexity can all be assigned to linguistic knowledge, fluency is purely a performance phenomenon." (Lennon 1990, 391)

The "fluency" of the speaker is not predicated on her grammatical correctness, but rather on her proximity to native-like conversational pace and her success in communication.

Following this methodology, I will not be evaluating the grammatical accuracy of my heritage and baseline speaker informants as a measure of fluency. I will return to the grammatical output of the HSs in later chapters, but grammatical errors will not be judged, counted or used here as a valid fluency metric precisely because of this divide separating considerations of linguistic competence—or measures of grammatical accuracy—from those of strategic and discourse competence, the competencies most closely approximating what we are describing as "fluency." The variability of success in completing communication tasks (in this case, the construction of a narrative) is all that will be analyzed in connection to fluency and the differences between heritage and baseline linguistic systems. Successful, efficient communication at an appropriate pace is a high level of fluency for our purposes. It is the manner of speaking rather than the words themselves, and may be found in anything from the simple declarative utterances of a HS to the grammatically complex narrative of a native speaker. Linguistic competence will affect fluency, as it is a factor determining the speaker's recall of grammatical structure and vocabulary, but it is not a part of fluency itself.

"Fluency" may be an imprecise term in casual usage, but I do not believe it is impossible to set a standard and to use certain metrics of speech performance as a sort of complex of features

that may be measured in lieu of that vaguer concept. Importantly, without some reasonable attempt at defining our object of study in this precise way we would be left trying to describe listener intuition and opinion and failing to say much about anything at all. I do not mean to diminish the importance of native speaker judgments of fluency—a measurement used often by researchers in assessing fluency—but pulling apart the contributing factors of these judgments will not only make the task of measuring variation among speakers easier, but also help us to understand how complicated the interpretation of fluency really is. An awareness of the term's inconsistent use in common parlance will lend us an appreciation of the difficulty inherent in any attempt to survey minority language proficiency within a country's population. This is a point which I will return to in the Conclusions of this dissertation.

Lennon (1990) distinguishes between two versions of the meaning of "fluency." In the broad sense of the word the term covers all aspects of oral proficiency—it is the highest point on a scale measuring spoken command of a foreign language. This is the meaning generally intended by laymen and language education professionals speaking less precisely. It is the pinnacle of learner achievement and anything less than some arbitrary cut-off point is simply not fluent. (Lennon 1990, 389) When a parent brags about his child's "fluency" in Spanish or a graduate student lists languages she speaks "fluently" on her CV, they are almost certainly using the term in its broad sense. "Fluency" in its narrow sense may instead refer to only a single component among many which contribute to overall oral proficiency.[1] In this more restricted usage, the water metaphor might make some sense. "Fluent" refers to the ease and free-flowing pace of the performance, but not necessarily its correctness, relevance, pronunciation, vocabulary, and so on. (Lennon 1990, 389-390) Thinking of a speaker as fluent who frequently uses inaccurate sentence structure or a limited vocabulary, for example, may seem counterintuitive, but for the language

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[1] In addition to fluency in its restricted sense, language proficiency may be comprised of grammatical accuracy, literacy, vocabulary size, ease of register modulation, native-like phonology, discourse competence, pragmatic awareness, and so on.

researcher these are separate considerations. It is this narrow definition that I will be focusing on here. The idea of "fluency" as a catch-all term for successful language acquisition will have to be set aside for the moment.

It is generally assumed that one is fluent in one's native language. We know, however, that this is not the case for the HS. The "native language" in this case is the heritage language, and the dominant language is actually the L2 or another L1.[2] The very idea of describing and evaluating the fluency levels of these HSs, who are first language Welsh speakers, only further underscores the complicated situation these people are in—being judged, so to speak, in a language they are also *native* speakers of. I will return to this point again and again—the HS is not fully proficient in her native language. The psychological state which follows from this scenario would be a fascinating study, albeit one beyond the scope of this project, but certainly the impact of this statement in language policy and minority language maintenance is one which I feel capable of addressing and will do so in my discussion of potential implications of HL research in the Conclusions section of this dissertation. Needless to say, research into variable fluency and its measurement occurs primarily in the field of second language acquisition and it is from that work that I draw the measurements to describe fluency which will be used in this study.

In an article reviewing the body of research on second language fluency and its pedagogical implications, David Wood (2001) focuses on determining what elements of speech proficiency recur as the most relevant to the concept of fluency. He describes these elements as the mental processes which regulate the automated retrieval of language chunks from a repertoire of formulaic language. To him, language is stored in pre-fabricated phrases and idioms, which

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[2] This usage of L1 assumes that a speaker raised bilingually can have 2 (or more) languages which are both considered to be first languages (L1s) regardless of the balance in the bilingual system or whether one has dominant status. "Second" or "third language," as used in this dissertation, is only meant to refer to the sequence of acquisition, and is not a judgment about relative proficiency.

helps with recall speed, and this automaticity of linguistic recall is the main factor deciding the fluency of speech. The strings of these pieces of language are punctuated in natural speech by pauses and hesitations, and it is by measuring those pauses and hesitations that we can make quantifiable judgments about speaker fluency. The reason pauses can be used as indicators of fluency is fairly straightforward—the more fluent the speaker, the less time is needed to plan and process linguistic information and to balance attention to language and other distractions. Free-flowing language is precisely what fluent speech is supposed to be. But there are other reasons for pausing, of course—dramatic effect, personal style, or thinking through a difficult concept, for example. In and of themselves, pauses and hesitations are not strictly indicators of a lesser fluency. They also may be employed as a stylistic choice by a very fluent speaker. Just like the other measures we will be using, pausing phenomena are justifiable metrics of fluency, but they must be counted in conjunction with other measurements in order to not overstate their evaluative capacity.[3]

The pauses themselves need not be counted, however, in order to measure pausing phenomena in our account of fluency. They can be accounted for indirectly. Naturally, pauses and hesitations affect speech rate, which is a measureable factor, and because pauses are the natural boundaries between utterances (as indicated in the transcriptions of Appendix II), the shorter lengths of a less proficient speaker's utterances will also indicate the frequency of pausing, i.e., shorter utterances mean more pauses. Therefore, Speech Rate (words per minute) and Mean Length of Utterance (MLU) (number of words between pauses) will both be considered in our evaluation of HS fluency, and pause phenomena themselves will not be counted separately because they are already measured indirectly by these two criteria. This is the very methodology

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[3] Pauses are defined in this project as silences in the speech flow which last longer than one second. Pauses are categorized in the data in 1, 2, 3, and 4-second lengths (indicated with one "#" per second in the transcriptions). Filled pauses are also considered pauses and carry the same significance as silent pauses. These are instances of "um", "uh", "hm", and so on (indicated in the transcriptions as "um@fp," e.g.).

used in Towell et al. (1996) in analyzing the fluency of advanced students of L2 French—what they termed Mean Length of Run and Speech Rate. And like Wood (2001), these researchers premised their reliance on temporal variables as paramount in indicating fluency by connecting the meaning of fluency to the proceduralization of linguistic recall. In a study of Hungarian students' L2 English fluency, Kormos and Dénes (2004) found that the best predictors of fluency judgments by language teachers were the measures speech rate, mean length of utterance, phonation time ratio and the numbers of stressed words per minute—again, temporal factors indicating the pace of the speech flow. But this study also found that the pauses themselves, filled or unfilled, were not reliable indicators of fluency judgments by the language teachers. Pausing may be stylistic, indicative of deep thought or rhetorical effect, and not necessarily an indication of fluency itself, as the judgments clearly indicate. Again, pausing phenomena and the measurements they affect can not be measured in isolation as an indicator of fluency, so I will be using MLU and SR in conjunction with other measures which I describe below.

Another possible means of measuring fluency is the cloze test.[4] This method is commonly employed in assessing HS fluency but I have chosen not to use it here because of the difficulty inherent in making a dialect-neutral version of the task. Both for vocabulary and syntactic considerations, the cloze test would have skewed the results to privilege whichever dialect I had chosen in constructing the task, as well as forced the informants to complete a written task in colloquial rather than literary Welsh, a task which may have seemed irregular if not impossible depending on their level of familiarity with written Welsh. HSs are not often comfortable with the written language, either in the literary register or transcribed vernacular, which would affect their performance in this domain. (see Rothman 2007 on HSs of Brazilian

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[4] A cloze test is essentially a fill in the blank test, in which a participant is asked to replace the missing words of a text. The task draws on the speaker's ability to understand the vocabulary and grammar of the tested language as well as her ability to provide an appropriate utterance in the given context.

Portuguese) A cloze test would have been successful in sorting the speakers into levels of language ability, but by what measure I could not have been certain.

If we accept this narrow definition of the term "fluency," determined by recall speed and ease of speech flow, and promote temporal variables over those of grammatical accuracy or expressive creativity, then we can borrow Segalowitz's (2010) definition and restate our goal of establishing the measures of fluency as determining what are

> the "features of ... oral performance [which] serve as reliable indicators of how efficiently the speaker is able to mobilize and temporally integrate, in a nearly simultaneous way, the underlying processes of planning and assembling an utterance in order to perform a communicatively acceptable speech act." (Segalowitz 2010, 47)

Segalowitz further refines his concept of fluency to be comprised of three separate fluencies: i) cognitive fluency, or the ability to efficiently mobilize and integrate the underlying cognitive processes responsible for producing utterances with the characteristics they have, ii) utterance fluency, having to do with the features of an utterance, temporal, pausing, hesitation and repair characteristics, and iii) perceived fluency, which is the inferences listeners make about the speaker's cognitive fluency based on their utterance fluency. (Segalowitz 2010, 48) These can be simplified into measures of temporality, however, either of thought and processing or production and reception, and so the distinctions need not bother us here. The important observation is that, for Segalowitz, fluency is determined by temporal measures. At the very least, however, we should take away from his approach an appreciation of the dense layers of processing that go into a simple communicative interaction and understand that the term "fluent" used to describe such an interaction is woefully under-descriptive to capture that operation.

After this lengthy introduction to the concept of fluency, I am going to avoid using the term as something self-evident for the duration of the chapter and instead apply six quantifiable measures of speech as a proxy for the concept. In order to account for processing speed as a

factor in perceived fluency, I will use the temporal measures of Speech Rate (SR) and Mean Length of Utterance (MLU). The speed and ease of access to grammar and vocabulary will be measured by counts of Vocabulary Delay, Retraces, and Retraces With Correction, and the level to which Welsh grammar has been proceduralized will be measured by the Frequency of Embedded Clauses. Each of these will be explained in greater detail in the following pages. The choice of these six measures follows from an understanding of fluency as a product of cognitive processing and the automaticity of linguistic recall, but each of these measures singled out and examined in isolation would not be very informative. It is only in combination that a full picture of fluency emerges.

5.1 fluency measures

Before turning to the six metrics of fluency I have chosen to analyze, the reasons for not using other, easily measured variables should be addressed. The narrative task performed by the 20 HSs and the 20 Baseline Controls has been described in the introduction to Part II, but I will add here a description of those characteristics of the narrative samples which will not be included as part of the fluency complex. The time taken to perform the task and the total length of the produced narrative may seem like reasonable measures to differentiate the informants by proficiency level, but we can see that this is not the case in the box-and-whisker plots (boxplots)[5] of figures 5.1 and 5.2.

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[5] Box-and-whisker plots represent data by their quartiles—the 25th to 75th quartile range being represented within the box, and the lower and upper quartiles by the extension of the whiskers above and below that box. The dark line through the box represents the 50th percentile, or the median of the data. Averages and the exact range of the values on the y-axis are not explicitly indicated.
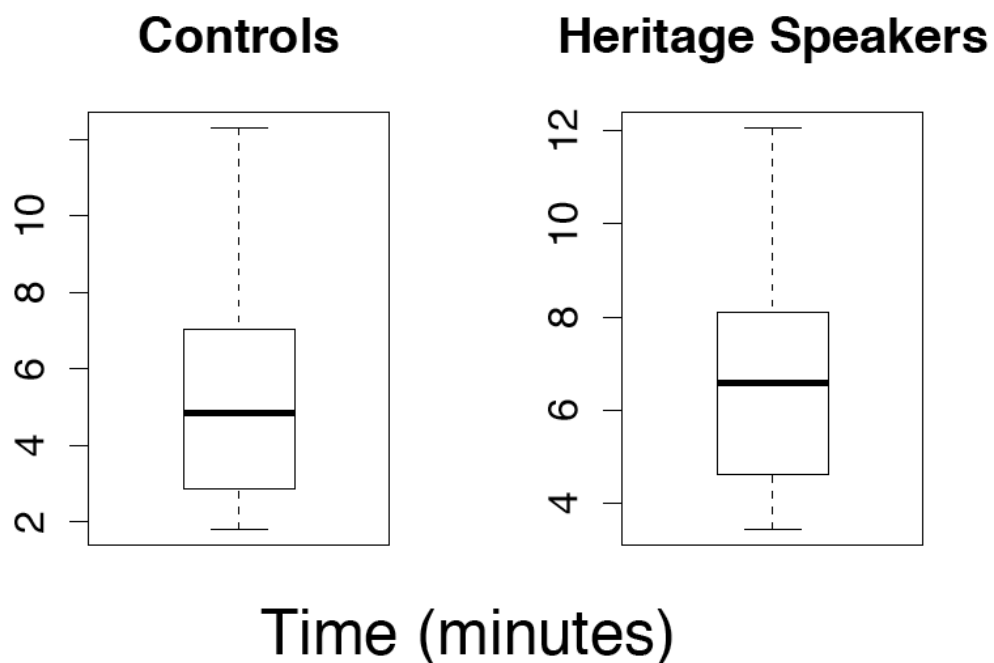
Figure 5.1 Box plots of the time (in minutes) taken by the Controls and the heritage speakers (HSs) to complete the narrative task
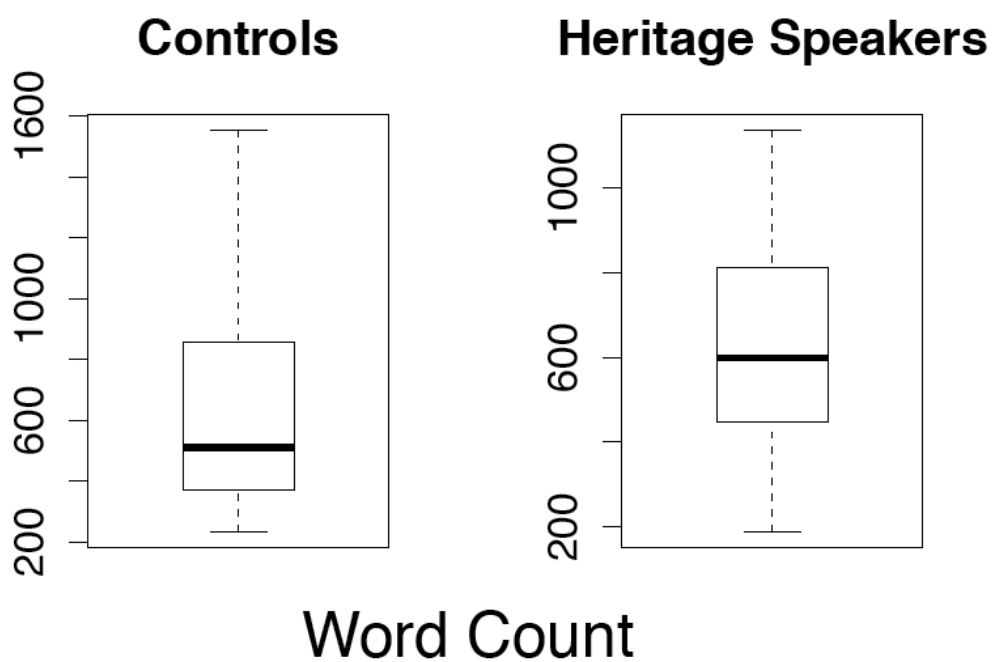
Figure 5.2 Box plots of the total word count for the narratives produced by the heritage speakers (HSs) and the Controls

There is too much overlap between the HSs and the Controls to reasonably distinguish the two groups by either of these measures. The average time taken to complete the narrative task by a HS was 6:39 (minutes), and that taken by the Controls was 5:14, but this difference is largely coincidence. We also see that the Controls as a whole took anywhere from 2:05 to 12:17, and the HSs between 3:27 and 12:03. The ranges overlap almost entirely. The same can be said for word count. The Controls averaged a total of 636.2 words and the HSs 640.25, but both ranged widely—from 298 to 1135 (HSs) and from 235 to 1551 (Controls). The differences between informants are reflective of personal choice rather than the limitations or abilities of the speaker. An informant may have taken more time because planning her story was more laborious, or because she was able to elaborate in greater detail and took the time to do that. Likewise, an informant may have used more total words because information dense structures like embedded clauses were not available in her heritage grammar, or simply because she was perfectly able to say a great deal in her dominant language. Figures 5.1 and 5.2 show essentially the same spread, and indicate that the length of the narrative, in time and word count, is more a measure of individual choice than an indication of fluency or overall proficiency.

The metrics which do show a clear difference between the Controls and the HSs are those which we have determined to be good indicators, when taken as a group, of fluency. Figure 5.3 shows the speed at which the informants spoke Welsh. There is a clear difference between the Controls and the HSs, which is a good sign of its strength as a measure of fluency, but it is important to note that there is also a large range of overlap.
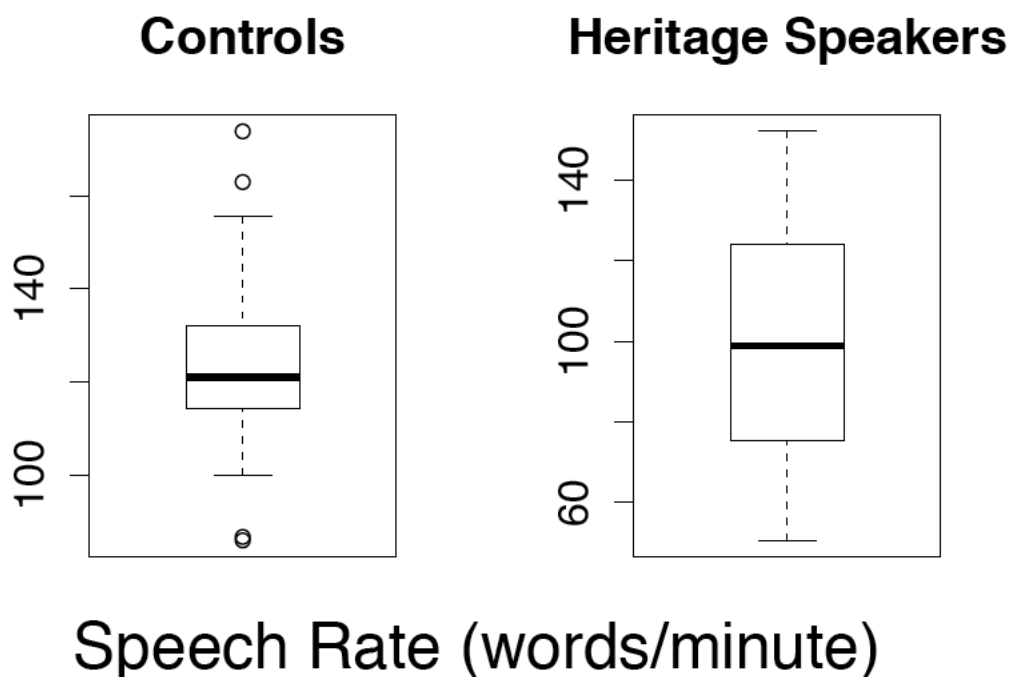
Figure 5.3 Speech Rate (words per minute) of both the Controls and Heritage Speaker (HS) Informants

The Controls spoke at an average Speech Rate of 124.03 words/minute, though the individual speakers varied a great deal. The slowest Control spoke at 85.98 words/minute, the fastest at 173.82. This is a broad range, but not more so than that of the HSs, who averaged a Speech Rate of 97.89 words/minute, but varied individually between 50.63 and 152.16. The fastest among the HSs had a higher Speech Rate than the average for the Controls, and the slowest of the Controls had a lower Speech Rate than the average for the HSs. The extent of the overlap in the variance within the two groups is evidence that Speech Rate alone does not reliably indicate fluency—as I was the listener of the narratives produced in this study, and because fluency is primarily determined by the listener's impression, I am able to say that *none* of the HSs seemed more fluent than *any* of the Controls. Speech Rate only partially sorts the participants into levels of fluency, but it is a good starting point.

Speech Rate is, to some degree, an indicator of personal style and/or cognitive speed in addition to being a helpful indicator of fluency and overall proficiency. Some of the Controls chose to speak at a slower pace than they were capable of for dramatic effect, to build suspense, or for other stylistic reasons. Similarly, some of the HSs were nervous enough to rush their narratives and gave the impression that they are more fluent than they would otherwise be by speaking more quickly than they naturally would. It is also possible that a HS or control might have chosen to speak as though they were telling the story to children, which would almost certainly affect the frequency and placement of pauses, and consequently Speech Rate as well. Again we can see that this single measure, Speech Rate, is not, on its own, sufficient or complete as a measure of fluency, though the difference in the averages for the two groups indicates that the measure is indeed useful as part of the fluency construct.

Likewise, MLU is a very good indicator of fluency, but only when taken together with our other measures. There is enough overlap in the ranges of MLU represented by the plots in figure 5.4 that the two groups—HSs and fully proficient speakers of Welsh—are not fully differentiated by this measure. The native speakers who are Welsh dominant or nearly balanced bilinguals (Controls) clearly outstrip the HSs in the length of their utterances. Utterances, as I mentioned above, are determined by pauses, whereby a complete utterance is the run of spoken language between each of these pauses. Note from figure 5.4 that the averages among those groups are 10.47 words/utterance for the Controls and 6.69 words/utterance for the HSs. Clearly, the stronger Welsh speakers are better able to plan and construct their utterances, thus producing longer runs, than the HSs. This observation should come as no surprise but it is worth recognizing it as a component of the fluency construct and that there is, again, enough overlap between our two groups that we cannot take this measure to be equivalent to fluency on its own.

Controls   **Heritage Speakers**

Mean Length of Utterance
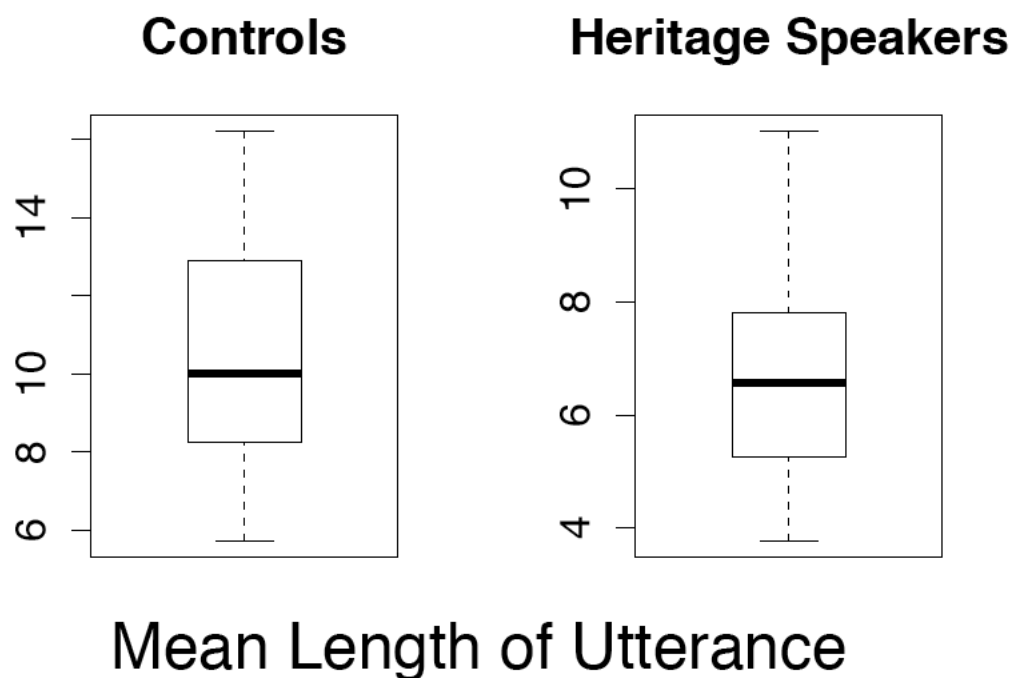
Figure 5.4 Mean Length of Utterance (words per utterance unit) spoken in the narratives of the Controls and the Heritage Speaker (HS) informants

Another strong fluency indicator which should be included in this complex of measures is the frequency with which the recall of vocabulary is delayed, what I have termed Vocabulary Delay. This is perhaps the strongest measure in distinguishing between the two groups of informants. I provide here both the total instances of Vocabulary Delay and the average of Vocabulary Delay per Utterance in figures 5.5 and 5.6 in order to better illustrate this point.
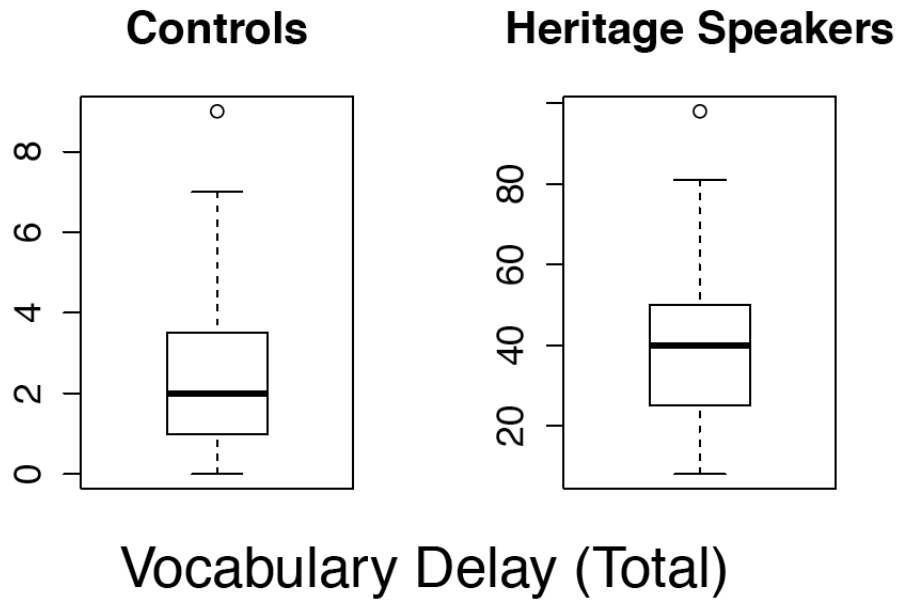
Figure 5.5 Total instances of Vocabulary Delay in the narratives of the Heritage Speakers and the Controls
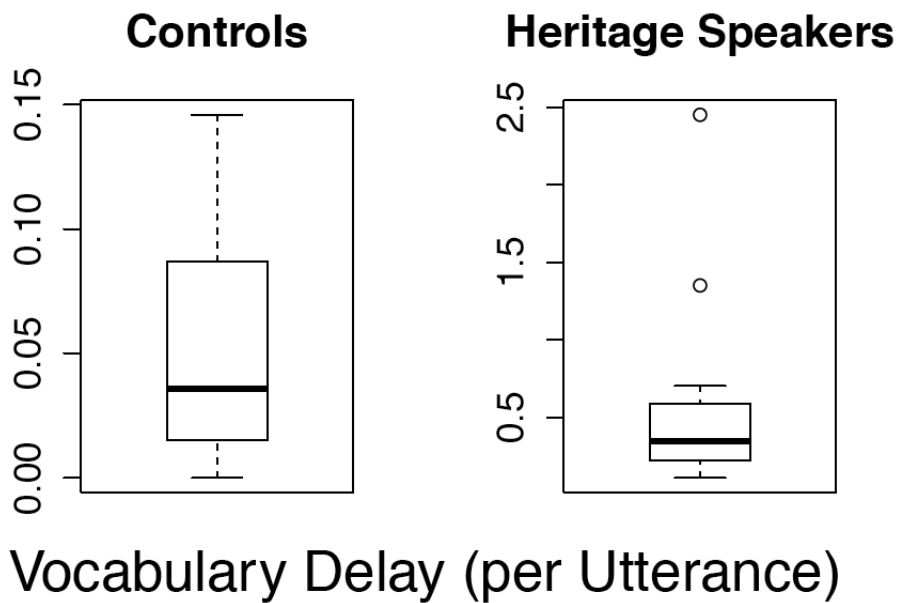
Figure 5.6 Instances of Vocabulary Delay per Utterance (average) in the narratives of the Control group and Heritage Speaker group

In determining what constituted an instance of vocabulary delay, I again relied on pausing phenomena. If the informant paused, muttered, questioned themselves about a word, or switched into English in a self-conscious way it was counted as Vocabulary Delay. It is important to note, however, that every instance of code-switching was not included in that count. If a vocabulary item was produced in English and without any noticeable pause, the University of Wales Dictionary (Geiriadur Prifysgol Cymru) was consulted in order to establish whether that word is officially considered a borrowing and acceptable in colloquial Welsh. The results show a dramatic difference between the two groups.

In performing the same task, the HSs stumbled with vocabulary recall an average of 40.4 times during the course of their narratives (0.51/utterance), but the Controls only experienced Vocabulary Delay an average of 2.65 times (0.05/utterance). Indeed the single HS who struggled least with recall delay still experienced Vocabulary Delay 8 times total (0.12 per utterance), well above the average for the Controls. I would posit that the reason the Controls had any trouble at all is because of the unusual vocabulary required by the *Frog, Where Are You?* story. Almost all of these instances of delayed recall by the daily Welsh users (Controls) were for a small group of the same images—the stag, the beehive, and the groundhog, in particular, were problematic. The HSs, on the other hand, had trouble recalling a much wider range of vocabulary, including verbs, and far more frequently, as we see in figures 5.5 and 5.6.

Generally, it is the 'average per utterance' figures which are important in these analyses. The total counts for the narratives can be misleading, because, as I explained above, the lengths of the narratives are as much a stylistic choice as a reflection of the speaker's ability. In this case, however, I've included information about the total instances of Vocabulary Delay in addition to the averages per utterance because of the close connection between pausing and identifying an instance of vocabulary delay. Not only are the HS utterances much shorter, in general, than the controls', but the pauses which indicate vocabulary recall trouble may also signal a new

utterance. This means that an utterance can start with vocabulary delay, which might seem counterintuitive and deserves this short explanation.

The next two measures of fluency are variations of the same phenomenon, Retracing. Speakers, both the HSs and the Controls, will repeat a bit of language that they have just produced in order to regroup after a pause, to take the time to plan what they will say next, or to correct a mistake in their initial utterance. It is also the interpretation of a stutter in this analysis. Two kinds of Retraces have been counted here, those with and those without Corrections to the words prior. Both types indicate a level of uncertainty with the language, a sort of "do-over" for the linguistically insecure. We see in figures 5.7 and 5.8 that the differences between the two informant groups confirms that Retraces are indeed an indicator of lesser fluency. As in the above discussion of Vocabulary Delay, the average number of Retraces per Utterance (figure 5.7) as well as the total instances of Retraces in each narrative (figure 5.8) are both provided here.
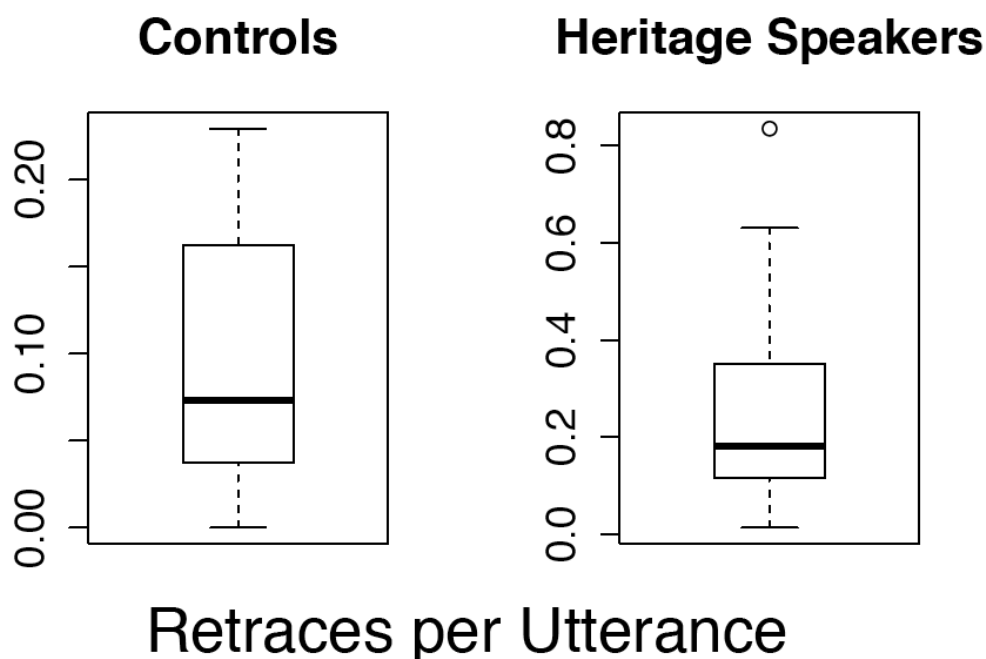
Figure 5.7 Retraces per Utterance averaged for each of both the heritage speaker (HS) and control groups
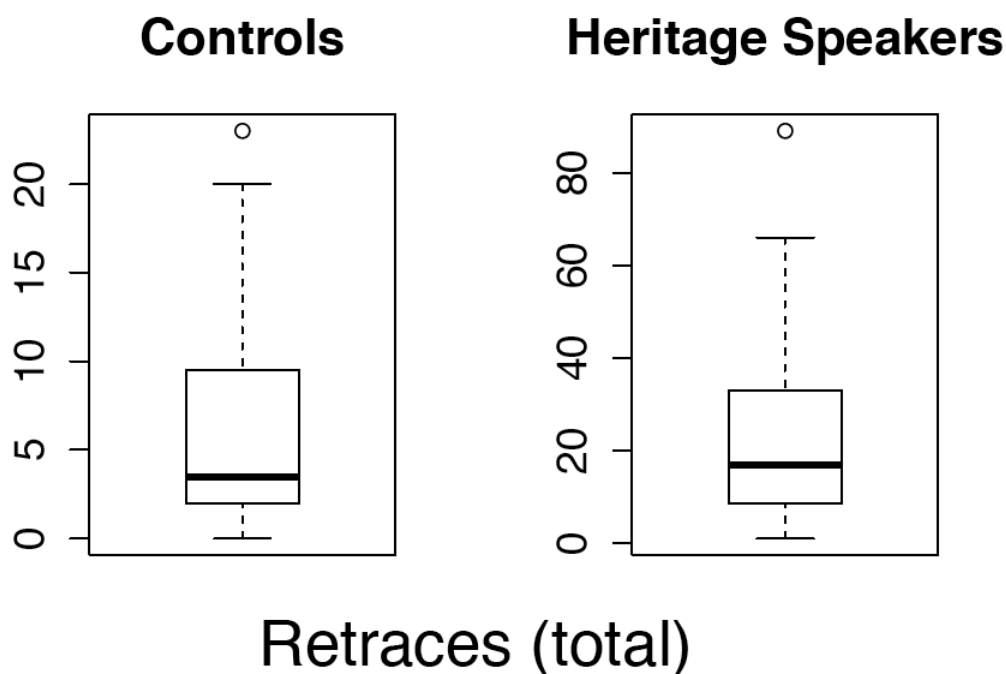
Figure 5.8 Total instances of Retracing in the narratives of the two groups of informants

Again, the differences are striking. The average number of Retraces per Utterance produced by the Controls is almost negligible, but that is not the case with the HSs. Indeed, the overlap between the two groups is also fairly limited—75% of the Controls retraced less frequently than 75% of the HSs (the seventy-fifth percentile for the Controls is roughly the same as the twenty fifth percentile for the HSs). Retracing is thus a good descriptive measure of the fluency divergence between our heritage and baseline speakers. But that is not to say that the overlap is not significant, and again we must include Retraces as only one in a group of fluency indicators.

The measure of Retraces with Corrections also distinguishes between our two informant groups well. We see the data in figures 5.9 and 5.10.

Corrections (per Utterance)
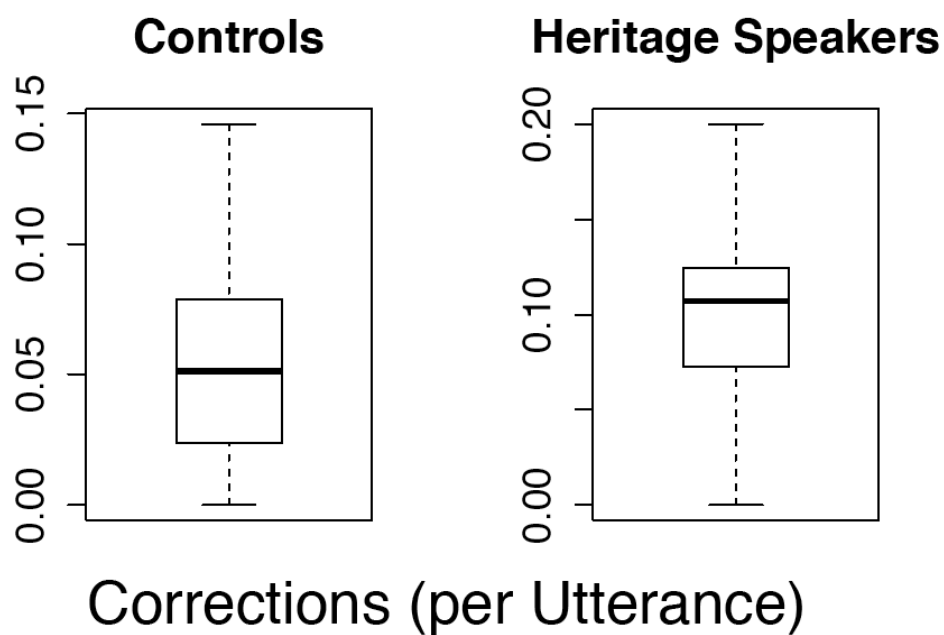
Figure 5.9 Retraces with Correction per Utterance averaged for each of both the control and heritage speaker (HS) informant groups

Retraces with Corrections (total)
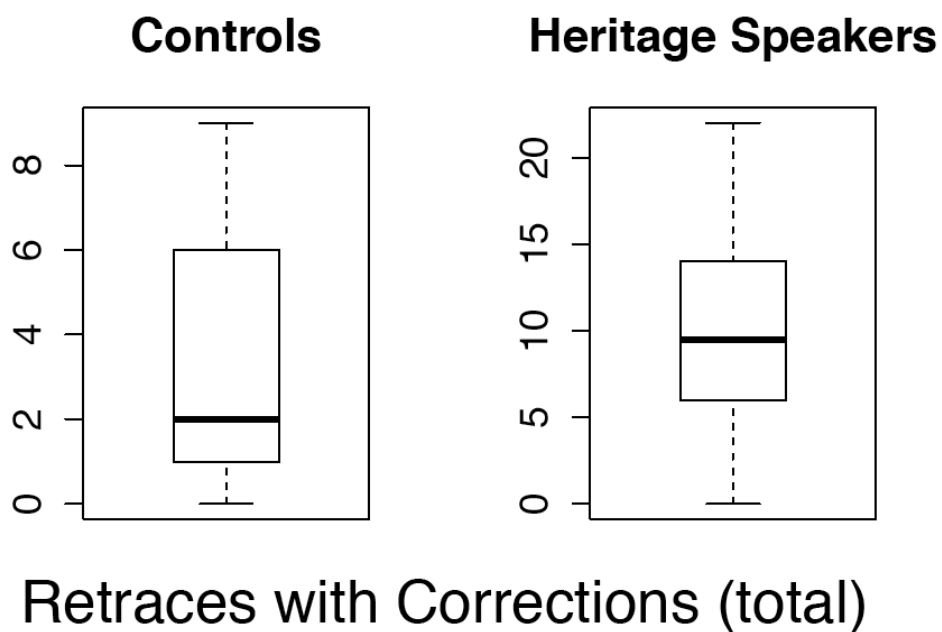
Figure 5.10 Total instances of Retraces with Correction in the narratives of the two informant groups

Naturally, the more proficient speakers, the baseline Controls, correct themselves less often. They should have less need to. Interestingly, however, this measure as an indicator of proficiency among the HS group might be more problematic than at first it seems. Some researchers of L2 acquisition and foreign language pedagogy would point out that self-correcting is an indicator of *increased* proficiency. The ability to identify errors in one's own speech represents a developing monitor of accurate linguistic output and a metalinguistic, critical ear. The frequency of corrections may then, in fact, increase as a learner becomes more aware of errors, then peak and drop off as that speaker produces more and more accurate language in her initial utterances. (Krashen 1982) How this translates to heritage language is another question. Without additional exposure or entry into a classroom language learning environment, the heritage language would probably not be evolving along that curve I've just described. The proficiency of the HS will change over time in accordance with the bilingual continuum model (see Chapter 4), but not necessarily according to the same model. (A more detailed analysis of non-native-like forms produced by the HSs will follow in the next two chapters.)

The variables determining how likely a HS is to self-correct could be more varied than those of the classroom learner. The longer the HS has been out of contact with Welsh the less likely she may be to notice the errors, and thus let them stand. Alternatively, the determining factor may be how pedantic her regular Welsh speaking interlocutors are, and whether or not she is often made aware of her speech mistakes. The differences between the two informant groups on this measure is solid enough to include it in our list of fluency metrics because we have defined fluency to be based on listener perception, but, given the discussion above, we should discount it as a measure of *proficiency*. Retracing with Correction is indeed perceived by the listener and included in his judgment about the speaker's fluency, but the reasons behind those corrections are not relevant in that situation. It is simply a counterintuitive idea that we might

observe the frequency of corrections to be higher for some of the *more* proficient HSs, who will

be perceived to be *less* fluent as a result.

The final metric of fluency I wish to discuss here is the only one that may be argued to be

a qualitative judgment on the standard of language produced. Speech Rate, Mean Length of

Utterance, and Vocabulary Delay are fundamentally temporal measures; Retraces and Retraces

with Corrections are measures evaluating the speaker's planning ability; but the frequency of

Embedded Clauses is a measure of grammatical complexity and thus more directly linked to the

broader concept of language proficiency, rather than to fluency alone. It is included among the six

measures of fluency, however, because the accuracy of the grammatical forms is not evaluated

here. Frequency of embedded clauses is simply a measure of the successful packaging of

information into a denser speech flow—a component of the fluidity and native-like pace

described at the beginning of this chapter and identified as the listener perception of fluency.
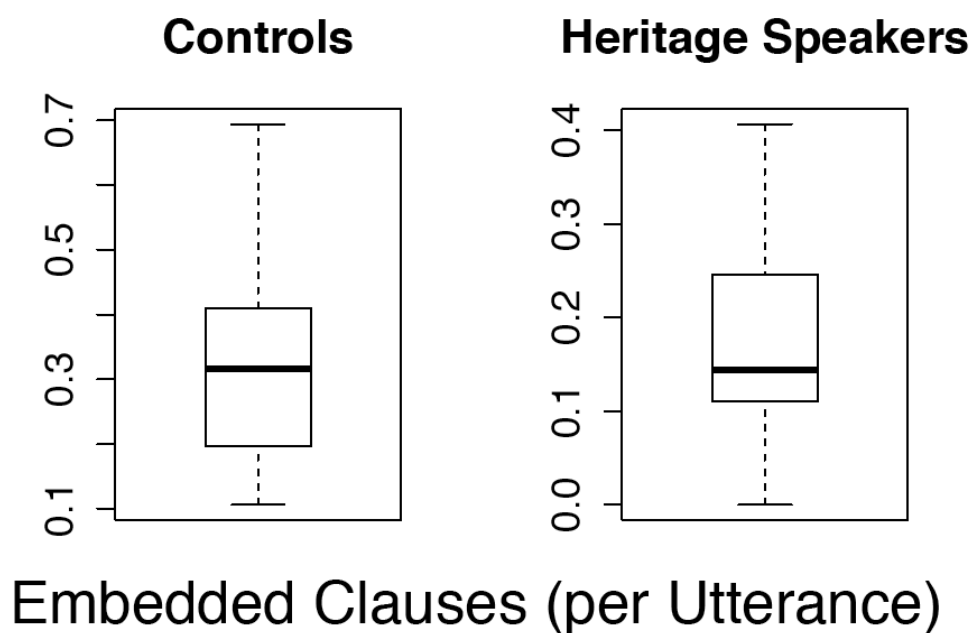
Figure 5.11 Frequency of Embedded Clauses per Utterance, averaged for each informant of the
two groups

Figure 5.11 shows that the Controls generally produce twice as many embeddings per utterance as the HSs. The average Frequency of Embedded Clauses among the HS group is 0.17 embeddings per utterance. The average among the baseline group is 0.34 embeddings per utterance. Not only do these numbers indicate the divergence in overall grammatical proficiency between the two groups, but, as a metric of fluency, figure 5.11 illustrates that the HSs are less efficient communicators. The listener will perceive heritage Welsh to be less fluent because of its reliance on simple declarative statements, whereas the baseline varies its grammatical choices as a matter of style. This affects the rhythm of the speech flow and thus how fluid its production, or fluency, is understood to be.

These six measures may be considered to be effectively equivalent to the otherwise abstract concept of fluency. Taken together, they should be considered a good proxy for this abstraction and whenever I use the term "fluency" hereafter in this dissertation it is not in the broader and casual sense, but rather to this complex of metrics that I refer. Recall, however, that there is some amount of overlap between the heritage speakers and the Controls in each of the box plots represented in figures 5.3 to 5.11. Some of the HSs may perform better than most of the Controls on several of these six measures. This should not be surprising after the discussion of the limits of the narrow definition of fluency which began this chapter. Fluency, in itself, is not the equivalent of language proficiency, merely one component. For example, the speed of an individual's linguistic recall, and thus the speed of her utterance, will vary as much with innate cognitive speed or natural talent for linguistic expression (beyond that which is already characteristic of the human species, of course) as with her overall Welsh proficiency. This HS is not, however, more proficient than the Controls. It is an important point and one which requires some small criticism of the methodology I've used here.

The scope of my claims in this project must be tempered by the acknowledgment that the narrative task used to assess the proficiency of these HSs is only that—a production task. I did not

assess comprehension of complicated and/or rapid natural utterances, nor did I assess the speakers' grammatical knowledge in a cloze test, as I've already mentioned. HSs who are naturally quick speakers will have an advantage over those who may speak slowly but who may have superior comprehension ability. The informants have been able to use their strengths in forming their own narrative, and, beyond the vocabulary, the task is not one in which the experimenter is able to directly challenge the speaker or pressure her out of her comfort zone. These are things that we need to keep in mind. These data have the potential to mislead the reader into perceiving a more proficient HS pool than is truly represented. Some of the heritage Welsh speakers may seem as fluent as the Controls according to some of our measures, but they are certainly not more proficient over all. My justification of this assertion follows in chapters 6 and 7, with analyses of divergence from baseline norms both in the system of initial consonant mutation and in the formation of verbal structure.

What this description of fluency does provide, however, is an appreciation of one particular strength of the heritage language speaker. As was discussed in chapter 1, the HS outpaces her L2 counterparts in *perceived* proficiency, i.e., fluency. The heritage language learner in the classroom will outperform her peers in the narrow definition of fluency, but she is *not* necessarily more proficient overall, and certainly not as proficient as native and complete acquirers. The extent of the overlap between the HS and Control groups on several of the fluency measures is evidence of the potential for misperceiving HS proficiency, and thus potential for speakers to be misjudged and misplaced in more advanced language class levels than appropriate. Fluency is also, however, not equal among HSs. The variance among speaker abilities again supports the use of the heritage language continuum model, and my re-evaluation of fluency as a measurable characteristic of speaker ability quantifies one of the components determining the placement of each HS along that continuum.

This chapter is meant primarily as a description of fluency measures as they are observed in heritage Welsh speakers, but I am also prepared to propose some preliminary correlations that might be more applicable in the realm of language maintenance and adult heritage language education. The informants, both HSs and Controls, provided information about their regular use of Welsh as well as some details of their personal history with the language. I considered four variables, in particular, to be relevant to the question of fluency. My hypothesis was that the amount of time spent using Welsh in conversation weekly—that is, practice speaking, listening to, and processing the spoken language in real time—would be of paramount importance in maintaining fluency, and thus would correlate with better performance on the narrative task. Beyond this initial, intuitive proposal, three other factors were examined for their importance and were predicted to also have a positive effect on the fluency measures: Media Exposure per week, Age at Language Shift, and amount of Welsh Language Education.

A great deal of money and effort is spent in the production of Welsh language television, radio, and publications in the hope that they contribute to the maintenance of the language. The Welsh language television channel, S4C, has existed since the Welsh language movement succeeded in pressuring the British government to carry out their promise and provide for its founding in 1982. Radio Cymru (Radio Wales) was similarly founded by the BBC after pressure from language activists in 1977. Welsh language publications have existed throughout the twentieth century and before, but for decades have also been included in this wide-ranging effort to fortify the language against endangerment, and have benefitted from government assistance as a result. (cf. Jenkins and Williams 2000; Morris 2010; Williams 2000; Williams and Morris 2000) Exposure to these media is expected to improve Welsh language proficiency among its population of speakers as well as provide material for learners and less proficient speakers to use

in developing their language skills. Presumably, weekly exposure to these media should also have an impact on the fluency outcomes of our heritage Welsh speakers.

Welsh language education has been the darling of the Welsh language movement even more so than have Welsh language media. It has also been its greatest success. Mandatory Welsh language education for all schoolchildren in Wales has been in effect since 1988, though that language education can be as minimal as a couple of years of enrollment in a Welsh as a second language class. For the majority of Welsh schoolchildren, the Welsh language is not acquired to full proficiency, though interest is greater today than it has been in the past. The first Welsh medium (or bilingual) school was founded in 1939, but enrollment in Welsh medium education has dramatically increased over the past two decades. This classroom exposure to Welsh, either as a L2 subject itself or as the medium of instruction in other subjects, is presumed to be foundational to lifetime proficiency in the language, and Welsh proficiency is itself considered a great advantage—economically and socially—to those children once they emerge from the school system. The passage of several pieces of legislation in Parliament and later the Welsh Assembly over the last few decades has created a demand for Welsh speakers not only in government but also in business sectors. (cf. Griffiths 1986; Griffiths 1997; Jenkins and Williams 2000; Thomas and Williams 2013)

Early exposure is assumed to be hugely important to language outcomes, so children from non-Welsh speaking homes are just as likely to enroll in the bilingual schools as are children from Welsh home backgrounds. But the across-the-board access to formal school exposure to Welsh may complicate the distinctions between HSs, L2 learners, and native, fully proficient speakers. The general HS profile, which was introduced in Chapter 1, is partially characterized by a *lack* of formal education in the heritage language. My analysis of the Welsh Education variable, however, will take into account the variance in school exposure among the HS participants and

determine whether or not formal education is, indeed, a predictor of this particular component of proficiency outcome, i.e. fluency.

If we privilege early exposure to the Welsh language in school as a factor in proficiency outcomes, then we must also address the amount of Welsh language input received during early childhood at home. The age at which the HS shifted her language dominance from Welsh to English was asked during the fieldwork interviews, in lieu of the question more commonly used in heritage language research—age of arrival. Because Wales is a bilingual country, such that every speaker of Welsh is also fully proficient in English (with negligible exceptions), the HS's emigration to England may not have been the initial cause of language shift. I can not assume that all of the HS participants are sequential (rather than simultaneous) bilinguals, nor that they accurately recollect their (sometimes traumatic) period of dominance shift. Age of Shift is a particularly difficult measure to rely on retrospectively, but I feel that it is a necessary component of this project nonetheless. I include it as a variable on fluency in part because language shift has been the major theme of Welsh language research in the last fifty years, but also because early childhood exposure is a defining characteristic of the HS profile.

Given the lengthy discussion in Chapter 2 of the Critical Period Hypothesis, its flaws and its amendments, it should come as no surprise that I return to it here. The theory still looms large in language studies, in particular language pedagogy, and so I include the Age of Shift measure among these four factors which potentially affect the fluency of our heritage Welsh speakers. I still hesitate to suggest that the "critical period" is a clearly defined entity or that the child brain is particularly adept at language acquisition in an exclusively biological way, but the correlation between that childhood exposure and language outcomes can not be ignored. The confounds (or other correlated and potentially causal factors) that problematize a purely biological explanation for the childhood language advantage are also components of the HS profile, i.e., early childhood exposure to a home language initiates a lifelong psychological connection to that language, and is

potentially connected to a desire to maintain the language or to associate it with one's cultural identity. These circumstances, which contribute to the success of childhood language acquisition in addition to any biological advantage, also apply to the HS.

Any problems with these hypotheses will be discussed below, but, as a starting point, these four variables will be considered as potentially significant predictors of heritage language fluency: Conversational Use, Media Exposure, Welsh in School, and Age of Language Shift. The findings are represented in figures 5.12 through 5.33.
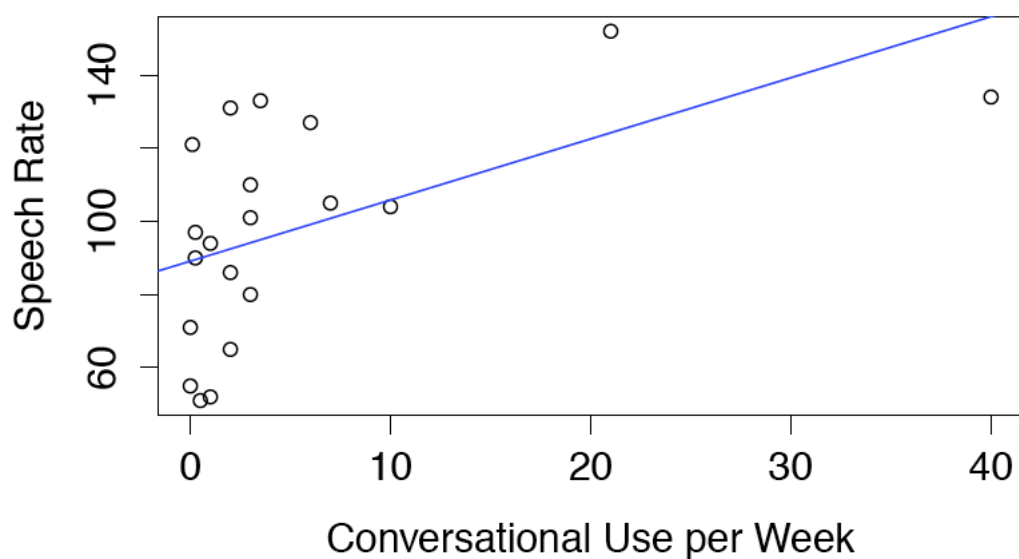
Figure 5.12 Speech Rate (words/minute) in the narratives of heritage Welsh speakers plotted against Conversational Practice per Week (hours)
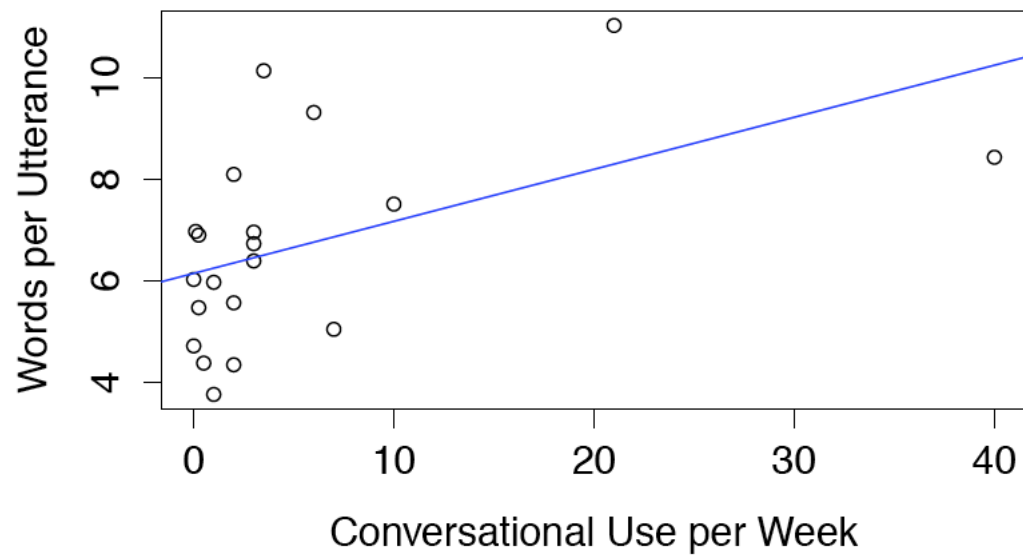
Figure 5.13 Mean Length of Utterance (MLU) (Words per Utterance) in the narratives of heritage Welsh speakers plotted against Conversational Practice per Week (hours)

Figure 5.14 Instances of Vocabulary Delay (per Utterance) in the narratives of heritage Welsh speakers plotted against Conversational Practice per Week (hours)
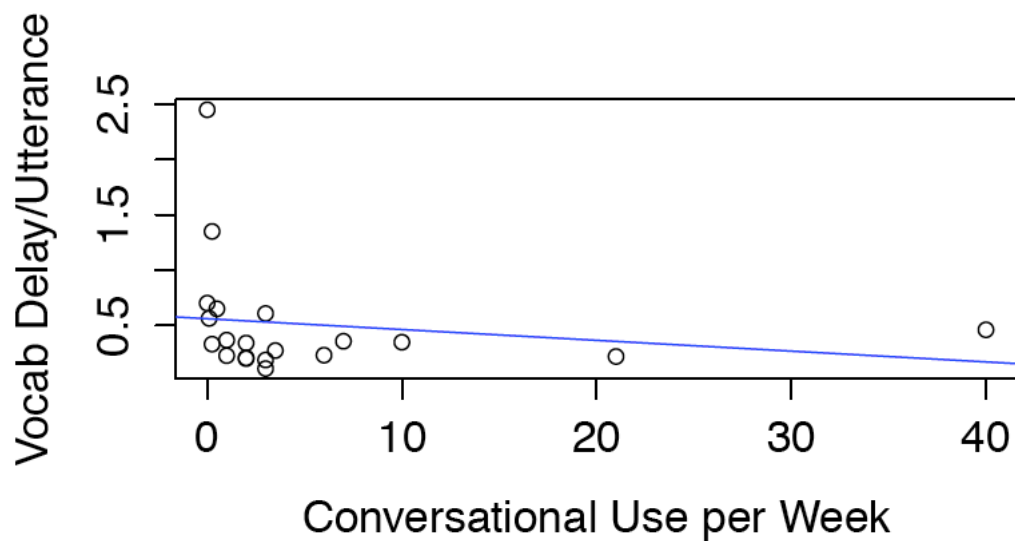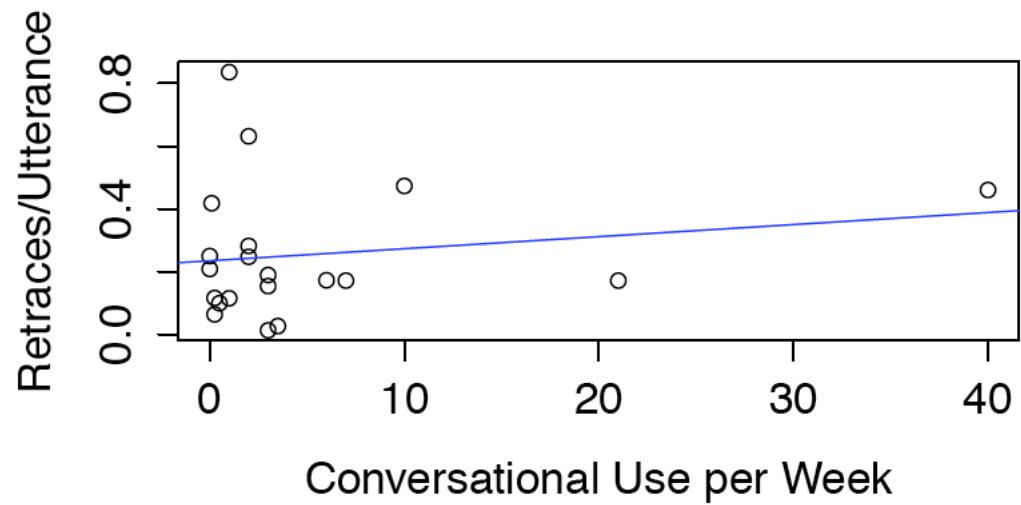
Figure 5.15 Retraces per Utterance (averaged) in the narratives of heritage Welsh speakers plotted against Conversational Practice per Week (hours)
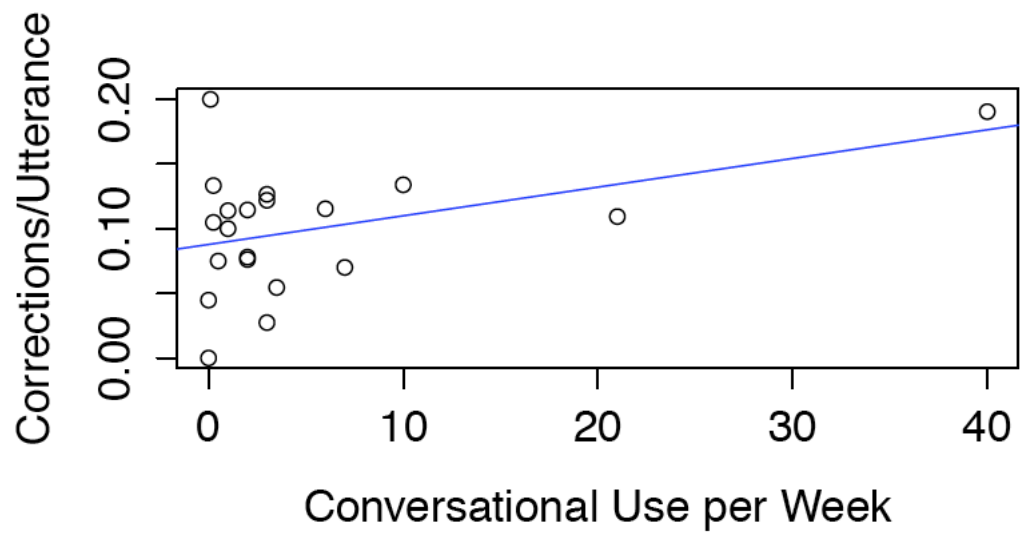
Figure 5.16 Retraces with Corrections (averaged) in the narratives of heritage Welsh speakers plotted against Conversational Practice per Week (hours)
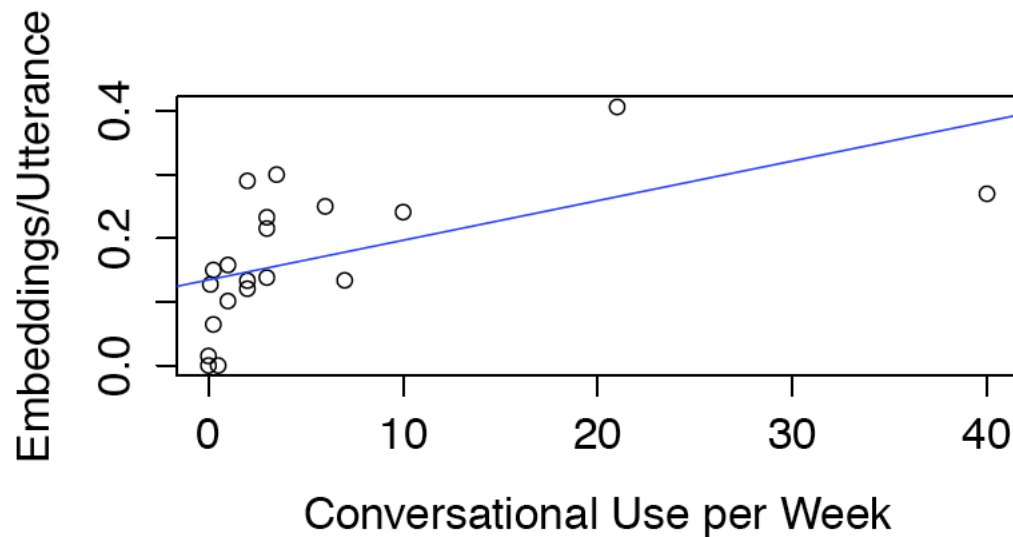
Figure 5.17 Embedded Clauses per Utterance (averaged) in the narratives of heritage Welsh speakers plotted against Conversational Practice per Week (hours)

What emerges from these data is somewhat surprising. While it is clear that Conversational Use per Week is a significant predictor for some of our measures of fluency, it is not for all. The only correlations between Conversational Use and our fluency measures which appear to be significant—i.e. they have a *p*-value[6] of less than 0.05—are Mean Length of Utterance (*p*-value = 0.02589), Speech Rate (*p*-value = 0.01403), and Frequency of Embedded Clauses (*p*-value = 0.01197). Instances of Vocabulary Delay, Retracing, and Retracing with Corrections were not significantly correlated with the number of hours per week spent using Welsh in natural conversation. This may not be surprising considering the nature of conversational language production. Recall of the sort of vocabulary which is seldom used in conversation, but which is called for in the *Frog, Where are You?* narrative task could, arguably,

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[6] The *p*-value is a measurement used to determine the statistical significance of a correlation between two variables. It represents the probability of obtaining the observed data assuming the Null Hypothesis is true, i.e., that the observed correlation does not, in fact, represent a true relationship between the variables. For our purposes, a *p*-value below 0.05 is considered sufficient to indicate a significant correlation, and thus to reject the Null Hypothesis.

be unaided by regular conversation practice. By the same token, the metalinguistic monitor, represented here as instances of Retraces and Corrections, would not necessarily be as engaged while speaking casually as it would in literary or more formal language situations. This could either result in the HS being more likely to make mistakes, which she notices because the interview situation has made her more self-aware, or less likely to notice any mistakes, because she is unaccustomed to closely tracking her errors in this way. Retracing and Correcting are certainly components of fluency as I've defined it, but their problematic connection to overall proficiency is here, again, called into question.

I predicted that Conversational Use would be the strongest variable affecting fluency outcomes—the mantra of "practice, practice, practice" is nowhere more applied than in language learning—but conversational practice on its own is not sufficient to maintain overall fluency according to this analysis. This is a particularly important point within heritage language research because, as was discussed in Chapter 1, it is generally this kind of language use that characterizes the HS profile. And, indeed, Conversational Use does clearly correlate with greater MLU, Speech Rate, and Frequency of Embedded Clauses. I would even hypothesize that Vocabulary Delay in a less artificial narrative setting could be negatively correlated with, i.e., improved by, greater Conversational Use. It is also interesting to note (looking at those significantly affected measures in Figures 5.12, 5.13, and 5.17) that performance improves dramatically after only the first few hours of Conversational Use per week. These data suggest that fluency may be maintained with as little as 4 or 5 hours of conversation per week. Heritage Welsh speakers also have the resources of Welsh broadcast media and Welsh language publications, however, so their abilities could, arguably, be rounded out by this broader range of exposure. We will see if greater Welsh Media Exposure has a significant effect on the three measures unaffected by Conversational Use, as it is, in a way, a sort of complementary variable.
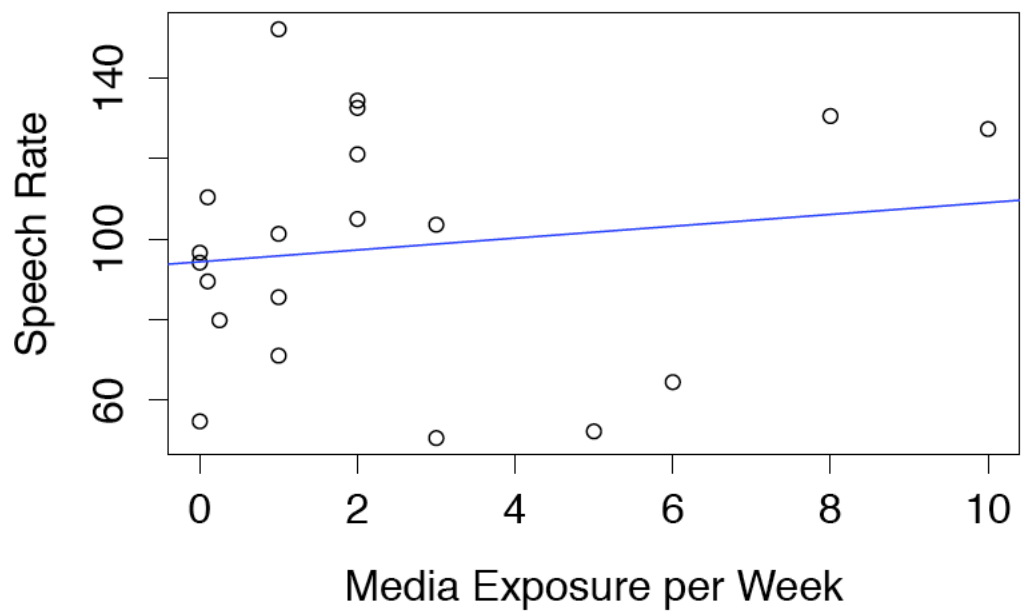
Figure 5.18 Speech Rate of the heritage Welsh narratives plotted against Media Exposure per Week (hours)
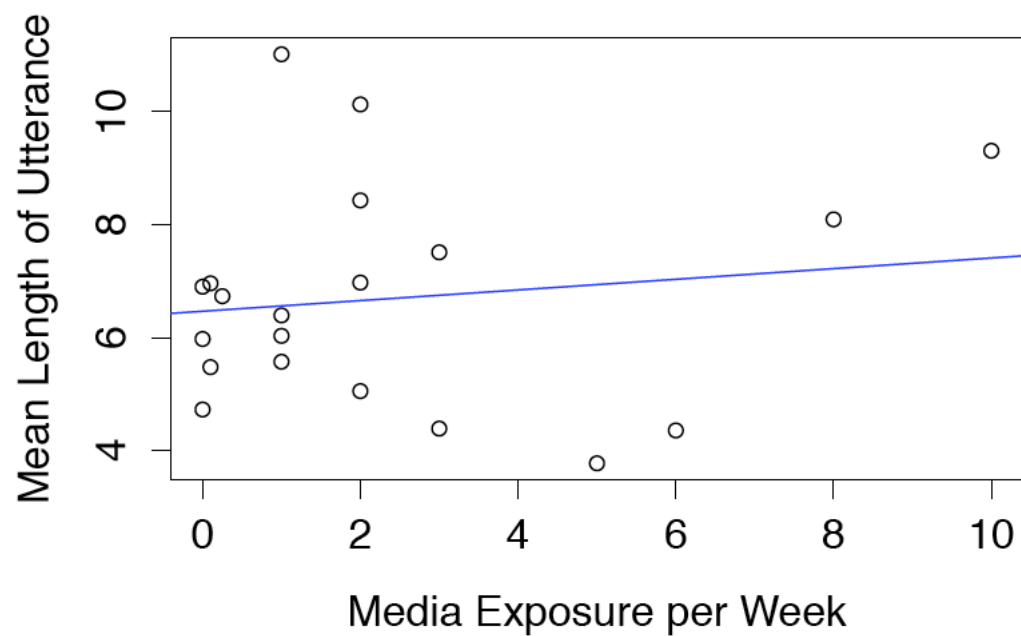
Figure 5.19 Mean Length of Utterance (averaged) in the heritage Welsh narratives plotted against Media Exposure per Week (hours)
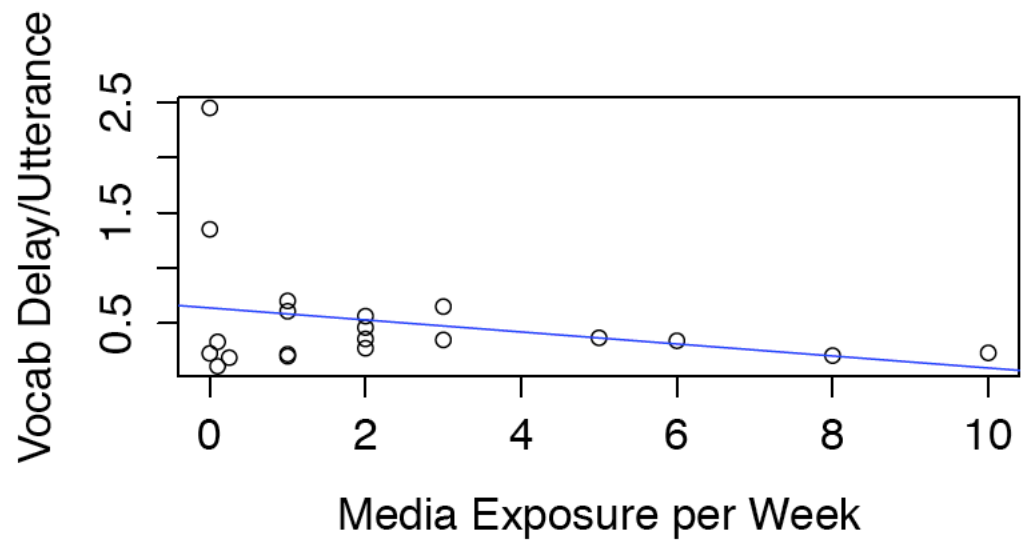
Figure 5.20 Vocabulary Delay per Utterance (averaged) in the heritage Welsh narratives plotted against Media Exposure per Week (hours)
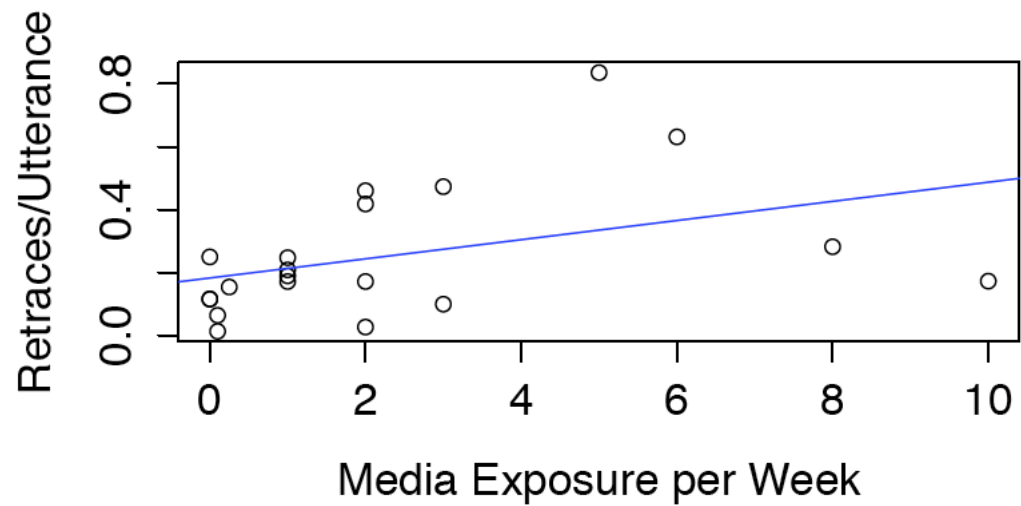
Figure 5.21 Instances of Retracing per Utterance (averaged) in the heritage Welsh narratives plotted against Media Exposure per Week (hours)
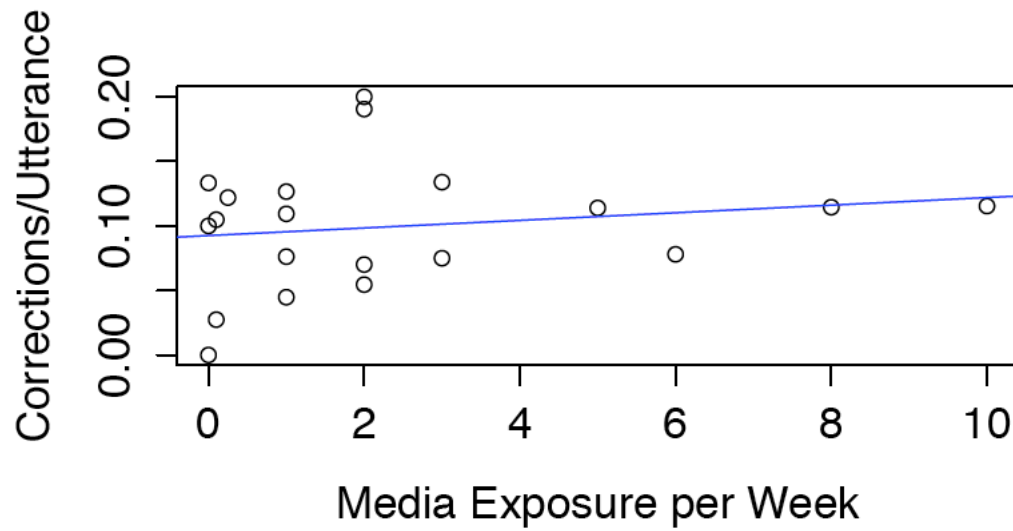
Figure 5.22 Instances of Retracing with Correction per Utterance (averaged) in the heritage Welsh narratives plotted against Media Exposure per Week (hours)
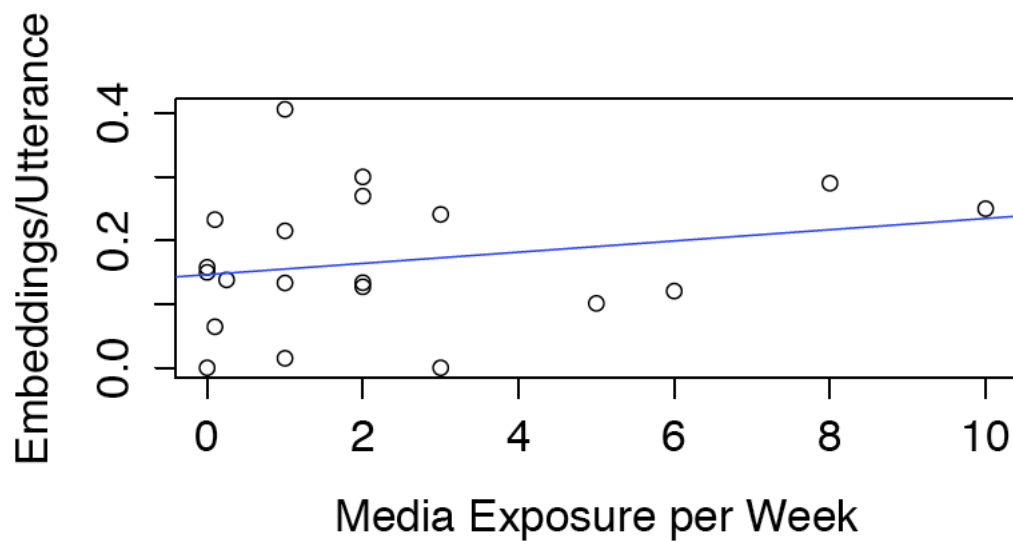
Figure 5.23 Embedded Clauses per Utterance (averaged) in the heritage Welsh narratives plotted against Media Exposure per Week (hours)

These results indicate that Media Exposure as a predictor variable of fluency is quite limited. In fact, none of these six measures is significantly affected by the variable of weekly Media Exposure. At first, this would seem to debunk the theory that Welsh language media—the radio and television stations, all the books, magazines, newspapers, websites, and so on—are vital to Welsh language maintenance, not only for the language community as a whole but also for the internal grammars of individual speakers. Welsh language media have not proven to be effective in producing fluency in this study of heritage Welsh speakers. I would not make such a claim, however, for several reasons. I have already pointed out that the narrative task presented to the informants is not one that engages all aspects of language proficiency. In particular, listening and reading comprehension remain entirely untested. Welsh language input in the form of radio and television programs is surely a valid form of receptive comprehension practice, albeit one that is more passive than conversational practice.

Several complications may be clouding the true relevance of Welsh media in heritage language maintenance. For example, regularly reading Welsh is undeniably a path to a larger vocabulary but not necessarily inclusive of the sort of vocabulary tested by the *Frog, Where Are You?* task. Perhaps more importantly, it is often the least proficient but most eager speakers who devote their time to slogging through whatever Welsh publications they can get their hands on. This is purely an issue of motivation. A heritage speaker with a very low level of perceived fluency may be an avid reader of their hometown *Papur Bro* (community Welsh language newspaper) precisely because they are trying to maintain or improve their Welsh. Likewise, a HS who ranked among the most fluent, according to our measures, may simply be uninterested in the content of Welsh media and therefore report very little regular exposure to these materials. Not only do language attitudes play a part in this variable but also attitudes about these particular forms of media. Several informants simply dismissed the content of Welsh language programming as uninteresting or claimed they just didn't have time to read Welsh newspapers in

addition to their primary, English-language news source. The nature of this study simply does not present the right kind of results to effectively analyze the importance of Welsh media to heritage Welsh fluency, and I imagine designing a sufficiently narrow project would be rather difficult.

Formal Welsh language education was predicted to have a positive effect on fluency outcomes. Recall the study of L1 Korean spoken by immigrants to the US which was discussed in Chapters 2 and 3 (Komshian and Liu 1999). Performance on a Korean grammaticality judgment task improved as the age of arrival in the US increased, but this was not taken as an indicator of the importance of the critical period. The investigators controlled for factors which were associated with age—the amount of regular use of Korean (our variable of conversational practice) as well as the amount of Korean-language schooling undergone before emigrating. Controlling for these factors eliminated the negative correlation that was initially observed between age of L2 acquisition and L1 (or heritage language) attrition. The connection between formal education and more successful (and maintained) acquisition of the L1 was implicit, and the same connection is here assumed for heritage Welsh.

The amount of Welsh in school is represented in these data by six possible levels: (0) represents no Welsh schooling whatsoever; (1) indicates that the informant studied Welsh as a subject for one to three years but (2) if for four or more years (including preparation for an O-level or GCSE exam); (3) indicates that the informant was enrolled in Welsh-medium primary education but did not pursue Welsh as an academic subject after that; (4) represents Welsh-medium primary education as well as Welsh as a subject at the secondary level; (5) indicates that Welsh was the principal language of education both at the primary and secondary level. These distinctions should be sufficiently fine-grained to observe any effects that formal Welsh language education may have had on the resulting grammar of the heritage Welsh speakers.
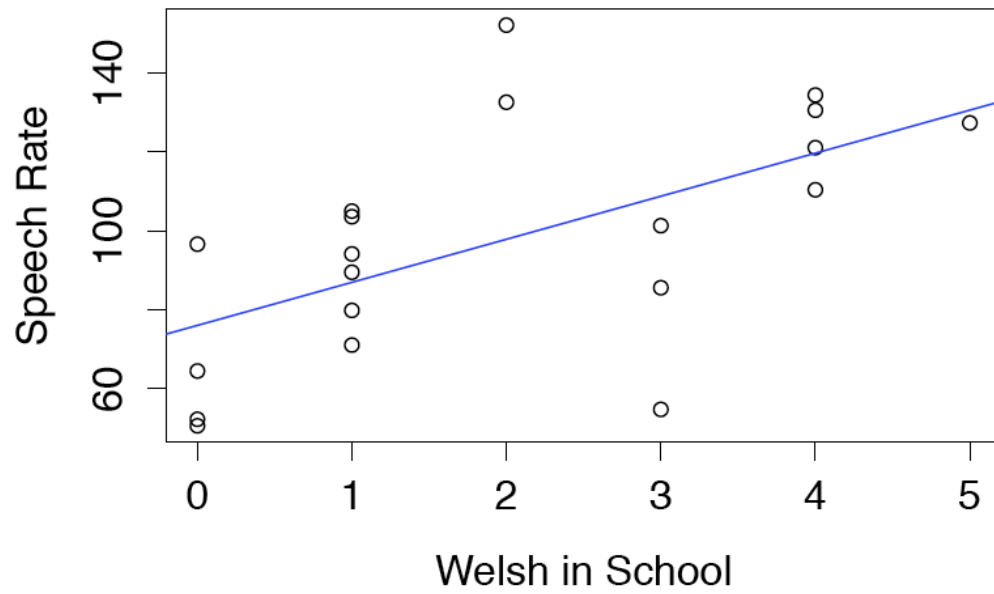
Figure 5.24 Heritage speaker (HS) Speech Rate plotted against the amount of Welsh language education received in school
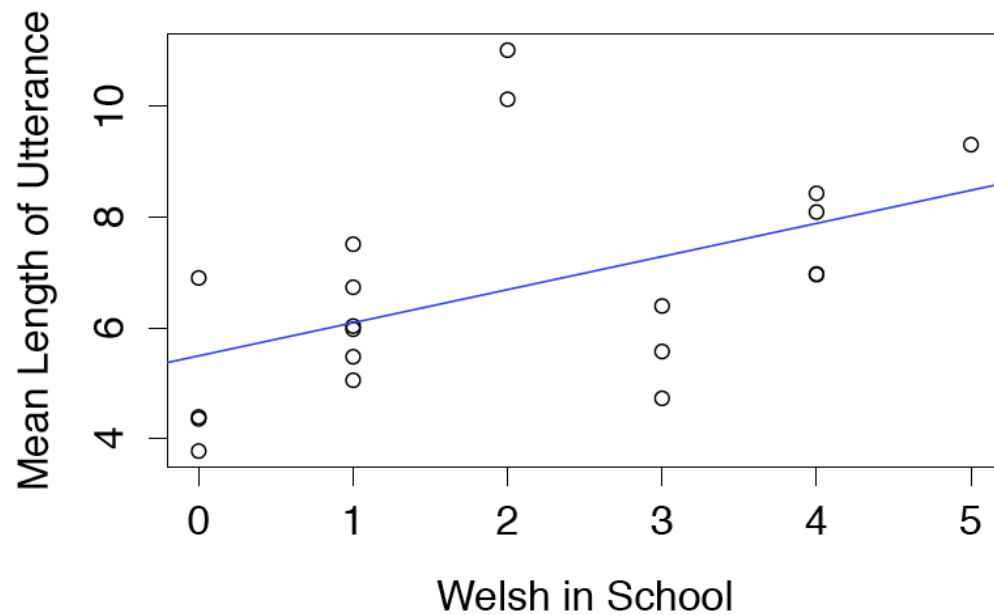
Figure 5.25 Heritage speaker (HS) Mean Length of Utterance (averaged) plotted against the amount of Welsh language education received in school
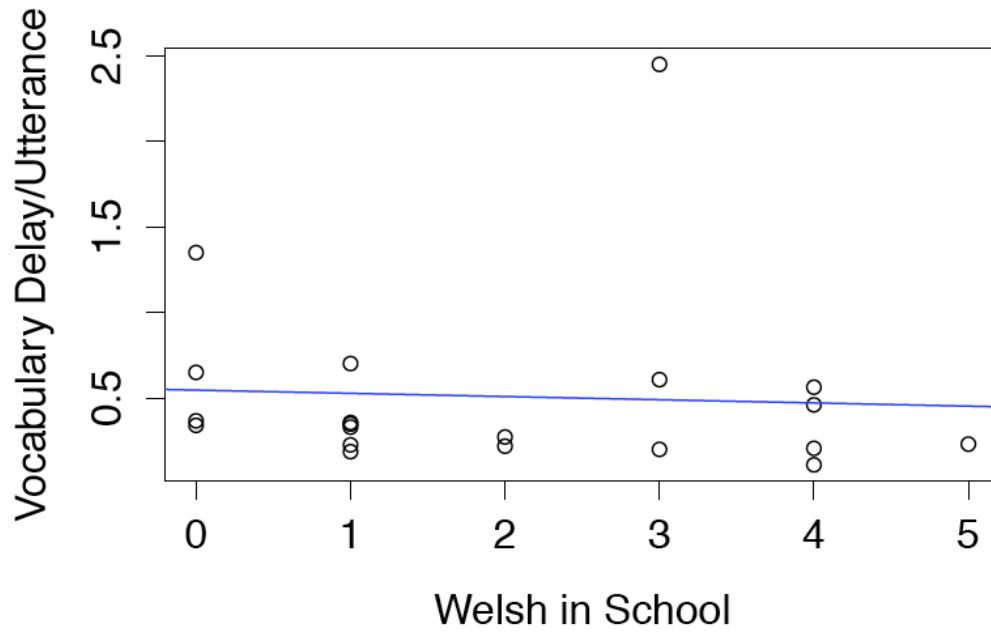
Figure 5.26 Instances of Vocabulary Delay per Utterance (averaged) in the heritage speaker (HS) narratives plotted against the amount of Welsh language education received in school
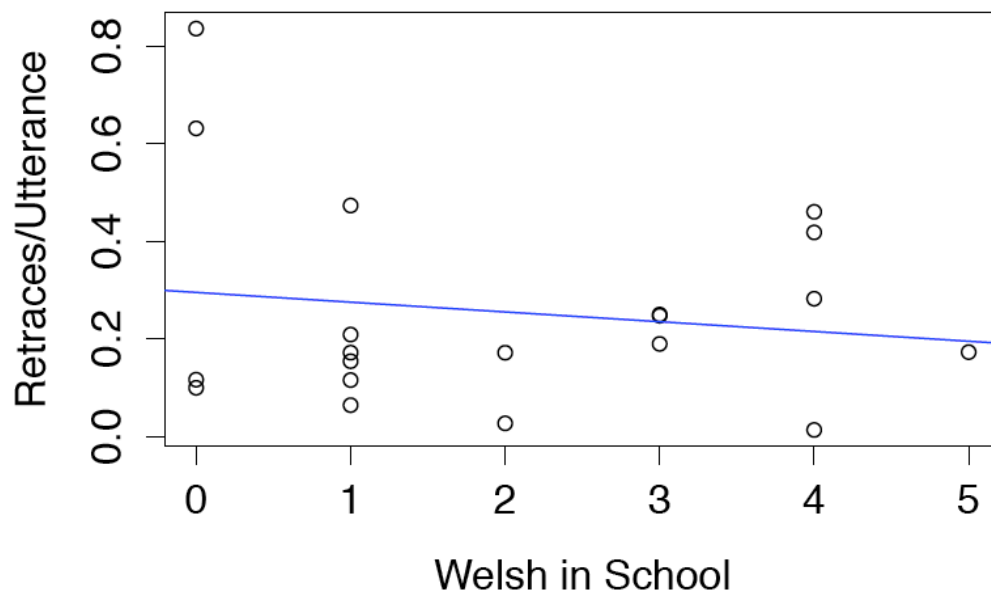
Figure 5.27 Retraces per Utterance (averaged) in the heritage speaker (HS) narratives plotted against the amount of Welsh language education received in school
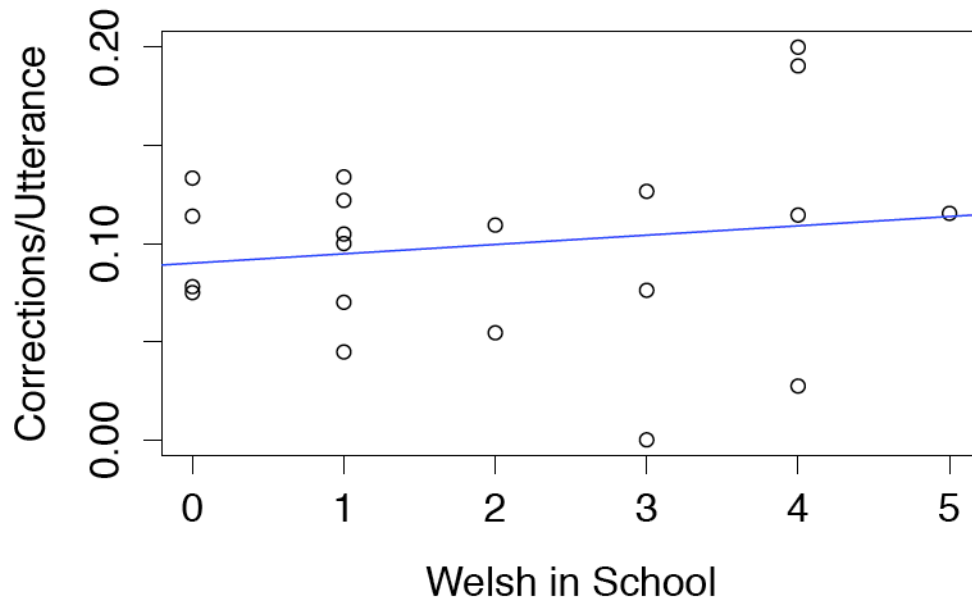
Figure 5.28 Retraces with Correction per Utterance (averaged) in the heritage speaker (HS) narratives plotted against the amount of Welsh language education received in school
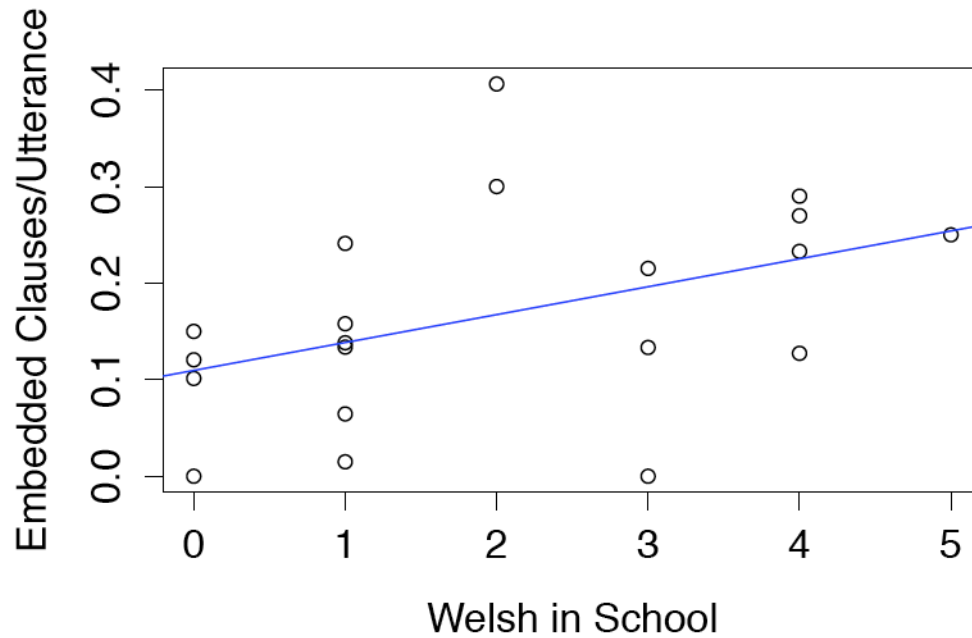
Figure 5.29 Embedded Clauses per Utterance (averaged) in the heritage speaker (HS) narratives plotted against the amount of Welsh language education received in school

Formal Welsh language education was only a significant predictor of the two fluency measures Speech Rate (p-value = 0.005602) and Mean Length of Utterance (p-value = 0.0262). On those measures, the more the informant studied and used Welsh in school the better their fluency remained. This is an intuitive result which makes all the more curious the lack of significant correlation between Welsh schooling and our other fluency measures. Again the vocabulary called for in this narrative task may simply not be the sort of vocabulary used in the classroom setting. On the other hand, as it is a children's book, it could be said that because Welsh schooling at the primary level presumably *did* expose the informants to this kind of language, both the vocabulary and the narrative form itself, it is the infrequency of access to that information (according to the Activation Threshold Hypothesis (Paradis 2004; Paradis 2007)) that limits the vocabulary recall of the heritage speakers. The same can be said for the Controls, who also occasionally struggled with vocabulary recall (see figures 5.5 and 5.6).

The frequencies of Retraces and Retraces with Correction are unaffected by the amount of Welsh the informants were exposed to in school. This is an unexpected result—more Welsh education should lead to fewer instances of these grammatical "do-overs." It could be, however, that greater formal language education resulted in an increased metalinguistic monitor, one which would be as likely to catch mistakes as be careful about not making them in the first place. In a sense, this levels the differences between these five groups and supports my earlier claim that Retraces and Corrections, while essential components of our fluency model, are not as easily measured against variables which may affect that fluency as the other four measures have proven to be—they can not be similarly correlated on a simple positive or negative slope.

The biggest mystery, however, is the lack of a correlation between Welsh in School and Frequency of Embeddings. The greater amount of linguistic exposure, especially in the education setting, would presumably have led to more frequent and confident use of grammatically complex utterances. More so than our other measures, this would have been directly addressed by Welsh

language instruction with the onset of literacy and the deliberate introduction of embedded structure. In fact, a correlation between Welsh in School and Embedded Clauses per Utterance seems apparent from figure 5.29 but the significance of this correlation is just below our threshold with a *p*-value of 0.05527 (i.e. there is a 5.527% chance that these data could be observed *without* a true correlational effect). This problem could easily be due to the flaws of the six-level grouping system or to the low number of participants (N=20), but notice that the highest performers on this measure were the two informants of group (2). Studying Welsh as a subject for more than four years but never enrolling in a Welsh-medium school emerges as the advantage from these data. Recall from figure 5.11 that the average for the Controls on this fluency metric was 0.34 Embedded Clauses per Utterance. These two HSs performed as well or better than the average and the median (50th percentile) of those fully proficient baseline informants. This is certainly very interesting, but again, due to the limits of the informant pool size, I hesitate to overstate the significance of this observation. I would not want to undervalue the importance of Welsh medium education, especially as it is very likely to have been a significant component of the linguistic exposure that resulted in the high proficiency of the Controls as well.

Each of these four variables is problematic in some ways, but they share the single concerning fact of being self-reported. The informants were asked during the interview process about their regular use of the Welsh language and it is on that volunteered information that these correlational observations rely. The difficulty with this is most apparent when analyzing the effect of Age at Language Shift on the fluency measures. Figures 5.30 through 5.35 below present the effect of Age at Language Shift on the fluency measures, in which Age at Language Shift is given in years and those HSs who report themselves to have been balanced in both languages or English dominant from infancy are coded as '0.'

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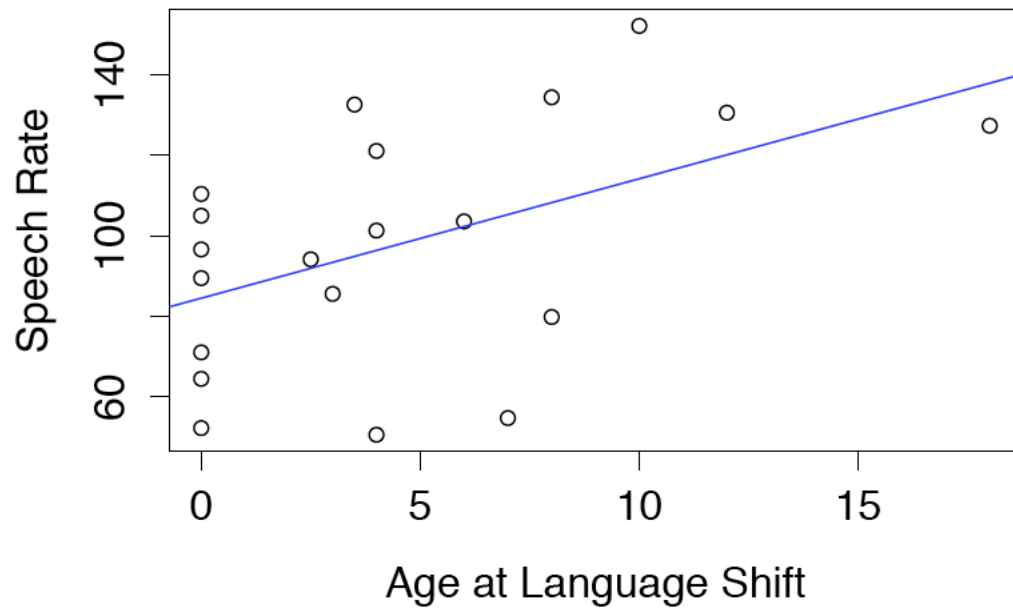
Figure 5.30 Speech Rate of the heritage speakers' narratives plotted against their Age at Language Shift

Figure 5.31 Mean Length of Utterance in the heritage speaker (HS) narratives plotted against their Age at Language Shift
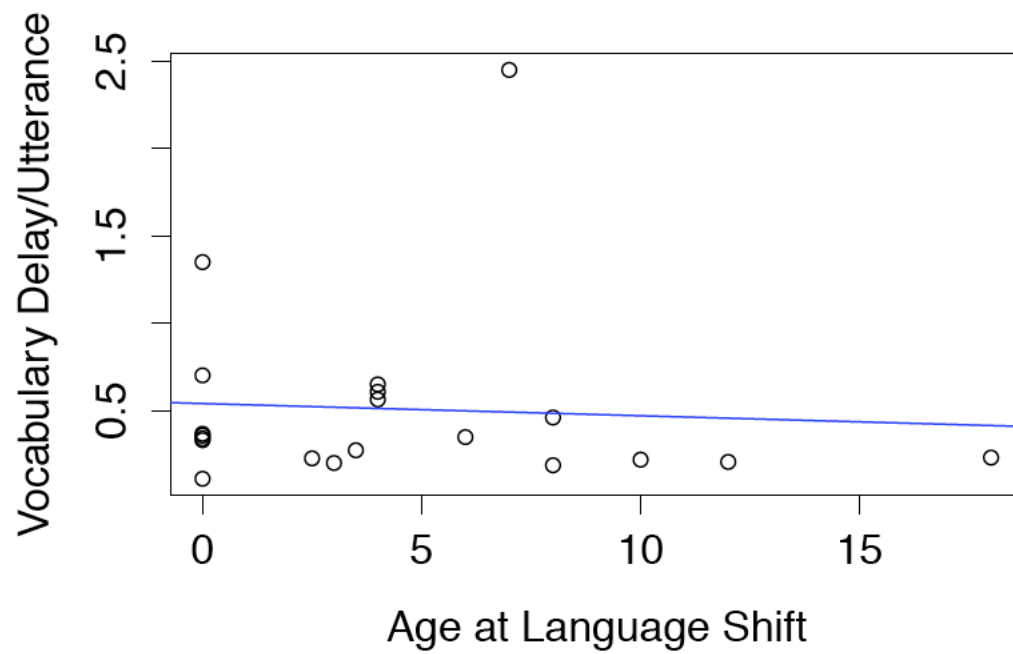
Figure 5.32 Instances of Vocabulary Delay per Utterance (averaged) in the heritage speaker (HS) narratives plotted against their Age at Language Shift

Figure 5.33 Instances of Retracing per Utterance (averaged) in the heritage speaker (HS) narratives plotted against their Age at Language Shift
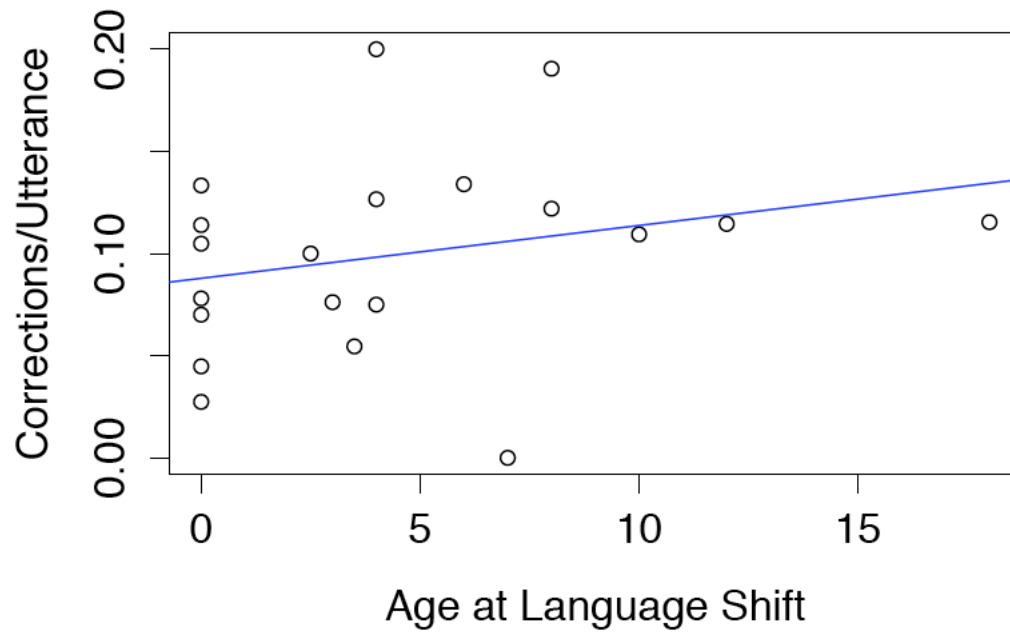
Figure 5.34 Instances of Retracing with Correction per Utterance (averaged) in the heritage speaker (HS) narratives plotted against their Age at Language Shift

Figure 5.35 Embedded Clauses per Utterance (averaged) in the heritage speaker (HS) narratives plotted against their Age at Language Shift

Again, the three fluency metrics of Speech Rate, MLU, and Frequency of Embedded Clauses are the only measures which correlate significantly with the informants' Age at Language Shift (*p*-values of 0.02959, 0.004421, and 0.02767 respectively). Incidentally, these are the same three fluency metrics which are significantly correlated with Conversational Use per Week. The age at which the HS switched from being Welsh dominant to English dominant should be of paramount importance to ultimate language proficiency under the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH), but, given the lengthy discussion of that theory in Chapter 2, we should be careful to analyze these data with a critical eye.

Instances of Vocabulary Delay, Retraces, and Retraces with Correction have been established as valid measures of fluency but they are not significantly effected by this Age at Language Shift variable. This is problematic for the CPH. Retraces and Corrections have already been sufficiently discussed as problematic to set them aside here, but a lack of correlation with Vocabulary Delay is unexpected. According to the criticisms of the CPH which were laid out in Chapter 2, the connection between the child mind and an innate talent for language acquisition has not been established convincingly enough to discount the possibility of successful language acquisition later in life. It is certainly not strong enough to extend the importance of this "critical period" into the domain of attrition as well (contra Montrul 2008). But the circumstances that surround an earlier or later Age at Language Shift , especially given the status of Welsh as a minority language, introduce an interesting set of confounds into the question of its significance.

A more direct study of the effect of this variable could be attempted in situations of a more absolute termination of language exposure, but this is not the case for these HSs of Welsh. The Age at Language Shift variable is problematic because it does not account for the amount of exposure that follows that shift in dominance. This is a fundamental issue in heritage language research (see Chapter 1) and is the reason Conversational Use and Media Exposure have also been included here as important potential factors affecting fluency. The quantity and quality of

continued exposure to Welsh after the dominance shift is fundamental to proficiency outcomes, including fluency measures, but is altogether ignored by the Age at Language Shift variable. There are, in fact, seven heritage speaker informants in this study who reported being bilingual from birth and always English dominant. This obscures entirely any variance in amount of exposure between them. A dominant language may be dominant without the weaker language completely disappearing. The imbalance in the bilingual language system may be slight, even if the shift happened when the heritage speaker was very young or if the speaker was raised bilingually from birth. The Age at Language Shift is not relevant so much as an age at which acquisition ended, as it is a rough indication of the *amount* of Welsh language input the HS received in childhood. Generally speaking, the later the Age at Language Shift, the more Welsh was presumably spoken at home. The earlier the Age at Language Shift the less the HS's immediate family used Welsh in the home. Imagined this way, the *amount* of early exposure correlating with MLU, Speech Rate, and Frequency of Embedded Clauses follows easily from the foundational premise of heritage language research that the quantity and quality of language input determines ultimate acquisition success (as discussed in Chapters 1,3, and 4).

There are concomitant factors which can easily be confused with the Age at Language Shift variable as well. In addition to the effect of language input quantity being reduced after shift, language attitudes may be affected. The heritage speaker may be more positively inclined toward Welsh, and therefore prioritize the maintenance of that language, if she underwent language shift at an older age. Conversely, language shift at an early age may have been caused by a traumatic event, a move or social altercation, and result in a conscious rejection of the heritage language in favor of the dominant language. Naturally, this would result in a greatly reduced desire to maintain that language in adulthood as well. Several of the HS informants recounted such stories to me during the interview process, though they usually accompanied them with a note of regret that they had given up on Welsh when they had the chance to acquire it

completely. These two scenarios are very clearly connected to Age at Language Shift, but the resulting fluency outcome is not directly caused by the shift itself. The malleability of the child mind is not the only influence at play when considering the importance of the age at which language dominance shifted.

What my analysis finds, then, is that HSs of Welsh overlap with baseline Controls on several measures of fluency. While overall proficiency is undeniably distinct between these two groups, some heritage Welsh speakers speak as quickly as baseline speakers, they produce utterances of similar lengths, and they may even use embedded clauses at baseline rates. What all the HS informants struggle with, however, is vocabulary recall and speaking without retracing themselves, either with or without the need to also correct themselves. The impression of fluency may be convincing because of the particular talents of the HS, but she certainly does not present a flawless fluency in any case. The variables which affect that fluency outcome are the measures of conversational practice per week, the age at which her dominance shifted, and, to a lesser extent, the amount of Welsh instruction she received in school.

Notably, the amount of regular exposure to Welsh language media does not correlate with any improved fluency outcomes in this HS sample set, nor is the entire set of measures which make up the fluency complex always affected even by those variables which I found to be significant. Of the six components I combined as a proxy for the concept of fluency—Mean Length of Utterance, Speech rate, Frequency of Embeddings, Vocabulary Recall Delay, Retraces, and Retraces with Corrections—only MLU and Speech Rate were affected by Conversational Use, Welsh schooling, and Age at Language Shift, though the Frequency of Embeddings was also affected by Conversational Use and Age at Language Shift as well. Table 5.1 briefly summarizes these correlational findings.

Table 5.1 Significant effects of variables on fluency measures

Fluency Complex →	MLU	Speech Rate	Frequency of Embeddings	Vocabulary Recall Delay	Retraces	Retraces with Correction
Conversational Use per Week	✓	✓	✓			
Regular Exposure to Welsh Media						
Welsh in School	✓	✓				
Age at Language Shift	✓	✓	✓			

Given the results of my analysis, in which I've found correlations between factors in the personal language history of individual speakers and their performance on certain of these fluency measures, the importance of these factors can be promoted in the language maintenance agenda. The system of Welsh medium schooling and the mandatory Welsh language requirement for students in traditional schools are particularly vulnerable to manipulation in the political arena, so a quantification of the value of Welsh schooling to ultimate fluency may have implications beyond this project. The positive effect of Conversational Use per Week, especially because it appears after only a few hours, is also a welcome result, and one which may be used in support of efforts to create or maintain Welsh language clubs and societies for speakers to practice outside of the Welsh dominant areas of Wales.

This chapter will be a basis for further research into heritage Welsh speakers as a unique group among adult Welsh-English bilinguals. This discussion begs the question of the difference between these HSs and adult L2 Welsh speakers. That comparison is beyond the scope of this project but this dissertation is certainly not the end of heritage Welsh studies. A solid prediction, based on the large body of heritage language research, is that these HSs, regardless of their

grammatical accuracy or literacy competence, should be more fluent than the adult learners. Fundamental to our definition of fluency is that it is based on the impression of the listener, and this is exactly the misperception suffered by HSs in the classroom setting. Speakers of a heritage language are often perceived to be more proficient than they truly are precisely because they speak more fluently than would a learner with otherwise similar grammatical abilities. An understanding of the true determiners of fluency, both its synchronic measurement and the factors which affect its development over time, is immediately relevant in the language classroom.

My intention in describing the fluency of the heritage speakers in comparison to the Controls is not simply to point out the obvious—HSs are less fluent than Welsh dominant speakers and more exposure leads to better fluency outcomes—but a proper understanding of the term is essential. All heritage Welsh speakers do not perform equally well or equally poorly on these measures of fluency. Rather, their abilities vary along a continuum of proficiencies which not only allows for variance among the HSs, but also overlaps with the range of abilities in baseline Welsh as well. HSs who give the impression of high proficiency do so by means of their performance on several of the fluency measures—a performance which may, in fact, equal that of some baseline speakers. That impression of fluency, now quantified and evaluated, can be set aside as only a single component of overall proficiency, and understood to be insufficient on its own to determine the speaker's overall proficiency level.

The question of heritage Welsh fluency will return in the Conclusions of this dissertation, as it clearly relates to language policy and an understanding of census results, both of which will be considered in great detail. After this thorough analysis of the topic, and of where our heritage speakers fall on the fluency spectrum, we will be better able to recognize the huge interpretive variability presented by such a seemingly simple question as "Do you speak Welsh?" Given a new appreciation for the term fluency in its narrow sense, and the measurement of differences among the informants according to these six measures, not only should our understanding of

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heritage Welsh be improved, but also its potential to overlap on a spectrum of Welsh proficiency with the Welsh that is spoken fully proficient speakers. The end goal for Welsh language policies should be well enough defined that fluency is not mistaken for successful and complete acquisition. Language proficiency is more than this single component, despite the fact that it might be the most conspicuous facet of the spoken language.

Chapter 6. Initial Consonant Mutation (ICM) in Heritage Welsh

Like the other languages of the Celtic family, Welsh employs a system of Initial

Consonant Mutation (ICM) as part of its morphological inventory. These mutations are phonetic

changes to the first segment of a word, as shown in table 6.1, which can be triggered by a

preceding lexical item or by grammatical relation. This is one of the most thoroughly studied

components of the language, though linguists still debate some aspects of our understanding of its

functionality. As a distinctive phenomenon, ICM maintenance in heritage Welsh is potentially an

informative test of the resilience of a particular grammatical system in heritage language which is

entirely foreign to the dominant language. The heritage Welsh grammars, given the conditions of

reduced language exposure which result in heritage rather than baseline proficiency, may also

shed some light on the relative salience of these morphological alterations to the language

acquirer, and thus also to typical users of the Welsh language.

Table 6.1 The Initial Consonant Mutation (ICM) system

radical form of the consonant		form after Aspirate Mutation (AM) *Treiglad Llaes*		form after Nasal Mutation (NM) *Treiglad Trwynol*		form after Soft Mutation/Lenition (SM) *Treiglad Meddal*	
/p/	'p'	/f/	'ph'	/m̥h/	'mh'	/b/	'b'
/t/	't'	/θ/	'th'	/n̥h/	'nh'	/d/	'd'
/k/	'c'	/χ/	'ch'	/ŋ̥h/	'ngh'	/g/	'g'
/b/	'b'			/m/	'm'	/v/	'f'
/d/	'd'			/n/	'n'	/ð/	'dd'
/g/	'g'			/ŋ/	'ng'	∅	
/m/	'm'					/v/	'f'
/ɬ/	'll'					/l/	'l'
/r̥/	'rh'					/r/	'r'

From Table 6.1, we see that the Aspirate Mutation (AM) transforms its affected consonants from [-cont] to [+cont], i.e., turns a plosive into a fricative by slightly opening the point of closure during articulation. The Nasal Mutation (NM) also changes its affected consonants from [-cont] to [+cont] as well as nasalizes those consonants. The Soft Mutation (SM) changes [-voice] to [+voice] where applicable, [-cont] to [+cont] if already voiced, and deletes /g/ altogether.[1] The consonantal changes caused by an instance of mutation are to the manner of articulation only—they do not affect the place of articulation. The three types of ICM—Nasal Mutation (NM), Aspirate Mutation (AM), and Lenition or Soft Mutation (SM)—will each be addressed in turn, and any divergence between the heritage speakers and the baseline in distribution or motivation will be analyzed in the following sections.

When I began building the corpus of Welsh narrative samples, I predicted that the ICM system in heritage Welsh would be dramatically simplified in comparison to the language of the baseline informants. Based on the relative frequencies of these mutations in the baseline, I expected that AM and NM would prove to be less robust than SM in general, and that the distribution of SM would also be significantly reduced from the baseline grammar, though to a lesser extent than the other two mutations. These hypotheses do not follow from the discussion of Chapter 3, however, in which it was shown that the more opaque a grammatical structure, the more input is required in order for it to be fully acquired. The *frequency* of that structure is not necessarily the determining factor of its being acquired or not. Consequently, my predictions were not entirely borne out, and my assumption that the ICM system is not completely acquired by heritage Welsh speakers proved to be too simple to describe the data. The heritage system of ICM is not uniformly divergent from the baseline overall—indeed, some of the mutation contexts

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[1] The phenomenon of *h*-insertion, clearly related to ICM, is excluded from this analysis because of its rarity and because it is not, strictly speaking, a *consonantal* mutation. The addition of the aspirate *h*- before a word-initial vowel (expected after the lexical triggers *eu* 'their' and *ein* 'our') was only observed once in the narrative samples collected for this project.

manifest as native-like in heritage Welsh—and there are signs that the various conditions which

trigger even the same kind of mutation are not equivalently transparent to the acquirer. It is not

the system as a whole which is either successfully acquired or not, nor even acquired as one kind

of mutation at a time, but rather it seems that each triggering context of mutation is acquired

individually. Notable characteristics of heritage Welsh ICM which support this generalization are

discussed in the following sections.

6.1 aspirate mutation

The Aspirate Mutation (AM) is very infrequent in baseline Welsh, but it does appear in

the heritage Welsh samples in a one particular context, suggesting it may have more stability in

Welsh than its infrequent application may suggest. Conceding that the narrative samples of this

project are, in general, not particularly long or lexically varied, they nevertheless exhibit a

striking dearth of AM overall. When considering lexical AM triggers,[2] only two of the baseline

speakers used AM at all (three times total), though it was expected in nine of the speakers'

samples (in eighteen total instances).[3] The heritage speakers, interestingly, were similarly

distributed—one speaker (in one instance) used AM, which was triggered in ten samples (in

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[2] The sole (arguably) syntactic context of the AM is the so-called mixed mutation on the synthetic
verb of a negative sentence, which takes AM on those three consonants which are affected by
AM, and SM otherwise. For most speakers, this mutation has simplified to SM on all mutable
consonants. It is not considered here because of its known irregularity in the baseline, and the fact
that it did not appear in any of the samples. (cf. King 2003, 185; Thomas 1996, 694-5)

[3] The reader may notice that I am avoiding using terms like "correct" and "incorrect" when
describing the informants' use of the ICM system. The grammatical accuracy prescribed by
traditional grammar books may be a useful reference but, as a descriptive study, this project is
more interested in the naturally produced speech of the baseline informants as the comparandum
to the heritage speakers. My use of "correctly applied" or "missed mutation" could be mistaken as
a judgment about the quality of the language in both the heritage and baseline samples, something
which has no place here.

twelve instances). Not only did the heritage speakers neglect to employ AM in the majority of triggering contexts, the heritage speakers used the SM instead of the AM in six instances where AM was expected. Tellingly, the baseline speakers used SM instead of AM in nine such instances as well. On the other hand, AM is almost never employed in contexts where one of the other mutations is expected—only one speaker, a heritage speaker, did this (in two instances where SM was expected).

Table 6.2 Use of the Aspirate Mutation (AM) in the narrative samples

	AM used where expected	no mutation where AM expected	AM where no mutation expected	AM where SM was expected	SM where AM was expected
heritage speakers: total instances	1	12	1	2	6
baseline speakers: total instances	3	18	0	0	8

It would seem that the contexts for AM are being absorbed by the SM as the ICM system simplifies—both in the baseline and heritage grammars—but the similarity of AM distribution in both sample populations runs counter to my prediction above about AM disappearing in the heritage grammars. The retention of AM by the heritage speakers may be most remarkable in that it does *not* show greater simplification than what is seen in the baseline grammars. Certainly, AM is weakly represented in heritage Welsh, but not because of the nature of heritage language acquisition in particular. Baseline Welsh is simplifying the ICM system already, and the strongest remaining lexical trigger for AM is being maintained in the heritage language nearly as well as in the baseline—*ei* 'her' retains the AM as part of its lexical entry because it is necessary in order to

distinguish it from the otherwise homophonous *ei* 'his', which triggers SM . Table 6.3 below

presents all the potential lexical triggers of AM.

Table 6.3 Aspirate Mutation (AM) lexical triggers

found triggering AM in baseline samples	ei^{AM} 'her'
not found triggering AM in baseline samples	a^{AM} 'and' $â^{AM}$ 'with' $chwe^{AM}$ 'six' $gyda^{AM}$ 'with' tri^{AM} 'three' tua^{AM} 'around'

(list of potential triggers modified from King (2003, 17), a grammar of modern colloquial Welsh)

Although there are seven potential lexical triggers of AM, only three appear in the

narrative samples of the baseline informants— *ei* 'her', *a* 'and', and *gyda* 'with'. Judgments

about the strength of the other four as AM triggers in the standard or heritage language must be

withheld. Of those three lexical triggers which were actually used, only *one* ever affected AM on

the following consonant—*ei* 'her'. This is not unexpected. The other six are known to be

inconsistent as AM triggers in the baseline. (King 2003, 17) As I mentioned above, the

motivation for maintaining this single AM context by the baseline speakers, the trigger *ei* 'her,' is

most likely that there is a need to distinguish it from *ei* 'his' (which triggers SM). Given this

assumption, it should be no surprise, then, that in the single instance when a heritage speaker used

ei 'her' she also aspirated the following mutable consonant. The logical necessity for this

mutation context is in fact so transparent, that even heritage speakers, with their reduced and

irregular exposure to Welsh, may acquire and maintain the AM for the sole purpose of employing

it in these instances. Further study of the AM in heritage Welsh is warranted given this result. The

fact that there is only a single data point suggesting successful acquisition of AM under reduced exposure is not enough evidence to claim that the AM system is completely acquired by the heritage speakers, but it is certainly enough to motivate a future study which directly elicits this mutation in a more controlled fashion.

6.2 nasal mutation

The Nasal Mutation (NM) affects six consonants—/p, t, k, b, d, g/—but is only applied after two lexical triggers. Given the reduction of the baseline AM system, as discussed above, a reasonable prediction may be that the baseline informants will exhibit a similar reduction of the NM system. However, both of the lexical triggers of NM maintain their nasalizing effect in the baseline samples.

Table 6.4 lexical triggers of Nasal Mutation (NM)

| found triggering NM in baseline samples | *fy*^{NM} 'my' (often elided to *ym, yn,* or *y* in speech) |
| | *yn*^{NM} 'in' |

(list modified from King (2003, 17))

Five of the baseline informants nasalized a consonant following either trigger (in seventeen instances). Three other baseline informants failed to mutate after *yn* 'in,' but no baseline speaker failed to mutate after *fy* 'my.' Table 6.5 presents these data.

Table 6.5 Nasal Mutation (NM) in the narrative samples

baseline	yn^{NM}	fy^{NM}	Heritage Speakers	yn^{NM}	fy^{NM}
realized NM	12	5	realized NM	7	0
omitted NM	3	0	omitted NM	6	0
SM instead of NM	11	0	SM instead of NM	5	0

The fact that the singular possessive adjectives—*fy*^{NM} 'my,' *dy*^{SM} 'your,' *ei*^{SM} 'his,' and *ei*^{AM} 'her'—each trigger one of the three types of mutation is almost certainly due to their reduced pronunciation as clitics. The most salient aspect of the phonological forms of these lexical items in rapid speech is often the following mutation. Strictly speaking, the possessive adjective clitics are circumfixes, in which a redundant personal pronoun may also follow the noun. The need for this redundant pronoun follows from the same reason—the possessive clitic is difficult to discern in natural speech. In instances where a mutable consonant follows the possessive adjective, the listener is able to catch the intended meaning from the mutation as much as from the clitic itself, and the following pronoun is redundant. Not all consonants are mutable, however, and vowels never are. In those cases the personal pronoun following the noun is necessary to avoid ambiguity. The examples below show how this system works, efficiently transmitting the salient lexical information with a minimum of redundant information. The role that ICM plays in the possessive adjective system is likely why these mutations are maintained in the baseline.

(1) cath
     cat

(2) *'yng nghath (i)*
      my ^{NM}cat

(3) *dy   gath (di)*
      your ^{SM}cat

(4) *ei gath (e)*
    his ^{SM}cat

(5) *ei chath (hi)*
    her ^{AM}cat

The second context for NM is similarly motivated. There are four *yn* homophones in

Welsh—the adverbial particle, the predicative particle, the progressive aspect particle, and the

preposition 'in'—and as with the possessive adjective system, these *yn* homophones are primarily

distinguished phonetically by the mutations they do or do not trigger. SM is triggered by the

adverbial particle and the predicative particle, no mutation follows the progressive particle, and,

yn 'in' triggers NM. Position within the sentence and discourse context distinguish the adverbial

particle from the predicative particle (though both are followed by adjectives), thus reducing the

potential for ambiguity. The predicative particle and the progressive aspect particle have

overlapping contexts—both follow the subject in an analytic/periphrastic construction and are

frequently elided to *'n*—but the SM triggered by the predicative particle conveys to the listener

that it is a noun or adjective which follows, rather than a verb-noun.[4] Note the difference in

examples (6) and (7) below. Obviously, the predicate itself will eliminate this ambiguity as well,

but the listener does not need to wait for the entire phrase to be uttered when a mutation (or lack

of mutation) on its initial consonant enables some amount of planning on the listener's part earlier

in the utterance. The predicative particle *yn* and *yn* 'in' are potentially ambiguous, on the other

hand, because they may occur in the same position within the sentence, as examples (7) and (8)

illustrate. The NM triggered by the preposition *yn* 'in' in these instances eliminates that

ambiguity when the following consonant is mutable.

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[4] A definition of the Welsh verb-noun deserves a dissertation in itself, but for our purposes it is
sufficient to say that its roles are analogous to verbally derived forms in English such as the
infinitive, the participle, and the gerund.

(6)   Mae e   'n   cerdded yn   gyflym
        is.3sg he PROG walk   ADV SMquick (radical form: cyflym)
        He is walking quickly.

(7)   Mae e   yn   dwll
        is.3sg he/it PRED SMhole   (radical form: twll)
        It's a hole.

(8)   Mae e   yn   nhwll
        is.3sg he/it in NMhole   (radical form: twll)
        It's in a hole.

Knowing that AM is possibly maintained by the heritage speakers in a single context in

which it is truly necessary for disambiguation, following *ei* 'her,' the heritage speakers are

expected to also maintain NM in disambiguating contexts. NM following *fy* 'my' and *yn* 'in' is, in

both cases (to some degree), necessary for phonological distinction from other, homophonous

clitics. Unfortunately, the heritage speakers did not use the possessive adjective *fy* 'my' at all, and

so I am unable to test my hypothesis that its NM would be maintained. The baseline speakers

used *fy* 'my' only when they spoke in the first person of the characters, adding some flair to their

narratives with dialogue and funny voices. It should be no surprise, then, that the less confident

heritage speakers failed to employ this particular narrative device in constructing their own

stories.

There are more data points of *yn* 'in' in the heritage speaker narratives, but the

maintenance of NM is less clearly defined than was the maintenance of AM discussed above.

Whereas the baseline speakers employed the NM in 12 out of 15 triggered instances, the heritage

speakers actually mutated in only 7 of 13 triggered instances (as we can see in table 6.5 above).

Generally speaking, individual speakers were consistent in either using NM or failing to, but one

heritage speaker mutated after *yn* 'in' in one instance, and did not mutate in another. Either the

need for disambiguation alone is not motivation enough to maintain NM after the trigger *yn* 'in,'

or this context for NM has not been completely acquired by all of our heritage Welsh speakers.

The heritage speakers who did mutate after *yn* 'in' averaged higher than the total heritage speaker average on measures of weekly Media Exposure, Age at Language Shift, and Welsh in School, but lower than average Conversational Use per week. On the other hand, those heritage speakers who used the radical forms of mutable consonants instead of mutating after *yn* 'in' had lower than average measures of weekly Media Exposure, Conversational Use, and Age at Language Shift, but higher than the total heritage speaker average on the measure of Welsh in School. I do not want to over-emphasize the possible effects of these individual measures, but the general trend—that greater input seems to have led to better outcomes of NM maintenance—must be taken as a sign of the importance of the quantity of input in the acquisition process.[5] The informants are better sifted for personal language history by NM than by AM, which was maintained in too few instances to see any trends in the speakers' Welsh experience by these measures.

The potential for ambiguity is not as great in contexts which call for NM as in the *ei* 'her' versus *ei* 'his' context. The different *yn*'s are capable of being distinguished by other means. Placement in the sentence (or its immediate linguistic context) helps to differentiate, as does the class of word which follows (noun, adjective, or verb-noun), making NM redundant in most instances. If the heritage speaker is not dependent on the mutation as a functional element in conveying her intended meaning or understanding her interlocutor, the maintenance of that mutation is less critical in the grammar. The baseline speakers also occasionally omit the NM after *yn* 'in,' and presumably for the same reason. We will revisit the *yn* homophones in the next section of this chapter when we look at the Soft Mutation (SM) and its triggers, but at this point we are still uncertain of the extent to which their mutation effects are acquired by our heritage speakers.

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[5] See Chapter 5 for a description of these input variables and their potential effect on language outcomes.

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Before leaving the NM and AM, it is also important to note those instances in which the SM was employed in their place. Tables 6.2 and 6.5 both give the figures for the occurrences of SM appearing when one of the other mutations was expected—an AM triggering context actually appeared with SM in 8 instances in the baseline and 6 in heritage Welsh, and a NM triggering context appeared with SM in 11 instances in the baseline and 5 in heritage Welsh. The particular details of each of these occurrences are not necessary here, but the trend toward dominance of SM in the ICM system is clear. Recall that the AM only actually occurred in the baseline samples in 3 instances and in the heritage Welsh samples in 4 instances. Not only did the SM replace the AM in many triggered contexts, it actually replaced the AM in more instances than the AM appeared itself. The same pattern is seen in the replacement of NM by SM—NM itself only appeared 12 times in the baseline and 7 in the heritage samples, but manifested as SM in 11 and 5 instances, respectively. When mutation carries a true functional load, the heritage speakers are more likely to exhibit it, but the mutation of first resort is clearly SM. Only when disambiguation is necessary are the other two types of mutation maintained.

6.3 soft mutation

The Soft Mutation (SM), or Lenition, is the best represented of the three types of ICM in Welsh. Not only does it affect the greatest number of consonants (9, see table 6.1), but also, in addition to following lexical triggers, SM is used to indicate gender or grammatical function in certain contexts. Table 6.6 below presents all of the potential triggers of SM, both lexical and syntactic.

Table 6.6 The Contexts of Soft Mutation (SM)[6]

lexical triggers of SM: content words	*pan* 'when' *am* 'about' *pa* 'which' *ar* 'on' *neu* 'or' *at* 'at' *dan* 'under' *dau* 'two' (m) *dros* 'over' *dwy* 'two' (f) *gan* 'by, with' *heb* 'without' *pur* 'very' *hyd* 'up to' *mor* 'so' *i* 'to' *go* 'fairly' *o* 'from' *rhy* 'too' *tan* 'until' *trwy* 'through' *ei* 'his' *wrth* 'at' *dy* 'your' *hen* 'old' *dyma* 'Here is ...' *ambell* 'occasional' *dyna* 'There is ...' *pob* 'each, every' *dacw* 'There is ...' *prif* 'main, chief' *holl* 'all' *unig* 'only' (These adjectives are exceptional in that they precede the noun.)
lexical triggers of SM: function words	*fe* pre-verbal particle (Southern) *mi* pre-verbal particle (Northern) *yn* predicative particle, before a noun or adjective complement *a* relative particle (Subjects and Direct Objects only) *yn* adverbial particle (*yn* + adjective = adverb)
lexical triggers of SM: indicating feminine gender	SM on a feminine noun following *un* 'one' SM on a feminine noun following *y/yr* 'the' SM on an adjective following a feminine noun
SM as an indicator of syntactic salience	SM on a phrase of address SM on a noun in apposition SM on adverbial phrases of time or manner (without *yn*) SM on post-posed Subject (intervening prepositional phrases, adverbial phrases, etc.) SM on the direct object of a synthetic verb

[6] This list does not include word-internal SM contexts. SM is triggered on the second element of a compound and on a mutable consonant following a prefix, but, as these mutations are entirely lexicalized, they have not been analyzed here. The content of this table is taken from King (2003) and Thomas (1996).

SM appears in far more contexts and has a much broader distribution in the Welsh language than either the Nasal or Aspirate Mutation. Both the baseline and heritage speaker informants liberally applied SM, even in contexts where it had not been triggered, as I discussed above. Idiosyncratically, baseline speakers will lenite the initial consonant of an inflected verb, a remnant of the preverbal particle and as such not a context that is either, strictly speaking, lexically or syntactically triggered.[7] Example (9) below, which is taken from one of the baseline narrative samples, exhibits this idiosyncratic synthetic verb initial SM.

(9)   G̲wymp-odd ar ei ben allan o 'r   ffenest (radical form: cwympo)
        \fall-3sg.PST on his \head out of the window
        He fell on his head out of the window.

The mutated form also seems to be the baseline default form for a number of lexical items, including *weld* instead of *gweld* 'see' and *neud* for *gwneud* 'do,' both of which are extremely frequent lexical items in the language. It seems that the necessity of SM in disambiguating meaning or carrying grammatical information is less a factor of its survival in Welsh than it was for AM and NM. Baseline speakers are, in fact, so comfortable with SM that they are more likely to lenite in the absence of any trigger than they are to neglect to employ SM where it is triggered. Table 6.7 below presents the figures for this trend toward overuse following lexical triggers.

SM has clearly become the most robust representative of the ICM system and its default mutation. Only one baseline and two heritage Welsh informants employed the NM in instances when it was not the mutation that had been triggered. The AM is even more weakly preferred in

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[7] It could be argued that SM on the synthetic past verb is functional in that it signals to the listener that the verb, often with reduced pronunciation of the person/number suffix and/or null subject, is indeed past tense instead of another synthetic form. The optionality of SM in this context, however, seems to me to indicate that it does not carry so great a functional load that it would be maintained in the baseline population for this reason, rather that it varies by dialect and idiolect.

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the samples, with only one informant (a heritage speaker) ever using AM in lieu of the expected mutation. On the other hand, nearly half of the controls and over one third of the heritage speakers used SM when it was actually either AM or NM which had been triggered. I conclude from the imbalanced distribution of these three mutations that SM is by far the most robust, and as such, its phonetic effects are fully acquired by the heritage speakers, though all of its triggering contexts are not necessarily acquired as well. The role of SM in disambiguation is predicted to be a factor in heritage speaker maintenance of the SM, as it seems to be with AM and NM, but not the only factor.

Of the various contexts for SM, three categories are easily distinguished—SM by lexical trigger, SM as a signal of grammatical gender, and SM by syntactic trigger. The third of these categories has proven to be rather controversial in the literature, so it will be necessary for me to provide some review of those theories along with my analysis of the heritage Welsh samples. Luckily, the first two categories are comparatively straightforward. In the following three sections, I will address each SM context category in turn and discuss the apparent stability of this piece of Welsh grammar in the language produced by the heritage Welsh speakers.

6.3.1 lexical triggers of SM

From Table 6.6, it is clear that there are far more lexical triggers of SM than of either NM or AM. The narratives provided by both the baseline and heritage speakers reflect the disproportionate representation of SM in their language as well. The baseline speakers averaged 25.15 total instances of SM in their narratives (0.39124 per utterance), *far* surpassing the average of either AM (0.15 per speaker) or NM (0.9 per speaker). The heritage speakers showed a fairly high level of maintenance of SM as well, averaging 10.9 total instances of SM in their narratives (0.111689 per utterance). See Table 6.7 below.

Table 6.7 Representation of Soft Mutation (SM) following lexical triggers in the samples

	Baseline total:	speaker average:	Heritage Speakers total:	speaker average:
SM triggered and present	460	23	185	9.25
SM triggered but absent	91	4.55	143	7.15
SM after no trigger	24	1.2	22	1.1
SM after an AM trigger	8		6	
SM after a NM trigger	12		5	

The baseline Welsh speakers used SM more frequently than the heritage Welsh speakers.

This is unsurprising given the discussions of Part I of this dissertation which described the

resultant grammar of incomplete acquisition and given the observations made above about the

maintenance of AM and NM in heritage Welsh. The lexically triggered contexts of SM are clearly

not all acquired by the heritage speakers—the speaker average for omitting a lexically triggered

SM was nearly as high as their average for successfully employing that mutation after a lexical

trigger. Generally speaking, as can be seen in table 6.6, those lexical triggers are most often

lexically distinct or unambiguous enough on their own that the SM is not carrying a particularly

heavy functional load. This is not to say, however, that the SM system is not present in the

heritage grammars as well. It is important to note that there was only one heritage speaker

narrative which lacked any application of SM after a lexical trigger—but that narrative contained

only a single such context and four other instances in which SM *was* applied as an indication of

gender (albeit incorrectly).

Knowing that the lengths of the narratives were not significantly different between the baseline and heritage speakers, the disparity in total appearance of SM per speaker is noteworthy. The SM system is clearly available to the heritage speakers—i.e., the lenited forms of the nine mutable consonants are correctly acquired by the heritage speakers—but SM is not consistently applied. 43% of all SM lexical triggers in the heritage Welsh narratives (primarily prepositions) were not followed by the application of SM. This figure does not indicate a robust presence of SM in the heritage grammars. SM may be the best represented of the three types of mutation in Welsh, but its application in the heritage language is far from the relative ease with which baseline speakers apply it whenever appropriate, i.e., at a rate of 83.5% in all lexically triggered instances.

Yn 'in' was discussed above as a trigger of NM. *Yn*, however, is actually four separate homophonous lexical items in Welsh, two of which trigger SM—*yn* the adverbial particle and *yn* the predicative particle. As a reminder, example sentences (6) through (8) are repeated below, which each exemplify one or two of the *yn* homophones.

(6)   Mae   e   'n   cerdded yn   gyflym
        is.3sg he <u>PROG</u> walk   <u>ADV</u> ^{SM}quick (radical form: cyflym)
        He is walking quickly.

(7)   Mae   e   yn   dwll
        is.3sg he/it <u>PRED</u> ^{SM}hole (radical form: twll)
        It's a hole.

(8)   Mae   e   yn nhwll
        is.3sg he/it <u>in</u> ^{NM}hole (radical form: twll)
        It's in a hole.

The adverbial *yn* is not well represented in the heritage speaker narratives—it was only used 20 times total, only 8 of which occurred in conjunction with a mutable consonant (in which the speaker did not lenite a following mutable consonant in 3 instances and applied SM appropriately in 5 instances). Given these limited data points, I hesitate to draw any strong

conclusions about the maintenance of adverbial *yn* as a trigger of SM in heritage Welsh, though

with 62.5% successful SM in those triggered instances in the samples, the adverbial SM may be

worth further investigation. The baseline speakers, as a point of comparison, used adverbial *yn* a

total of 56 times, and of those, 26 occurred with a mutable consonant following. Only in one

instance did a baseline speaker fail to employ SM in that context—that is a rate of 96.2%

successful application of SM in this triggering context in baseline Welsh. The predicative *yn*, on

the other hand, is much better represented in the samples. Table 6.8 below presents a few relevant

figures.

Table 6.8 Predicative *yn* and SM in the Welsh samples (heritage and baseline)

	Baseline Welsh Speakers/Controls		Heritage Welsh Speakers	
	total:	speaker average:	total:	speaker average:
SM of mutable consonant following *yn* (predicative particle)	68	3.4	26	1.3
No SM of mutable consonant following *yn* (predicative particle)	7	0.35	16	0.8
yn (predicative particle) followed by a non-mutating consonant or vowel	88	4.4	64	3.2

The heritage speakers applied SM to a mutable consonant following the predicative

particle in 62% of its appearances, which is not a rate of impressive consistency. It is important

also to note, however, the far greater occurrence of the predicative particle followed by a non-mutating letter. The average heritage speaker narrative contained 5.3 instances of the predicative *yn*, but more than half of those would not have realized SM anyway, because the following word did not begin with one of the nine mutable consonants. The consequently infrequent appearance of SM following this trigger in even the baseline language (in only 68 out of 163 total occurrences of predicative *yn*, from table 6.8) could mean that the acquisition of this particular grammatical process would require a greater amount of total input or exposure than the relative frequency of this particle itself in the language would suggest.

On the other hand, given what we've seen of the heritage mutation system so far, the functional load of SM must also be examined as a possible determining factor in the acquisition of each of its contexts individually. As it happens, there is no ambiguity between the four *yn* homophones if NM is maintained after *yn* 'in.' Sentential context alone can disambiguate the predicative particle, progressive particle, and adverbial particle, as shown in examples (6) through (8) above. Because SM follows both the adverbial and predicative particle, its role would not be to disambiguate them. Disambiguation between these two *yn*'s is more likely facilitated by the fact that they do not occur in the same position within a sentence, and by the fact that the class of words following is distinct for each—the progressive particle precedes verb-nouns and the adverbial particle precedes adjectives. One could say, then, that the only truly motivated mutation following any of the *yn*'s is NM after 'in,' and even that context seemed to be acquired by only half of the heritage speakers who presented it. Therefore, while the *yn* homophones seem like they would be a perfect test case for the maintenance of ICM in its disambiguating role, the data show that the mutations themselves do not carry the disambiguating load alone, and thus are not as reliably produced by the heritage speakers as was predicted.

6.3.2 SM and grammatical gender

The gender of a noun in Welsh is indicated only by SM, which appears on the initial consonant of a feminine noun following *un* 'one' or the definite article, *y/yr/'r*,[8] and on the initial consonant of an adjective following a feminine noun. There are no mutations or other indicators which signify masculine gender. Unlike the thoroughly integrated systems of gender agreement in languages such as the Romance languages, in which gender is necessarily apparent on all articles, nouns, and adjectives to satisfy agreement conditions, the system in Welsh is far less extensive. Gender only manifests in the feminine context, in which SM is triggered on the noun and/or its following adjective. Because SM only affects 9 consonants (as seen in table 6.1), there is no way of knowing whether a speaker is aware of a noun's gender in those contexts where a feminine noun and its adjective both begin with one of the several non-mutable consonants or a vowel. This is not an infrequent scenario.

Given the limited actual manifestation of gender in Welsh, despite the fact that the dictionary does label every noun with a gender, it might be preferable to imagine gender in Welsh not as a masculine/feminine binary, but rather as a [feminine] versus [unspecified] system. This system would permit nouns to be sufficient lexical entries even without any gender feature, but the SM-triggering tag of [+feminine] could be added as it was acquired. This is a distinction that is really most important in the acquisition process, when the more information-packed and the more obvious or transparent a particular feature of the grammar is, the more effortlessly it is acquired (i.e., with less input). The heritage speakers may be able to shed some light on which of these two systems is the more accurate description of the Welsh gender system—the hypothesis being that if gender were salient on every noun that is said in Welsh, as it would be in a

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[8] The form of the definite article in Welsh does change depending on local conditions, but those conditions have to do with its phonetic context (i.e., a preceding or following vowel), not the gender of the noun.

feminine/masculine binary system, then we should expect our HSs to have learned it fairly well—

it would have been necessary within that grammatical system to in order to complete those lexical

entries. But if the only instances of gender actually being an essential part of fully knowing the

noun are in those contexts where the initial consonant happens to be mutable, and/or the

following adjective is mutable, then we should expect a higher rate of errors in the HW gender

system. Table 6.9 below presents the relevant data.

Table 6.9 SM and gender in the Narrative Samples

	Baseline		Heritage Welsh	
	total :	speaker average:	total:	speaker average:
SM of feminine (expected)	181	9.05	98	4.9
no SM of feminine (feminine misidentified as masculine)	23	1.15	60	3
SM of masculine (masculine misidentified as feminine)	28	1.4	48	2.4

This application of SM is fairly robust in the baseline samples—feminine nouns are

correctly identified in 89% of instances where mutation effects are expected. The heritage speaker

narratives, on the other hand, exhibit very weak control over grammatical gender. The heritage

speakers identified a feminine noun as feminine in only 62% of instances where SM was

expected. This is better than chance guessing, but, taken together with the fact that nearly half as

many masculine, non-mutation contexts were misidentified as triggers of feminine SM, the

gender system can not be described as an aspect of the language which is well acquired by the

heritage Welsh speakers. Either the maintenance of grammatical gender—a system of dubious functional necessity—is neglected by the heritage speakers, or the total exposure the heritage speakers have had to Welsh has not reached the critical mass necessary to acquire such an opaque piece of grammar. Recall that the baseline speakers themselves are not infallible when it comes to gender identification (mutating 89% of mutable feminine tokens)—perhaps an ill omen for the fate of gender in baseline Welsh as well.

According to my initial hypothesis above, more gender errors in the heritage Welsh samples would mean an underspecified versus [+feminine] system, but error rates closer to those of the control norms would mean that every lexical item did have either a [masculine] or [feminine] feature attached to it in order to be a complete lexical entry. Neither of these options seem to hold up very well. The (relatively) equivalent error rates in both directions (masculine for feminine and feminine for masculine) seem to support the proposal that gender is always specified, but the fact that there are so many errors must be an indication that gender is not very salient to the acquirer. Recall that the controls are also only applying the gender mutation at a rate of 89%. The possibility seems very real to me that it is actually a three-way system in which the noun is underspecified (or blank) for the gender feature as a starting point, and then the [feminine] or [masculine] features are acquired gradually and with more exposure. This would allow for the figures of table 6.9 and also admit the fact that (in Welsh, at least) gender really is of dubious functional necessity. It is a formal aspect of the language only, and because the system of agreement is not actually very robust (meaning that it is only apparent on feminine, not masculine forms, and only on those 9 mutable consonants), and because of their limited exposure to baseline input, the heritage speakers are not native-like in their production of the gender mutation.

6.3.3 syntactic triggers of SM and the direct object mutation (DOM)

One of the most mysterious contexts of the ICM is the Direct Object Mutation (DOM),

so-called because of the appearance of SM on the initial consonant of the complement of an

inflected verb. This is, of course, a departure from the ICM contexts discussed above which are in

linear contact with their so-called "triggers"—following the definite article, the feminine noun,

various prepositions, and so on.[9] But DOM seems closely connected to two other mutation

contexts which are often included in theoretical analyses—one in which the subject of a sentence

will show initial SM if separated from its inflected verb by the expletive *yna* 'there' or by another

phrase, such as an emphasized or parenthetical adverbial phrase, and another in which the verb-

noun complement of a non-finite adverbial phrase of time (also known as an *i*-clause) will appear

with SM though it is always preceded by a prepositional (*i* 'to') phrase. The examples that follow

are taken from the narratives provided by the baseline Welsh speakers.

(10) Direct Object Mutation (DOM)
        Cafodd   e   <u>f</u>raw.   (radical form: braw)
        got.3sg he \fright
        He got a fright.

(11) *No* SM on the object of a verb-noun
        Mae   o   'n   gweld <u>c</u>arw. (radical form: carw)
        is.3sg he PROG see   stag
        He sees a stag.

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[9] There are other non-lexically triggered contexts as well, but they are less relevant to the immediate topic: e.g., an adverbial phrase (without *yn,* the adverbial particle) may appear with SM regardless of its location in the sentence; a sentence-initial inflected verb may (idiosyncratically) appear with ICM (though *Mae* 'is' never does); and while SM is lexically triggered by the relative particle *a*, it appears even when that particle is elided.

(12) SM on a VP complement[10]
      Wnaeth Twm <u>dd</u>ihuno.   (radical form: dihuno)
      did.3sg   \wake
      Tom woke up.

(13) SM on a subject separated by an expletive (postposed subject)
      Mae 'na   <u>f</u>roga mewn pot.   (radical form: broga)
      is.3sg there \frog in   pot
      There is a frog in a pot.

(14) SM on a subject separated by a prepositional clause (postposed subject)
      Mae gan Twm <u>f</u>roga.   (radical form: broga)
      is.3sg with   \frog
      Twm has a frog. (literally: A frog is with Twm)

(15) SM of the verb-noun in an *i*-clause
      Wrth i-ddo <u>g</u>wympo naeth   y   gwenyn mynd ar ôl   y   ci.
      at   to-him \fall   did.3sg the bees   go   on track the dog
      As he fell, the bees went after the dog.   (radical form: cwympo)

      It has been convenient so far to speak of "triggers" of ICM, but these non-lexically

induced SM contexts complicate the issue somewhat. What has easily been conceptualized as a

floating autosegment of phonological material, i.e., the ICM, which attaches to the following

element in a linear arrangement of words (see Lieber 1983 for this analysis), must now be re-

imagined in these cases as something which is syntactic rather than lexical, and structural rather

than linear.

      As such a distinctive component of an already distinctive system, DOM has interested

linguists as long as Welsh has been studied within a generative framework. The inflected verb

should not be able to skip over other phonological material in order to spread SM onto its

complement if the motivation for this type of ICM is the same as those which have been

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[10] I am following Roberts (2005) and Borsley (1993) in taking the verb-noun to be a non-finite
verb, more verbal than nominal, i.e., not to be interpreted strictly as a noun in any case. This
necessitates an explanation of the SM in (9) beyond what can be explained for the DOM in (8), as
the verb-noun cannot be interpreted as a direct object.

discussed above. Indeed, how could the inflected verb be considered a lexical trigger at all? It is the inflection itself that seems to trigger the mutation, not the lexical verb. The complements of non-finite verbs, the so-called *berfenwau* 'verb-nouns,' never realize SM (as shown in example (11) above). Similarly, SM on the initial segment of a verb-noun in an *i*-clause configuration (as in (15) above) can not be triggered by the preposition *i* (which is a SM lexical trigger) because of its intervening complement. There have been two particularly influential proposals during the last thirty years which attempt to explain the cause of these mutations—SM as a representation of (abstract) Accusative Case, and the NP (later XP) Trigger Hypothesis. Both of these accounts will briefly be presented here, followed by an analysis of these syntactically triggered mutations in the heritage Welsh samples.

DOM was explained in Awbery (1976) as a transformational rule adding the feature [+soft mutation] to the Direct Object (DO) late in the syntactic derivation.

(16)   T. Soft Mutation of Direct Object (obligatory)

SD. ($_S$ V NP NP X)
       1   2   3   4   5
SC. Add the feature [+soft mut] onto 4.

     (Awbery 1976, 8-9)

Awbery's analysis assumes a rule-based approach to the syntactic derivation, assigning SM as a marker of direct-object-hood as indicated by its position in the sentence. This avoids over-generalizing to SM on the objects of verb-nouns, which is not observed in the language. The rule presented in (16) is descriptively accurate, but as the theoretical frameworks within Linguistics have evolved, so has the explanation of DOM. Awbery's rule fails to capture how DOM signals any useful information to the interlocutor—lenite the fourth element of an utterance to indicate that it is the fourth element is both unnecessary and logically circular. Use of ICM is more likely

to be motivated by the need to efficiently transmit information from the speaker to the listener, and in this case the obvious purpose of the mutation is to indicate a grammatical relation between the inflected verb and one of its arguments (its direct object).

A more structural analysis capturing this assumption was offered by Lieber (1983). This is the first significant departure from the rule in (16), in which SM is taken as an indication of abstract Case. This analysis is elaborated upon in Zwicky (1984), in which the primary complication to any analysis in which the verb assigns SM to the DO is presented as the Trigger Constraint.

(17) the Trigger Constraint (TC) : The trigger determining a rule feature for a morphophonemic
        rule must be adjacent to the affected word and c-command it.
        (Zwicky 1984, 389)

The TC is the obstacle around which linguists have to maneuver in their attempts to account for mutation triggers which ostensibly violate the assumption that mutation is a linear effect—i.e., that mutation can only be triggered by a previous lexical item.[11] According to the TC, the intervening subject in sentences like (10) would block SM if it were triggered by the inflected verb. This highlights the difference between the lexical triggers we have discussed above and what I am referring to here as "syntactic triggers." Later analyses call into question the validity of the TC, but Zwicky's and Lieber's arguments work around it.

Still assuming that SM in sentences like (10) is a marker of the DO, Lieber proposes that abstract Case from the verb fails to case-mark its DO when another Noun Phrase (NP) (the subject) intervenes, but a syntactic rule inserts a null preposition (P) before a NP not adjacent to

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[11] SM as an indicator of feminine gender is also triggered by the preceding lexical items in this linear fashion, whether those preceding items are the definite article, *un* 'one,' or a feminine noun. The mutation may only be realized in the feminine context, but the adjacency condition of the TC is nevertheless obeyed.

its governing verb. The only phonological substance of P is a floating autosegment of SM. Thus Case is assigned to, and SM is triggered on, the adjacent element.[12] Problems with Lieber's analysis emerge when evidence of this null P is compared with the behavior of overt prepositions, particularly under conditions of *wh*-movement, but, as I do not have the space to go into detail here, I refer the reader to Harlow (1989) for a full analysis.

Zwicky (1984) departs from Lieber's analysis in not requiring a null preposition, but supports the assertion that Case is key to interpreting the DOM. He states that

> "what is at work must be a relationship between constituents within a VP [Verb Phrase] .... That is, we are looking at some sort of government of (morphosyntactic) case: NP in a construction with a finite V has one mark—let us say [+x]—while NP in construction with an infinitive V has a different mark—let us say [-x]." (Zwicky 1984, 391)

Where [+x] is to be interpreted as Accusative case and [-x] as Genitive case. The TC is obeyed by Zwicky's assertion that a discontinuous VP constituent is possible, which allows the Verb (V) to be "adjacent" to its DO, albeit abstractly. The details of this part of his analysis are not essential here, but the interpretation of SM as Accusative case allows us to account for its absence on the object of the verb-noun—where SM is not expected regardless of adjacency. The object of a verb-noun appears either in genitive position, as in (11) above, or, if a pronoun, as one of the possessive pronoun clitics, as in (18) below (which is also taken from a baseline narrative).

(18) Possessive pronoun as the object of a verb-noun
  Mae 'na uh@fp llygoden yn dod allan ac yn <u>ei</u> ddychryn.
  is.3sg there   mouse PROG come out and PROG his \frighten
  There is uh@fp a mouse coming out and frightening him.

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[12] Lieber (1983) and Zwicky (1984) are working within the Government and Binding theoretical framework, which holds that overt noun phrases must be assigned Case and that Case can only be assigned under adjacency. (Ball and Müller 1992, 137-138) (Case does not need to be overtly marked in the morphology.)

The verb-noun, according to Zwicky's analysis, assigns Genitive rather than Accusative case, and thus are the observed differences in these Welsh constructions accounted for (in which the object of a synthetic verb receives Accusative case, or SM, and the object of the verb-noun receives Genitive case, which manifests no mutation). The case for Case has also been taken up by Roberts (1997; 2005), who proposes, rather, that SM is assigned by a functional category (Agr$_O$, later v).[13] Thus the TC is circumvented, in a way, by allowing *non-overt* components of the syntactic tree to trigger mutation on adjacent lexical items. For our purposes, it is sufficient to say that these theorists propose that Accusative case is assigned by structural position rather than the non-adjacent, overt verb, and that its morphological realization is SM.

The major alternative to the SM-as-Case proposal is the Noun Phrase Trigger Hypothesis (NPTH) (later the XP Trigger Hypothesis). Unsatisfied by Lieber's (1983) and Zwicky's (1984) proposals, Harlow (1989) allows phrasal categories themselves to be triggers of SM. This analysis is taken up and expanded upon in Tallerman (1990; 2006), Borsley and Tallerman (1996), and Borsley (1997; 1999), who find that the descriptive and predictive powers of the NPTH outweigh any uncertainty about its place within current theoretical frameworks.

(19) Noun Phrase Trigger Hypothesis:
        NPs are soft mutation triggers.
        (Harlow 1989, 303)

A relationship of linear adjacency between overt elements is of central importance in these analyses, emphasized by the claim that "no child can ever learn a dependency particular to some but not all natural languages which is stated in terms of elements related at a distance." (Tallerman 1990, 404) This is strong adherence to the TC, unlike the arguments in favor of SM-

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[13] In the interest of space, I refer the reader to the studies themselves rather than present the details of these analyses here.

as-Case which were just discussed above. The NPTH was found to be inadequate in Borsley and Tallerman (1996) and Tallerman (2006), who posit an amended XPTH.

(20) XP Trigger Hypothesis (XPTH):
        All phrases trigger mutation under appropriate conditions
        (Borsley and Tallerman 1996, 1)

According to the XPTH, any phrasal element can cause SM on the initial consonant of an immediately following element. In addition to accounting for the DOM, this would explain sentences like (12), (13), (14), and (15), in which SM is observed on VP complements of the verb, postposed subjects, and verb-nouns in *i*-clauses. The main problem with this analysis is theoretical, which Borsley (1997; 1999) addresses by turning away from the theoretical assumptions of the Principles and Parameters framework to those of Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar.

What the XPTH fails to address, however, is the salience of these syntactic mutations in facilitating communication. The idea that all phrases lenite I find unsatisfying for this reason. The mutations in other contexts (lexically triggered and gender identifying) serve a communicative purpose which the XPTH precludes in the syntactic mutation contexts. The XPTH also tries to capture every instance of non-lexically or gender triggered SM under a single account, and thus sacrifices some much needed theoretical precision, but in so doing also emphasizes its failure to account for *all* such instances—neglecting sentence initial adverbial phrases of time and place, verbs in questions or those inflected for the past tense (idiosyncratically), nouns in apposition, and vocatives. There is no theoretical reason to denude an account of SM phenomena to such an extent that the functional load of the mutation is lost. The XPTH supposes that crossing certain phrase boundaries is sufficient to trigger a mutation effect, but, while the data may be distributed in such a way that seems to support this claim, SM as a signal of word-order variation or argument identity would be better motivated.

The relative merits of these two most prominent proposals have been argued ad infinitum —a debate which continues still, with new data introduced and adaptations made to the original theories—but Ball and Müller (1992, 158-160) put forward an alternative explanation of syntactically motivated SM. Admittedly, their proposal is offered outside any formal theoretical framework, but their approach firmly returns the focus to the grammatical salience of the ICM system.

> "It would appear to be the case that SM in non-normal word order is used to mark the fact that the normal ordering of the syntax *has* been altered: it highlights the shift in focus from one constituent to another." (Ball and Müller 1992, 159)

Sentences (13), (14), and (15) exemplify this, whereby the "disruption," or movement, of linguistic material is marked by SM on the immediately following element. As regards the DOM, they propose that it is the syntactic/semantic frame itself, containing an inflected verb and its DO argument, which triggers SM on the initial segment of the DO—the SM triggered precisely because it is *not* linearly adjacent to the verb (which happens to be normal VSO order in Welsh). In some ways, this proposal comes full circle, back to the lay assumptions about SM which predate the formal approaches discussed above. A formulation of these ideas which is not so theoretically neutral, however, and which focuses on accounting for the functional load of the mutation, may nevertheless be possible, if beyond the scope of this project.

As a concession to space and the necessity of returning to the topic of *heritage* Welsh, I must conclude this rather abbreviated introduction to the topic of syntactically triggered mutation. For our purposes, DOM should be well enough explained at this point to appreciate the significance of its loss or maintenance in the narratives provided by the informants. The heritage speaker, as one with limited exposure to Welsh, would more likely acquire a grammatical structure like these syntactic mutation triggers the simpler and more easily observed its function. The appearance of the SM in (so-called) syntactically triggered contexts in the heritage system

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should be determined by communicative salience. Table 6.10 below briefly summarizes the

occurrence of the syntactic SM in both sample groups.

Table 6.10 Syntactic triggers in the narrative samples

	Baseline samples (totals):			heritage Welsh samples (totals):		
	SM applied	SM omitted	non-mutable word	SM applied	SM omitted	non-mutable word
SM of DO of synthetic verb (DOM)	6	4	15	0	1	4
SM of VP complement of synthetic verb	18	19	8	4	2	0
SM of post-posed subject	23	5	8	4	9	9
SM of verb-noun in *i*-clause (non-finite subordinate clause)	11	0	5	0	0	0

The figures in table 6.10 are less indicative of the retention or loss of syntactic SM in

heritage Welsh than they are of the reduced grammatical options in the heritage system in

general. The heritage Welsh samples only contained 5 instances of a clause-initial synthetic verb

with a direct object, and only 1 of those instances was a realizable target of SM. The fact that the

heritage speaker who employed this construction also failed to successfully mutate the DO in that

single instance is not significant enough to make any statements here about the salience of that

particularly grammatical feature to the heritage speaker, unfortunately. The baseline informants,

in this case, may be more informative. Out of 25 total clause-initial synthetic verbs which

occurred with a DO, there were 10 instances in which the DO began with a mutable consonant.

The fact that only 6 of these were actually mutated in the narrative samples must indicate that the

system of DOM is reducing *in the baseline*, let alone the heritage grammar. A 60% rate of

successfully realizing this grammatical construction, the DOM, is a remarkable observation, and

one which deserves the attention of future research. The realization of SM on the VP

complements of clause-initial synthetic verbs is even more striking—a 67% rate of realizing SM

on a mutable consonant in the heritage samples, but the baseline speakers actually omitted the SM

more often than they realized it when the consonant was mutable, only mutating at a rate of 49%.

These two mutation contexts, which are both SM on the complement of a synthetic verb,

are worth close analysis in the native speaker community. It is the baseline Welsh grammatical

system which seems to be showing signs of simplification in this case. The theoretical analyses

discussed above, which are intended to help explain the function of syntactic mutation, are, in

fact, themselves in need of reworking if the system of SM in these contexts truly is undergoing

simplification in standard Welsh. Any analysis now has to account for the fact that even Welsh-

dominant native speakers are just as likely to omit these mutations as they are to employ them. If

arguments in favor of one or the other proposal are based on the salience or apparent functionality

of the mutation, then the high rates of SM omission undercut that thesis. Some other aspect of

Welsh syntactic structure or morphology is presumably overtaking the functional role of these

two syntactic mutations, making them redundant, and, thus, able to be omitted. An explanation of

this phenomenon is beyond the scope of this dissertation, however, though the discovery of this

unexpected simplification in the baseline will certainly spark new research on the topic.

The application of SM on post-posed subjects and on the verb-noun of *i*-clauses (non-

finite subordinate clauses) is more robust in the baseline samples, and thus is a less problematic

comparandum for the heritage grammars. Setting aside the *i*-clauses, which were uniformly

avoided by the heritage speakers,[14] the heritage speakers and the controls can be compared with regard to their realization of SM on post-posed subjects. The controls employed the SM in this context at a rate of 82%. The heritage speakers, on the other hand, employed the mutation in this context at a much lower rate of 31%. Even setting the upper limit, or the target rate, as the baseline standard of 82%, the heritage speakers do not come close to native-speaker norms. This piece of the grammar is not acquired to anywhere near complete proficiency by our heritage speakers, and so must be one which suffers under conditions of limited exposure.

This chapter has been a close examination of the system of ICM in heritage, and baseline, Welsh. AM and NM were found to be maintained in those contexts for which the mutation facilitates communication by reducing ambiguity, contra my predictions that, because these two mutations are so infrequent in the baseline, they would not have been acquired in the heritage system. Disambiguation has also been shown to be a motivator of SM maintenance as well. The disambiguating role of ICM is particularly apparent when distinguishing homophonous lexical items, such as the possessive adjectives *ei* —'his^{SM}' or 'her^{AM}'—and the ubiquitous *yn*— 'in^{NM},' the adverbial particle (^{SM}), the predicative particle (^{SM}), and the progressive particle (no mutation). Simplification was found in the gender system of heritage Welsh, as well as in the heritage system of syntactic mutations, which also appears to be simplifying in the baseline.

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[11] The absence of *i*-clauses in the heritage Welsh samples is not unexpected, as heritage speakers are less likely to use embedded structure in general. (Polinsky and Kagen 2007, 383) (See Chapter 5 for a discussion of the frequency of embeddings as an indicator of fluency.)

A thorough explanation of every aspect of the Welsh verbal system would be a cumbersome undertaking within this dissertation, but the heritage Welsh data manifest some interesting divergences from the baseline grammar which do require an understanding of that baseline. In the following sections, I will introduce those grammatical divergences along with a brief presentation of the descriptive and theoretical work on baseline Welsh that is relevant to the heritage language structure in question.

Before I present the divergences, however, I feel that is worth noting the areas where the heritage grammar does conform to the baseline. For many reasons, the Welsh verbal system seems as though it should be particularly vulnerable to reanalysis by heritage speakers whose dominant language is English. Welsh has verb-initial clause structure,[1] a comprehensive system of verbal inflection, and extensive agreement morphology, for example. These features are not characteristic of English grammar, so their acquisition and maintenance by heritage speakers is entirely dependant on Welsh input, with no reinforcement from analogous structure in their dominant language, and with potential negative transfer from that dominant language (see

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[1] Verb-initial clause order in Welsh is of particular interest, partly because it has been a topic of such attention by linguists of the Celtic languages, but also because it is characteristic of only some 10% of world languages. (Carnie and Guilfoyle 2000, 3) With such a distribution, the question arises of why such clause structure is so uncommon, and whether it is, in fact, underlying SVO order. Most analyses have assumed that the verb-initial order is derived by movement of the verb out of VP into a higher functional head position, whether it be T (Rouveret 1994), Agr (Roberts 2005), or some other projection (a notable exception being Borsley's (1989) flat structure in a HPSG framework). Many proposals have also been made for the motivation of this verb-movement—e.g., Sproat (1985) arguing that the rightward directionality of Case assignment by INFL necessitates the V+INFL complex move to the left of the subject—but my intention in drawing the reader's attention to this body of research is to appreciate how potentially complex this grammatical feature is. Our heritage Welsh speakers may be far from native-like, but their mastery of the verb-initial clause order must speak to the ease of acquisition of this verb-movement process and its motivating parameter(s), which may flavor our understanding of that process itself.

Chapter 4 for a discussion of transfer and interference between languages in a bilingual system).

The heritage Welsh narratives, however, do not show as much attrition or reanalysis of these

features as may have been predicted. The verb-initial clause structure of Welsh is firmly acquired

by the heritage speakers (only the least proficient of the informants did not begin each of her

clauses with an inflected verb, and more on her in section 7.1), and the inflected verbs that were

used in the heritage narratives were native-like in form, albeit also generally unvaried.[2] Evidently,

the amount of input received by the majority of the heritage Welsh informants was sufficient to

acquire these characteristics of the language. (See Appendix I.1 for those input data.)

Simple Welsh tensed clauses use the canonical VSO structure, but more common in the

samples of both the heritage speaker and control groups are auxiliary constructions—VSVO[3]—

especially those which use *bod* 'to be' as the auxiliary, i.e., *bod*-periphrasis. The baseline samples

use *bod*-periphrasis in nearly half of their clauses (see table 7.1 in section 7.1). The *bod*-

periphrastic construction consists of a clause initial form of *bod* 'to be,'[4] followed by the subject,

an aspectual particle (recall *yn* the progressive particle from Chapter 6), a verb-noun (VN), and

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[2] There are, however, a small handful of exceptions in the heritage Welsh samples—e.g., the non-native root *sefyll-* in the form *sefyll-odd* 'he stood,' which in the baseline would be *saf-odd* 'he stood.' *Sefyll* is not the root but the verb-noun, and though the root and verb-noun are often homophonous, they are not in this case. Appendix II.1 presents the heritage Welsh narrative samples and their glosses, including my annotations of noteworthy divergent forms (which are tagged by "[%]").

[3] I am calling the auxiliary construction word order 'VSVO' in order to highlight the position of the verb-noun, which has been used as evidence of underlying SVO order in Welsh. (See footnote 1 above; for Celtic as typologically SVO, see Ouhalla 1991, 108 ff.) If, on the other hand, VSO were instead conceptualized as VSComp(lement), then the two orders—VSO and VSVO—could be folded together and recognized as a single standard, i.e., non-emphatic, word order (though they will continue to be treated as separate constructions in this dissertation). I am also following Borsley (1993) in interpreting the verb-noun in these instances as a verb rather than a noun. (see also footnote 11, Chapter 6)

[4] *Bod* 'to be' is not the only possible auxiliary verb in Welsh, but *bod*-periphrasis is the most common auxiliary construction. (3) is an example of *gwneud* 'do/make' as an auxiliary. (The modals *gallai* '(he) could,' *dylai* '(he) ought,' and *hoffai* '(he)'d like' are also possible auxiliaries, for example.)

any complement of the VN. Sentences (1) through (6) below exemplify the organizational differences between the simple synthetic, VSO clause ((1) and (2)) and the auxiliary, VSVO construction ((3), (4), (5), and (6)).

(1)   Bwytais   i   frechdan   ddoe.
        eat.1sg.PST I [SM]sandwich yesterday
        I ate a sandwich yesterday.

(2)   Nawn   ni gawl   yfory.
        make.1pl.FUT we [SM]soup tomorrow
        We'll make soup tomorrow.

(3)   Gwneith   e   goginio   cawl yfory.
        do.3sg.FUT he [SM]cook.VN soup tomorrow
        He will cook tomorrow.

(4)   Mae   hi yn   siarad   â   fe.
        be.3sg.PRES she PROG speak.VN with he
        She is speaking with him / She speaks with him.

(5)   Oedden   nhw yn chwarae bob   brynhawn pan   oedden
        be.3pl.IMP they PROG play   [SM]each [SM]afternoon when.COMP be.3pl.IMP
        nhw yn blant.
        they PRED [SM]children
        They would play every afternoon when they were children.

(6)   Oeddwn   i wedi dysgu   gwers.
        be.1sg.IMP I PERF learn.VN lesson
        I had learned a lesson.

The present tense in colloquial modern Welsh must be expressed using a *bod*-periphrastic construction, exemplified in (4) above, as do the imperfect and pluperfect[5] tenses, (5) and (6) respectively. Synthetic forms are required for other tenses and moods, unless a dummy verb (usually *gwneud* 'do/make') is used as the auxiliary to carry the tense and agreement markers

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[5] Literary Welsh also has a synthetic pluperfect, and the synthetic future form is considered a present/future tense in formal written registers, but the periphrastic constructions of the present and pluperfect tenses are the norm in colloquial Welsh. There is also a *bod*-periphrastic option for the future tense (though it carries a different semantic sense than the simple inflected form) and for the conditional mood. (Thomas 1996, 97 ff.)

instead of the semantic (main) verb, which appears as its VN complement, as in (3). Unlike the

bod-periphrastic construction, *gwneud*-auxiliary constructions do not require aspectual markers to

precede the VN complement. The verb, whether a synthetic form of the semantic verb or an

inflected form of an auxiliary, shows person and number agreement with a subject pronoun, as

seen in (1) through (6) above. The option to drop that pronominal subject (i.e., have a null

subject) is also available in Welsh (see (7) below). Non-pronominal noun phrase (NP) subjects,

on the other hand, do not trigger agreement morphology and instead must follow the third-person

singular form of the inflected verb, exemplified in (8) and (10) below. (Thomas 1996, 97 ff.)

(7)   Cwympodd mas o   'r   fenest.
        fall.3sg.PST out from the window
        [He/She/It] fell out of the window.

(8)   Mae   Ioan a Siân yn   ieithyddwyr.
        be.3sg.PRES   PRED   linguists
        Ioan and Siân are linguists.

(9)   Maen   nhw yn   ieithyddwyr.
        be.3pl.PRES they PRED linguists
        They are linguists.

(10)   Adeiladodd   y   merched gastell   tywod.
        build.3sg.PST the girls   ^{SM}castle sand
        The girls built a sand castle.

(11)   Adeiladon   nhw gastell tywod.
        build.3pl.PST they ^{SM}castle sand
        They built a sand castle.

These three aspects of the Welsh verbal system, in particular, will be addressed in the

following sections—the alternation between analytic and synthetic verbal constructions,

agreement morphology, and the null subject. Section 7.1 presents the ways in which the heritage

Welsh samples show remarkable divergence from the baseline samples in the relative frequency

of auxiliary constructions, particularly relying on aspectual markers (e.g., the progressive particle

yn) to carry the load of marking tense. Heritage Welsh agreement morphology, on the whole, is surprisingly consistent with baseline norms, but non-native agreement patterns do appear and will be discussed in section 7.2. Section 7.3 focuses on the licensing of a null subject, or the pro-drop parameter, and argues that the heritage speakers have not fully acquired this piece of Welsh grammar.

7.1 tense and aspect

A clause initial verb marks tense as part of its agreement morphology.[6] The form of the stem of some verbs is different from the radical or dictionary form (i.e., the VN), which will also indicate that the form is inflected, but not specifically for which tense. The person and number agreement markers on the inflected verb follow a vaguely similar pattern across tenses, in which case the vowel (the nucleus of the syllable which is the inflectional suffix) often vitally contributes to distinguishing tense. See examples (14) and (15) below, where the vowel of the suffix is the only distinguishing segment between these past and future tense sentences. Welsh agreement morphology, however, is more fusional than concatenative. (Borsley et al. 2007, 355) There is no obvious or consistent separation of the morphological elements that mark person/number agreement from those that mark tense. Even the segments of the inflectional suffix that indicate person and number may vary across tenses (see examples (12) and (13) below). Thus, there is no reliable way to tease apart which segments of the morphology attached to a stem specifically indicate tense as opposed to person and number, and vice versa.

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[6] Mood (e.g. conditional) is marked analogously to tense in Welsh, so I am not considering it separately here. Moods other than the indicative were also extremely infrequent in the narrative samples.

(12)   Gwel-odd   hi fe ddoe.   (radical form: *gweld* 'see')
        see   -3sg.PST she he yesterday
        She saw him yesterday.

(13)   Ch -eith   hi ddim gadael mewn pryd.   (radical form: *cael* 'get', with idiomatic
        ^{AM}get-3sg.FUT she NEG leave   in   time   meaning of 'get to' or
        She won't be able to leave in time   'be allowed')

(14)   Cynhali -on   nhw 'r cyfarfod ddoe.   (radical form: *cynnal* 'hold')
        hold   -3pl.PST they the meeting yesterday
        They held the meeting yesterday.

(15)   Cynhali -an   nhw 'r cyfarfod yfory.   (radical form: *cynnal* 'hold')
        hold   -3pl.FUT they the meeting tomorrow
        They will hold the meeting tomorrow.

Given this overlap between tense and agreement marking in Welsh, it may seem

counterintuitive to have separated the topics of tense and aspect from agreement (section 7.2)

within this chapter. Aspectual marking in the *bod*-periphrastic constructions of the heritage Welsh

samples, however, is worthy of its own attention here. The aspectual markers, the particles *yn*

(progressive) and *wedi* (perfective), are used in the *bod*-periphrastic construction to differentiate

between the present progressive and the (present) perfect, or between the imperfect and the

pluperfect, for example. See examples (16) through (19) below.

(16)   Mae   hi <u>yn</u>   siarad amdan-o heddiw.
        be.3sg.PRES she PROG speak about-it   today
        She is speaking about it today.

(17)   Maen   nhw <u>wedi</u> gwerthu eu   tŷ   nhw.
        be.3pl.PRES they PRF sell   their house they
        They have sold their house.

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(18)   Oeddet   ti   yn   canu yn y   gawod.
            be.2sg.IPFV you PROG sing   in   the [SM]shower
            You were singing in the shower.

(19)   Oeddech   chi   wedi darllen y   llyfr cyn   weld y   ffilm.
            be.2pl.IPFV you.pl PRF   read   the book   before [SM]see the film
            You had read the book before seeing the film.

        I mentioned above that the baseline narrative samples used the auxiliary construction in nearly half of all clauses. This is an important figure given its complication of the simple VSO characterization of the language which is usually assumed in linguistic analyses. Even acknowledging this measured frequency in natural baseline speech, however, heritage Welsh far surpasses the baseline in its use of *bod*-periphrasis. The heritage speakers overwhelmingly prefer to use this auxiliary construction over short-form synthetic verbs (like (1), (2), (3), (7), (10), (11) and (12) through (15) above)—the *bod*-periphrastic construction appears in 68.3% of the heritage Welsh clauses. In clauses of this type, the lexical verb carries none of the tense or agreement features because those features are attached to the auxiliary (*bod* 'to be'). The semantic content of the verb is solely carried by the VN, which follows an aspectual marker[7] (e.g., *yn siarad, wedi gwerthu, yn canu,* and *wedi darllen* in examples (16) through (19) above). Table 7.1 below provides some figures of the relative usage of the different verbal constructions in both the heritage and baseline Welsh samples.

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[7] I should point out that the pre-VN aspectual markers are not limited to these two examples, *yn* (progressive) and *wedi* (perfective). *Ar* conveys the sense of 'about to,' *am* 'want to,' *newydd* 'just,' etc.—but *yn* and *wedi* are by far the most common, and the use of the other markers in the samples was negligible. (Thomas 1996, 90 ff.)

Table 7.1 Distribution of Verbal Forms in the Heritage and Baseline Welsh Narrative Samples

	Heritage Speakers total:	speaker average:	Baseline Speakers total:	speaker average:
yn progressive aspect particle (with or without preceding *bod*)	842	42.1	623	31.15
wedi perfective aspect particle (with or without preceding *bod*)	219	10.95	162	8.1
bod-periphrasis	915	45.75	622	31.1
other *bod*-initial clauses (existential or descriptive, e.g.)	304	15.2	337	16.85
synthetic verb forms	77	3.85	266	13.3
copula	43	2.15	47	2.35

From these figures, it is clear that the heritage speakers rely heavily on periphrasis in constructing their utterances. The ratio of *bod*-periphrastic to synthetic verb forms in the heritage speaker samples is nearly 12 to 1, in the baseline samples that ratio is only 2.3 to 1. Much of this difference is possibly explained by the narrative choices of these two groups. The heritage speakers overwhelmingly chose to narrate the *Frog, Where Are You?* story in the present or imperfect tense, which can only be *bod*-periphrastic forms, whereas the baseline speakers more often made use of the simple past tense, a synthetic form. The different verbal choices of the two sample groups are apparent in table 7.1. As the narrative task allowed the informants to make

their own decisions regarding verbal forms, it might seem that drawing strong conclusions from these numbers is unjustified. These choices, themselves, however are very informative. We cannot determine with absolute certainty whether heritage speaker verbal choices are decisions made freely, or if those choices are, in fact, dictated by a limited range of acquired verbal options. The ratios cited above convince me of the latter—the heritage Welsh speakers choose to use periphrastic forms precisely because they have only incompletely acquired the system of synthetic verb formation.

Recall from Chapter 3 that "incompletely acquired" does not necessarily describe an interruption of the language acquisition process in a strictly chronological sense. The term refers to a steady state grammar, i.e., it is synchronically descriptive. (Montrul 2008, 21) The synthetic forms may have been part of the heritage speaker's grammar at some point, and may even be present in the heritage grammar in a limited form at the time of the interview, but this piece of Welsh grammar is not very productive in the heritage language. The fact that heritage Welsh maintains *bod*-periphrasis but shows limited command over synthetic verbs in initial position may follow from several factors. The frequency of a particular grammatical form in the baseline input, as well as the transparency of its utility and structure, were both discussed as potential influences in the acquisition process in previous chapters. These two factors are both very likely at play in the heritage Welsh verbal system.

The *bod*-periphrastic forms are arguably more frequent in natural baseline Welsh speech, especially if we take the baseline narrative samples to be representative, with their ratio of 2.3 to 1 (*bod*-periphrastic to synthetic forms). This frequency in the input can be considered a factor in the superior acquisition of the analytic over the synthetic form in heritage Welsh, but recall the complexity of this assumption as was discussed in Chapter 3. The seemingly obvious intuition about the importance of frequency in the acquisition process—that the more a heritage speaker is exposed to a piece of grammar, the better she will acquire it—is complicated by the fact that we

can not describe what the steps of this process must be. Is the mind counting exposures or learning piece-by-piece, or is it a question of probability, where the likelihood of understanding a particular piece of grammar improves as the number of trials increases? (cf. Roeper 2007) Unfortunately, the intuition of the frequency effect is difficult to substantiate and has been shown to be less significant than previously assumed. (cf. Polinsky 2005; Roeper 2007; Yang 2007) Baseline frequency alone, therefore, can not account for the dominance of *bod*-periphrasis in heritage Welsh. The relative opacity of the two available methods of verb formation must be playing a role as well.

The separation of tense and agreement features from the lexical content of the verb must be providing some amount of transparency which the heritage speaker both assimilates more easily and produces more readily than synthetic verbal forms. The synthetic form requires a greater amount of planning and information compression into the first element of the sentence— the lexical verb in its correct root form, any necessary initial mutation, and the tense and agreement suffix. Indeed, the density of information in the verbal suffix itself (e.g., sentences (14) and (15) above) may be an obstacle in the acquisition process, in which the learner must observe all of the several relevant features of this suffix which is rarely longer than a single syllable. It is no surprise, then, that those who are less familiar and comfortable with the language would opt instead for one of the *bod*-periphrastic forms. In these constructions, the information packed into the first element, which is still the tense and the person and number agreement, is in the form of the same verb every time—*bod.* The forms of *bod* are also employed in existential and descriptive clauses (naturally, since *bod* means 'to be'), adding to the enormous utility of the *bod* forms overall and to the certainty of their acquisition. (I refer the reader to Appendices I.1.12, I.1.13, I.2.11, and I.2.12 to fully grasp the extent of the use of *bod* in the samples.)

The heritage speakers' use of the *bod*-periphrastic construction may represent a simplified verbal tense system, in which the present tense is conveyed by the present progressive

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(which is entirely native-like), but a sense of past tense by the present-perfect. This means that the

heritage speakers are interpreting the aspectual particle in *bod*-periphrasis as the key marker of

tense, rather than the form of the verb itself. Its position in the VSVO-type clause is somewhat

parallel to the position of the verb in English (SVO), which may be marked as a position of

particular salience to these dominant English speakers. Sentences (4) and (17) are repeated here

for reference—the position of the progressive and perfective aspectual particles, in conjunction

with their following VN, parallels that of English SVO order, especially if the initial form of *bod*

'to be' (*Mae* in (4) and *Maen* in (17)) is given minimal processing attention by the heritage

speakers.

(4)   Mae   hi   yn   siarad   â   fe.
        be.3sg.PRES she PROG speak.VN with he
        She is speaking with him / She speaks with him.

(17)   Maen   nhw <u>wedi</u> gwerthu eu   tŷ   nhw.
        be.3pl.PRES they PRF   sell   their house they
        They have sold their house.

      One of the heritage speakers is particularly notable as an example of this reliance on the

aspectual particle in conveying tense. The verbal system of her *Frog, Where Are You?* narrative

seems to be completely reanalyzed from the baseline and heavily dependent on English (SVO)

word order. Some examples of her clause structure follow in (20) through (22) below, but the

entirety of this informant's narrative can also be found in Appendix II.1 (speaker DL2).

(20)   Bachgen bach yn   cysgu   ar y   gwely 'da ci.
        boy   little PROG sleep.VN on the bed   with dog
        A little boy sleeping on the bed with a dog.

(21)   Y   bachgen a   ci   wedi ffeindio dwy   ffrog.
         the boy   and dog PRF   find.VN   two(f) frog(m)
         The boy and a dog having found two frogs.

(22)   Y   <frogs> yn   eistedd ar y   coeden.
         the   PROG sit.VN   on the tree
         The frogs sitting on the tree.

These clauses lack a verb entirely (in which case they are hardly clauses at all), but the speaker

seems to have reanalyzed the aspectual particles *yn* and *wedi* as tense markers, and thus,

apparently, as verbs themselves. I have provided the participial translations of these aspect

phrases (*yn cysgu* 'sleeping' (20), *wedi ffeindio* 'having found' (21), and *yn eistedd* 'sitting' (22))

because they would be the permissible interpretations of an aspectual phrase without *bod*-

periphrasis in the baseline. Examples (20), (21), and (22) would be acceptable in the baseline as

noun phrases, but not as complete independent clauses. This heritage speaker, however, seems to

allow these structures to be complete clauses because she consistently produces the aspectual

particle as a verb. Not once did she produce a form of *bod* 'to be' as the head of any of her

clauses, and she certainly never produced any other synthetic verbal form.[8]

Interesting as the phenomenon is, this speaker is the only example of a heritage grammar

showing such an extreme reanalysis of aspect marking as tense and the loss of clause initial verb

forms entirely. The other heritage speakers do generally produce tense- and agreement-carrying

verb forms in the initial position of their clauses. The heritage speakers overall have not reduced

the system to such an extent as has speaker DL2, though forms of *bod* appear at a far higher rate

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[8] The complete lack of any inflected verb in DL2's sample is an important observation—it would
have been permissible by native speaker standards, if quite unwieldy, to have begun the narrative
with a tense carrying verb but continued with serial (tenseless) aspect-VN phrases throughout the
narrative (or as long as the subject remained the same) (see Rouveret 1994, chapter 4, for more on
the serial construction). This is not what we see in DL2's sample, however. There is no initial
inflected verb nor is the subject consistent. (See Thomas 1996, 428-429, for an explanation of this
construction.)

than synthetic forms of lexical verbs. That overwhelming preference for *bod*-periphrasis does indicate a simplification from the baseline system. The *bod*-periphrastic forms are being overextended by all the heritage speakers in the sample group, though to different extents by each individual.

The average figures across the sample narratives show that the inventory of verb formation methods is greatly reduced in the heritage language. There are twelve *bod*-periphrastic constructions for every one synthetic verb in the heritage Welsh samples, whereas that ratio is only slightly higher than two to one in the baseline. This is more than a sign of differing narratorial choice. The relative frequency of the synthetic and periphrastic structures in the baseline input is problematic as an explanation of this discrepancy between our sample groups, but a hypothesis about the effect of transparency in the acquisition process may be more promising. The processing/generating load required by *bod*-periphrasis is lower than that of synthetic verb forms precisely because of the separation of inflectional marking from the semantic verb which also makes these utterances seem circumlocutory as compared to baseline norms.

7.2 agreement

Inflected verbs in Welsh are marked for person and number agreement with a subject pronoun. A simple paradigm follows below for both the past, (23), and future, (24)[9] tenses of *gweld* 'see'.[10]

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[9] I have provided here the colloquial rather than the literary Welsh terminations, as presented in King 2003 (184, 191).

(23) gwel-es   (i)   gwel-on   (ni)
      see-1sg.PST I   see-1pl.PST we

      gwel-est   (ti)   gwel-och   (chi)
      see-2sg.PST you   see-2pl.PST you.pl

      gwel-odd   (e/hi)   gwel-on   (nhw)
      see-3sg.PST he/she   see-3pl.PST they

(24) gwel-a   (i)   gwel-wn   (ni)
      see-1sg.FUT I   see-1pl.FUT we

      gwel-i   (di)   gwel-wch   (chi)
      see-2sg.FUT you   see-2pl.FUT you.pl

      gwel-ith   (e/hi)   gwel-an   (nhw)
      see-3sg.FUT he/she   see-3pl.FUT they

This pattern of agreement only pertains when the subject (or the first element of a conjunct

subject) is a pronoun; in any other case the default form is the third-person singular. Examples (8)

through (11) are repeated below for reference. Sentence (25) presents the usual agreement pattern

followed in cases where there the first element of a conjunct subject is a pronoun, in which the

verb is marked for agreement with that pronoun, regardless of the second element.[11]

(8)   Mae   Ioan a Siân yn   ieithyddwyr.
      be.3sg.PRES   PRED   linguists
      Ioan and Siân are linguists.

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[10] I have chosen to illustrate verbal agreement with a non-periphrastic construction, but the inflected form of *bod* 'to be' in *bod*-periphrasis also exhibit their own patterns of person and number agreement with a following pronominal subject.

[11] This left-conjunct, or first conjunct agreement pattern has generally been explained as a consequence of the crucial role of superficial linear order in Welsh agreement morphology. (see Borsley 2009; Borsley et al. 2007, 205-206 and 361; Rouveret 1995, section 5.1; Sadler 1999)

(9)   Maen   nhw yn ieithyddwyr.
        be.3pl.PRES they PRED linguists
        They are linguists.

(10)   Adeiladodd   y merched gastell   tywod.
        build.3sg.PST the girls   ^{SM}castle sand
        The girls built a sand castle.

(11)   Adeiladon   nhw gastell tywod.
        build.3pl.PST they ^{SM}castle sand
        They built a sand castle.

(25)   Est   ti   a Gareth allan neithiwr.
        go.2sg.PST you.sg and   out   last.night
        You and Gareth went out last night.

        The baseline Welsh samples, unsurprisingly, contained no instances of divergence from

the pattern of agreement presented above. The baseline informants always inflected their verbs to

agree with the person and number of a subject pronoun, or to be the default, third-person singular

form when preceding a non-pronominal subject. There are 941 inflected verbs in the entire

baseline sample set which follow this agreement pattern. The heritage Welsh speakers are also

very consistent in following this pattern (though as I said above, the great majority of verb forms

were iterations of *bod* 'to be'). 987 inflected verbs in the heritage samples show native-like

agreement, though there are also 6 instances of divergence from the pattern (in the samples of 3

speakers). Table 7.2 below presents the total instances of agreement and disagreement observed

in the heritage samples. The great majority of verbal forms show native-like agreement

morphology.

Table 7.2 Incidence of agreement morphology in the heritage Welsh narrative samples

	native-like agreement:	non-native like agreement:
bod 'to be' - 3rd person sing.,		
with 3rd singular subject:	537	0
with conjunct subject:	33	0
with plural non-pronominal subject:	44	2
bod 'to be' - any other person/number pronominal subject:	276	4
synthetic verbal form - 3rd person singular,		
with 3rd singular subject:	51	0
with conjunct subject:	2	0
with plural non-pronominal subject:	2	0
synthetic verbal form - any other person/number pronominal subject:	12	0

By a rather surprising coincidence, 2 heritage speakers exhibited the same divergence from this baseline agreement pattern and while using the same vocabulary. Sentences (26) and (27) are taken from their respective narrative samples (DL4 and DL5). The baseline norm for both of these clauses would begin with *mae*, the third person singular (or elsewhere) form, rather than *maen,* the third person plural form which is only expected to precede the third person plural pronoun.

(26)   ... maen   gwenyn [i]-gyd yn   hedfan i-fas ...
          be.3pl.PRES bees   all   PROG fly   out
      ... they all [the] bees are flying out ...

(27)   ... maen   gwenyn yn   dianc o   'r <hive>.
        be.3pl.PRES bees   PROG escape from the
        ... they bees are escaping from the hive.

These speakers showed no other divergence from the baseline agreement pattern. Indeed, in all other instances their verbal forms are entirely native-like—the third-person singular form of the verb appears before a third-person plural non-pronominal subject (twice in DL4's narrative and once in DL5's narrative), as well before a coordinate subject (5 times in DL4 and 3 times in DL5). The divergence from baseline norms presented in (26) and (27), then, is not representative of an entirely reanalyzed grammatical system in which number agreement extends to non-pronominal subjects in a non-native-like pattern. Rather, these sentences exemplify the potential for *inconsistency* in the pattern of agreement, a potential result of incomplete acquisition. Some of these speakers' verb forms show native-like agreement, and some do not, and that variability conforms to the baseline norm no more than if the speakers consistently produced non-native agreement.

One of the heritage speakers (DL10) consistently uses the third-person singular present tense form of *bod* 'to be' when preceding a third-person plural pronominal subject—there are 4 identical instances of this disagreement in his sample, suggesting that the third-person plural present tense of *bod* is not part of his grammar. (28) and (29) below, taken from this speaker's sample, are examples of this disagreement. Incidentally, his mastery of agreement in the other person-number combinations is unknown because the third-person singular present of *bod* is the only inflected verbal form in the entirety of his narrative, with the exception of his very first clause, which begins with the first-person singular present form of *bod* (sentence (30) below). Sentences (31) and (32) are examples of the otherwise native-like agreement pattern evident in this speaker's narrative.

(28)   ... a   mae   hw[12]   ffeindio 'r   nyth ...   (expected verb form: ... *maen nhw*...)
         and be.3sg.PRES [they] find   the nest
         ... and [they] find the nest ...

(29)   ... mae   hw   yn   gwlyb iawn ...   (expected verb form: ... *maen nhw* ...)
         be.3sg.PRES [they] PRED wet   very
         ... [they] are very wet ...

(30)   dydw   i   ddim yn   gwybod pob   gair   anifeilia[i]d.
         be.1sg.PRES I   NEG   PROG know   each word animals
         I don't know every animals word.

(31)   mae   bachgen a   ci   yn   mynd mas.
         be.3sg.PRES boy   and dog PROG go   out
         A boy and dog are going out.

(32)   mae   e   'n   trist iawn.
         be.3sg.PRES he   PRED sad   very
         He is very sad.

      Given this speaker's general conformity to the baseline standard, in which person-number

markings on the inflected verb agree with a pronominal subject (32) but non-pronominal subjects

follow the third-person singular of the verb (31), and given that single instance of a form other

than the third-person singular (30), we can assume that the principles of the agreement system

and the need to inflect for tense and agreement are present in his grammar. The principal

divergence, then, is the lack of the third-person plural form of *bod* and its attendant agreement

morphology. This form manifests instead as the third-person singular, which is perhaps the

logical result given the default status of the third-person singular which has been discussed above.

Recall the predictions from Chapter 1 and the introduction to Part II. Any reanalysis of baseline

grammar which manifests in a heritage system must necessarily follow from universal principles

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[12] The form of the third-person plural pronoun, 'they,' employed by this heritage speaker is also
somewhat divergent from the baseline. *Hw* is recognizable as a sort of hybrid between the
colloquial *nhw* and literary *hwy*, but *hw* is not itself a pronoun in the baseline in either a
colloquial or literary register.

of language structure and be logical within the grammatical system as constructed in the heritage grammar. The use of the third-person singular present tense of *bod* in place of the third-person plural in clauses where agreement is expected with the third-person plural pronominal subject is a classic example of these principles of heritage language at work. The default, or unmarked elsewhere, third person singular form fills in this gap in the heritage grammar with a minimum of potential confusion for the listener.

A slight digression from the verbal system is worth a short note here. Related to the person and number agreement pattern which was discussed above is the pattern of agreement between numerals and their NP complements. Agreement patterns in Welsh are not limited to the verbal domain, but are a potential location of reanalysis in the heritage grammar which should be completely accounted for before moving on. We have seen that, on the whole, the heritage speakers follow the native-like agreement pattern in producing verb forms (with a few exceptions). The agreement pattern which occurs in baseline Welsh between numerals and their noun complements is not nearly so robust in the heritage grammar. It is consistent and logical within Welsh grammar, in which the pattern of verbal agreement shows person but not number agreement morphology on verbs with non-pronominal subjects, that numerals are always followed by the *singular* form of the noun rather than the plural. Examples (33), (34), and (35) below exemplify the native norm of number (dis)agreement. (These samples are taken from the baseline narratives.)

(33)   dau lyffant   (radical form: *llyffant* 'frog')
          two ^{SM}frog
          two frogs

(34)   wyth broga arall   (radical form: *broga* 'frog')
         eight frog   other
         eight other frogs

(35)   saith llyffant bach   (radical form: *llyffant* 'frog')
         seven frog little
         seven little frogs

In each of 12 instances of numerals followed by a noun complement, the baseline

speakers conformed to the pattern of numeral+singular noun. This piece of grammar, which is not

mirrored in the dominant English system, seems to be incompletely acquired by some of the

heritage Welsh speakers, however. There are 8 instances of native-like agreement in the heritage

Welsh samples, but 4 of the heritage Welsh speakers (in 5 total instances) broke from the

expected pattern. (see (36) through (40) below).

(36)   dau brog-au   (DL6)
         two frog-s

(37)   chwech brog-au   (DL6)
         six   frog-s

(38)   naw ffrog-iau fach   (DL11)
         nine frog-s   [SM]little

(39)   dau frog-au   (DL15)
         two [SM]frog-s

(40)   saith llyffant-od   (DL16)
         seven frog-s

This agreement pattern, which dictates that the singular noun always follows a numeral,

may be entirely absent from the grammars of 3 of the heritage speakers, who produced no native-

like numeral-noun (dis)agreement. The DL11 narrative, however, contained an instance of the native-like pattern of singular noun following the numeral (41) in addition to the non-native-like numeral+plural noun ((38) above).

(41)   dau ffrog   (DL11)
        two frog   (conforms to baseline pattern)
        two frogs

Free variation between the native- and non-native-like agreement pattern in this case must also be taken as a sign of the incomplete acquisition of this particular grammatical structure. Inconsistent production and the vacillation between these two patterns in the DL11 heritage grammar is an example of an undetermined intuition about the expected form of a piece of grammar. This uncertainty is as much a sign of incomplete acquisition as is the completely consistent, but non-native, pattern exhibited by the other divergent heritage speakers.

Interestingly, numeral-noun agreement and verb-subject agreement do not seem to be interconnected systems in these heritage grammars. None of the speakers who used the plural noun after a numeral (contra native norms) also diverged from baseline norms in their use of the verbal agreement system. These agreement patterns, therefore, must be discrete elements of the heritage grammar rather than a single connected system in which number-agreement is reserved for pronominal NPs. Rather than positing the acquisition of some language-wide parameter dictating that number agreement morphology only applies with pronouns, and that plural non-pronominal NPs are to be treated as though they are singular (i.e., with the elsewhere/default third-person singular inflected forms), it seems that the system of verbal agreement is acquired independently of the system of numeral-noun agreement. This is supported by the fact that the numeral-noun agreement pattern shows far greater reanalysis in the heritage Welsh samples than the verb-subject agreement pattern.

The baseline numeral pattern, in which the singular form follows any number irrespective of conceptual plurality, is analogous to the verbal system, in which pronouns are uniquely marked to trigger number agreement on the verb, but the third person singular verb appears in all cases elsewhere. The heritage Welsh grammar, on the other hand, either independently extends the semantics of the numeral determiner to a plural NP complement, or (more likely) calques on the English system and reanalyzes the numeral determiner as a plural itself, requiring number agreement on its NP complement (i.e., a plural form like "two frogs").

7.3 the null subject

Some languages, e.g., Italian and Spanish, which have rich agreement morphology between the verb and its (pronominal) subject, allow that subject to be silent, or "dropped." These are called null subject or partial "pro-drop" languages because of the presumed activation of the "pro-drop parameter" which enables this process for subject pronouns. (see Chomsky 1981; Haegeman 1994, 450 ff.; Huang 1984) (42) below is an example of a null subject clause in Italian.

(42)   Parlano   di linguistica.
         speak.3pl.PRES of linguistics
         They talk about linguistics.
                 (sample taken from Sadler 1988, 45)

The Celtic languages, including Welsh, are also pro-drop languages,[13] (McCloskey and Hale 1983) though the option to use an overt pronoun is also always available. Examples (43) through (45) are taken from the baseline narrative samples.

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[13] Pro-drop is also licensed in Welsh for pronominal objects of verb-nouns if you interpret the pre-clitic pronominal element to be agreement morphology rather than a pronoun itself (see

(43) Aeth   ø   i gysgu.
      go.3sg.PST [NULL] to ^{SM}sleep
      [He] went to sleep.

(44) Dihunodd   ø   yn ddisymwth.
      wake.3sg.PST [NULL] ADV ^{SM}sudden
      [He] woke up suddenly.

(45) Mae   ø   'n   edrych yn ei sgidiau.
      be.3sg.PRES [NULL] PROG look   in his shoes
      [He] is looking in his shoes.

By far the most common realization of pro-drop in Welsh is following the third-person

singular form of the verb, particularly the third-person singular present tense of *bod* 'to be.' Table

7.3 presents all of the instances of the null subject which were observed in the baseline and

heritage Welsh samples. The overwhelming preference for the null subject to follow the third-

person singular present of *bod* 'to be' in the heritage Welsh samples is not mirrored in the

baseline samples. While the baseline speakers are indeed more likely to drop the subject pronoun

following the third-person singular present of *bod* than any other verb, their preference is shown

to be less pronounced, with a ratio of *bod* to other verb forms slightly below 2 to 1. The heritage

speakers, on the other hand, drop the subject pronoun after the third-singular present form of *bod*

more than any other verb form at a ratio of nearly 22 to 1. There are only 3 instances of a

synthetic form preceding a null subject in the heritage samples, far fewer than the 16 total

instances observed in the baseline samples.

Borsley 1984, 285; Borsley et al. 2007, 70-71 and 159-161; Roberts and Shlonsky 1996), and for
pronoun objects of inflected prepositions, which also show agreement morphology. In both of
these cases, as in the case of the null subject, the pronoun is pragmatically inferable and therefore
somewhat redundant. But I will not be discussing these two contexts for pro-drop here, as they
are only very minimally represented in the narrative samples.

Table 7.3 Instances of the null subject observed in the baseline and heritage Welsh samples

verb form which is followed by the null subject:	Heritage Speakers		Baseline Speakers	
	total:	speaker average:	total:	speaker average:
bod 'to be', present tense - 3rd person singular	152	7.6	43	2.15
bod 'to be', present tense - any person and number combination other than 3rd person singular	2	0.1	0	0
bod 'to be', imperfect tense - 3rd person singular	2	0.1	4	0.2
bod 'to be', imperfect tense - any person and number combination other than 3rd person singular	0	0	1	0.05
synthetic verb form (i.e., not *bod* 'to be'), any tense -3rd person singular	3	0.15	16	0.8
synthetic verb form (i.e., not *bod* 'to be'), any tense -any person and number combination other than 3rd person singular	0	0	2	0.1

The ease with which the subject may appear as a null element following *mae* 'he/she is' (the third-person singular present tense of *bod* 'to be') may possibly relate to the expletive-pronoun construction, in which a semantically empty pronoun fills the role of grammatical subject. Examples (46) and (47) below present this option with *mae* (used with a meteorological predicate and an extraposed clausal subject), though other verbs are also accessible to pro-drop, as in (48) below. (46) and (47) are acceptable in the baseline with either the null or overt subject pronoun.

(46)   Mae   (hi)   'n   bwrw glaw.
         be.3sg.PRES she/it   PROG cast   rain
         [It] is raining.

(47)   Mae   (hi)   'n   amlwg bod Mair wedi dod   yn-ôl.
         be.3sg.PRES she/it   PRED obvious COMP   PRF   come back
         [It]'s obvious that Mair has come back.

(48)   Synnodd   ∅   bawb   y   byddai   angen mwy o arian.
         surprise.3sg.PST [NULL] SMeveryone COMP be.3sg.COND need   more of money
         [It] surprised everyone that more money was needed.

                 (examples (46) and (47) taken from Borsley et al. 2007, 61)

The subject in these cases is semantically null anyway, so the ease with which the speaker

acquires the parameter permitting the subject to be dropped may be logical. Following this, the

extension to other third-person singular pronominal subjects may not be a great leap.

       Of greater significance, perhaps, is the fact that the phonetic context of the third-person

singular pronouns *e* 'he/it' and *hi* 'she/it' following *mae* is rather conducive to elision—7.6 of the

7.95 instances of pro-drop averaged per heritage speaker narrative (or 96%) appear as *mae'n*, an

easy and allowable shift from *mae e* or *mae hi*. (49) and (50) below are examples of this elision

found in the baseline narratives. The null subject in both these instances (∅) could be expressed

overtly with *e* 'he/it,' but rapid pronunciation almost guarantees that the /e/ phoneme of the

pronoun be absorbed or obscured by the diphthong /ai/ of the preceding verb. That such a high

percentage of the heritage speakers' use of the null subject also occur under these conditions is,

therefore, no surprise.

(49)   Mae   ∅   'n   sylweddoli bod   y   llyffant wedi mynd.
         be.3sg.PRES [NULL] PROG realize   COMP the frog   PRF go
         [He] realizes that the frog has gone.

(50) Mae   ∅   'n   amwlg mai hyn yw brodyr a   chwiorydd broga Ifan.
      be.3sg.PRES [NULL] PRED obvious COMP this COP brothers and sisters   frog
      [It]'s obvious that this is the brothers and sisters of Ifan's frog.

Because of the phonetic inducement to pro-drop in present tense *bod*-periphrasis*,* the pro-drop parameter is better tested in the heritage Welsh samples by the appearance of the null subject with inflected verbs other than *bod.* Unfortunately, the representation of this phenomenon in the heritage samples is quite weak indeed. The baseline samples show that the native speakers are generally quite at ease with a null subject after verbs other than *bod* (0.8 instances on average per speaker), but the heritage speakers only dropped the pronominal subject after a total of 3 synthetic forms in the entire corpus. This observation is, as others before have been, of course, predicated on the narrative decisions of the informants, who may well be *choosing* to use the present tense and thus not given the chance to prove their mastery of the pro-drop parameter. But after having concluded above that those decisions are themselves significant, I would preliminarily propose that the heritage speakers, having failed to show mastery to the baseline level, have most likely incompletely acquired the pro-drop parameter which permits the null subject to be an available option across all verbs and tenses.

I would like to conclude this discussion of the heritage Welsh verbal system with a brief summary of the divergences from the baseline which have been discussed in the preceding sections. In line with expectations set by Chapter 1 and my discussion of the typical characteristics of heritage language, the variety of tense inflections available to the heritage speaker is reduced from baseline norms. The preference for *bod*-periphrasis and its limited necessary inventory of clause-initial verb forms is very pronounced in the heritage grammar. In these preferred auxiliary constructions, the aspectual particles serve as the principal markers of

tense, albeit within a much reduced inventory of available tenses. Present progressive forms appear in the heritage grammar as the principal means of communicating the present tense, as is also the norm in the baseline, but present perfective forms have been extended to carry a past tense meaning in replacement of the synthetic past tense forms which are normally employed in the baseline.

Agreement morphology on verb forms in the heritage grammar is not greatly divergent from the baseline (though a few samples do demonstrate reduced mastery of this piece of grammar). The consistent use of native-like verbal agreement, however, may have as much to do with the fact that the heritage speakers are employing a much smaller set of verbs as it does to any firmly acquired requirement for agreement morphology. In primarily using a small subset of all possible inflected verbs (primarily forms of *bod* 'to be'), the heritage speakers are not constructing new verbal forms with their expected agreement morphology in each clause, so much as reproducing one of a handful of memorized forms. The numeral-noun agreement pattern (in which the singular noun follows any numeral) has been shown to be a separate system of agreement which is acquired (or not) entirely independently from the verbal agreement pattern. Finally, the construction of null subject clauses by the heritage speakers has been seen to be more a product of phonological convenience, and thus nearly exclusively represented in present tense *bod*-periphrasis, than a sign of the complete acquisition of the pro-drop parameter and the null subject option.

III. *Conclusions*

This dissertation not only brings the framework and terminology of the heritage language construct to the Welsh language context, but also contributes to the growing body of research on heritage grammars as informants of human language capacity. After reduced exposure and removal from the language community, the heritage Welsh speakers exhibit grammatical patterns which indicate a reanalysis of the linguistic system within a logical framework. The preference for analytical over synthetic verb forms conforms to the expectations laid out in Chapter 1, which follow from previous research with heritage speakers of other languages. These forms are pragmatically marked and slightly semantically extended to compensate for the absent synthetic forms, but they are grammatically consistent within even the baseline language. The heritage system still makes sense despite its (sometimes great) reduction from baseline norms.

The reduction of grammatical gender (marked with SM) and the mutations which signal syntactic relations (also SM) seems to indicate that simplification in the system is determined by the functional load of individual grammatical forms. The mutations which are maintained facilitate disambiguation, and thus successful communication. The relative frequencies of the different types of mutations play far less a role in whether the form is maintained than the mutation's functional load, supporting the current trend of questioning the informative capacity of frequency in acquisition studies. (cf. Chapter 3) The functional load of the form, whether it be a marker of gender, syntactic relation, or lexical in nature, is the primary motivator within these heritage Welsh samples of the retention of baseline-like mutation patterns. The salience of mutations whose roles are not so immediately apparent in natural speech are apparently less likely to be perceived, and thus acquired and/or maintained, by the heritage speaker.

These observations are necessary for an understanding of the range of Welsh proficiencies which are commanded by speakers today, in Wales and abroad, but they also contribute to the general description of the "heritage grammar" crosslinguistically. The patterns which are shared by speakers of different languages are informative of the common core of linguistic form and strategy available to the human faculty for generating language. The greater the number and typological variety of languages that are studied in their heritage form, the more thorough our description of heritage language and grammatical reanalysis will become. The creation of the corpus of heritage Welsh narratives (Appendix II.1), even beyond its analysis in this dissertation, is a valuable contribution to this developing description. It is a new resource, in which there remain many more interesting observations than I have had the space to describe in this dissertation.

This project is only the beginning of a complete description of heritage Welsh, but it is an informative beginning nonetheless. Heritage language was itself defined and described in the discussions of Part I, and, following from previous research on the form of heritage languages crosslinguistically, predictions were made about where the potential locations for divergence from baseline norms may be found in heritage Welsh grammar. Linguistic information stored in declarative memory, such as vocabulary, as well as structures which involve interaction between the syntax and other components of the grammar at interfaces, have been found to be particularly vulnerable in the heritage grammars of other languages, and so were predicted to be sources of divergence in heritage Welsh as well. Vocabulary recall difficulty was clearly evident in the analysis of heritage Welsh fluency in Chapter 5, but work remains to be done which specifically targets the manifestation of syntax which has passed through the interfaces with pragmatics or semantics, for example. The next step in this research agenda is to formulate such targeted studies which investigate not only this possible interface effect, but also further analyze the phenomena observed in this study. The semantics of the perfective *bod*-periphrastic form in heritage Welsh as

opposed to baseline Welsh is a topic which particularly warrants further investigation along these lines. Chapter 7 discussed the heritage speaker preference for analytic over synthetic verb formation, but whether that has to do with a true divergence from baseline norms in the semantics of these verbal constructions or simply due to speaker choice is a question that may be answered with more targeted research. The syntax of heritage Welsh is clearly divergent from the baseline, but I hesitate to claim an interface effect without further investigation.

Through careful analysis of the corpus compiled in the course of this research, several observations have been made which suggest that the heritage Welsh grammar is shaped more by independent simplification than by interference from the dominant language of the informants, i.e., English. Chapters 6 and 7 particularly analyzed the heritage Welsh versions of the initial consonant mutation (ICM) system, the alternation of synthetic and periphrastic verb forms, the option of a null subject, and agreement, which were each also discussed as they appear in baseline Welsh. Under the conditions of incomplete acquisition and attrition, the resulting heritage grammar manifests much reduced ICM, though maintains mutation effects when they provide salient or disambiguating information. The availability of the null subject is evinced only very minimally and predominantly in instances induced by phonetics (elision). Subject-verb agreement was found to be largely native-like, but numeral-noun agreement diverges. The conceptual plurality of the numeral has been extended to co-occur with the plural noun, contra baseline norms and possibly as a result of transfer from English. The predominance of analytical, *bod*-periphrastic verb forms over synthetic verb forms may also be seen as a possible source of interference from English. The aspectual marker and verb-noun occurs between the subject and complement, and thus the construction more closely approximates the English SVO word order than does the native Welsh VSO word order. However, the preference for periphrasis more likely results from the reduced processing load of splitting the salient components of the verb structure into distinct lexemes—the tense and agreement on a sentence-initial form of *bod* 'to be,' followed

by the subject, and only subsequently by the aspectual marker and lexical verb (the non-finite verb-noun). The interference of English is less likely to be responsible for the heritage Welsh rate of periphrasis than is an independent pattern of simplification in incomplete grammatical systems.

As was discussed in Chapter 4, the bilingual continuum incorporates the range of bilingual speakers from nearly evenly balanced to dramatically unbalanced, and this includes heritage speakers and their variable abilities as well. The continuum as a metaphor of language ability within a population is particularly apt because is does not necessarily entail a single linear progression from one end to the other, nor need it imply parallel tracks between the two poles. The expanse between the two extremes is not so much a single line, with predictable skill milestones along the way, as a plane, encapsulating a range of proficiencies in the different components of the grammar, with each speaker's grammar influenced by her own linguistic experiences. The heritage speaker and the adult second language learner do not need to have the same skills to both be considered bilinguals, nor do the 20 heritage speakers of Welsh who participated in this project speak precisely the same heritage language. They each produced their own version of heritage Welsh, with their own strengths and weaknesses—but there are broad patterns that justify their categorization as a unified sub-group of bilinguals as well. (cf. Chapter 1) This category of bilingual, the heritage speaker of Welsh, has been overlooked far too long both in the field of Welsh linguistics and in Welsh language policy.

The heritage speakers of this study belong to a particular profile—expatriates in England, each with some kind of dramatic curtailment of exposure to Welsh during childhood—but the fundamental conditions under which a heritage, as opposed to a full native, grammar develops are mirrored in Wales as well. The acquisition of Welsh in Wales is not a typical first language acquisition process either. The historical influence of English has resulted in an entirely bilingual baseline population. It has been established that bilingual acquirers are naturally receiving less linguistic input per language in childhood than their monolingual counterparts, but the imbalance

does not result in lingering deficiencies in the developing grammar. (cf. Chapter 4) For successful

bilingual acquisition, both languages reach the critical mass necessary for complete development

and successful maintenance. Recent gains in the Welsh language movement notwithstanding,

including increasing exposure to Welsh in the linguistic landscape,[1] the efforts of even the most

committed parents to raise their child bilingually may be insufficient in the face of an

Anglophone social circle and avid engagement with English language media. In the areas of

Wales which are not strongholds of the language, i.e., the majority, childhood exposure to Welsh

is inevitably reduced below optimal levels for complete and successful acquisition. By analyzing

the outcome of indisputably heritage language acquisition, as does this dissertation, signs of

simplification and divergence from expected norms in the Welsh spoken by children in Wales can

be identified as results of insufficient exposure as well. The single heritage speaker label, in this

case, belies the breadth of speaker profiles which may result in Welsh grammars which are

similarly divergent from the baseline.

Further research with heritage Welsh could take the form of the targeted studies I

discussed above, but might also take advantage of the great number of childhood second language

learners of Welsh in the school system. By mandate of the National Curriculum, children in

Wales are exposed to Welsh language instruction in the formal education system through age 16.

(Welsh Assembly Government 2008) Those children who do not come from Welsh language

home backgrounds begin their acquisition process, however successful it may ultimately be, well

into childhood. Any differences between the proficiency outcomes of heritage speaker

immigrants and these young second language learners can fairly firmly be attributed to the

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[1] The "notion 'linguistic landscape,' which refers to linguistic objects that mark the public space, i.e., inscriptions—or LL items—includes any written signs found outside private homes, from road signs to names of streets, shops, and schools. The study of LLs focuses on analyzing these items according to the languages utilized, their relative saliency, syntactic or semantic aspects. These language facts which landmark the public space are social facts that, as such, relate to more general social phenomena." (Ben-Rafael et al. 2010, xiv)

difference in very early exposure. The critical, or, perhaps less controversially, "optimal" period for the acquisition of certain components of the grammar can be tested by a comparison of these two populations. The development of phonology would be a particularly informative comparison. (cf. Chapter 2)

The status of the language in Wales, while certainly more securely established than Irish in Ireland or Scottish Gaelic in Scotland, is still that of a minority language. UNESCO's *Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger* categorizes Welsh as "vulnerable." (UNESCO 2014) As a result of this status, heritage Welsh has existed as a distinctly inevitable language outcome as long as English language culture has permeated Wales. Unfortunately, however, as per the typical heritage speaker profile, heritage Welsh speakers are not certain to assert their ownership over the language as members of its speaker community. Falling short of native norms, in their estimation, heritage speakers do not always feel entitled to inclusion within the Welsh language community. Without deliberate maintenance of the language proficiency that they do have, which may often be met by unenthusiastic interlocutors, the heritage language suffers further attrition and thus reinforces the speaker's unwillingness to use Welsh. Should awareness of the heritage language phenomenon become widespread within Wales, heritage speakers may be able to take greater agency in their own identification as speakers, a privilege of the heritage speaker label as was discussed in Chapter 1.

The study of heritage language, if nothing else, provides a framework within which to discuss a type of speaker who has formerly been labeled "semi-speaker" (cf. Dorian 1977; Dorian 1980; Knowles-Berry 1987) or "imperfect speaker" (cf. Dorian 1982) in the literature. The implicit negativity of these labels naturally discourages these speakers from feeling that they are part of the speaker community. As "heritage speakers," the linguistic profile is refocused on the cultural connection between an individual and her heritage language, not on her failure to successfully acquire the language. In the context of minority, vulnerable, or endangered

languages, that perceived failure can be accompanied by a sense of shame or guilt for not having contributed to saving the language, or possibly even for contributing to its obsolescence. This is simply an unreasonable burden to place on the shoulders of these speakers. Language shift is an individual experience first, and only secondarily does the phenomenon affect the community as a whole. Heritage language is a far more productive term for the resulting grammar of an incomplete acquirer of a minority language or for the grammar of a speaker after years of attrition from disuse. Careful analysis of the heritage language certainly reveals divergences from the baseline language, but also recognizes those aspects of the grammar which are native-like or utilizable strengths and which also characterize the heritage speaker's language knowledge.

The implications of an exclusionary mentality in the speaker community reverberate even as far as any official count of Welsh language use. The potential exclusion of heritage speakers in counts of total Welsh speakers is, I believe, a preventable mistake with rather extensive consequences. Not only does the UK Census intentionally omit the Welsh language question on questionnaires distributed outside of Wales,[2] thus eliminating the potential to count both fully proficient and heritage speakers in England, but the phrasing of the Welsh question in Wales may incline the speaker population to under-report. Heritage Speakers, as I discussed in Chapter 1, likely make up a significant proportion of the categories who report that they "understand spoken Welsh" and "speak Welsh" (but report no literacy abilities). Heritage speakers may also tick the box for "read Welsh." The unfortunate, though necessary, brevity of these category descriptions on the questionnaire form almost certainly lead to some amount of confusion for the respondents. The question "can you understand Welsh," for example, may be interpreted as "can you understand *all* spoken Welsh," particularly by a heritage speaker who is generally inclined to

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[2] Question 17 of 2011 Census for Wales reads "Can you understand, speak, read or write Welsh? Tick all that apply" then lists "understand spoken Welsh," "speak Welsh," "read Welsh," "write Welsh," and "none of the above." The questionnaires distributed in England have no question 17, instead the box numbered 17 contains "This question is intentionally left blank. Go to 18." (Office for National Statistics 2011a; Office for National Statistics 2011b)

undervalue her language abilities. Consequently, language abilities are very likely being underreported on the official Census. This is not an easily solved problem, however, and the constructors of the Census forms are certainly not at fault, but the heritage speaker profile and its attendant lack of confidence are not conducive to accurate self-reporting.

Children who are learning Welsh as part of the school curriculum are known to be reporting (or their parents are reporting) their abilities on the Census. This accounts for the much discussed school-age bubble in speaker age demographics, and may actually be an example of the opposite problem of what I have been discussing here—the potential for parents to *over-report* their children's proficiencies. (Morris 2010) I take no issue, however, with the inclusion of these second language learners in official accounts of the health of the language. But if imbalanced bilinguals in the form of second language learners are to be included as speakers, then so should heritage speakers, and finding a way to accurately account for these speakers in Wales (let alone the rest of the UK) is an ongoing challenge for the language movement.

The Welsh Language Use Surveys, commissioned by the Welsh government (the Welsh Language Board, and later the Welsh Language Commissioner), attempt to compensate for the inadequacy of the UK Census itself. The survey project that will build on the results of the 2011 Census is ongoing (2013-2015),[3] but the 2004-2006 project yielded some very useful results indeed. With its targeted questions and random sampling methodology, the 2004 report estimated that there was a greater Welsh speaking population in 2004 than what the 2001 Census reported—21.7% rather than 20.8% of those living in Wales. Of these 611,000 speakers, 57%

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[3] Information can be found at http://wales.gov.uk/statistics-and-research/nationals-survey/content-and-materials/welsh-language-use-survey-2013-2015/?lang=en

(315,000) actually considered themselves fluent.[4] (Welsh Language Board 2006, 6) It must be presumed, then, that the other 296,000 speakers fall somewhere towards the imbalanced end of the bilingual continuum (cf. Chapter 4) and include heritage speakers. Indeed, 22% of the Welsh speakers who reported that they were not fluent also reported that they had learned Welsh at home (Welsh Language Board 2006, 23)—and thus have we located heritage speakers inside Wales. The ability to account for them is therefore already established, but these surveys have yet to be refined for the innumerable variables of the heritage speaker profile. Even more importantly, this survey of Welsh speakers has not yet been extended to England, where so many of these heritage speakers live.

Having now defined and described what heritage Welsh and the heritage speaker are, fully integrating these speakers into the Welsh language community may be the next, and perhaps most productive, effort toward promoting the language. The heritage speaker does, after all, have some degree of proficiency already, so unlike efforts to convince parents to raise their children bilingually or to encourage adults to learn the language, these speakers already have some of the language abilities that the Welsh Assembly Government is seeking to count. To fully recognize those abilities may amount to an immediate, and significant, increase in total speaker numbers, and maintaining the border between Wales and England as a valid limit on the extent of the Welsh language should now be recognized as illogical.

In the context of Scottish and Irish Gaelic, languages deemed "definitely endangered" by the UNESCO *Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger* (UNESCO 2014), Watson (1989) tries to reconcile the conflicting criteria for membership in speaker communities of minority languages.

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[4] This is not "fluent" as the term was discussed at great length in Chapter 5, but rather the casual use of the word. It may be loosely interpreted as "proficient," though this imprecision may be considered problematic for the utility of these surveys.

"When a language has been in retreat for a long time and its distribution has been shrinking at the same time that its functions have been dwindling, difficulties are very likely to arise in even such basic matters as determining just who should be considered a "speaker" or a "member" of the speaker community. The "native speaker" population itself may not agree on who falls within that category: some people may claim speaker status when others would not include them as speakers. If the speaker population cannot agree on its own membership, then the problems for the researcher are bound to be even more acute." (Watson 1989, 41)

A basic count of Welsh speakers should be a complete report of all language abilities in the community, not a figure that focuses on full proficiency and Welsh residency. An agenda which privileges certain bilinguals over others is not going to secure the Welsh language for future generations. Limitations on who may or may not consider themselves valid Welsh speakers, however unintentional or unconscious, is as egregious a discrimination as the British policies which led to the minority status of the language in the first place. Bringing this category of bilinguals into the fold of Welsh speakers could be a major turnaround for the language. The reasons for their curtailed acquisition process may be related to official prejudices against the language in childhood or to subtler pressures to assimilate to English language culture, but, ironically, the continued exclusion of this group from their cultural inheritance is an injustice which has emerged from within the movement to promote Welsh in Wales. The recognition of a clear category of speakers who are neither full native speakers nor non-speakers altogether—i.e., heritage speakers—is a significant step toward resolving this issue, not only for the language researcher but also for the language maintenance movement.

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Appendix I.1 Tables of the Heritage Welsh Data

Table I.1.1 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - times and word counts for each sample narrative

	Word Count	Seconds	Minutes	Words Per Minute
DL1	1135	723	12.05	94.19087137
DL2	414	257	4.283333333	96.6536965
DL3	1114	504	8.4	132.6190476
DL4	828	622	10.36666667	79.87138264
DL5	484	228	3.8	127.3684211
DL6	351	416	6.933333333	50.625
DL7	793	453	7.55	105.0331126
DL9	1060	487	8.116666667	130.5954825
DL10	298	342	5.7	52.28070175
DL11	585	410	6.833333333	85.6097561
DL12	614	571	9.516666667	64.51838879
DL13	189	207	3.45	54.7826087
DC14	404	341	5.683333333	71.08504399
DL15	505	299	4.983333333	101.3377926
DL16	705	278	4.633333333	152.1582734
DL17	531	237	3.95	134.4303797
L2	841	487	8.116666667	103.613963
L5	767	380	6.333333333	121.1052632
L6	508	276	4.6	110.4347826
A1	679	455	7.583333333	89.53846154

Table I.1.2 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - total pauses in each narrative

	Filled Pauses	1 Second Pauses	2 Second Pauses	3 Second Pauses	4 Second Pauses
DL1	75	157	27	0	0
DL2	17	40	22	0	0
DL3	10	67	39	4	1
DL4	28	84	38	0	0
DL5	3	29	23	0	0
DL6	46	60	34	0	0
DL7	108	69	18	0	0
DL9	80	52	17	0	0
DL10	72	26	20	0	0
DL11	55	39	24	4	3
DL12	140	48	14	2	0
DL13	12	10	12	4	4
DC14	60	27	20	0	0
DL15	34	37	18	2	0
DL16	26	45	7	0	0
DL17	31	27	11	0	0
L2	14	69	30	4	0
L5	44	53	23	1	0
L6	0	40	30	1	0
A1	14	75	43	0	0

Table I.1.3 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - components of fluency, narrative totals

	Retraces	Corrections	Embeddings	Vocabulary Recall Delay
DL1	22	19	30	43
DL2	7	8	9	81
DL3	3	6	33	30
DL4	19	15	17	23
DL5	9	6	13	12
DL6	8	6	0	52
DL7	27	11	21	56
DL9	38	15	38	27
DL10	66	9	8	29
DL11	26	8	14	21
DL12	89	11	17	48
DL13	10	0	0	98
DC14	14	3	0	47
DL15	15	10	17	48
DL16	11	7	26	14
DL17	29	12	17	29
L2	53	15	27	39
L5	46	22	14	62
L6	1	2	17	8
A1	8	13	8	41

Table I.1.4 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - total utterances in each narrative; fluency measures per utterance

	Utterances	MLU	Embeddings Per Utterance	Vocabulary Recall Delay Per Utterance	Retraces Per Utterance	Corrections Per Utterance
DL1	190	5.973684211	0.157894737	0.226315789	0.115789474	0.1
DL2	60	6.9	0.15	1.35	0.116666667	0.133333333
DL3	110	10.12727273	0.3	0.272727273	0.027272727	0.054545455
DL4	123	6.731707317	0.138211382	0.18699187	0.154471545	0.12195122
DL5	52	9.307692308	0.25	0.230769231	0.173076923	0.115384615
DL6	80	4.3875	0	0.65	0.1	0.075
DL7	157	5.050955414	0.133757962	0.356687898	0.171974522	0.070063694
DL9	131	8.091603053	0.290076336	0.20610687	0.29007634	0.114503817
DL10	79	3.772151899	0.101265823	0.367088608	0.835443038	0.113924051
DL11	105	5.571428571	0.133333333	0.2	0.247619048	0.076190476
DL12	141	4.354609929	0.120567376	0.340425532	0.631205674	0.078014184
DL13	40	4.725	0	2.45	0.25	0
DC14	67	6.029850746	0.014925373	0.701492537	0.208955224	0.044776119
DL15	79	6.392405063	0.215189873	0.607594937	0.189873418	0.126582278
DL16	64	11.015625	0.40625	0.21875	0.171875	0.109375
DL17	63	8.428571429	0.26984127	0.46031746	0.46031746	0.19047619
L2	112	7.508928571	0.241071429	0.348214286	0.473214286	0.133928571
L5	110	6.972727273	0.127272727	0.563636364	0.418181818	0.2
L6	73	6.95890411	0.232876712	0.109589041	0.01369863	0.02739726
A1	124	5.475806452	0.064516129	0.330645161	0.064516129	0.10483871

Table I.1.5 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - input variables for each speaker

	Media Exposure Per Week	Conversational Use/Practice Per Week	Age At Language Shift	Welsh Instruction in School
DL1	0	1	2.5	1
DL2	0	0.25	0	0
DL3	2	3.5	3.5	2
DL4	0.25	3	8	1
DL5	10	6	18	5
DL6	3	0.5	4	0
DL7	2	7	0	1
DL9	8	2	12	4
DL10	5	1	0	0
DL11	1	2	3	3
DL12	6	2	0	0
DL13	0	0	7	3
DC14	1	0	0	1
DL15	1	3	4	3
DL16	1	21	10	2
DL17	2	40	8	4
L2	3	10	6	1
L5	2	0.1	4	4
L6	0.1	3	0	4
A1	0.1	0.25	0	1

(Welsh Instruction in School coding: 0 = no formal instruction, 1 = studied as a subject 1-3 years, 2 = studied as a subject 4 or more years, 3 = Welsh medium education at the primary level, 4 = Welsh medium education at the primary level and studied as a subject at the secondary level, 5 = Welsh medium education at the primary and secondary levels)

Table I.1.6 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of aspirate mutation (following lexical triggers)

	aspirate mutation applied instead of another expected mutation	unexpected aspirate mutation (had not been triggered)	absence of expected aspirate mutation	aspirate mutation where expected
A1	0	0	2(after "a")	0
DC14	0	0	1(after "a")	0
DL1	2/SM (after "ei")	0	1(after "gyda")	1(after "ei")
DL2	0	0	0	0
DL3	0	0	0	0
DL4	0	0	1(after "a")	0
DL5	0	0	0	0
DL6	0	1(after "thrwy")	2(after "gyda" and "a")	0
DL7	0	0	0	0
DL9	0	0	1(after "a")	0
DL10	0	0	0	0
DL11	0	0	1(after "gyda")	0
DL12	0	0	0	0
DL13	0	0	0	0
DL15	0	0	1(after "a")	0
DL16	0	0	0	0
DL17	0	0	0	0
L2	0	0	0	0
L5	0	0	2(after "gyda")	0
L6	0	0	0	0

Table I.1.7 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of the nasal mutation (following lexical triggers)

	nasal mutation applied instead of another expected mutation	unexpected nasal mutation (had not been triggered)	absence of expected nasal mutation	nasal mutation where expected
A1	0	0	1(after "yn")	0
DC14	0	0	0	0
DL1	0	0	0	2(after "yn")
DL2	0	0	0	0
DL3	1/SM (after "yn")	0	0	1(after "yn")
DL4	0	0	0	0
DL5	0	0	0	1(after "yn")
DL6	0	0	0	0
DL7	0	0	1(after "yn")	0
DL9	0	0	0	0
DL10	0	0	0	0
DL11	0	0	3(after "yn")	0
DL12	0	0	0	1(after "yn")
DL13	0	0	0	0
DL15	0	0	0	0
DL16	0	0	0	0
DL17	0	0	0	0
L2	0	0	0	0
L5	0	0	0	0
L6	0	0	1(after "yn")	1(after "yn")

Table I.1.8 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of soft mutation triggered by syntactic/grammatical context

	unexpected soft mutation (no trigger)	absence of expected soft mutation	soft mutation where expected
A1	1	0	0
DC14	0	0	0
DL1	0	6	0
DL2	0	0	0
DL3	1	2	10
DL4	0	0	0
DL5	0	0	0
DL6	0	0	0
DL7	0	0	0
DL9	0	0	1
DL10	0	0	0
DL11	0	1	0
DL12	0	3	1
DL13	0	0	0
DL15	0	0	0
DL16	0	0	1
DL17	0	0	0
L2	0	1	1
L5	0	3	1
L6	0	2	3

Table I.1.9 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of soft mutation triggered by the feminine gender context (nouns after the article and adjectives after the noun)

	unexpected soft mutation (no trigger)	absence of expected soft mutation	soft mutation where expected
A1	1	2	2
DC14	1	2	11
DL1	1	10	4
DL2	0	5	0
DL3	5	0	8
DL4	2	1	19
DL5	0	6	4
DL6	0	4	4
DL7	3	4	2
DL9	7	0	19
DL10	0	2	2
DL11	7	2	2
DL12	4	3	5
DL13	4	1	0
DL15	0	0	0
DL16	4	0	5
DL17	1	4	2
L2	0	6	4
L5	8	3	2
L6	0	5	3

Table I.1.10 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of soft mutation after lexical triggers

	soft mutation applied instead of another expected mutation	unexpected soft mutation (no trigger)	absence of soft mutation	soft mutation where expected
A1	0	6	3	9
DC14	1/AM	0	3	7
DL1	0	0	17	13
DL2	0	0	8	1
DL3	1/NM,1/AM	2	3	32
DL4	1/AM	2	10	16
DL5	0	1	3	10
DL6	0	0	3	2
DL7	1/NM	0	17	13
DL9	0	3	9	23
DL10	0	0	4	3
DL11	0	0	7	3
DL12	1/AM	1	9	12
DL13	0	0	1	0
DL15	0	0	5	2
DL16	3/NM, 1/AM	4	5	16
DL17	0	2	6	6
L2	0	1	13	1
L5	1/AM	0	11	8
L6	0	0	6	8

Table I.1.11 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of the aspectual particles/markers, with or without a preceding form of bod *'to be'*

	yn - progressive aspect	wedi - perfective aspect
A1	65	15
DC14	26	10
DL1	62	24
DL2	19	9
DL3	55	20
DL4	65	16
DL5	43	4
DL6	17	9
DL7	34	8
DL9	62	14
DL10	29	1
DL11	39	10
DL12	52	1
DL13	1	1
DL15	40	12
DL16	38	8
DL17	36	29
L2	63	15
L5	49	10
L6	47	3

Table I.1.12 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of the present tense of bod *'to be'* (mae*)*

	mae with *yn*, progressive aspect	*mae* with *wedi*, perfective aspect	existential/descriptive *mae*	*mae* with missing aspect marker (divergent from expected norm)
A1	48	6	3	0
DC14	21	9	10	0
DL1	45	18	20	0
DL2	0	0	0	0
DL3	45	15	19	11
DL4	53	10	14	2
DL5	35	2	2	0
DL6	16	4	1	1
DL7	15	2	5	1
DL9	32	4	12	2
DL10	26	0	5	1
DL11	19	6	10	0
DL12	45	0	12	2
DL13	1	0	1	1
DL15	30	5	7	5
DL16	29	7	20	3
DL17	34	26	10	3
L2	47	13	25	3
L5	42	7	23	3
L6	35	3	17	2

Table I.1.13 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of the imperfect tense of bod *'to be'* (oedd*)*

	oedd with *yn*, progressive aspect	*oedd* with *wedi*, perfective aspect	existential/descriptive *oedd*	*oedd* with missing aspect marker (divergent from expected norm)
A1	2	0	3	0
DC14	0	0	0	0
DL1	3	1	4	0
DL2	0	0	0	0
DL3	6	0	1	0
DL4	4	1	0	1
DL5	0	0	0	0
DL6	0	0	0	0
DL7	13	0	4	0
DL9	9	2	11	1
DL10	0	0	0	0
DL11	7	2	5	0
DL12	0	0	2	0
DL13	0	0	0	0
DL15	3	1	2	0
DL16	0	0	1	0
DL17	0	0	0	0
L2	0	1	1	0
L5	2	0	4	2
L6	0	0	0	0

Table I.1.14 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - other forms of bod *'to be' (besides the present and imperfect tenses, see tables I.1.12 and I.1.13)*

	interrogative and negative existential bod - *oes/does dim*	copula - *yw* or *oedd*	relative 'that' - *bod*	relative 'who, which' - *sy(dd)*	relative with copula construction - *mai/taw*	inflected past tense of *bod* (any person and number)	inflected future tense of *bod* (any person and number)
A1	0	0	2	1	0	0	0
DC14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL1	0	5	0	4	2	0	0
DL2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL3	2	5	3	4	2	0	1
DL4	0	4	1	7	0	0	0
DL5	1	0	0	3	0	0	0
DL6	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
DL7	0	8	5	4	0	0	0
DL9	0	3	8	1	1	0	1
DL10	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
DL11	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
DL12	0	3	1	4	0	0	0
DL13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL15	1	2	9	0	0	0	0
DL16	0	2	3	13	0	0	0
DL17	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
L2	0	8	8	1	1	0	0
L5	0	1	2	2	0	0	0
L6	4	0	1	2	0	0	0

Table I.1.15 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - synthetic verb forms (lexical verb inflected for tense, aspect and agreement) and bod *inflected for the conditional mood*

	synthetic past tense	synthetic future tense	imperative forms	conditional *bod*
A1	6	0	0	0
DC14	1	0	0	0
DL1	0	0	0	0
DL2	0	0	0	0
DL3	7	4	0	4
DL4	0	0	0	0
DL5	0	0	0	0
DL6	0	0	0	0
DL7	30	0	0	0
DL9	15	0	0	0
DL10	0	0	0	0
DL11	8	0	0	0
DL12	0	0	0	0
DL13	0	0	0	0
DL15	1	0	0	0
DL16	1	0	0	0
DL17	0	0	0	0
L2	0	1	0	0
L5	3	0	0	0
L6	0	0	0	0

Table I.1.16 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - instances of the null subject option in each narrative sample

	null subject after present tense of *bod* in periphrastic construction - *mae*	null subject after imperfect tense of *bod* in perophrastic construction - *oedd*	null subject with a synthetic verb form
A1	14	0	0
DC14	5	0	0
DL1	2	1	0
DL2	0	0	0
DL3	3	0	1
DL4	6	0	0
DL5	1	0	0
DL6	0	0	0
DL7	2	0	1
DL9	7	0	0
DL10	5	0	0
DL11	14	0	0
DL12	6	0	0
DL13	0	0	0
DL15	11	0	1
DL16	8	0	0
DL17	24	0	0
L2	17	0	0
L5	26	1	0
L6	3	0	0

Table I.1.17 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - agreement between numerals and nouns

	native-like agreement pattern numeral+singular noun	non-native agreement pattern numeral+plural noun
A1	0	0
DC14	2	0
DL1	1	0
DL2	0	0
DL3	0	0
DL4	1	0
DL5	1	0
DL6	0	2('dau brogau,' 'chwech brogau')
DL7	0	0
DL9	0	0
DL10	0	0
DL11	1	1('naw ffrogiau fach')
DL12	1	0
DL13	0	0
DL15	0	1('dau frogau')
DL16	0	1('saith llyffantod')
DL17	0	0
L2	0	0
L5	0	0
L6	1	0

Table I.1.18 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - agreement patterns in analytic constructions, present and imperfect tenses of bod-*periphrasis*

	Native-like Agreement:				Non-native Agreement:			
	3rd singular singular subject	3rd singular coordinate subject	3rd singular plural subject (non-pronominal)	other pronominal subjects	3rd singular singular subject	3rd singular coordinate subject	3rd singular plural subject (non-pronominal)	other pronominal subjects
A1	35	0	1	15	0	0	0	0
DC14	24	3	1	6	0	0	0	0
DL1	70	0	3	16	0	0	0	0
DL2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL3	43	2	6	37	0	0	0	0
DL4	51	5	2	17	0	0	1(maen gwenyn)	0
DL5	22	3	1	12	0	0	1(maen gwenyn)	0
DL6	17	2	0	1	0	0	0	0
DL7	21	1	1	14	0	0	0	0
DL9	33	0	7	20	0	0	0	0
DL10	15	4	1	1	0	0	0	4(mae hw)
DL11	25	1	6	4	0	0	0	0
DL12	29	3	5	23	0	0	0	0
DL13	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL15	21	0	0	14	0	0	0	0
DL16	21	1	1	22	0	0	0	0
DL17	30	0	1	12	0	0	0	0
L2	46	1	2	26	0	0	0	0
L5	35	3	4	19	0	0	0	0
L6	29	2	2	17	0	0	0	0

Table I.1.19 Heritage Welsh speaker narratives - agreement patterns in synthetic constructions, inflected lexical verbs, all tenses

	Native-like Agreement:				Non-native agreement:			
	3rd singular singular subject	3rd singular coordinate subject	3rd singular plural subject (non-pronominal)	other pronominal subjects	3rd singular singular subject	3rd singular coordinate subject	3rd singular plural subject (non-pronominal)	other pronominal subjects
A1	4	0	0	2	0	0	0	0
DC14	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL3	3	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
DL4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL7	29	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL9	10	1	1	2	0	0	0	0
DL10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL11	2	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
DL12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
DL17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
L2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
L5	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
L6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Appendix I.2 Tables of the Baseline Welsh Data

Table I.2.1 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - times and word counts for each narrative sample

	Word Count	Seconds	Minutes	Words Per Minute
CA1	235	164	2.733333333	85.97560976
CA2	478	165	2.75	173.8181818
CA4	424	179	2.983333333	142.122905
CA5	527	298	4.966666667	106.1073826
CA6	637	329	5.483333333	116.1702128
CA7	383	265	4.416666667	86.71698113
CGA1	777	412	6.866666667	113.1553398
CGA2	965	441	7.35	131.292517
CGA3	1551	737	12.28333333	126.2686567
CGA4	495	297	4.95	100
CGA5	361	179	2.983333333	121.0055866
CPPA	1004	523	8.716666667	115.1816444
CC1	296	109	1.816666667	162.9357798
CC3	382	193	3.216666667	118.7564767
CC5	291	143	2.383333333	122.0979021
CC6	324	125	2.083333333	155.52
CGB1	727	328	5.466666667	132.9878049
CGB2	1363	676	11.26666667	120.9763314
CGB3	571	285	4.75	120.2105263
CGB4	933	433	7.216666667	129.2840647

Table I.2.2 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - total pauses in each narrative

	Filled Pauses	1 Second Pauses	2 Second Pauses	3 Second Pauses	4 Second Pauses
CA1	31	19	8	0	0
CA2	14	16	8	0	0
CA4	12	21	1	0	0
CA5	14	28	22	0	0
CA6	28	32	18	0	0
CA7	13	26	17	0	0
CGA1	15	30	26	1	0
CGA2	28	51	41	0	0
CGA3	4	76	38	0	0
CGA4	1	28	36	1	0
CGA5	0	25	17	0	0
CPPA	120	37	13	0	0
CC1	1	11	11	0	0
CC3	3	18	26	0	0
CC5	0	20	7	0	0
CC6	3	7	9	0	0
CGB1	8	41	17	1	0
CGB2	4	66	32	4	0
CGB3	14	30	22	0	0
CGB4	0	57	31	1	0

Table I.2.3 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - components of fluency, narrative totals

	Retraces	Corrections	Embeddings	Vocabulary Recall Delay
CA1	2	1	8	5
CA2	2	0	17	4
CA4	3	2	10	3
CA5	8	4	19	4
CA6	12	6	19	9
CA7	11	7	9	7
CGA1	2	2	43	1
CGA2	23	6	18	3
CGA3	7	0	77	1
CGA4	0	0	21	0
CGA5	1	1	11	1
CPPA	20	9	48	2
CC1	2	2	5	2
CC3	2	2	5	2
CC5	0	1	9	0
CC6	4	2	13	1
CGB1	7	6	23	3
CGB2	2	2	49	3
CGB3	13	3	11	1
CGB4	4	7	25	1

Table I.2.4 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - total utterances in each narrative; fluency measures per utterance

	Utterances	MLU	Embeddings Per Utterance	Vocabulary Recall Delay Per Utterance	Retraces Per Utterance	Corrections Per Utterance
CA1	41	5.73171	0.195121951	0.12195122	0.048780488	0.024390244
CA2	30	15.93333	0.566666667	0.133333333	0.066666667	0
CA4	32	13.25	0.3125	0.09375	0.09375	0.0625
CA5	57	9.24561	0.333333333	0.070175439	0.140350877	0.070175439
CA6	66	9.65152	0.287878788	0.136363636	0.181818182	0.090909091
CA7	48	7.97917	0.1875	0.145833333	0.229166667	0.145833333
CGA1	62	12.53226	0.693548387	0.016129032	0.032258065	0.032258065
CGA2	109	8.85321	0.165137615	0.027522936	0.211009174	0.055045872
CGA3	117	13.25641	0.658119658	0.008547009	0.05982906	0
CGA4	66	7.5	0.318181818	0	0	0
CGA5	43	8.39535	0.255813953	0.023255814	0.023255814	0.023255814
CPPA	140	7.17143	0.342857143	0.014285714	0.142857143	0.064285714
CC1	25	11.84	0.2	0.08	0.08	0.08
CC3	47	8.12766	0.106382979	0.042553191	0.042553191	0.042553191
CC5	28	10.39286	0.321428571	0	0	0.035714286
CC6	20	16.2	0.65	0.05	0.2	0.1
CGB1	68	10.69118	0.338235294	0.044117647	0.102941176	0.088235294
CGB2	103	13.23301	0.475728155	0.029126214	0.019417476	0.019417476
CGB3	63	9.06349	0.174603175	0.015873016	0.206349206	0.047619048
CGB4	90	10.36667	0.277777778	0.011111111	0.044444444	0.077777778

Table I.2.5 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of aspirate mutation (following lexical triggers)

	aspirate mutation applied instead of another expected mutation	unexpected aspirate mutation (had not been triggered)	absence of expected aspirate mutation	aspirate mutation where expected
CA1	0	0	0	0
CA2	0	0	0	0
CA4	0	0	3(after "gyda")	0
CA5	0	0	2(after "gyda")	0
CA6	0	0	3(after "a")	0
CA7	0	0	1(after "gyda")	0
CC1	0	0	0	0
CC3	0	0	0	0
CC5	0	0	0	0
CC6	0	0	0	0
CGA1	0	0	0	0
CGA2	0	0	0	0
CGA3	0	0	0	0
CGA4	0	0	2(after "a"), 1(after "gyda")	1(after "a", 1(after "ei")
CGA5	0	0	1(after "a")	0
CGB1	0	0	1(after "a")	0
CGB2	0	0	1(after "a"), 1(after "â")	0
CGB3	0	0	0	0
CGB4	0	0	0	0
CPPA	0	0	2(after "a")	1(after "ei")

Table I.2.6 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of the nasal mutation (following lexical triggers)

	nasal mutation applied instead of another expected mutation	unexpected nasal mutation (no trigger)	absence of expected nasal mutation	nasal mutation where expected
CA1	0	0	0	0
CA2	0	0	0	0
CA4	0	0	0	0
CA5	0	0	0	0
CA6	1/AM (after "a")	0	0	0
CA7	0	0	0	0
CC1	0	0	1(after "yn")	0
CC3	0	0	0	0
CC5	0	0	0	0
CC6	0	0	0	0
CGA1	0	0	1(after "yn")	0
CGA2	0	0	0	0
CGA3	0	0	0	2(after "yn"), 2(after "fy")
CGA4	0	0	0	3(after "yn")
CGA5	0	0	1(after "yn")	0
CGB1	0	0	0	0
CGB2	0	0	0	3(after "yn"), 1(after "fy")
CGB3	0	0	0	0
CGB4	0	0	0	2(after "yn") 2(after "fy")
CPPA	0	0	0	2(after "yn")

Table I.2.7 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of soft mutation triggered by syntactic/grammatical context

	unexpected soft mutation (no trigger)	absence of expected soft mutation	soft mutation where expected
CA1	2	2	5
CA2	2	1	2
CA4	0	0	0
CA5	0	5	1
CA6	0	1	0
CA7	1	2	0
CC1	0	1	5
CC3	0	0	0
CC5	0	0	0
CC6	0	10	0
CGA1	3	2	11
CGA2	1	0	3
CGA3	7	3	9
CGA4	1	0	1
CGA5	0	0	2
CGB1	1	1	2
CGB2	4	1	11
CGB3	0	0	0
CGB4	1	1	6
CPPA	0	0	5

Table I.2.8 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of soft mutation triggered by the feminine gender context (nouns after the article and adjectives after the noun)

	unexpected soft mutation (no trigger)	absence of expected soft mutation	soft mutation where expected
CA1	0	2	0
CA2	0	0	3
CA4	1	3	7
CA5	3	7	11
CA6	1	3	5
CA7	1	0	3
CC1	0	0	6
CC3	1	1	8
CC5	2	1	9
CC6	0	1	1
CGA1	3	2	20
CGA2	2	0	21
CGA3	4	0	12
CGA4	1	0	4
CGA5	0	0	3
CGB1	1	0	12
CGB2	4	2	18
CGB3	1	0	2
CGB4	3	0	15
CPPA	5	1	21

Table I.2.9 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of soft mutation after lexical triggers

	soft mutation applied instead of another expected mutation	unexpected soft mutation (no trigger)	absence of soft mutation	soft mutation where expected
CA1	1/AM	2	1	6
CA2	2/NM	2	3	13
CA4	0	0	6	14
CA5	0	5	3	10
CA6	2/NM	1	9	18
CA7	0	0	4	8
CC1	0	2	2	1
CC3	0	0	5	13
CC5	1/N	0	1	6
CC6	0	0	4	16
CGA1	1/AM, 1/NM	3	11	31
CGA2	0	0	5	14
CGA3	2/AM, 1/NM	5	15	61
CGA4	0	1	2	21
CGA5	3/NM,2/AM	1	6	18
CGB1	1/AM	0	1	21
CGB2	0	1	3	71
CGB3	0	0	2	20
CGB4	0	1	3	38
CPPA	1/AM,1/NM	0	5	60

Table I.2.10 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of the aspectual particles/markers, with or without a preceding form of bod *'to be'*

	yn - progressive aspect	wedi - perfective aspect
CA1	3	0
CA2	39	2
CA4	24	6
CA5	14	4
CA6	32	12
CA7	16	6
CC1	26	1
CC3	34	2
CC5	7	0
CC6	31	2
CGA1	14	10
CGA2	65	17
CGA3	57	33
CGA4	17	2
CGA5	9	2
CGB1	31	15
CGB2	76	15
CGB3	43	9
CGB4	43	9
CPPA	42	15

Table I.2.11 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of the present tense of bod *'to be'* (mae*)*

	mae with *yn*, progressive aspect	*mae* with *wedi*, perfective aspect	existential/descriptive *mae*	*mae* with missing aspect marker (divergent from expected norm)
CA1	0	0	0	0
CA2	21	1	5	3
CA4	19	5	9	2
CA5	1	0	5	0
CA6	20	8	6	1
CA7	9	1	4	1
CC1	23	0	11	1
CC3	26	1	11	0
CC5	1	0	15	0
CC6	26	1	4	1
CGA1	2	1	2	1
CGA2	47	15	28	0
CGA3	19	6	22	7
CGA4	0	0	1	0
CGA5	0	0	0	0
CGB1	21	7	17	1
CGB2	10	4	16	0
CGB3	38	8	9	3
CGB4	10	5	25	1
CPPA	11	0	2	1

Table I.2.12 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - total counts of the imperfect tense of bod *'to be' (*oedd*)*

	oedd with *yn*, progressive aspect	*oedd* with *wedi*, perfective aspect	existential/descriptive *oedd*	*oedd* with missing aspect marker (divergent from expected norm)
CA1	4	0	4	2
CA2	0	0	0	0
CA4	0	0	0	0
CA5	1	2	5	0
CA6	1	1	1	0
CA7	4	1	3	1
CC1	0	0	0	0
CC3	0	0	0	0
CC5	2	0	1	0
CC6	0	0	0	0
CGA1	9	3	7	2
CGA2	2	0	1	0
CGA3	23	15	19	5
CGA4	10	0	11	2
CGA5	4	2	11	0
CGB1	1	0	0	0
CGB2	21	7	18	0
CGB3	0	0	0	0
CGB4	3	2	12	0
CPPA	15	6	9	0

Table I.2.13 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - other forms of bod *'to be' (besides the present and imperfect tenses, see tables I.2.11 and I.2.12)*

	interrogative and negative existential bod - *oes/does dim*	copula - *yw* or *oedd*	relative 'that' - *bod*	relative 'who, which' - *sy(dd)*	relative with copula construction - *mai/taw*	inflected past tense of *bod* (any person and number)	inflected future tense of *bod* (any person and number)
CA1	0	3	1	0	0	0	0
CA2	0	1	2	1	0	0	0
CA4	0	1	1	2	0	0	0
CA5	0	0	10	2	0	0	0
CA6	1	7	6	1	1	0	1
CA7	0	1	4	0	0	0	0
CC1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
CC3	1	0	1	2	0	0	0
CC5	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
CC6	0	0	4	0	0	0	0
CGA1	0	5	6	0	2	1	0
CGA2	3	6	5	8	0	0	5
CGA3	1	5	9	7	0	0	1
CGA4	0	0	3	1	0	0	0
CGA5	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
CGB1	0	1	5	4	0	0	0
CGB2	0	8	9	3	3	0	1
CGB3	0	3	1	1	0	0	0
CGB4	0	4	2	2	0	0	0
CPPA	0	2	10	1	1	0	0

Table 1.2.14 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - synthetic verb forms (lexical verb inflected for tense, aspect and agreement) and bod *inflected for the conditional mood*

	synthetic past tense	synthetic future tense	imperative forms	conditional *bod*
CA1	14	0	0	1
CA2	0	0	0	0
CA4	0	0	0	0
CA5	24	0	2	0
CA6	7	0	0	0
CA7	17	0	0	0
CC1	0	0	0	0
CC3	0	0	0	0
CC5	9	1	0	0
CC6	0	0	0	0
CGA1	40	0	0	2
CGA2	0	0	3	1
CGA3	20	3	3	2
CGA4	26	1	0	0
CGA5	14	1	2	0
CGB1	14	2	4	0
CGB2	13	0	6	0
CGB3	0	0	0	0
CGB4	9	0	1	0
CPPA	30	0	0	0

Table I.2.15 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - instances of the null subject option in each narrative sample

	null subject after present tense of *bod* in periphrastic construction - *mae*	null subject after imperfect tense of *bod* in perophrastic construction - *oedd*	null subject with a synthetic verb form	null subject after 3rd singular conditional form of *bod* - *byddai*
CA1	0	0	1	0
CA2	2	0	0	0
CA4	0	0	0	0
CA5	0	0	1	0
CA6	2	0	1	0
CA7	2	0	1	0
CC1	8	0	0	0
CC3	0	0	0	0
CC5	0	0	0	0
CC6	2	0	0	0
CGA1	2	1	11	2
CGA2	2	0	0	0
CGA3	3	3	0	1
CGA4	0	0	1	0
CGA5	0	1	2	0
CGB1	2	0	0	0
CGB2	2	0	0	0
CGB3	11	0	0	0
CGB4	2	0	0	0
CPPA	3	0	0	0

Table I.2.16 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - agreement between numerals and nouns

	native-like agreement pattern numeral+singular noun	non-native agreement pattern numeral+plural noun
CA1	0	0
CA2	1	0
CA4	1	0
CA5	1	0
CA6	2	0
CA7	0	0
CC1	0	0
CC3	0	0
CC5	0	0
CC6	0	0
CGA1	0	0
CGA2	0	0
CGA3	1	0
CGA4	0	0
CGA5	0	0
CGB1	0	0
CGB2	2	0
CGB3	1	0
CGB4	2	0
CPPA	1	0

Table I.2.17 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - agreement patterns in analytic constructions, present and imperfect tenses of bod-*periphrasis*

	Native-like Agreement:				Non-native Agreement:			
	3rd singular singular subject	3rd singular coordinate subject	3rd singular plural subject (non-pronominal)	other pronominal subjects	3rd singular singular subject	3rd singular coordinate subject	3rd singular plural subject (non-pronominal)	other pronominal subjects
CA1	6	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
CA2	17	1	1	6	0	0	0	0
CA4	27	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
CA5	7	0	0	6	0	0	0	0
CA6	34	0	4	1	0	0	0	0
CA7	10	0	1	10	0	0	0	0
CC1	22	1	0	2	0	0	0	0
CC3	24	2	4	7	0	0	0	0
CC5	10	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
CC6	26	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
CGA1	15	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
CGA2	75	0	9	8	0	0	0	0
CGA3	55	2	7	28	0	0	0	0
CGA4	12	1	1	5	0	0	0	0
CGA5	13	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
CGB1	18	1	4	19	0	0	0	0
CGB2	43	2	9	16	0	0	0	0
CGB3	32	2	3	8	0	0	0	0
CGB4	30	1	6	16	0	0	0	0
CPPA	32	2	1	1	0	0	0	0

Table I.2.18 Baseline Welsh speaker narratives - agreement patterns in synthetic constructions, inflected lexical verbs, all tenses

	Native-like Agreement:				Non-native agreement:			
	3rd singular singular subject	3rd singular coordinate subject	3rd singular plural subject (non-pronominal)	other pronominal subjects	3rd singular singular subject	3rd singular coordinate subject	3rd singular plural subject (non-pronominal)	other pronominal subjects
CA1	11	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
CA2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CA4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CA5	17	1	0	5	0	0	0	0
CA6	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CA7	12	0	1	2	0	0	0	0
CC1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CC3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CC5	9	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
CC6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CGA1	20	3	0	4	0	0	0	0
CGA2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
CGA3	15	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
CGA4	20	0	0	5	0	0	0	0
CGA5	10	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
CGB1	11	3	0	2	0	0	0	0
CGB2	7	1	0	4	0	0	0	0
CGB3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CGB4	6	0	0	3	0	0	0	0
CPPA	25	2	1	2	0	0	0	0

un   noson   oedd uh@fp bachgen bach # yn   edrych # yn jar   bach oedd   gyn-no fo
one evening was.3SG   boy   little PROG look   in jar(f) little was.3SG with-him he
One night uh@fp a little boy was, looking, in a litle jar he had

ffrog # a   ci   bach yn # rhoi ei trwyn i   fewn # nhw i-gyd i gwennu ## trwy 'r   nos
frog   and dog little PROG put his nose to \in   they all to smile   though the night
a frog, and a little dog, putting his nose in, them all smil[ing]. All night

mae   'r bachgen bach yn   cysgu a ci   yn   cysgu ar y gwely bachgen bach # a
is.3SG the boy   little PROG sleep and dog PROG sleep on the bed   boy   little and
the little boy sleeps and a dog sleeping on the little boy's bed, and

mae   'r ffrog yn # dod allan o   'r y jar ## wedyn mae   'n   edrych ar y   ffenestr
is.3SG the frog PROG come out from the the jar   then is.3SG PROG look on the window
the frog, comes out of the jar. Then [he] looks at the window

sydd   agored ## yn y bore ## edrych-odd y bachgen bach ac oedd   o 'n   ffeindio
is.REL open   in the morning looked-3SG the boy   little and was.3SG he PROG find
which is open. In the morning. The little boy looked and he was finding

bod #   y ffrog wedi mynd tu   allan # ar &g [//] wedi ar goll #   mae fe 'n   teimlo # [/]
is.COMP the frog PRF go   side out   on   PRF on missing is.3SG he PROG feel
that, the frog had gone outside, on &g [//] missing, he feels, [/]

teimlo 'n   trist lle   oedd   <e> # y ffrog ## mae   'n   edrych yn ei sgidiau # oedd   y
feel   PRED sad where was.3SG he   the frog   is.3SG PROG look   in his shoes   was.3SG the
feels sad 'where is <he>, the frog. [He] looks in his shoes, the

ci   ar rhoi ei ben # &i <in> [//] yn y jar ## a   mae   ddim yn   gallu ffeindio 'r ffrog yn
dog on put his \head   in the jar   and is.3SG NEG PROG able find   the frog ADV
dog was about to put his head, &i <in> [//] in the jar. And [he] cannot find the frog

unlle ## mae   'n   edrych tu   allan o   'r ffenestr yn   alw # ond o ddim yn   dod ##
anywhere is.3SG PROG look   side out from the window PROG \call but he NEG PROG come
anywhere. [He] looks outside of the window calling, but he [does] not come.

yn &sy [//] aeth   y # ci yn   syrthi[o] tu   allan i-lawr i 'r [/] i 'r uh@fp ddeaer o-dan
PROG   went.3SG the dog PROG fall   side out down to the   to the   \earth(f) under
[//] the dog went, falling outside down to the [/] to the uh@fp ground under

y ffenestr ## ac y bachgen bach yn   dod allan a   mae   'r jar wedi torri ## mae   'r
the window   and the boy   little PROG come out and is.3SG the jar PRF break   is.3SG the
the window. And the little boy coming out and the jar has broken. The

ci   yn #   licio # uh@fp <cheek> y [/] y   bachgen bach ## mae   ’r bachgen bach yn
dog PROG like   the the boy   little   is.3SG the boy   little PROG
dog likes, uh@fp the [/] the little boy’s <cheek>. The little boy

edrych yn   dipyn-bach yn [/] yn flin ## a   aeth-on   nhw tu   allan o ’r # tŷ #   i-lawr
look   PRED \little-bit PRED PRED \angry and went-3PL they side out   of the house down
looks a little bit [/] angry. And they went outside of the, house, down

i ’r   cae # ac alw eto ## lle   wyt ti lle   wyt ti? ## ac aeth-on   nhw lawr # i ’r
to the field and \call again where is.2SG you where is.2SG you   and went-3PL they down to the
to the field, and call again. ‘Where are you where are you?’ And they went down, to the

uh@fp um@fp &j ## i   ’r coedwig ## alw aeth #   y bachgen bach yn   y alw i-lawr
--   to the forest(f)   \call went.3SG the boy   little PROG the \call down
uh@fp um@fp &j. To the forest. Calling the little boy went, calling down

yn y twll # yn y ddeaer ## ac   y ci   wedi mynd # yn   edrych ar y <beehive> ## a
in the hole   in the \earth(f)   and the dog PRF go   PROG look   on the   and
in the hole, in the ground. And the dog having gone, looking at the <beehive>. And

chwarae ## yn   neidio ## ond aeth   y ## anifail   fach wedi dod tu   allan o ’r twll
play   PROG jump   but went.3SG the animal(m) \little PRF come side out   of the hole
playing. jumping. But the. Little animal went having come outside of the hole

yn   flin yn   deud # be   wyt   ti ’n   neud yn   alw yn tŷ   fi # mae   ’r bachgen
PRED \angry PROG say   where is.2SG you PROG do   PROG \call in house I   is.3SG the boy
anygry saying, ‘what are you doing calling in my house’, the little boy

bach yn   edrych yn   dipyn-bach wedi <shocked> ## mae &ba ci   dal   yn   edrych #
little PROG look   PRED \little-bit PRF   is.3SG   dog continue PROG look
looks a little bit <shocked>. A &ba dog is still looking,

ac   yn   alw ac   yn # at y [/] at y <beehive> ## ac wedyn syrthio y # <beehive> i-lawr i #
and PROG \call and PROG to the   to the   and then   fall   the   down to
and calling and, to the [/] to the <beehive>. And then the, <beehive> fall[s] down to,

ac   mae   ’r <bees> holl wedi dod tu   allan a   maen nhw ’n   flin   rwan ## mae   ’r
and is.3SG the   all PRF come side out   and is.3PL they PRED \angry now   is.3SG the
and all the <bees> have come out and they are angry now, the

bachgen bach # wedi ffeindio coed # ac   mae   o wedi ffeindio twll # yn [/] yn y coed a
boy   little   PRF find   trees   and is.3SG he PRF find   hole   in   in the trees and
little boy, has found treed, and he has found a hole, in [/] in the trees and

mae   e wedi # alw i mewn a   mae   ’n   edrych # i fewn i ’r twll # a   mae   ‘na #
is.3SG he PRF   \call to in   and is.3SG PROG look   to \in   to the hole   and is.3SG there
he has, called in and [he]’s lookig, into the hole, and there’s,

<owl> wedi dod   allan a &we mae   ’r   bachgen [/] bachgen bach wedi syrthio i-lawr # a   &be
--   PRF come out   and   is.3SG the boy   boy   little PRF fall   down   and
an <owl> come out and &we the little boy [/] boy has fallen down, and &be

holl y <bees> wedi # mynd maen nhw 'n ## <flying across> ## mae 'r ci bach yn
all the PRF go is.3PL they PROG is.3SG the dog little PROG
the all <bees> have, gone they are. <Flying across>. The little boy is

rhedeg rhedeg # mae o 'n # ddim yn ## mm@fp [/] mae o xxx ddim # um@fp <scared> nawr
run run is.3SG he PROG NEG PRED is.3SG he NEG now
running runnung, he, doesn't. mm@fp he xxx isn't, um@fp <scared> now.

mae bachgen yn rhedeg i-ffwrdd o 'r # <owl> ## wedyn mae o 'n # mynd i
is.3SG boy PROG run away from the then is.3SG he PROG go to
A boy is running away from the, <owl>. Then he, goes to,

dringo # i-fyny 'r um@fp beth mae 'n edrych fel wal # ond # mae 'n alw eto am
climb up the what is.3SG PROG look like wall but is.3SG PROG \call again for
climb, up the um@fp what looks like a wall, but, [he] calls again for

y ffrog ## a mae 'r ci bach yn edrych yn # um@fp mae o 'n mynd neidio # yn
the frog and is.3SG the dog little PROG look PRED is.3SG he PROG go jump ADV
the frog. And the little dog looks, um@fp he goes jumping,

fach # a maen nhw ##uh@fp [//] mae 'n wedi ffeindio uh@fp <deer> efo <antlers> ## mae
\little and is.3PL they is.3SG PROG PRF find with is.3SG
little, and they. Uh@fp [he] has found uh@fp a <deer> with <antlers>.

o # xxx # wedyn maen nhw 'n rhedeg i-ffwrdd # rhedeg i-lawr a maen nhw ddim yn
he then is.3PL they PROG run away run down and is.3PL they NEG PROG
He, xxx, then they run away, run down and they aren't

edrych ble maen nhw 'n mynd # a yn syrthio i-lawr lawr <down> xxx # [//] <down>
look where is.3PL they PROG go and PROG fall down down
looking where they are going, and falling down dow <down> xxx, [//] <down>

y <bank> # i 'r dŵr ## mm@fp ## mae o 'n neud <splash> mawr ## a mae 'n
the to the water is.3SG he PROG make big and is.3SG PROG
the <bank>, to the water. Mm@fp. It makes a big <splash>. And [he]

gwrando yn ## [//] mae &g um@fp yn edrych fel <tree trunk> mae 'n [//] mae gyn-o &f
listen ADV is.3SG PROG look like is.3SG PROG is.3SG with-him
listens. [//] [It] &g um@fp looks like a <tree trunk> [it]'s [//] he has

[//] mae o 'n gwrando mae 'n swn mae o 'n [//] mae o gwennu ## mae 'n
is.3SG he PROG listen is.3SG PRED sound is.3SG he PROG is.3SG he smile is.3SG PROG
[//] he listens [it]'s a sound he is [//] he is smiling. [He]'s

[//] mae o 'n deud y ci bach # bod yn ddistaw mae e 'n # xxx <bees> bach
is.3SG he PROG say the dog little be.INF PRED \silent is.3SG he PROG little
[//] he says the little dog, be quiet he is, xxx little <bees>

i-fyny 'r ac xxx yn deud <sh> ## a mae 'n edrych i fewn i 'r ## [/] mewn ac #
up the and PROG say and is.3SG PROG look to \in to the in and
up the and xxx says <sh>. And [he] looks inside the. [/] In and,

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um@fp tu   ôl   y <tree trunk> # a   maen nhw 'n   ffeindio # y   ffrog efo ffrog arall
        side track the   and is.3PL they PROG find   the frog with frog other
um@fp behind the <tree trunk>, and they find, the frog with another frog

<mister> a <missus> # ffrog # a   maen nhw 'n   gwennu maen nhw 'n   hapus achos
--   and   frog   and is.3PL they PROG smile   is.3PL they PRED happy because
<Mr.> and <Mrs.>, frog, and they are smiling they are happy because

maen nhw 'n # efo i-gilydd ## a   maen nhw 'n   gweld lot   o babis bach ## a   maen
is.3PL they PRED with each-other and is.3PL they PROG see   many of babies little   and is.3PL
they are, together. And they see a lot of little babies. And

nhw 'n # &gw [//] maen nhw 'n   gyd yn   gwennu a   mae   o # [//] rwan mae 'r # bachgen
they PROG   is.3PL they PRED all PROG smile   and is.3SG he   now is.3SG the boy
they, &gw [//] they all are smiling and he, [//] now the, little boy

bach a   ffrog bach [//] maen nhw [//] mae   o 'n   deud <ta-ta> # yn   deud diolch yn
little and frog little   is.3PL they   is.3SG he PROG say   PROG say   thanks ADV
and little frog [//] they [//] he says <ta ta>, says 'thanks a

fawr # a   mynd yn ôl   rwan ## wedyn mae   'n #   mam <mommy> ffrog a <daddy> ffrog
\big   and go   in track now   then is.3SG PROG mother   frog and   frog
lot', and goes back now. Then, mother <mommy> frog and <daddy> frog

a   'r # babis   bach <nest>-o   ar <top> y <tree trunk save> un # mae   o yn   galw # o
and the babies little   -INF on   the   one is.3SG he PROG call   from
and the, little babies <nest> on <top> of the <tree trunk save> one. He calls, from

dan   y <tree trunk> # ti   wedi anghofio fi ## <k>
under the   you PRF forget   I
under the <tree trunk>, 'you have forgotten me.' <K>.

uh@fp uh@fp mae   bachgen bach a   ci   yn yr ystafell wely   uh@fp mae uh@fp ffrog
              is.3SG boy   little and dog in the room(f) \bed   is.3SG   frog
Uh@fp uh@fp a little boy and a dog are in the bedroom uh@fp there's a uh@fp frog

yn y botel # um@fp # &m mae 'r bachgen bach yn   cysgu yn y gwely a   mae 'r
in the \bottle(f)   is.3SG the boy   little PROG sleep in the bed   and is.3SG the
in the bottle, um@fp, &m the little boy is sleeping in the bed and the

ci ar y gwely uh@fp mae   'r ffrog yn   dod allan o   'r botel um@fp ## uh@fp #
dog on the bed   is.3SG the frog PROG come out   from the \bottle(f)
dog is on the bed uh@fp the frog comes out of the bottle um@fp. Uh#fp,

mae 'r bachgen a 'r ci wedi deffro # ble   mae 'r ffrog? ## um@fp maen nhw 'n
is.3SG the boy   and the dog PRF wake   where is.3SG the frog   is.3PL they PROG
the boy and the dog have woken up, where is the frog? Um@fp they

uh@fp [/] maen nhw 'n   edrych yn yr esgid # um@fp yn y botel # pob-man # um@fp #
          is.3PL they PROG look   in the shoe   in the \bottle every-where
uh@fp they are looking in the shoe, um@fp in the bottle, everywhere, um@fp,

maen nhw 'n uh@fp edrych uh@fp tu   fas i 'r ffenest # um@fp ## mae 'r ci wedi
is.3PL they PROG   look   side out to the window   is.3SG the dog PRF
they are uh@fp looking uh@fp outside the window, um@fp. The dog has

cwympo o   'r ffenest â   botel ar ei wyneb # um@fp ## mae 'r botel wedi torri
fall   from the window with \bottle on his face   is.3SG the \bottle PRF break
fallen from the window with a bottle on his face, um@fp. The bottle has broken

mae 'r um@fp [/] mae 'r bachgen bach yn [/] yn   cwtsio'r ci ## uh@fp nawr te   maen
is.3SG the   is.3SG the boy   little PROG PROG hug   the dog   now then is.3PL
the um@fp [/] the little boy is [/] is hugging the dog. Uh@fp now then they

nhw mas yn y goedwig mae   'r bachgen bach yn ## [/] yn ## uh@fp <forgotten the word for
they out in the \forest(f) is.3SG the boy   little PROG PROG
are out in the forest the little boy is. Is. Uh@fp <forgotten the word for

shouting although I know> (gweiddi?) gweiddi [/] yn   gweiddi um@fp [/] gweiddi mas um@fp
                          shout   shout   PROG shout   shout   out
shouting alothough I know> (shout?) shouting [/] is shouting um@fp [/] shouting out um@fp

a   mae 'r ci yn edrych um@fp xxx ## uh@fp [/] mae 'n   edrych mewn uh@fp twll
and is.3SG the dog PROG look   is.3SG PROG look   in   hole
and the dog is looking um@fp xxx. Uh@fp [/] [he]'s looking in uh@fp a hole

yn y # [/] yn y daear   a # mae 'r ci wedi weld # <nest of bees> (<don't worry about it>)
in the   in the earth(f) and is.3SG the dog PRF \see
in the, [/] in the ground and, the dog has seen, <nest of bees> (<don't worry about it>)

um@fp mae   'r ci yn   dringo'r coed i 'r <nest of bees> a   mae   'r bachgen wedi
       is.3SG the dog PROG climb the trees to the   and is.3SG the boy   PRF
um@fp the dog climbs the trees to the <nest of bees> and the boy has

weld xxx llygoden? yn y [/] yn y   twll <or something like that> ## um@fp nawr # mae   'r
\see   mouse   in the in the hole   now is.3SG the
seen xxx a mouse? in the [/] in the hole <or something like that>. Um@fp now, the

bachgen yn   dringo y goeden ac mae 'n   edrych mewn i twll yn y goeden mae
boy   PROG climb the \tree(f) and is.3SG PROG look   in   to hole in the \tree   is.3SG
boy is climbing the tree and [he]'s looking into a hole in the tree

'r ci yn   dringo um@fp uh@fp uh@fp yn   edrych ar y ## <bees nest> (cwch gwenyn?)
the dog PROG climb   PROG look   on the   hive bees
the dog is climbing um@fp uh@fp uh@fp looking on the. <Bees nest> (beehive?)

gwenyn? <honeybees that's not a word I know> ## uh@fp uh@fp mae   'r   bachgen wedi
bees   is.3SG the boy   PRF
bees? <honeybees that's not a word I know>. Uh@fp uh@fp the boy has

um@fp uh@fp # oh@fp [/] wedi cwympo ## a mae uh@fp [/] mae [/] mae gwdigw yn y [/]
--   PRF fall   is.3SG   is.3SG is.3SG owl   in the
um@fp uh@fp, oh@fp [/] has fallen. And uh@fp [/] [/] an owl is in the [/]

yn [/] yn y goeden a   mae 'r ci yn   rhedeg bant ## uum@fp uuh@fp mae   'r bachgen
in   in the \tree   and is.3SG the dog PROG run   away   is.3SG the boy
in [/] in the tree and the dog is running away. Uum@fp uuh@fp the boy

yn   cuddio o   'r gwdihw uh@fp tu ôl i 'r graig   nawr mae e wedi dringo ar
PROG hide   from the owl   side track to the \rock(f) now is.3SG he PRF climb on
is hiding from the owl uh@fp behind the rock now he has climbed on

ben uh@fp [/] ar ben y graig   a ## <what's that? Don't know what that is> oh@fp (<like a
\head   on \head the \rock(f) and
top uh@fp [/] on top of the rock and. <What's that? Don't know what that is> oh@fp (<like a

stag>) <what?> (<stag>) oh@fp <right> um@fp (<or deer>) ## mae   ar ben [/] mae   ar ben
--   is.3SG on \head is.3SG on \head
stag>) <what?) (<stag>) oh@fp <right> um@fp (<or deer>). [He]'s on top [/] [he]'s on top

y <stag># um@fp # ac um@fp #mae   'n   cael um@fp hm@fp ## [/] yn   cael reid ar ben y
the   and   is.3SG PROG get   PROG get ride on \head the
of the <stag>, um@fp, and um@fp [he]'s getting um@fp hm@fp. [/] Getting a ride on top of the

<stag> uh@fp mae   ci yn   rhedeg o-flaen y <stag> # &m maen nhw 'n   dod um@fp
--   is.3SG dog PROG run   before the   is.3PL they PROG come
<stag> uh@fp a dog is running in front of the <stag>, &m They come um@fp

i derfyn um@fp y glaswellt a   mae 'r uh@fp [/] mae   'r ci a   'r uh@fp bachgen yn
to \end   the grass   and is.3SG the   is.3SG the dog and the   boy   PROG
to the edge of um@fp the grass and the uh@fp [/] the dog and the uh@fp boy

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cwympo i ’r [/] i ’r daear ond mae ’r <stag> wedi [/] wedi stopio ## um@fp cwympodd y
fall to the to the earth(f) but is.3SG the PRF PRF stop fell.3SG the
fall to the [/] to the ground but the <stag> has [/] has stoped. Um@fp the

bachgen bach a ’r i mewn i ’r dŵr # um@fp ## mae ’r ci ar y ben y bachgen
boy little and the to in to the water is.3SG the dog on the \head(m) the boy
little boy fell and the into the water, um@fp. The dog is on the head of the boy

uh@fp maen nhw wedi nofio i ’r hen [/] # hen coed # um@fp # maen nhw ’n dringo ‘r
is.3PL they PRF swim to the old old trees is.3PL they PROG climb the
uh@fp they have swum to the old, [/] old trees, um@fp they climb the

coed ## uh@fp a tu ôl i ’r coed mae dau <or> dwy ffrog a ## [/] a plant
trees and side track to the trees is.3SG two(m) two(f) frog and and children
trees. Uh@fp and behind the trees there are two or two frogs and. [/] And children

uh@fp y dau ffrog a # um@fp # [//] mae ’r bachgen um@fp yn # gweud um@fp <bye
the two(m) frog and is.3SG the boy PROG say
uh@fp the two frogs and, um@fp, [//] the boy um@fp, says um@fp <bye

bye> # a at um@fp [//] a mae ’r teulu o ffrogiau uh@fp ar ben y coed yn disgwyl
and to and is.3SG the family of frogs on \head the trees PROG look
bye>, and to um@fp [//] and the family of frogs uh@fp is on top of the trees looking

[//] yn edrych ar y [/] ar y bachgen a ‘r ci yn mynd ‘n ôl dros y [/] dros y
PROG look on the on the boy and the dog PROG go on track over the over the
[//] looking at the [/] at the boy and the dog going back over the [/] over the

dŵr
water
water.

Wel # yn y   tudalen cynta mae 'na   uh@fp bachgen bach yn   eistedd lawr   ar y   stôl ac
well in the page   first is.3SG there   boy   little PROG sit   down on the stool and
Well, on the first page there's uh@fp a little boy sitting down on the stool and

gyda ci   bach ## wel # mae fe 'n   nos a   maen nhw 'n   eistedd yn y stafell gwely y
with dog little   well   is.3SG he PRED night and is.3PL they PROG sit   in the room(f) bed the
with a little dog. Well, it's night and they are sitting in the bedroom of the

bachgen bach <dw i 'n   credu> # a maen nhw 'n   edrych tu   mewn jar o ryw-fath a
boy   little <is.1SG PROG believe> and is.3PL they PROG look   side in   jar of some-sort and
little boy <I think>, and they are looking inside a jar of some sort and

mae 'na xxx creadur # mae yna ffrog # efrog # dw i ddim yn   gwybod efallai mae
is.3SG there   creature is.3SG there frog   York   is.1SG I NEG PROG know   maybe is.3SG
There's xxx a creature, there's a frog, a York, I don't know maybe

fe 'n   enw   efrog yn Cymraeg dw   i ddim yn   gwybod yr enw # [//] nabod yr enw ## wel #
it PRED noun York in Welsh   is.3SG I neg PROG know   the noun   know the noun   well
it's a noun "efrog" in Welsh I don't know the noun, [//] know the noun. Well,

mae 'r bachgen bach wedi mynd i 'r   gwely # cysgu gyda 'r ci   ar ei wely # lleuad tu
is.3SG the boy   little PRF go   to the bed   sleep with the dog on his \bed   moon side
the little boy has gone to bed, sleeping with the dog on his bed, moon

allan a   mae 'r uh@fp creadur 'ma # ffrog # yn   um@fp dringo mas o 'r jar a   mynd
out   and is.3SG the   creature here   frog   PROG   climb out of the jar and go
outside and this uh@fp creature, frog, is um@fp climbing out of the jar and going

tuag   at y llawr ## mae 'r bachgen bach yn   deffro # mae 'r ci yn   deffro # ac
toward to the floor   is.3SG the boy   little PROG wake   is.3SG the dog PROG wake   and
towards the floor. The little boy wakes up, the dog wakes up, and

yn xxx ar y uh@fp # gwely ac yn   edrych ar y jar a   mae 'r # wel y ffrog wedi mynd
PROG on the   bed   and PROG look   on the jar and is.3SG the well the frog PRF go
xxx on the uh@fp bed and looking at the jar and the, well the frog has gone.

mae 'r jar yn   wag ## uh@fp # oh@fp reit wel bachgen nawr yn um@fp gwisgo ei
   is.3SG the jar PROG \empty   right well boy   now PROG   wear   his
The jar is empty. Uh@fp, oh@fp right well [the] boy now is um@fp wearing his

dillad # um@fp # uh@fp ya@fp wel ya@fp xxx # yn   rhoi boots hir 'mlaen # a   dim
clothes   well   PROG put boots long on   and NEG
clothes, um@fp, uh@fp ya@fp well ya@fp, xxx putting on his long boots, and not

yn   xxx # ya@fp # maen nhw 'n   mynd i xxx edrych am y # // yr efrog # <I'm calling it an
PROG   is.3PL they PROG go   to   look   about the the York
xxx-ing, ya@fp, they go to xxx look about the, the York, <I'm calling it an

efrog for lack of a better word> ## uh@fp # a mae 'r bachgen wedi mynd i 'r ffenest
-- and is.3SG the boy PRF go to the window
"efrog" for lack of a better word>. Uh@fp, and the boy has gone to the window

wedi xxx yn um@fp crio uh@fp i 'r uh@fp ffrog i dod 'n ôl i xxx a xxx ci bach at y
PRF PROG cry to the frog to come in track to and dog little to the
having xxx um@fp crying uh@fp to the uh@fp frog to come back to xxx and xxx little dog to the

ffenest a gyda fe gyda jar ar ei phen e a mae 'n gweidd[i] at uh@fp effrog i
window and with him with jar on her \head he and is.3SG PROG shout to xxx to
window and with him with a jar on [his] head and he's shouting at uh@fp "effrog" to

dod yn ôl efallai # mae 'n [//] dw i 'm yn credu bod effrog yn deall
come in track maybe is.3SG PROG is.3SG I NEG PROG believe is.COMP xxx PROG understand
come back maybe, he's [//] I don't believe that an "effrog" understands

hwnna ## oh@fp # mae 'r ci bach wedi cwympo mas o 'r ffenest a mynd tuag
that is.3SG the dog little PRF fall out of the window and go toward
that. Oh@fp, the little dog has fallen out of the window and gone toward

at y llawr gyda jar ar ei phen e mae 'r bachgen wedi dod mas mae 'r jar wedi
to the ground with jar on her \head he is.3SG the boy PRF come out is.3SG the jar PRF
the ground with a jar on [his] head the boy has come out the jar has

torri ond mae 'r ci bach yn iawn oh@fp a mae 'r bachgen bach roedd yn grac
break but is.3SG the dog little PRED okey and is.3SG the boy little was.3SG PRED \mad
broken but the little dog is okey oh@fp and the little boy was mad

ac yn um@fp # [/] ac yn uh@fp # xxx mae fe 'n neud xxx uh@fp ya@fp wel roedd e
and PRED and PRED is.3SG he PROG do well was.3SG he
and um@fp, and uh@fp xxx he's doing xxx uh@fp ya@fp well he was,

'n # dw i 'n gwybod y gair yn Nghymraeg ond dw i wedi anghofio fe # < he's
PROG is.1sg I PROG know the word in \Welsh but is.1SG I PRF forget it
I know the word in Welsh but I have forgotten it, <he's

hugging it> # [//] cwtso fe fallai xxx nawr # maen nhw yn yr ardd a wedi cerdded
-- hug it maybe now is.3PL they in the \garden(f) and PRF walk
hugging it>, [//] hugging it maybe xxx now, they are in the garden and have walked

tuag at um@fp y coed xxx # um@fp # a xxx ya@fp # mae fe 'n bore nawr #
toward to the forest and is.3SG he PRED morning now
toward um@fp the forest xxx, um@fp, and xxx ya@fp, it's morning now,

pan deffro # uh@fp # oedd y bore wedi dod # a mae <fe> 'n uh@fp gweiddo
when wake was.3SG the morning PRF come and is.3SG <he> PROG shout
when waking, uh@fp, the morning had come, and <he>'s uh@fp shouting

o hyd y bachgen bach um@fp i trio ffeindio 'r ffrog # a mae 'na # hmm@fp
from length the boy little to try find the frog and is.3SG there
still the little boy um@fp to try to find the frog, and there's, hmm@fp

<d'ya'know> # dim gwennin ryw-beth   fel 'na # <bees or> ryw-beth #   <not wasps> # yn
--   NEG bees   some-thing like that   some-thing   PROG
<do you know>, not bees something like that, <bees or> something, <not wasps>,

mynd yn yr awyr # dw   i ddim yn   gwybod xxx # ci   bach yn   edrych am-dan[o]
go   in the air   is.1SG I NEG PROG know   dog little PROG look   about-him
going in the air, I don't know xxx, little dog looking about him.

oh@fp right@fp # mae   bachgen bach yn # [/] yn uh@fp # ar y # [/] y llawr   ac yn   crio
 --   is.3SG boy   little PROG   PROG   on the   the ground and PROG cry
oh@fp right@fp, [the] little boy is, [/] is uh@fp, on the, [/] the ground and crying

dan   i fel twll # um@fp # yn   trio ffeindio 'r # wel # edrych lawr y   twll fallai oedd
under to like hole   PROG try find   the well look   down the hole maybe was.3SG
under [him] [in]to like a hole, um@fp, trying to find the, well, looking down the hole maybe he

e # i weld os mae 'r ffrog lawr fan 'na   a   mae 'r ci yn # trio cael gafael o 'r
he to \see if is.3SG the frog down place there and is.3SG the dog PROG try get grasp of the
was, to see if the frog is down there and the dog is, trying to get hold of the

<nest> o gwenyn # o <bees> # beth yw 'na ## um@fp # mae   'r   bachgen bach wedi
        of bees   of   what COP that   is.3SG the boy   little PRF
<nest> of bees, of <bees>. What is that? Um@fp, the little boy has

cael tipyn o sioc # mae # beth yw hwnna # <mole> neu llygoden wedi dod   mas o   'r twll
get bit   of shock is.3SG what COP that   or mouse   PRF come out from the hole
gotten a bit of a shock, a, what is that, <mole> or mouse has come out of the hole,

ac uh@fp # a   mae 'r ci bach o-hyd yn   trio cael uh@fp y <nest> # nyth # [/] nyth lawr
    and   and is.3SG the dog little still PROG try get   the   nest   nest down
and uh@fp, and the little dog is still trying to get uh@fp the <nest>, nest, [/] nest down

o   'r # [/] o   'r coeden ## <oh> stori diflas   yw e ## ah@fp # mae 'r   bachgen bach
from the   from the tree(f)   story miserable COP it   is.3SG the boy   little
from the, [/] from the tree. Oh, it's a miserable story. Ah@fp, the little boy

wedi dringo nawr # um@fp # lan y   coeden fawr # a   mae 'na # ya@fp twll mawr yn y   coeden
PRF climb now   up the tree(f) big   and is.3SG there   hole big   in the tree(f)
has climbed now, um@fp up the big tree, and there's, ya@fp a big hole in the tree,

yng nghanol y   coeden a   mae fe 'n   edrych am   y   ffrog fan 'na ## mae   'r
   in\ \middle the tree(f) and is.3SG he PROG look   about the frog place there   is.3SG the
in the middle of the tree and he's looking for the frog there. The

llygoden yn   edrych &arn # [/] ar-no # bachgen bach ## mae 'r ci bach yn   edrych o-hyd
mouse   PROG look   at   [/] at-him boy   little   is.3SG the dog little PROG look   still
mouse is looking at, [/] at him, a little boy. The little dog is still looking

ar y # [/] ar y   nyth # <nest> # ond mae   'r nyth nawr wedi cwympo ar y   llawr   a   mae
on the   on the nest   but is.3SG the nest now PRF fall   on the ground and is.3SG
on the, [/] on the nest, nest, but the nest now has fallen on the ground and

popeth   yn   dod   mas # <bees or wasps or> beth-bynnag ## reit # reit mae   'r bachgen
everything PROG come out   what-ever   right right is.3SG the boy
everything is coming out, <bees or wasps or> whatever. Right, right the little boy

bach wedi cwympo lawr o   'r # uh@fp # [/] o   'r # uh@fp coeden mawr # a   mae 'na
little PRF fall   down from the   from the   tree(f) big   and is.3SG there
has fallen down from the, uh@fp, [/] from the, uh@fp big tree, and there's an

gwdihw wedi dod   mas yn   rhoi sioc i-ddo fe ## um@fp # a mae 'r pethau o   'r
owl   PRF come out PROG put shock to-him him   and is.3SG the things from the
owl come out giving him a shock. Um@fp, and the things from the

nyth # uh@fp <wasps> # gwenyn <whatever> yn # [/] yn   mynd ar ôl   y ci   bach
nest   bees   PROG   PROG go   on track the dog little
nest, uh@fp wasps, bees <whatever>, going [/] going after the little dog

sy   'n   rhedeg [i]-ffwrdd yn # uh@fp ya@fp xxx # [/] yn rhedeg [i]-ffwrdd ## um@fp
is.3SG.REL PROG run   away   PROG   PROG run   away
who is running away, uh@fp ya@fp xxx, running away. Um@fp

<ok> beth sy   'n   digwydd nesa? Wel mae   'r # [/] mae   'r bachgen bach # um@fp
     what is.3SG.REL PROG happen next well is.3SG the   is.3SG the boy   little
ok what's happening next? Well the, [/] the little boy, um@fp

yn   dringo nawr # um@fp ar ben   xxx creigiau # uh@fp a 'r gwdihw <ife> yn [/] yn yr
PROG climb now   on \head   rocks   and the owl   is.it? in   in the
is climbing now, um@fp on top of xxx rocks, uh@fp and the owl <is it?> in [/] in the

awel [//] yn yr   awyr # um@fp # a   mae 'r bachgen bach yn   ofni # [//] ofn gyda fe
breeze   in the air   and is.3SG the boy   little PROG fear   fear with him
breeze [//] in the air, um@fp, and the little boy is fearing, [//] he is afraid

o   'r gwdihw # <w-i   'n   credu> # ond mae 'r gwdihw wedi mynd [i]-ffwrdd mae
from the owl   is.1SG-I PROG believe but is.3SG the owl   PRF go   away   is.3SG
from the owl, <I think>, but the owl has gone away

'r gwdihw ddim yn [//] wedi eistedd lawr ryw-le   ar coeden ac yn   edrych at y
the owl   NEG PROG PRF sit   down some-\where on tree   and PROG look   to the
the owl hasn't [//] has sat down somewhere on a tree and is looking at the

bachgen bach sy   wedi ar top um@fp uh@fp # craig # ac   mae <fe> 'n   weiddi eto
boy   little is.3SG.REL PRF on top   rock   and is.3SG he PROG shout again
little boy who has [] on top um@fp uh@fp, of a rock, and <he>'s shouting again

y   bachgen bach # gweiddi am   y # [/] am   y ffrog # a 'r ci   bach yn   eistedd ar #
the boy   little   shout about the   about the frog   and the dog little PROG sit   on
the little boy, shouting about the, [/] about the frog, and the little dog sitting on,

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ar y   llawr # mynd heibio y craig ## <oh golly> ## <beth yw hwn?> um@fp # wel
on the ground go   past the rock(f)   what COP this   well
on the ground, going past the rock. <Oh golly>. What's this? Um@fp, well,

<rudolph> xxx wedi cyrraedd # <I don't know> # <antlers> # mae 'r [/] mae 'r [//] mae # 'na #
--   PRF   arrive   is.3SG the is.3SG the is.3SG there
<Rudolph> xxx has arrived, <I don't know>, <antlers>, the [/] the [//] there's a,

<stag> mawr wedi dod a   mae 'r bachgen bach ar pen y <stag> a   mae fe rhwng
        big   PRF come and is.3SG the boy   little on head the   and is.3SG he between
big <stag> come and the little boy is on top of the <stag> and he is between

<antlers> y <stag> # um@fp yn   gorwedd 'na ## uh@fp # nesa mae 'r <stag> yn   rhedeg
--   the   PROG lie   there   next is.3SG the   PROG run
the <antlers> of the <stag>, um@fp lying there. Uh@fp, next the <stag> is running,

um@fp mae fe 'n   rhedeg i ryw-le   yn # <oh dear> # um@fp # peryglus iawn
 --   is.3SG he PROG run   to some-\place PRED   dangerous very
um@fp he's running to somewhere, <oh dear>, um@fp, very dangerous,

um@fp wrth ochr <cliff> # taw [//] mae 'r bachgen ar ben y <stag> o-hyd a mae 'r ci
--   by   side   REL is.3SG the boy   on \head the   still and is.3SG the dog
um@fp beside a <cliff>, that [//] the boy is still on top of the <stag> and the little dog

bach yn   rhedeg xxx gyda nhw ## maen nhw bron   yn   mynd dros # [/] dros y # <cliff> ##
little PROG run   with them is.3PL them almost PROG go   over   over the
is running xxx with them. They almost go over, [/] over the, <cliff>.

<oh dear> # a   mae 'r [/] mae 'r um@fp # <stag> wedi uh@fp xxx 'r bachgen lawr o
 --   and is.3SG the is.3SG the   PRF   XXX the boy   down from
<Oh dear>, and the [/] the um@fp, <stag> has uh@fp xxx the boy down from

lawr i # [//] o   top ei phen hi # [//] e # a   i-ddo fe xxx mae 'r bachgen cwympo
down to   from top her \head she   he and to.him he   is.3SG the boy   fall
down to, [//] from on top of her head, [//] his, and to him xxx the boy falls

i-lawr i mm@fp ryw <pond> fach # um@fp # llyn # [/] llyn bach iawn # a   mae 'r ci
down   to   some   little   lake   lake little very   and is.3SG the dog
down to mm@fp some little <pond>, um@fp, lake, [/] very little lake, and the little dog

bach yn cwympo hefyd a   dau o nhw mynd lawr i y   dŵr ## ah@fp nawr mae 'r bachgen
little PROG fall   also and two of them go   down to the water   now is.3SG the boy
is falling also and two of them going down to the water. Ah@fp now the little boy

bach yn y dŵr gyda uh@fp ci   bach a   nawr oedd   e # [/] oedd   e ddim yn [//] oedd
little in the water with   dog little and now was.3SG he   was.3SG he NEG PRED was.3SG
is in the water with uh@fp [the] little dog and now he was, he was not [//]

y dŵr # dim yn # <tiff in German> ond xxx gair arall yn xxx beth arall yn dod? mae
the water NEG PRED but word other in what other PROG come is.3SG
the water was, not, <'tiff' in German> but xxx another word in xxx what else is coming?

'r bachgen yn eistedd yn y dŵr a mae 'r dŵr dim ond yn dod wrth top ei
the boy PROG sit in the water and is.3SG the water nothing but PROG come by top his
The boy is sitting in the water and the water is only coming to the top of his

uh@fp coesau fe ## a mae 'r ci bach ar ben [//] ar <ei> ben uh@fp uh@fp y bachgen
legs he and is.3SG the dog little on \head on his \head the boy
uh@fp legs. And the little dog is on top [//] on his head uh@fp uh@fp the little boy's.

bach ## maen nhw 'n iawn ## mae 'r <stag> wedi mynd ## oh@fp mae 'r bachgen
little is.3PL they PROG okey is.3SG the PRF go is.3SG the boy
They are okey. The stag has gone. Oh@fp the boy

yn dweud wrth y ci bach i dod i bod yn dawel a mae fe 'n meddwl
PROG say to the dog little to come to is.COMP PRED \quiet and is.3SG he PROG think
tells the little dog to come to be quiet and he thinks um@fp,

um@fp # y ffrog wedi mynd tu-fewn um@fp hen coeden sydd ar y daear [//] ar y
the frog PRF go side-\in old tree is.3SG.REL on the earth(f) on the
the frog has gone inside um@fp an old tree which is on the earth [//] on the ground.

llawr ## uh@fp # lle ochr arall um@fp # uh@fp y coeden maen nhw 'n edrych dros y
ground where side other the tree(f) is.3PL they PROG look over the
Uh@fp where the other side um@fp, uh@fp of the tree they look over the tree

coeden lawr i 'r ochr arall i weld os mae 'r ffrog lawr hwnna ## wel ydyn mae
tree down to the side other to \see if is.3SG the frog down that well is.3PL.Q is.3SG
down to the other side to see if the frog is down that. Well yes there's

'na nid # [//] dim un ffrog ond mae dau ffrog lawr 'na # o-'n nhw wedi ffeindio nhw ##
there NEG NEG one frog but is.3SG two frog down there was-3PL they PRF find them
not, [//] not one frog but two frogs down there, they had found them.

<oh well> # um@fp # beth arall nawr # mae 'na # sioc neu <surprise> neu surpreis gyda
-- what other now is.3SG there shock or or surprise with
<Oh well>, um@fp, what else now? There's a, nice shock or <surprise> or surprise with an

<"e" "i" "s"> neis i 'r bachgen bach # dim mae 'na uh@fp # mae 'na <daddy> ffrog
-- nice to the boy little NEG is.3SG there is.3SG there frog
<"e" "i" "s"> for the little boy, not there's uh@fp, there's a <daddy> frog

[//] mae 'na tad ffrog mae 'na mam ffrog a mae 'na teulu bach o [/] o [/] o
is.3SG there father frog is.3SG there mother frog and is.3SG there family little of of of
[//] there's a father-frog there's a mother-frog and there's a little family of [/] of [/] of

ffrogiau bach bach iawn # uh@fp plentyn # plant plant # <froglets> xxx um@fp # ond oh@fp
frogs little little very child children children but
very very little frogs, uh@fp child, [//] children [/] children, <froglets> xxx um@fp, but oh@fp,

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wel fallai oedd   ffrog fe # [//] ffrog y   bachgen bach dim   ond yn # [//] dim &p
   well maybe was.3SG frog he   frog the biy   little nothing but PRED   NEG
well maybe his frog was, [//] the little boy's frog only, [//] not

rhan o 'r teulu oedd   e dim   ond mynd i weld nhw # mae # [//] achos   mae 'r
part of the family was.3SG he nothing but go   to \see them is.3SG   because is.3SG the
part of the family he was only going to see them, he's, [//] because the

bachgen yn   mynd [i]-ffwrdd gyda un   o 'r [/] o 'r ffrogs ar ei llaw e # bachgen yn
boy   PROG go   away   with one of the of the ffrogs on his hand he boy   PROG
boy is going away with one of the [/] of the frogs on his hand, [the] boy

[/] yn # dweud <bye bye> wrth y   teulu o ffrogs a   gobeithio mai # dim un o 'r
   PROG say   to   the family of frogs and [I]hope COMP NEG one of the
[is] [/] [is], saying <bye bye> to the family of frogs and I hope that, the frog there is not one of

plentyn y   cwpl 'ma yw y ffrog fan   'na # <otherwise it's kidnapping>
child   the couple here COP the frog place there
the child[ren] of this couple, <otherwise it's kidnapping>.

ok@fp # uh@fp <right> # bachgen bach <right> # yn   mynd yn nos   bachgen bach a
                                            boy   little   PROG go   in night boy   little and
Ok@fp, uh@fp <right>, a little boy right, becoming night a little boy and

eistedd 'da fe [//] 'da ci   fe um@fp # mewn <bedroom> # a   'da   golau ar-no ## bachgen
sit   with him   with dog he   in   and with light on   boy
sitting with him [//] with a dog of his um@fp, in a <bedroom>, and with a light on.

bach yn   cysgu ar y   gwely 'da ci   ar [/] ar y <bed> # [//] ar [/] ar [/] ar y   gwely #
little PROG sleep on the bed   with dog on   on the   on   on   on the bed
A little boy sleeping on the bed with a dog on [/] on the <bed>, on [/] on [/] on the bed,

fi gallu gweld # <hat> a   ffenest ## uh@fp # y bachgen bach a   ci   wedi um@fp # <are
I can see   and window   the boy   little and dog PRF
I can see a, <hat> and a window. Uh@fp, the little boy and a dog have um@fp, <are

awake but I can't remember what awake is> # <sorry> ## um@fp # <there's nothing I can't say
---
awake but I can't remember what awake is>, <sorry>. Um@fp, <there's nothing I can't say

anything else> ## bachgen bach a   'i ci yn   disgwyl mas o 'r ffenest ## y   ci   yn
                     boy   little and his dog PROG look   out of the window   the dog PROG
anything else>. A little boy and his dog looking out of the window. The dog

disgwyl fel wedi cwympo mas o 'r   ffenest # bachgen wedi ## ei gwisgo <pair of boots> #
look   like PRF fall   out of the window boy   PRF   his wear
looking like fallen out of the window, boy has. His wearing <pair of boots>,

a   fe i # <I don't know what pick up is> # <I do know these words but I can't remember> #
and he to
and he to, <I don't know what pick up is>, <I do know these words but I can't remember>,

[//] wedi pico lan y   ci ## a   fe 'n   ar y &s # [//] o-dan y   ffenest ## y   bachgen yn
      PRF pick up the dog   and he PRED on the   under the window   the boy   PROG
[//] has picked up the dog. And he on the &s, [//] under the window. The boy

disgwyl fel fe 'n   trio canu o galw rywun   wrth y coeden # lawr y # <slope> ## uh@fp
look   like he PROG try sing of call someone by the tree(f)   down the
looking like he trying to sing of call someone by the tree, down the, <slope>. Uh@fp

y bachgen bach yn   disgwyl lawr ryw[beth] fel <hole> a   ci yn   trio neidio lan
the boy   little PROG look   down some[thing] like   and dog PROG try jump   up
the little boy looking down some[thing] like a <hole> and dog trying to jump up

i &rywb xxx uh@fp <beehive> ## um@fp # y <beehive> yn   <hang>-o o   coeden ##
to &some[thing]   the   PROG   INF from tree
to &some xxx uh@fp <beehive>. Um@fp, the <beehive> hanging from a tree.

uh@fp rhywbeth dod   mas o # y <hole> a bachgen yn   disgwyl yn   <startled> y ci
       something come out from the   and boy   PROG look   PRED   the dog
Uh@fp something come out of, the <hole> and boy looking <startled> the dog

yn   <still> trio mynd lan o # [//] lan y   coeden ## y   bachgen nawr lawr y   coeden # [//] y
PROG   try go   up from   up the tree(f)   the boy   now down the tree   the
still trying to go up from, [//] up the tree. The boy now down the tree, [//] the

ci   i-lawr # y gwaelod o 'r coeden <and he's got the beehive the bee thingy down> ## ci #
dog down   the bottom   of the tree(f)   dog
dog down, the bottom of the tree <and he's got the beehive the bee thingy down>. Dog,

nawr rhedog [//] rhedeg rhedeg ryw-le   ##   y   bachgen wedi cwympo i-llawr a   fe 'n
now xxx   run   run   some-where   the boy   PRF fall   down   and he PROG
now xxx [//] run run somewhere. The boy fallen down and he

gwisgo sgidiau rhy mawr i   fe ## bachgen mewn esgidiau # fe yn # trio mynd lan ryw <rock>
wear   shoes   too big for he   boy   in   shoes   he PROG try go   up some
wearing shoes too big for him. Boy in shoes, of his, trying to go up some <rock>,

y   bachgen wedi &cl uh@fp [//] wedi garw uh@fp # <I can't remember what is get up to>
   the boy   PRF   PRF rough
yhe boy &cl-en uh@fp[//] rough -ed uh@fp, <I can't remember what is to get up to>,

<right> y   ci   lawr y gwaelod ## <I have got no idea what the boy's doing> <ah right> #
        the dog down the bottom
<right> the dog down the bottom. <I have got no idea what the boy's doing> <ah right>,

<well I can see what he's doing but I can't say it in Welsh> # uh@fp y   ci   a   y   bachgen
---   the dog and the boy
<well I can see what he's doing but I can't say it in Welsh>, uh@fp the dog and the boy

yn   disgwyl fel nhw 'n   mynd i mynd dros y <cliff> # nhw wedi cwympo # nhw mewn
PROG look   like they PROG go   to go   over the   they PRF fall   they in
lookig like they're going to go over the <cliff>, they [have] fallen, they [are] in

dŵr # <but> nhw yn   saff ## um@fp # bachgen yn   gweud i 'r ci i [/] i bod   dawel ##
water   they PRED safe   boy   PROG say   to the dog to to is.COMP \quiet
water, <but> they safe. Um@fp, boy saying to the dog to [/] to be quiet.

y   bachgen yn   <still> cael [/] cael um@fp y <boots> sy arno   yn y ci a   fe yn
the boy   PROG   get   get   the   is.3SG.REL xxx the dog and he PROG
The boy still getting [/] getting um@fp the <boots> which are on him xxx the dog and him

trio mynd dros ryw   coeden beth wedi   <which has> [/] wedi cwympo i 'r llawr ## um@fp
try go   over some tree   what PRF   PRF fall   to the ground
trying to go over some tree what <which has> [/] fallen to the ground. Um@fp

y   bachgen a   ci wedi ffeindio dwy   ffrog ## y   bachgen a   'i   ci   <ah> ffrogs
the boy   and tree PRF   find   two(f) frog(m) the boy   and his dog   frogs
the boy and dog having found two frogs. The boy and his dog <ah> frogs

yn   cael ffrog-s   babi # <baby frogs> ## uh@fp # y   ci   a   bachgen disgwyl fel   nhw
PROG get   frogs baby   the dog and boy   look   like they
getting baby frogs, <baby frogs>. Uh@fp, the dog and boy looking like they

'n   nawr mynd gartre ## a   nhw 'n   mynd ffrog 'da   nhw uh@fp <they are taking a frog
PROG now go   home   and they PROG go   frog   with they
now going home. And they going a frog with them uh@fp <they are taking a frog

with them> ## y   ffrog-s   yn   eistedd ar y   coeden # wedi cwympo coeden y   [/] <fallen>
               the frog-xxx PROG sit   on the tree(f)   PRF   fall   tree   the
with them>. The frogs sitting on the tree, tree fallen the [/] <fallen>

coeden <and that's it>
tree
tree <and that's it>

wel y llun   gynta sy   fan hyn # mae e 'n   nos a mae 'na bachgen
well the picture(m) \first is.3SG.REL place this   is.3SG he PRED night and is.3SG there boy
Well the first picture which is here, it's night and there's a little boy

bach wrth waelod ei   wely ## ac   um@fp ## mae 'na   wydrir # [//] wydr o 'i   flaen e neu
little by   \bottom his \bed   and   is.3SG there xxx   \glass of his \front he or
by the bottom of his bed. And um@fp. There's, [//] glass in front of him or

llestr o   'i   flaen e # ac yn y llestr # mae 'na   froga ## ac ar ben   y llestr
vessel from his \front he   and in the vessel is.3SG there \frog   and on \head the vessel
a vessel in front of him, and in the vessel, there's a frog. And on top of the vessel

mae 'na gi   bach 'w   i ddim yn   siwr beth mae 'r ci   yn   trio gwneud ## ond
is.3SG there \dog little is.1SG I NEG PRED sure what is.3SG the dog PROG try do   but
there's a little dog I'm not sure what the dog is trying to do. But

w   i 'n   credu bod   y broga yn   berffaith ddiogel ## nawr 'te # yn yr ail
is.1SG I PROG believe is.COMP the frog PRED \perfect \safe   now then in the second
I believe that the frog is perfectly safe. Now then, in the second

lun   mae 'r bachgen wedi mynd i 'r gwely mae 'n   i tynnu 'r   dillad # ac mae
\picture is.3SG the boy   PRF go   to the bed   is.3SG PROG to pull   the clothes and is.3SG
picture the boy has gone to bed he's pulling the clothes, and the

'r ci   yn   cysgu ar ben y gwely gyda 'r bachgen ## ac chimod   beth mae   'r broga
the dog PROG sleep   on \head the bed   with the boy   and you.know what is.3SG the frog
dog is sleeping on top of the bed with the boy. And you know what the frog

'di neud # [//] mae 'r broga wedi dringo allan o 'r   llestr ## yn y   drydedd # mae 'r bachgen
PRF do   is.3SG the frog PRF climb out of the vessel   in the \third   is.3SG the boy
has, [//] the frog has climbed out of the vessel. Yn the third, the boy

a 'r ci wedi dihuno # ac yn   edrych ar y llestr a gweld ei bod   e 'n   wag #
and the dog PRF wake   and PROG look   on the vessel and see   his is.COMP he PRED \empty
and the dog have woken up, and looking at the vessel and seeing that it's empty,

does   dim broga i weld yn   unman ## 'w   i 'n   credu bod   nhw 'n
is.3SG.NEG.INDF NEG frog   to \see ADV anywhere is.1SG I PROG believe is.COMP they PROG
there's no frog to be seen anywhere. I believe that they're

pendroni i ble   aeth   y broga # wel y bore   'di hwn oherwydd mae 'r creadur
worry   to where went.3SG the frog   well the morning PRF this because   is.3SG the creature
worrying where the frog went, well the morning after this because the creature

wedi diflannu erbyn hyn mae 'r lle   wedi goleuo <so> yn y bore   mae hwn
PRF disappear by   now is.3SG place PRF lighten   in the morning is.3SG this
has disappeared now the place has lightened <so> in the morning this is

sen   i 'n   meddwl ## le   mae 'r broga gawn   ni weld nawr ## maen
be.1SG.COND I PROG think   \where is.3SG the frog \get.1PL.FUT we \see now   is.3PL
I'd think. Where's the frog we'll see now. They

nhw chwilio ym bobman   am y broga 'ma ## mae   pethau 'di cael eu # troi wyneb
they search in \everywhere for the frog   here   is.3SG things PRF get their turn face
are searching everywhere for this frog. Things have been, turned

yn   waered # y dillad wedi cael eu   hysgwyd ## na dim sôn am y broga ## a   nawr
PRED \descent the clothes PRF get their \shake   no NEG talk about the frog   and now
upside down, the clothes have been shaken. No no sign of the frog. And now

mae 'r ddau   'n   edrych drwy 'r ffenest # a   mae 'r ci wedi dodi ei ben yn y
is.3SG the \two(m) PROG look   through the window and is.3SG the dog PRF put his \head in the
the tw are looking through the window, and the dog has put his head in the

llestr a   mae 'r bachgen yn   gweiddi ar y   stryd # siwr-o-fod yn   gweiddi yn
vessel and is.3SG the boy   PROG shout   on the street   probably PROG shout   PROG
vessel and the boy is shouting on the street, probably shouting asking

gofyn am   y broga maen nhw ## a   peth nesa mae 'r ci 'di cwympo o 'r ffenest
ask   about the frog is.3PL they   and thing next is.3SG the dog PRF fall   from the window
about the frog they are. And next thing the dog has fallen from the window.

â 'r llestr am   ei ben o-hyd ## ac   wrth guro i-llawr <wrth gwrs> mae 'r llestr
    with the vessel about his \head still   and as   \beat down   <by course> is.3SG the vessel
With the vessel still about his head. And while knocking down <of course> the vessel

wedi torri [//] y gwydr wedi torri yn xxx # a 'r bachgen wedi neidio 'o 'r   ffenest #
PRF break   the glass PRF break PRED   and the boy   PRF jump from the window
has broken [//] the glass has broken in xxx, and the boy has jumped from the window,

a   dal # y ci bach a   mae 'r ci bach yn amlwg yn   iawn oherwydd mae e
and catch the dog little and is.3SG the dog little ADV obvious PRED okey because is.3SG he
and caught, the little dog a the little dog is obviously okey because he's

'n   llio boch y bachgen bach ## xxx pan maen nhw mynd i 'r cae erbyn hyn ac yn
PROG lick cheek the boy   little   when is.3PL they go   to the field by   this and PROG
licking the little boy's cheek. xxx when they are going to the field now and

gweiddi y bachgen [/] yn   gweiddi galw 'r broga <siwr o fod> # a 'r ci yn ei ymyl
shout   the boy   PROG shout   call the frog   sure of \be   and the dog in his edge
shouting the boy [/] shouting calling the frog <probably>, and the dog beside him.

a   mae 'na   goed brydferth ac adar i 'u gweld mas yn y 'lad   rywle   ond
   and is.3SG there \forest \beatiful and birds to their see out in the country(f) somewhere but
And there's a beautiful forest and birds to be seen out in the country somewhere but

's -dim sôn am y broga 'man xxx xxx ## ah@fp # nawr 'te # maen
is.3SG.NEG.INDF -NEG mention about the frog [any]place now then is.3PL
there's no sign of the frog anywhere xxx xxx. Ah@fp, now then, they

nhw 'di ffeidio rhyw-beth # cartre gwenyn 'dy hwn # a mae 'r gwenyn yn dod allan
they PRF find some-\thing home been COP this and is.3SG the bees PROG come out
have found something, this is a bee home, and the bees are coming out,

a mae 'na dwll yn y ddaear # mae 'r bachgen yn gweiddi yn y twll 'ma ## a
and is.3SG there \hole in the \ground(f) is.3SG the boy PROG shout in the hole here and
and there's a hole in the ground, the boy is shouting in this hole. And

beth sy 'n dod allan o 'r twll? na nid broga # cwningen <w i'n credu>
what is.3SG.REL PROG come out from the hole no NEG frog rabbit <is.3SG believe>
what comes out of the hole? no not a frog, a rabbit <I believe>

yw e ### <that's the same thing is it ya probably is> # nawr te mae 'r bachgen
COP he now then is.3SG the boy
is is. <That's the same thing is it ya probably is>, now then the boy

wedi dringo i goeden fawr a mae 'na hollt ym moncyff y goeden # a mae 'r
PRF climb to \tree(f) \big and is.3SG there slit in \trunk the \tree(f) and is.3SG the
has climbed to a big tree a there's a slit in the trunk of the tree, and the

bachgen yn [cy]sylltu i 'r hollt i weld os 'dy 'r broga 'cw ## a mae 'r gwenyn
boy PROG touch to the slit to \see if is.3SG.Q the frog there and is.3SG the bees
boy is touching the slit to see if the frog is there. And all the bees

i-gyd yn dod allan o 'u tŷ neu bwmp-odd hwnnw i 'r ddaear ## w -i
all PROG come out from their house or bump.3SG.PST that to the \ground is.1SG I
are coming out of the house or that bumped to the ground. I

'n credu taw ci a fwr-odd o ar y llawr # a maen nhw nawr xxx xxx dw
PROG believe COMP dog REL \hit-3SG.PST he on the ground and is.3PL they now is.1SG
belive that it was a dog who hit [it] on the ground. And they are now xxx xxx I

i 'n credu [by]ddan nhw 'n # hela 'r ci cyn bo hir nawn ni weld
I PROG believe be.3PL.FUT they PROG chase the dog before is.3SG.COND long do.1PL.FUT we \see
believe they'll be, hunting the dog soon we'll see.

o-'n ni 'n iawn [/] o-'n ni 'n iawn # yn troi 'r tudalen # a mae 'r
was-1PL we PRED okey was-1PL we PRED okey PROG turn the page and is.3SG the
We were okey [/] we were okey, turning the page, and all the

gwenyn i-gyd # ar ôl y ci mae fe yn rhedeg bant mae 'r bachgen wedi cwympo
bees all on track the dog is.3SG he PROG run away is.3SG the boy PRF fal
bees, after the dog he's running away the boy has fallen

allan o 'r uh@fp goeden # a beth daeth o 'r hollt # yn y goeden? ## be' dach
out of the \tree(f) and what came.3SG from the slit in the \tree(f) what is.2PL
out of the uh@fp tree, and what came from the slit, in the tree? What do you

chi ’n meddwl? # beth sy ’n cuddio mewn uh@fp hollt mewn coeden? #
you.PL PROG think what is.3SG.REL PROG hide in slit in tree
think? What is it that’s hiding in uh@fp a hole in a tree?

tylluan tylluan xxx daeth allan a gweld y bachgen wedi cwympo ar y llawr ## a
owl owl came.3SG out and see the boy PRF fall on the ground and
An owl an owl xxx came out and sees the boy fallen on the ground. And

be’ ’n y byd yw hwnnw <I don’t know what that’s supposed to be> <ha ha> ## Wel mae
what in the world COP that well is.3SG
what in the world is that <I don’t know what that’s supposed to be> <ha ha>. Well there’s

‘na aderyn ## du ## ac [//] a denydd enfawr roedd hi xxx gwneud a maen nhw dêl y
there bird black and [//] and wings huge were.3SG she make and is.3PL they deal the
a bird. Black. And [//] and huge wings she was xxx making and the deal the fright

braw ar y bachgen ## uh@fp gweld uh@fp ## mae ’r ci wedi dod ‘n ’ôl o
fright on the boy see is.3SG the dog PRF come in track from
on the boy. Uh@fp see uh@fp. The dog has come back from

ryw-le mae ’r bachgen wedi dringo lan ar ben # twm[p]yn a mae fe ’n gweiddi
\some-\where is.3SG the boy PRF climb up on \head mound and is.3SG he PROG shout
somewhere the boy has climbed up on top, a mound and he’s shouting

xxx galw ar y ci neu galw ar y broga mae fe ’n ## dw i ddim yn deall yn
 call on the dog or call on the frog is.3SG he PROG is.1SG I NEG PROG understand ADV
xxx calling on the dog or calling on the frog he is. I don’t understand completely

hollol beth sy ’n ymlaen yn y llun ‘ma xxx ### oh@fp # <I’m not sure for the
complete what is.3SG.REL PRED on in the picture here
what’s on in this picture xxx. Oh@fp, <I’m not sure for the

word for the deer> # uh@fp # carw ## tu-ôl i ’r uh@fp [/] tu-ôl i ’r dwm[p]yn #
 stag side-back to the side-back to the \mound(f)
word for the deer>, uh@fp, stag. Behind the uh@fp [/] behind the mound,

pwy sylweddoli nawr o-’n i ’n credu taw # brigau o-’n nhw # ond rheiny cyrn
who realize now was-1SG I PROG belive COMP sticks was-3PL they but those horns
who realize now I believed that, sticks they were, but those horns of

carw o-’n nhw # a chi-mod beth # fe god-odd y carw ei ben a mae ‘na
stag was-3pl they and you-know what AFF \raised-3SG the stage his \head and is.3SG there
a stag they were, and you know what, the stag raised his head and there’s

bachgen wedi cael ei gudio rhwng y cyrn ## a mae ’r carw ’n rhedeg nawr a
boy PRF get his glue.INF between the horns and is.3SG the stage PROG run now and
a boy glued between the horns. And the stag running now and

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'r bachgen ar ei ben   rhwng y cyrn # a 'r ci rhedeg â   nhw a   maen nhw dod i
the boy   on his \head between the horns and the dog run   with they and is.3PL they come to
the boy on top of his between the horns, and the dog running with them and they come to

glogwyn ## a xxx mae 'r carw yn   aros # a 'r bachgen a ci [//] a 'r ci yn
\cliff   and is.3SG the stag PROG wait and the boy   and dog [//] and the dog PROG
a cliff. And xxx the stag waits, and the boy and dog [//] and the dog

cwympo dros y glogwyn <dw   i 'm gwybod> mewn i ddwr w   i 'n   credu # o-'n
fall   over the \cliff(m) is.1SG I NEG know   in   to \water is.1SG I PROG believe was-1SG
falls over the cliff <I know> into water I believe, I

ni weld # os troi y   tudalen mi weld xxx nawr xxx cwympo mewn i ddŵr ydyn dŵr
we \see if trun the page AFF \see   now   fall   in   to \water is.3PL water
saw, if [I] turn the page see xxx now xx fall into water yes water

oedd   [//] dŵr   xxx # a   ryw-un   arall yn y dŵr   nawr <w-i   'm gwybod>
was.3SG   water   and some-one other in the water now   is.1SG-I NEG know
it was like water xxx, and someone else in the water now <I know>

at yr un llun   'na   y   bachgen dw   i ddim yn siwr # ond mewn i 'r dŵr
to the one picture there the   boy   is.1sg I NEG ADV sure   but in   to the water
to the same picture there the boy I'm not sure, but into water

aethon   nhw a 'r carw yn   edrych lawr ar-non   nhw # <oh na> maen nhw dod   allan
went.3PL they and the stag PROG look   down on-them they   no   is.3PL they come out
they went and the stag looking down on them, <oh no> they come out

o 'r dŵr # a   mae 'r ci bach yn   eistedd ar ben y bachgen #### sen
from the water and is.3SG the dog little PROG sit   on \head the boy   is.1SG.COND
of the water, and the little dog is sitting on top of the boy. I would

i 'n   deall   beth yw hwn sen   i 'n   gallu esbonio mae 'n   well xxx fe xxx
I PROG understand what COP this is.1SG.COND I PROG can   explain is.3SG PRED better he
understand what this is I would be able to explain it's xxx.

maen nhw allan o 'r dŵr nawr # a   mae 'na foncyff # a   'i # ganol # wedi
   is.3PL they out from the water now   and is.3SG there \trunk   and his \center PRF
They are out of the water now, and there's a log, and its, middle,

diflannu felly a   mae 'na le   yn y boncyff i ryw-un # wel mynd i fewn sen
disappear so and is.3SG there place in the trunk for some-one well go   to \in is.1SG.COND
disappeared so and there's room in the log for someone, well to go inside I would

i 'n   feddwl   mae 'r ci a 'r bachgen yn   dringo dros y boncyff ## a chimod
I PROG \think   is.3SG the dog and the boy   PROG climb over the trunk   and you.know
think the dog and the boy are climbing over the log. And you know

beth weld ar ochr draw   y boncyff? ## ie # broga # a   mwy nag un broga ## a
what \see on side over.there the trunk   yes frog   and more than one frog   and
what to see on the other side of the log? Yes, a frog, and more than one frog. And

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dadgu   xxx bach ym   mell-ach dyn ni 'n   gweld holl   deulu 'r broga # w-i   'n
grandfather little ADV \far-ther man us PROG see   whole \family the frog   is-1SG PROG
a little grandfather xxx now we see the whole family of frogs, I

credu tan xxx ta-beth a maen nhw 'n   synnu weld faint   sy   'na
believe until   anyway and is.3pl they PROG wonder \see how.many is.3SG.REL there
believe until xxx anyway and they wonder how many are there

gyfrifan   nhw 'da 'n gilydd   un dau tri   pedwar pump chwech saith
\count.3PL.FUT they with our each.other one two   three four   five   six   seven
They will count together one two three four five six seven

wyth naw un dipyn-bach wedi mynd ar-goll ### wel maen nhw 'n   mynd # o   'r lle
eight nine one \little-bit PRF go   lost   well is.3PL they PROG go   from the place
eight nine one a little bit gone lost. Well they are going, from the place

nawr ## ac maen nhw 'n uh@fp # chwifio "hwyl fawr" i deulu 'r broga ## o-'n   nhw
now   and is.3PL they PROG   wave   bye big to family the frog   was-3PL they
now. And they are uh@fp, waving "goodbye" to the family of the frog. They

'n   gweld bod   un broga bach yn llaw y bachgen dw   i 'm gwybod beth mae 'n
PROG see   is.COMP one frog little in hand the boy   is.1SG I NEG know   what is.3SG PROG
saw that there was one little frog in the boy's hand I don't know he's

mynd i neud â   hwnnw # gawn   ni weld wrth troi 'r tudalen   na   # <'w-m-bod>
go   to \do with that   \get.1PL.FUT we \see by turn the page   no   I.don't.know
going to do with that, we'll see as we turn the page no, <I don't know>

<so> mae fe   cadw un o 'r brogau bach # a   mae 'r teulu i-gyd yn   aros wrth y
      is.3SG he   keep one of the frogs   little   and is.3SG the family whole PROG stay at   the
<so> he keeps one of the little frogs, and the whole family is staying by the

dwr # 'na   chi 'r   stori
water   there's you the story
water, there's the story for you.

yn llun   un # mae   'n   gweld bachgen bach yn   eistedd ar y   stôl a   mae 'n
in picture one   is.3SG PROG see   boy   little PROG sit   on the stool and is.3SG PROG
In picture one, one sees a little boy sitting on the stool and he's

eistedd # um@fp # ar y   llawr wrth [/] wrth ochr y gwely ## a   mae   e 'n   disgwyl
sit   on the floor by   by   side the bed   and is.3SG he prog look
sitting, um@fp, on the floor by [/] beside the bed. And he's looking

a   um@fp # uh@fp botel   fawr a   yn y botel   fawr mae   broga # mae # [/] mae
and   \bottle(f) \big and in the bottle(f) \big is.3SG frog   is.3SG   is.3SG
and um@fp, uh@fp a big bottle and in the big bottle there's a frog, ther's, [/] there's

gi   fach e hefyd yn disgwyl ar y broga yn y botel ## mae # [/] mae 'n   tu
\dog(m) \little he also PROG look   on the frog in the \bottle   is.3SG   is.3SG PROG side
a little dog of his also looking at the frog in the bottle. It's, it's outside

mas i 'r ffenest # mae 'n # nos   achos   mae 'r lleuad yn y [//] yn yr awyr ## oedd
out to the window is.3SG PRED night because is.3SG the moon in the   in the sky   was.3SG
the window, it's, night because the moon is in the [//] in the sky.

y   bachgen bach wedi tynnu <off> [//] tynnu bant ei ddillad a esgidiau a   mae e yn
the boy   little PRF pull   pull away his \clothes and shoes   and is.3SG he in
The little boy had pulled <off> [//] pulled away his clothes and shoes and he is in

ei <pajamas> a 'i <slippers> ## yn yr ail   llun   mae   e wedi mynd i gwely ## mae
his   and his   in the second picture is.3SG he PRF go   to bed   is.3SG
his <pajamas> and his <slippers>. In the second picture he has gone to bed. He's

e 'n   cysgu yn y gwely # mae 'r ffenest ar gaead # mae 'r ci ar y gwely a
he PROG sleep in the bed   is.3SG the window on \closed   is.3SG the dog on the bed   and
sleeping in the bed, the window is closed, the dog is on the bed and

mae 'r ci yn # um@fp cysgu ar y gwely ## nawr # mae broga yn   dod   allan o
is.3SG the dog PROG   sleep on the bed   now   is.3SG frog PROG come out   from
the dog is, um@fp sleeping on the bed. Now, a frog is coming out of

'r botel ## un coes mas o   'r botel   a coes arall tu &fa [//] tu fewn i 'r botel ##
the bottle(f) one leg out from the bottle(f) and leg other side   side \in   to the bottle(f)
the bottle. One leg out of the bottle and another leg &outside [//] inside the bottle.

yn y trydydd # llun # mae 'n   bore ## mae um@fp # [/] mae 'r bachgen a 'r ci
in the third   picture is.3SG PRED morning is.3SG   is.3SG the boy   and the dog
In the third, picture, it's morning. There's um@fp, [/] the boy and the dog are

wedi di[hu]no   maen nhw 'n gorwedd ar y gwely a [/] ar y gwely yn   disgwyl ar
PRF wake   is.3PL they PROG lie   on the bed and   on the bed PROG look   on
awake they are lying on the bed and [/] on the bed and, [/] on the bed looking on the

y botel(f) sydd   yn   wag ## <so> mae ’r bachgen wedi dod   mas o   ’r # [/] mas o
the bottle is.3SG.REL PRED \empty   is.3SG the boy   PRF come out from the   out from
bottle which is empty. <So> the boy has come out of the, [/] out of

‘r gwely # a   mae e ’n   disgwyl am   y broga # mae e yn   disgwyl # ac yn
the bed   and is.3SG he PROG look   about the frog   is.3SG he PROG look   and PROG
the bed, and he’s looking for the frog, he is looking, and

siglo i bant un   o ’i esgidiau e ## mae ’r um@fp # stôl # ar ei ben   [//] wedi troi ar
swing to away one of his shoes   he   is.3SG the   stool on his \head   PRF turn on
shaking away one of his shoes. The um@fp, stool, on its head [//] turned on

ei ben   mae ’r ci # wedi dodi ei ben   mewn i ’r botel ## yn y llun   nesa mae
his \head is.3SG the dog PRF put his \head in   to the bottle(f) in the picture next is.3SG
its head the dog, has put his head inside the bottle. In the next picture

bachgen a   ’r ci wedi agor y ffenest a   mae   bachgen yn   disgwyl mas o   ’r
boy   and the dog PRF open the window and is.3SG boy   PROG look   out from the
a boy and the dog have opened the window and a boy is looking out of the

ffenest a   mae e ’n   galw am y broga # a   mae ’r ci <ti weld ‘ma> # mae
window and is.3SG he PROG call about the frog   and is.3SG the dog you see here   is.3SG
window and he’s calling for the frog, and the dog <you see here>, he is

e â   ’i ben yn # [/] yn [//] mewn yn y botel o-hyd mae e ’n   trio siglo fe bant ##
he with his \head in   in   in   in the bottle(f) still is.3SG he PROG try shake he away
with his head in, [/] in [//] inside in the bottle still he’s trying to shake it away.

a # ci yn   cwympo <off> y <sill> # lawr i ’r llawr [//] lawr i ’r lawr ##   pan
and dog PROG fall   the   down to the ground   down the the ground(m) when
And, a dog falling <off> the <sill>, down to the ground [//] down to the ground. When

mae e ’n   cwympo # mae botel yn   torri a   nawr mae ’r bachgen yn # mynd
is.3SG he PROG fall   is.3SG \bottle PROG break and now is.3SG the boy   PROG go
he’s falling, a bottle breaks and now the boy is, going

lawr i ’r ardd   i ôl   y ci # mae ’r ci yn   llio fe a # [/] a   mae ’r
down to the \garden(f) to track the dog   is.3SG the dog PROG lick he and   and is.3SG the
down to the garden [after] the dog, the dog is licking him and, and the boy

bachgen yn   disgwyl yn xxx ## maen nhw [//] y bachgen wedi # xxx a   wedi mynd mas i ’r
boy   PROG look   PROG   is.3PL they   the boy   PRF   and PRF go out to the
looks xxx. They are [//] the boy has, xxx and have gone out to the

ardd ##   a   mae e ’n   galw am y broga # [/] galw am   y broga # ond beth
\garden(f) and is.3SG he PROG call about the frog   call about the frog   but what
garden. And he’s calling for the frog, [/] calling for the frog, but what’s

sy   ’n   did yw um@fp ## gwenyn w-i   ’n   credu ## mae ’r gwenyn yn   dod
is.3SG.REL PROG xxx COP   bees   is.1SG-I PROG believe is.3SG the bees   PROG come
[coming] is um@fp. Bees I think. The bees are coming

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mas o   nyth sydd   yn   hongian ar un o 'r um@fp um@fp <oh dear> ## [/] un o 'r
out from nest is.3SG.REL PROG hang   on one of the   one of the
a nest which is hanging on one of the um@fp um@fp <oh dear>. [/] One of the

coed # [/] un o 'r coed # [//] coeden ## mae 'r ## bachgen a 'r ci yn   cerdded
trees   one of the trees   tree(f) is.3SG the boy   and the dog PROG walk
trees, [/] one of the trees, [//] tree. The. Boy and the dog are walking

ymlaen at y goeden mae 'r ci yn # <jump>-io lan ac yn # um@fp # <barking> ar y
onward to the \tree(f) is.3SG the dog PROG   -INF up and PROG   on the
on to the tree the dog is, jumping up and, um@fp, <barking> at the

gwenyn a [//] nyth y gwenyn a   mae 'r bachgen wedi ffeindio twll a   mae e 'n
bees   and   nest the bees   and is.3SG the boy   PRF find   hole and is.3SG he PROG
bees and [//] the nest of bees and the boy has found a hole and he's

gael [//] mae e 'n   lawr ar y llawr ar ei glin-ine # [//] gleninen # ac yn   galw ##
\get   is.3SG he PRED down on the ground on his knee-xxx   xxx   and PROG call
getting [//] he is down on the ground on his knee[s], [//] xxx, and calling.

beth sy   'n   dod mas o 'r # uh@fp twll yw ## hm@fp # <rat> # hm@fp xxx #
what is.3SG.REL PROG come out of the   hole COP
What comes out of the, uh@fp hole is. hm@fp, A <rat>, hm@fp xxx,

rhywbeth   fach <ya> # um@fp # e wedi # mae e 'n &b # mae   e 'n   disgwyl beth
something(m) \small   he PRF   is.3SG he PROG   is.3SG he PROG look   what
something small <ya>, um@fp, xxx-en, he's, he's looking what

sydd   e wedi cnoi # trwyn y bachgen ## a   nawr # mae 'r bachgen wedi mynd [//] wedi
is.3SG.REL he PRF bite   nose the boy   and now   is.3SG the boy   PRF go   PRF
is it that has bitten, the boy's nose. And now, the boy has gone [//] has

<climb>-io lan ## coeden [//] hen coeden fawr iawn i gael disgwyl mewn i um@fp twll yn
       -INF up tree   old tree(f) \big very to \get look   in to   hole in
climbed up. A tree [//] a very old tree to get to look inside um@fp hole in

um@fp # [/] yn y goeden ## mae 'r ci wedi # <fallai> # tynnu lawr uh@fp nyth y
          in the \tree(f) is.3SG the dog PRF   <maybe>   pull down   nest the
um@fp, [/] in the tree. The dog has, <maybe>, pulled down uh@fp the nest

gwenyn a   nawr maen gwenyn yn   gyd yn   hedfan i fas ## a   maen [//] mae 'r
bees   and now is.3PL bees   PRED \joint PROG fly   to \out and is.3PL   is.3SG the
of bees and now they bees [together] are flying out. And they [//] the

gwenyn yn   hedfan ar ôl y ci sydd   yn   ffoi yn # brysur iawn i [/] i ffoi
bees   PROG fly   on track the dog is.3SG.REL PROG flee ADV \hasty very to   to flee
bees are flying behind the dog who is fleeing, very hastily to [/] to flee

oddi-wrth-yn nhw # mae ’r bachgen yn cwympo lawr o ’r goeden a mae ’r #
from-them they is.3SG the boy PROG fall down from the \tree(f) and is.3SG the
from them, the boy falls down from the tree and the,

&ty ty-hoo o-‘n i arfer galw fe um@fp um@fp wedi dod mas i cael gweld pwy oedd
xxx was-1SG I used.to call he PRF come out to get see who was.3SG
[owl] I used to call it um@fp um@fp come out to get to see who was

yn trio disgwyl mewn nyth e ## nawr mae ’r bachgen yn rhedeg bant a mae ‘r #
PROG try see in nest he now is.3SG the boy PROG run away and is.3SG the
trying to see inside [its] nest. Now the boy is running away and the,

deryn yn um@fp # yn ## <disturb>-io fe # hedfan am-dano fe um@fp [/] hedfan am-dano fe
bird PROG PROG -INF he fly about-him he fly about-him he
bird is um@fp, is. <Disturb>ing him, flying around him um@fp [/] flying around him.

nawr mae ’r bachgen yn [/] yn ## mynd lan &ac # craig tal a mae e ’n dala a
now is.3SG the boy PROG PROG go up rock(f) tall and is.3SG he PROG hold and
Now the boy is [/] is. Going up and, a tall rock and he holds and

beth mae e ’n credu yw # um@fp ## <part> o ’r goeden # mae ’r ‘deryn ‘n-ôl
what is.3SG he PROG believe COP of the \tree(f) is.3SG the bird in-track
what he thinks is, um@fp, um@fp, <part> of the tree, the bird is back

yn y goeden a mae ‘r ci yn cerdded ‘n-ôl at y bachgen a mae ei cwt
in the \tree(f) and is.3SG the dog PROG walk in-track to the boy and is.3SG his tail
in the tree and the dog is walking back to the boy and his tail

rhwng ei [/] ei draed ôl ond na nage coeden oedd y bachgen yn &disg yn dala
between his his\feet track but no no tree was the boy PROG PROG hold
between his [/] his back feet but no not a tree was the boy &disg holding

oedd e yn dala ar ## <antlers> ryw # beth yw <deer> <dw i ’m cofio> <deer>
was.3SG he PROG hold on some what COP is.1SG I NEG remember
he was holding onto. <Antlers> some, what’s <deer> <I don’t remember> of a <deer>

a # mae e ’n eistedd # [ar]-groes um@fp # y pen # uh@fp y <deer> <mae ’n> # a
and is.3SG he PROG sit \across the head the is.3SG PROG and
and, he’s sitting, across um@fp, the head, uh@fp of the deer <he is>, and

mae <deer> yn dechrau ## rhedeg ffwrdd a maen nhw ’n dod i diwedd um@fp
is.3SG PROG start run away and is.3PL they PROG come to end
a deer starts. Running away and they are coming to an end um@fp

[//] i dod i uh@fp # hm@fp # <cliff edge> # a mae ’r [/] mae ’r <deer> yn stopio
to come to and is.3SG the is.3SG the PROG stop
[//] coming to uh@fp, hm@fp, <cliff edge>, and the [/] the <deer> stops

ac yn tawlu ’r bachgen # a mae ’r bachgen a ’r ci yn cwympo lawr maen
and PROG throw the boy and is.3SG the boy and the dog PROG fall down is.3PL
and throws the boy, and the boy and the dog fall down they

nhw mynd i cwympo lawr mewn i ’r afon sydd yn agos ## maen nhw lawr yn
they go to fall down in to the river is.3SG.REL PRED near is.3PL they down in
go to fall down into the river which is nearby. They are down in

yr afon ond maen nhw ’n saff a beth ydyn nhw ’n gweld # <shh> maen nhw
the river but is.3PL they PRED safe and what is.3PL.Q they PROG see is.3PL they
the river but they are safe and what do hey see? <shh> they

’n gweld y rhyw um@fp ## <trunk> hen golfen a maen nhw ’n yn dawel iawn
PROG see the some old \branch and is.3PL they PRED PRED \quiet very
see the some um@fp. <Trunk> of an od tree and they are very quiet

maen nhw ’n disgwyl i fewn # a beth ydyn nhw ’n gweld wrth ochr # ond dwy
is.3PL they PROG look to \in and what is.3PL.Q they PROG see by side but two
they look inside, and what do they see beside, but two

broga ## a pan maen nhw ’n edrych yn # <glos>-ach # maen nhw ’n gweld
frog(m) and when is.3PL they PROG look ADV \-er is.3PL they PROG see
frogs. And when they look, <close>r, they see

bod ddau broga [/] broga a teulu gyda nhw # a mae ’r bachgen # a ’r ci #
is.COMP \two frog frog and family with they and is.3SG the boy and the dog
that there are two frogs a frog and a family with him, and the boy, and the dog,

yn ## mynd adre # gyda un o ’r broga bach <rw i ’n meddwl> # &lla pawb
PROG go homeward with one of the frog little is.1SG I PROG think everybody
are. Going home, with one of the little frog <I think>, &lla everybody

arall yn [/] yn yr afon dyna fo
other in in the river that’s he
else in [/] in the river that’s it.

um@fp # broga ble   wyt ti ## mae ’r bachgen bach a ’r ci   yn   edrych ar y broga
     frog   where is.2SG you   is.3SG the boy   little and the dog PROG look   on the frog
Um@fp, frog where are you. The little boy and the dog are looking at the frog,

yn y [/] yn y jar ## a wedyn   mae ’r broga yn   dianc tra   maen nhw ’n   cysgu
  in the in the jar   and then   is.3SG the frog PROG escape while is.3PL they PROG sleep
in the [/] in the jar. And then the frog escapes while they are sleeping,

a   maen nhw ’n   dihuno ac yn   methu deall   lle   mae ’r broga wedi mynd
  and is.3PL they PROG wake   and PROG fail   understand where is.3SG the frog   PRF go
and they wake up and fail to understand where the frog has gone.

ac maen nhw ’n   dechrau edrych am   y broga ym &mob ym mhobman ## ond yn
and is.3PL they PROG start   look   about the frog in   in \everywhere but PROG
And they begin to look for the frog &mob everywhere. But failing

methu ffeindio xxx yn unman   maen nhw ’n   edrych drwy   ’r ffenest # maen nhw
fail   find   ADV anywhere is.3PL they PROG look   through the window is.3PL they
to find xxx anywhere they look through the window, they

’n   galw am   y broga ond dim yn   cael dim ateb # a   mae ’r ci yn   cael ei [//]
PROG call   about the frog   but NEG PROG get   NEG answer and is.3SG the dog PROG get   his
call for the frog but don’t get any answer, and the dog gets his [/]

wedi <stick>-io ei ben   yn y jar # a   methu dod   o-hono   fe # felly maen [/] maen
PRF stick   his \head in the jar and fail   come from-him he so   is.3PL   is.3PL
has <stuck> his head in the jar, and fails to come from it, so they [/] they

nhw ’n   mynd allan i ’r ardd ## a   mae ’r jar yn   torri ’n xxx a   mae ’r ci
they PROG go   out to the \garden(f) and is.3SG the jar PROG break in   and is.3SG the dog
go out to the garden. And the jar breaks into xxx and the dog

yn   dianc ## a   maen nhw mynd nawr i edrych ar [//] am   y broga yn yr ardd
PROG escape   and is.3PL they go   now to see   on   about the frog in the \garden(f)
escapes. And they go now to look at [//] for the frog in the garden

mae ’n &cri galw am   y broga eto   a ’r ci hefyd [//] ci a ’r bachgen yn   galw
is.3SG PROG call   about the frog   again and the dog also   dog and the boy   PROG call
[he] &cry calls for the frog again and the dog too [//] dog and the boy call

am   y broga ## a   maen gwenyn # yn   dianc # o   ’r um@fp # <hive> ## reit wel
about the frog   and is.3PL bees   PROG escape   from the   right well
for the frog. And them bees, escape, from the um@fp, <hive>. Right well

hyn yn   dianc # o   ’r cwch gwenyn # sydd   ar y goeden ## a   mae ’r ci yn
this PROG escape from the hive bees   is.3SG.REL on the \tree(f)   and is.3SG the dog PROG
this escapes, from the beehive, which is on the tree. And the dog

dechrau cyfarth yn-don nhw ## a   wedyn ## mae ’r   twrch daear yn   dod mas o   ’r [/]
begin bark   in-them they   and then   is.3SG the boar   earth PROG come out from the
starts to bark [at] them. And then. The groundhog comes out of the [/]

o #   mas o   ’i uh@fp # [/] o   ’i le   yn y daear # ac yn xxx tipyn-bach o hwn ar
from out from his   from his \place in the earth(f) and PROG   little-bit   of this on
from, out of his uh#fp, [/] from his place in the ground, and xxx-ing a little bit from this on

y xxx [/] ar y xxx bach # a   mae ’r ci yn   gael i [/] i gyfarth ar y   cwch gwenyn ##
the   on the little   and is.3SG the dog PROG \get to   to \bark   on the hive bees
the xxx [/] on the little xxx, and the dog gets to [/] to bark at the beehive.

<oh> mae ’r # [/] mae ’r   bachgen bach nawr yn   dringo’r coeden ac edrych i mewn
     is.3SG the   is.3SG the boy   little now PROG climb   the tree(f) and look   to in
<Oh> the, [/] the little bow now climbs the tree and looks inside

i twll sydd   yn y goeden # dal   i edrych am y broga ## mae ’r gwenyn nawr
to hole is.3SG.REL in the \tree(f) continue to look about the frog   is.3SG the bees   now
a whole which is in the tree, still looking for the frog. The bees now

i-gyd yn   dod mas o cwch # ac yn   rhedeg ar ôl y ci bach ## w   i ’n   siwr
all   PROG come out from hive and PROG run   on track the dog little   is.1SG I PROG sure
all come out of a hive, and run after the little dog. I’m sure

wedi cael ofn a   mae bachgen yn   cwympo o-ddi ar y coeden jyst fel mae ’r tylluan
PRF get fear and is.3SG boy   PROG fall   from on the tree(f) just like is.3SG the owl(f)
frightened and a boy falls from the tree just like the owl

yn   dod mas o   ’r twll ## a   mae ’r [/] mae ’r tylluan yn   hedfan ar ei ôl   a
PROG come out from the hole   and is.3SG the   is.3SG the owl(f) PROG fly   on his track and
comes out from its hole. And the [/] the owl flies after him and

mae tipyn-bach o ofn ar-no fe <so> mae e ’n # [/] mae e ’n # dringo lan i ben #
is.3SG little-bit of fear on-him he   is.3SG he PROG   is.3SG he PROG climb up to \head
he is a bit afraid <so> he, climbs up on top,

carreg ## a   wedyn mae carw yn   ymddangos tu ôl   i ’r carreg ## a   mae e ’n
stone   and then is.3SG stag PROG appear   side track to the stone(f)   and is.3SG he PROG
of a stone. And then a stag appears behind the stone. And he

dringo lan i ar ben y carw ## a   mae ’r carw # a   ’r ci yn   rhedeg tuag-at y
climb up to on \head the stag   and is.3SG the stag   and the dog PROG run   toward the
climbs up on top of the stag. And the stag, and the dog run toward the

dibyn ## a   mae ’r ci a   ’r bachgen yn   syrthio dros y dibyn # i ’r afon ## ac
cliff   and is.3SG the dog and the boy   PROG fall   over the cliff   to the river   and
cliff. And the dog and the boy fall over the cliff. And

yn ffodus   dim wedi [//] does   dim-byd drwg yn   digwydd i-ddyn nhw maen nhw
ADV fortunate NEG PRF   is.3SG.NEG nothing bad PROG happen to-them they is.3PL they
luckily didn’t, [//] nothing bad happens to them they

'n   dod   allan o   'r   afon # maen nhw 'n   [//] mae 'r   bachgen yn   gweld hen foncyff
PROG come out   from the river is.3PL they PROG   is.3SG the boy   PROG see   old \trunk
come out of the river, they [//] the boy sees an old trunk

sydd   ar y   llawr ## a   mae   e   'n   gweld wrth y   ci yn   cadw yn   dawel ##
is.3SG.REL on the ground   and is.3SG he PROG see   by   the dog PROG keep PRED \quiet
which is on the ground. And he sees by the dog keeping quiet.

mae   e   'n   dringo dros y   boncyff # gyda ci # a   tu ôl i 'r   boncyff mae   e   'n
is.3SG he PROG climb over the trunk   with dog and side track to the trunk   is.3SG he PROG
He climbs over the trunk, with a dog, and behind the trunk he

gweld dau froga # a   lot o frogaod bach gyda nhw # a   teulu   cyfan o frogaod ## lle
see   two frog   and lot of \frogs little with they   and family whole of \frogs   where
sees two frogs, and a lot of little frogs with them, and a whole family of frogs. Where

maen nhw wedi ffeindio 'r   broga o 'r   diwedd a   mae 'na   [//] mae e   'n   gweud
is.3PL they PRF find   the frog of the end   and is.3SG there   is.3SG he PROG say
they have found the frog at last and there's [//] he says

ffarwel wrth y   teulu o brogaod a   mynd â 'r   broga xxx
farewell to   the family of frogs   and go   with the frog
"farewell" to the family of frogs and takes the frog xxx.

mae   bachgen bach a   ci   yn   eistedd o-flaen y   gwely a   mae   ci   yn   edrych ar
is.3SG boy   little and dog PROG sit   before the bed and is.3SG dog PROG look   on
A little boy and a dog are sitting in front of the bed and a dog is looking at

y   brogau   yn y   botel ## um@fp # beth arall ## uh@fp # beth yw <moon>   llun? (lleuad)
the frogs   in the \bottle(f)   what other   what COP   picture moon
the frogs in the jar. Um#fp, what else. Uh@fp, what is <moon> picture? (moon)

lleuad # y   lleuad yn <shining> ah@fp (gloyw?) gloyw thrwy   ’r   ffenestr ##
moon   the moon PROG   bright   bright xxx [%*trwy* - through] the window
moon, the moon is <shining> ah@fp (bright?) bright [through] the window.

uh@fp # mae   bachgen bach wedi mynd i gwely gyda ci # mae   broga # uh@fp # yn ##
 --   is.3SG boy   little PRF go   to bed   with dog is.3SG frog   PROG
Uh@fp, a little boy has gone to bed with a dog, there is a frog, uh@fp.

uh@fp &cl # oh@fp # <to climb?> (dringo) dringo mas o   botel ## oh@fp <so sad>
 --   climb   climb out from \bottle
Uh@fp &cl, oh@fp, <to climb?> (climb) climbing out of a bottle. Oh@fp <so sad>

mae   bachgen a   ci   yn   edrych am   y   brog-au ## uh@fp # mae   bachgen bach # yn
is.3SG boy   and dog PROG look   about the frog-PL   is.3SG boy   little PROG
a boy and dog are looking for the frogs. Uh@fp, a little boy, is

gwisgo # honno # uh@fp wel # yn &fin edrych ar y   brogau yn y [/] yn y ## uh@fp # <boot>
wear   that   well PROG   look   on the frogs in the in the
wearing, that, uh@fp well, &fin looking at the frogs in the [/] in the. Uh@fp, <boot>.

uh@fp bachgen a   # mae   ci   yn   gwisgo y   botel   ar y   pen # a   mae   bachgen
         boy   and   is.3SG dog PROG wear   the \bottle(f) on the head and is.3SG boy
Uh@fp boy and, a dog is wearing the bottle on the head, and a boy is,

um@fp # uh@fp # yn   galw ar y [/] ar y   brogau ## mae   ci   wedi cwympo o   ’r
 --   PROG call on the on the frogs   is.3SG dog PRF fall   from the
um@fp, uh@fp, calling on the [/] on the frogs. A dog has fallen from the

ffenestr a # ar y # um@fp [/] ar y tir ## mae   bachgen bach yn um@fp # um@fp <oh what’s
window   and on the   on the land is.3SG boy   little PROG
window and, on the, um@fp on the land. A little boy is um@fp, um@fp <oh what’s

he doing I’m not quite sure what he’s doing> (xxx) <oh> wedi torri   y   botel <ya I put my
 --   PRF break the \bottle(f)
he doing I’m not quite sure what he’s doing> (xxx) <oh> broken the bottle <ya I put my

finger over the bottle> # uh@fp ## uh@fp mae   ci   yn   licio y &bach y   bachgen bach
 --   is.3SG dog PROG like the   the boy   little
finger over the bottle>, uh@fp. Uh@fp a dog id liking the &bach the little boy

uh@fp # maen nhw yn   galw ar [//] am   y brogau # yn y   coeden ## uh@fp mae
         is.3PL they PROG call   on   about the frogs   in the tree(f)   is.3SG
uh@fp, they are calling on [//] about the frogs, in the tree. Uh@fp a

pilipala uh@fp # yn [/] yn y   awyr # a   bachgen bach yn   galw # lawr y twll ## a &c #
butterfly   in   in the air   and boy   little PROG call   down the hole   and
butterfly uh@fp, in [/] in the air, and a little boy calls, down the hole. And &c,

cwningen # [/] cwningen wedi # dod   mas o   'r twll ## uh@fp mae ci yn <bark>-io
rabbit   rabbit   PRF   come out from the hole   is.3SG dog PROG   -INF
a rabbit, [/] rabbit, come out of the hole. Uh@fp a dog is <bark>ing

am   y # oh@fp # pilipala ## mae uh@fp # bachgen bach yn   dringo lan y # [/] y coed
about the   butterfly is.3SG   boy   little PROG climb up the   the trees
about the, oh@fp, butterfly. A little boy uh@fp is climbing up the, [/] the trees

[//] coeden <no that's a back> (ie coeden # cefn yw <back>) cefn <is back ya> ##
     tree   ya tree   back COP   back
[//] tree <no that's a back> (ya tree, back is <back>) back <is back ya>.

uh@fp mae   hwdihw   uh@fp yn   dod mas o   'r nyth yn y   coeden a   bachgen
      is.3SG xxx [%gwdihw - owl] PROG come out from the nest in the tree(f) and boy
Uh@fp an [owl] uh@fp is coming out of the nest in the tree and a little boy

bach wedi cwympo lawr # uh@fp # pilipala um@fp # <to chase> # <chas>-io uh@fp ar
little PRF fall   down   butterfly   -INF   on
has fallen down, uh@fp, a butterfly um@fp, <to chase>, [chas]ing uh@fp,

ôl   y   ci ## um@fp mae   hwdihw # uh@fp # yn <atack>-io y   bachgen bach xxx ##
track the dog   is.3SG xxx [%gwdihw - owl] PROG   -INF the boy   little
behind the dog. Um@fp, an [owl], uh@fp, is <atack>ing the little boy xxx.

a   bachgen bach ar y # um@fp # uh@fp carreg   mawr ## um@fp # uh@fp <don't know deer>
and boy   little on the   stone(f) big
And a little boy on the, um@fp, uh@fp big stone. Um@fp, uh@fp <don't know deer>.

bachgen bach wedi um@fp # dringo lan yr   anifail ## (carw) carw # [//] dringo lan y   carw
   boy   little PRF   CLIMB up the animal   stag   stag   climb up the stag
A little boy has um@fp, climbed up the animal. (Stag) stag, [//] climbs up the stag

[/] lan y   carw ## a &c [//] mae   carw yn   rhedeg gyda bachgen bach uh@fp # a   'r ci ##
    up the stag   is.3SG stag PROG run   with boy   little   and the dog
[/] up the stag. And &c [//] a stag is running with a little boy uh@fp, and the dog.

um@fp ## tynnu # <to throw?> tynnu y   bachgen bach uh@fp lawr uh@fp y   cwm ## <getting
          pull   pull the boy   little   down   the valley
Um@fp. Pull, <to throw?> pull the little boy uh@fp down uh@fp the valley. <Getting

good this story> ## a   bachgen wedi # cwympo yn y   dŵr ## uh@fp # mae   ci wedi dringo
                        and boy   PRF   fall   in the water   is.3SG dog PRF climb
good this story>. And a boy has, fallen in the water. Uh@fp, a dog has climbed

lan y   bachgen bach ar y [//] ar ei pren   e ## mae   'r bachgen bach wedi
up the boy   little on the   on his wood [%*pen*- head] he   is.3SG the boy   little PRF
up the little boy on the [//] on his wood. The little boy has

gweud <sh> # a   dringo lan y [/] y pren ## oh@fp dyma fe # dau brogau # gyda teulu ##
say   and climb up the the wood   here he   two frogs   with family
said <sh>, and climbed up the [/] the wood. Oh@fp here he is, two frogs, with a family.

uh@fp chwech brogau bach ## <hooray> ## um@fp # mae   bachgen bach # uh@fp ## <to
        six   frogs   little   is.3SG boy   little
Uh@fp six little frogs. <Hooray>. Um@fp, a little boy, uh@fp, <to

keep? I don't know # to keep # has kept one of the> brogau [//] un brogau <sorry>
                                                 froga   one frogs
keep? I don't know, to keep, has kept one of the> frogs [//] one frog <sorry>.

[% *broga*, *brogaod* - frog, frogs; *-au* is a reproductive plural ending in Welsh, though it is not the correct plural for broga]

oedd uh@fp bachgen bach yn uh@fp eistedd ar y   llawr gyda 'i   ci   a   'i # ffrog ##
was.3SG boy   little PROG   sit   on the floor with his dog and his   frog
A little boy was uh@fp sitting on the ground with his dog and his # frog.

(ffrog yn   iawn) ffrog <is it> # <ok> ## dw   i ddim yn   gwybod # (broga) oh@fp <ok> #
 frog PRED okey frog   is.1SG I NEG PROG know   frog
(Frog's ok) frog <is it>, <ok>. I don't know, (frog) oh@fp <ok>,

<alright> mwy o geiriau anifailiad ## uh@fp # wel # aeth   y   bachgen bach i uh@fp cysgu
          more of words   animals   well went.3SG the boy   little to   sleep
<alright> more animal words. Uh@fp, well, the little boy went to uh@fp sleep

ac um@fp # uh@fp diancodd   y ffrainc [//] y ffrog mas o   'i # botel   ac uh@fp wedyn
and   escaped.3SG the France   the frog out from his \bottle(f) and   then
and um@fp, uh@fp the France [//] the frog escaped out of his, bottle and uh@fp then,

um@fp # dihunodd y   bachgen bach yn y bore   a oedd   ei ci ar ei [//] ar y
--   awoke.3SG the boy   little in the morning and was.3SG his dog on his   on the
um@fp, the little boy woke up in the morning and his dog was on his [//] on the

gwely gyda fe <and> um@fp # sylweddolodd e bod   y # beth yw 'r gair eto   a[m]
bed   with he   realized.3SG   he is.COMP the what COP the word again for
bed with him <and> um@fp, he realized that the, what's the word again for

ffrog? (broga) [/] broga wedi mynd ## sylwodd   e 'n   disgwyl am   pob   fath uh@fp #
frog   frog   frog PRF go   noticed.3SG he PROG look   about every \sort
frog? (frog) [/] frog had gone. He noticed looking for every sort uh@fp,

dros yr ystafell gwely uh@fp i e [/] i um@fp [/] i trio ffeindio 'r   y broga # ac uh@fp #
over the room   bed   to he to   to try find   the the frog   and
over the bedroom uh@fp to he [/] to um@fp [/] to try to find the the frog, and uh@fp,

aeth   e i ffenest a um@fp edrychodd e yn y ble   dw i 'n   dod yn Cymru
went.3SG he to window and   looked.3SG he in the where is.1SG PROG come in Wales
he went to a window and um@fp, he looked in the where I come in Wales

maen nhw 'n   dweud disgwyl yn lle   edrych <so> dw   i 'n   gwybod bod <it's>
is.3PL they PROG say   look   in place look   is.1SG I PROG know is.COMP
they say 'disgwyl' insted of 'edrych' <so> I know that <it's>

disgwyl <everywhere else in Wales is expects> ond <Glen Amman> mae   'n   <mean> yr
look   but   is.3SG PROG   the
'disgwyl' <everywhere else in Wales is expects> but <Glen Amman> it means the

un [/] yr un peth â <ya> mae   llawer o # <ya> gair wedi newydd <so> (xxx) <ya so>
one   the one thing as   is.3SG many of   word PRF new [%*newid* - change]
same [/] the same thing as <ya> there are lots of, <ya> [changed] word[s] <so> (xxx) <ya so>

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uh@fp aeth   e ffenest a [/] a   disgwylodd e   mas i uh@fp trio gweld y [/] y   broga #
--   went.3SG he window and and look.3SG   he out to   try see   the the frog
uh@fp he went window and [/] and he looked out to uh@fp try to see the [/] the frog,

ac uh@fp cwympodd y   ci mas o   ffenest # <and> uh@fp # gyda botel ar ei ben   e #
and   fell.3SG   the dog out from window   with \bottle on his \head he
and uh@fp the dog fell out of the window, <and> uh@fp, with a bottle on his head,

<so> uh@fp # a   torrodd   y ben [//] uh@fp torrodd y   botel <rather> ar y [/] ar y   tir #
--   and broke.3SG the \head(f)   broke   the \bottle(f)   on the on the ground
<so> uh@fp, and he broke the head [//] uh@fp he broke the bottle <rather> on the [/] on the

<and> uh@fp # am ryw   reswm oedd   y [/] oedd   y bachgen yn   edrych yn <hurt>
           for \some \reason was.3SG the   was.3SG the boy   PROG look   PRED
ground, <and> uh@fp, for some reason was [/] the boy was looking <hurt>

at y ci a   mi credu bod   e 'n uh@fp tipyn-bach yn um@fp uh@fp dyw   e
at the dog and AFF believe is.COMP he PRED   little-bit PRED   is.3SG.NEG he
at the dog and I think that he is uh@fp a little bit um@fp uh@fp he doesn't

ddim yn uh@fp hoffi bod   y botel   wedi torri ## <so> aeth   e mas i 'r um@fp [/] i
NEG PROG   like is.COMP the \bottle(f) PRF break   went.3SG he out to the   to
uh@fp like that the bottle has broken. <So> he went out to the um@fp [/] to

'r um@fp uh@fp # cefn-gwlad   ac um@fp dechreuodd e uh@fp # gweiddi ar y broga # ac
the   back-country(f) and   began.3SG he   shout on the frog   and
the um@fp uh@fp, back country and um@fp he began uh@fp, to shout on the frog, and

uh@fp eh@fp ## ac oedd   e 'n um@fp edrych lawr twll ar y   tir um@fp <and>
--   and was.3SG he PROG   look   down hole on the land
uh@fp eh@fp. And he was um@fp looking down a hole on the land um@fp <and>

uh@fp # ar yr un   tro dechreuodd y ci   i uh@fp um@fp chwarae gyda uh@fp <now
--   on the one turn began.3SG the dog to   play   with
uh@fp, at the same time the dog began to uh@fp um@fp play with uh@fp <now

beehives> beth yw 'r gair am <beehives?> (xxx) dw   i 'n   gwybod y gair am <bees>
--   what COP the word for   is.1SG I PROG know   the word for
beehives> what is the word for <beehives?> (xxx) I know the word for <bees>

(gwenyn?) gwenyn yw   e? (xxx) <ok> gwenyn <ok> # <ya> xxx dw   i ddim yn
 bees   bees   COP he   bees   is.1SG I NEG PROG
(bees?) Bees is it? (xxx) <ok> bees <ok>, <ya> xxx I don't

gwybod o-'n   i 'n [//] pan o-'n   i 'n um@fp ifanc o-'n   nhw 'n uh@fp dysgu
know   was-1SG I PRED when was-1SG I PRED   young was-3PL they PROG   teach
know I was [//] when I was um@fp young they uh@fp taught

fi uh@fp cân   am uh@fp (xxx) gwenyn ond fi 'di cofio   beth yw e <so ya> <so>
I   sone about   bees   but I PRF remember what COP he
me uh@fp a song about uh@fp (xxx) bees but I have remembered what it is <so ya> <so>

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uh@fp oedd   y [/] oedd   y uh@fp uh@fp [//] aeth   y um@fp gwenyn mas o   'u
--   was.3SG the   was.3SG the   went.3SG the   bees   out from their
uh@fp the [/] the uh@fp uh@fp [//] the um@fp bees went out from their

cof   a o-'n   nhw ddim yn   moyn cael eu uh@fp um@fp # uh@fp <disturb>-o   gan
memory and was-3PL they NEG PROG want get their   -INF by
memory and they didn't want to be uh@fp um@fp, uh@fp <disturb>ed by

y   ci # ar un y tro # uh@fp oh@fp fi 'n   credu   mae [/] mae   rhyw-beth wedi dod
the dog   on one the time   I PROG believe is.3SG is.3SG some-\thing PRF come
the dog, at the same time, uh@fp oh@fp I think something has [/] has come

mas o   'r   ti[r] a um@fp # cnoi uh@fp y   bachgen ar y [//] ar ei   trwyn e # <so> beth
out from the land and   bit   the boy   on the   on his nose he   what
out of he land and um@fp, biten uh@fp the boy on the [//] on his nose. <So> what

yw 'na te? <vole?> (cwningen?) beth yw   e? (xxx) <ok> (xxx) <oh ok> (xxx) dw   i 'm
COP that then   rabbit   what COP he   is.1SG I NEG
is that then? <vole?> (a rabbit?) what is it? (xxx) <ok> (xxx) <oh ok> (xxx) I don'e

gwybod beth   mae   o yn Saesneg (xxx) # <so> uh@fp uh@fp uh@fp dringodd   y
know   what is.3SG he in English   climbed.3SG the
know what it is in English (xxx), <so> uh@fp uh@fp uh@fp the boy climbed

bachgen lan y uh@fp [/] lan y uh@fp uh@fp [/] y   coeden #   um@fp ac oedd   y ci yn
boy   up the   up the   the tree(f)   and was.3SG the dog PROG
up the uh@fp [/] up the uh@fp uh@fp [/] the tree, um@fp and the dog was

trio neud nawr neu ffaelu neud e anodd y # beth yw 'r gair # gwenyn # &gwenni
try do   now or fail   do   he dificult the what COP the word   bees
trying to do now or failing to do is difficult the, what's the word, bees, &gwenni

(cwningen?) cwningen <ok> yn   dilyn e ## []n nhw mas eu   cof ## <ya> # <so> rhedodd
 rabbit   rabbit   PROG follow he   xxx they out their memory   ran.3SG
rabbit? Rabbit <ok> follow him. They [] out their memory. <Ya>, <so> Uh@fp

uh@fp y ci um@fp # yn   wyllt nawr ## um@fp ac uh@fp y   coeden ## uh@fp aeth   y
--   the dog   ADV \wild now   the tree(f)   went.3SG the
the dog ran um@fp wildly now. Um@fp and uh@fp the tree. Uh@fp the boy went

bachgen lan ## mae   <crickey what's owl?> (gwdihw?) gwdihw? (neu tylluan?) <ok> gwdihw
boy   up   is.3SG   owl   owl   or owl   owl
up. <Crickey what's owl?> (owl?) owl? (or owl?) <ok> owl,

oh@fp nawr fi 'n &cof fi 'n   gwdihw <ya> ## <so> oedd   y   gwdihw yn [/] yn   byw
        now I PRED   I PRED owl   was.3SG the owl   PROG PROG live
oh@fp now I &cof I owl <ya>. <So> the owl was [/] was living

yna   a mae   e [//] daeth   e mas o   'i uh@fp [/] o   'i twll mae 'n uh@fp mas ei
there and is.3SG he   came.3SG he out from his   from his hole is.3SG PROG   out his
there and he [//] he came out of his uh@fp [/] from his hole he's uh@fp out his

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gof   hefyd <and> oedd   e 'n uh@fp mynd i ymladd y [/] y   bachgen ac oedd
\memory also   was.3SG he PROG   go   to fight   the the boy   and was.3SG
memory also and he was uh@fp going to fight the [/] the boy and the [/]

y [/] y um@fp cafodd y bachgen ei ofn   yna <so> dringodd   e lan uh@fp uh@fp
the   the   got.3SG the boy   his fear there   climbed.3SG he up
the was um@fp the boy got his fear [%cafodd ... *ei ofni* - was frightened] there <so> he climbed

tyllydd fach ## daeth uh@fp y   ci 'n ôl   a dyw   e ddim yn   edrych yn   dda
xxx   \little came.3SG   the dog on track and is.3SG.NEG he NEG PROG look   PRED \good
up uh@fp uh@fp a little xxx. The dog uh@fp came back and he doesn't look good

o-gwbl ## <so> ond # ond # mae   bachgen mewn trafferth eto   mae # uh@fp [/]
at-all   but   but is.3SG boy   in   trouble   again because is.3SG
at all. <So> but, but, a boy is in trouble again because he, uh@fp, [/]

mae   y   xxx wedi [/] wedi um@fp dringo nawr # oedd   e 'n   tŷ   i um@fp
is.3SG the   PRF   PRF   climb now   was.3SG he PRED house to
uh@fp the xxx has [/] has um@fp climbed now, it was house to um@fp

<right go on> (carw?) carw <right ha ha> ## uh@fp carw ## ac uh@fp <so> um@fp &sef #
--   stag   stag   stag   and
<right go on> (stag?) stag <right ha ha>. Uh@fp stag. And uh@fp <so> um@fp &sef,

&sefyllo sefyll-odd   lan y   carw ac um@fp gyda 'i [//]
      xxx-3.SG.PAST [%*sefyll* - stand, *safodd* - stood] up the stag and   with his
&sefyllo [he] stood up the stag and um@fp with his [//]

gyda bachgen ar ei ben   e # ac uh@fp dechreuodd e rhedeg ryw-le   i uh@fp ochr
with boy   on his \head he and   began.3SG he run   some-where to   side
with the boy on his head, and uh@fp he began to run womewhere to uh@fp side

uh@fp [/] ochr y <cliff> <sorry xxx> fi yn # a   stopiodd   e yn sydyn a #
--   side the   I in   and stopped.3SG he ADV sudden and
uh@fp [/] side of the <cliff> <sorry> my xxx, and he stopped suddenly and,

torrodd   e y bachgen um@fp o 'i ben   lawr uh@fp uh@fp ooh@fp [/] lawr y # [/]
broke.3SG he the boy   from his \head down   down the
he broke the boy um@fp from his head down uh#fp uh@fp ooh@fp [/] down the, [/]

lawr y # fi gwybod y gair ond fi 'di cofio   fe # <so cliff> (xxx) <ok> # fi yn
down the I know   the word but I PRF remember he   I PROG
down the, I know the word but I've remembered it, <so cliff> (xxx) <ok>, I know

gwybod e # fi 'di [/] fi 'di # oh@fp lawr y <cliff anyway> # <ya> ## <so> um@fp cwympodd
know   he I PRF   I PRF   down the   fell.3SG
it, I've I've, oh@fp down the <cliff anyway>, <ya>. <So> um@fp he fell

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e   trwy   'r <air> # a   cwympodd e   ar y uh@fp uh@fp mewn afon neu # [/] neu llyn
he through the   and fell.3SG   he on the   in   river or   or lake
through the <air>, and he fell on the uh@fp uh@fp in a river or, [/] or little lake

bach # ac uh@fp oedd   y ci i-ddo fe hefyd oedd   y ci yn uh@fp wel dw   i
little and   was.3sg the dog to-him he also   was.3PL the dog PROG   well is.1SG I
and uh@fp the dog was to him also the dog was uh@fp well I don't

ddim yn   credu bod   e 'n   gallu oifed i 'si   'n   gweud oife[d] yn <Glen
NEG PROG believe is.COMP he PROG can   swim I is.3SG.COND PROG say   swim   in
think that he can swim I'd say 'oife[d]' in <Glen

Amman> hefyd # <so to> bob [//] pob rhan arall yn Gymru sy   'n   gweud nofio #
--   also   \each each part other in \Wales is.3SG.REL PROG say   swim
Amman> also, <so to> every [//] every other part in Wales which says 'nofio',

yn <Glen Amman> sy   'n   gweud &oif &of oifed <so> oedd   e yn   ffaelu oifed
in   is.3SG.REL PROG say   swim   was.3SG he PROG fail   swim
in <Glen Amman> which says &oif &oif swim <so> he was failing swim

y ci ddim yn   gallu oifed <so> oedd   e 'n   uh@fp uh@fp eistedd ar y   ben   y
the dog NEG PROG able swim   was.3SG he PROG   sit   on the \head(m) the
the dog can't swim <so> he was uh@fp uh@fp sitting on the head of the

bachgen hefyd # ac uh@fp # am ryw   reswm mae [//] oedd   y # [/] oedd   y bachgen yn
boy   also   and   for \some \reason is.3SG was.3SG the   was.3SG the boy   PROG
boy also, and uh@fp, for some reason there's [//] was, [/] the boy was

gweud wrth y   ci i paid yn   neud sŵn # ac uh@fp maen nhw 'n # dringo dros um@fp
say   to   the dog to don't PROG make sound and   is.3PL they PROG climb over
telling the dog to not make a sound, snd uh@fp they, climb over um@fp,

wel coeden sy   wedi marw # ah@fp ar y [/] ar y [/] y [//] ar ochr arall yw um@fp y
  well tree   is.3SG.REL PRF die   on the   on the   the   on side other COP   the
well a tree which has died, ah@fp on the [/] on the [/] the [//] on another side um@fp the

&brog broga gyda 'i wodgen e   neu gwraig e   a   mae   llawer o plant 'da nhw hefyd
--   frog with his wife   he or wife   he and is.3SG many of children with them also
&brog frog with his wife or his wife and there are many children with them also

<so> oedd   y bachgen a 'r y ci yn um@fp balch iawn i gweld hwn ## ac uh@fp #
     was.3SG the boy   and the the dog PRED   glad very to see   this(m) and
<so> the boy and the the dog were um@fp very glad to see this [frog]. And uh@fp,

nawr mae xxx mynd 'n ôl   gyda 'i broga dechreuodd e   gyda a   mae   e 'n um@fp uh@fp
now is.3SG   go   in track with his frog began.3PL he with and is.3SG he PROG
now xxx go back with his frog he started with and he's um@fp uh@fp

dweud ffarwelio   i 'r uh@fp um@fp teulu broga sy   'n um@fp sefyll ar y   coed
say   say goodbye to the   family frog is.3SG.REL PROG   stand on the trees
saying sating goodbye to the uh@fp family of the frog who um@fp is sitting on the trees.

um@fp un um@fp noswaith dywyll um@fp oedd   y   bachgen bach yn ei [/] yn ei um@fp
--   one   evening(f) \dark   was.3SG the boy   little in his   in his
Um@fp one um@fp dark evening um@fp the little boy was in his [/] in his um@fp

stafell uh@fp cysgu um@fp yn   siarad <dw i 'n   meddwl> gyda rhyw gi [//] ci   bach #
room   sleep   PROG speak is.1SG PROG thing   with some \dog dog little
uh@fp sleeping room um@fp speaking <I think> with some dog [//] little dog,

a   oedd   hefyd um@fp uh@fp rhyw <pot> bach wedi cael neud o   gwydr um@fp oedd
and was.3SG also   some   little PRF get   make from glass   was.3SG
and there was also um@fp some little <pot> made of glass um@fp there was

um@fp broga yn y <pot> 'ma a   mae 'r ci [//] oedd   y   ci yn   edrych mewn um@fp
          frog in the   here and is.3SG the dog   was.3SG the dog PROG look   in
um@fp a frog in this pot and the dog is [//] the og was looking in um@fp

i weld beth oedd   yno ## wedyn aeth   y   bachgen bach i gysgu # aeth   e   orwedd
to \see what was.SG there   then   went.3SG the boy   little to \sleep went.3SG he \lie
to see what was there. Then the little boy went to sleep, he went to lie down

ar ei wely a   'r ci gyda fe # ond amser o-'n   nhw cysgu mae 'r broga yn um@fp trio
on his \bed and the dog with he but time was.3PL they sleep is.3SG the frog PROG   try
on his bed and the dog with him, but when they were sleeping the frog um@fp tries

dod   allan o   'r <pot> gwydr ## um@fp wedyn ni pan ddihunodd y ci   a 'r
come out   from the   glass   then we when \awoke.3SG the dog and the
to come out of the glass <pot>. Um@fp then when the dog and the boy woke up

bachgen wel-on nhw bod   y broga wedi diflannu ## felly aeth   rhyw [//] aeth   y
boy   saw-3PL they is.COMP the frog PRF disappear   so   went.3SG some   went.3SG the
they saw that the frog had disappeared. So some went [//] the dog went

ci mewn i [/] i 'r <pot> gwydr um@fp i weld dw   ddim yn   gallu gweld hynny a
dog in   to to the   glass   to \see is.1SG NEG PROG able see   that and
into [/] into the glass <pot> um@fp to see I can't see that and

o-'n   nhw 'n   weld xxx o-hyd ond nid oedd   yno ar uh@fp rhoddodd   ei [/] ei [/]
was-3PL they PROG \see   still but NEG was.3SG there on   put.3SG.PAST his   his
they were seeing xxx still but he wasn't there on uh@fp [he] put his [/] his [/]

ei ben mewn i 'r um@fp <pot> gwydr um@fp oh@fp &th methu cael ei ben   allan # a
his \head in   to the   glass   fail   get his \head out   and
his head into the um@fp glass <pot> um@fp oh@fp &th failing to get his head out, and

dy-xxx-yn nhw 'n   edrych allan trwy   'r ffenest i weld ble oedd   y broga wedi
is.3PL.NEG they PROG look   out   through the window to \see where was.3SG the frog PRF
They [did]n't look out through the window to see where the frog had

mynd ## ond um@fp oedd   y <pot> yn   dal   i fod ar pen y ci bach ## a dyma
go   but   was.3SG the   PROG continue to \be on head the dog little   and here's
gone. But um@fp the <pot> was still on the little dog's head. And here's

'r ci bach yn [/] yn   neidio allan o   'r ffenest a 'r uh@fp <pot> o-hyd yn [//] oedd
the dog little PROG PROG jump   out from 'r the window and the   still   PRED was.3SG
the little dog jumping [/] jumping out of the window and the un@fp <pot> still [//] it was

e amgylch ei ben a   bachgen yn   meddwl wel ble   mae 'r broga wedi mynd #
he circuit his \head and boy   PROG think   well where is.3SG the frog PRF go
[a]round his head and a boy thinks 'well where has the frog gone',

a daeth   e allan wedi 'ny trwy 'r ffenest <rw   i'n   meddwl> # um@fp a
and came.3SG he out   after that through the window is.1SG I PROG think   and
and he came out after that through the window <I think>, um@fp and

dal y ci # um@fp ## roedd   e 'n   balch iawn i weld bod   y [/] y <pot> gwydr wedi
hold the dog   was.3SG he PRED glad very to \see is.COMP the   the   glass PRF
holding the dog, um@fp. He was very pleased to see that the [/] the glass <pot> was

um@fp [/] wedi torri # ac um@fp oedd [//] felly oedd   e 'n   gallu cael ei ben   allan o
--   PRF break and   was.3SG so   was.3SG he PROG able get his \head out   from
um@fp [/] was broken, and um@fp he was [//] thus he was able to get his head out of

'r <pot> # a   wedyn daeth   y ddau lawr y rhiw # um@fp tuag at y   goedwig i weld
the   and then came.3SG the \two(m) down the hill   to   to the \woods(f) to \see
the <pot>, and then the two came down the hill, um@fp toward the woods to see

ble   oedd y broga # a   mae 'r bachgen yn   gweiddi ble   wyt ti ble   wyt
where was the frog   and is.3SG the boy   PROG shout   where is.2SG you where is.2SG
where the frog was, and the boy is shouting 'where are you where are

ti a mae 'r [/] mae 'r um@fp um@fp ci yn   edrych i-fyny oherwydd oedd [/] oedd
you and is.3SG the is.3SG the   dog PROG look   up   because was.3SG was.3SG
you' and the [/] the um@fp um@fp dog looks up because there was [/] there was

lot   o um@fp # <bees bees> dw   i 'm gofio   'r gair um@fp um@fp dod allan o
many of   is.1SG I NEG \remember the word   come out from
a lot of um@fp, <bees bees> I don't remember the word um@fp um@fp coming out of

'r coed   <oh ya> xxx o   cwch gwenyn neu uh@fp yn   hongian wrth [/] wrth y goeden
the trees   from hive bees   or   PROG hang   by   by the \tree(f)
the trees <oh ya> xxx from a beehive or uh@fp hanging by [/] by the tree

un o 'r coed # um@fp mae 'r gwenyn yn   dod allan o   'r um@fp cwch gwenyn
one of the trees   is.3SG the bees PROG come out from the   hive bees
one of the trees, um@fp the bees come out of this um@fp beehive,

'ma # a   o-'n   nhw 'n   gweiddi # [/] gweiddi rhyw-beth yn   uchel ## <so> aeth-on
here and was-3PL they PROG shout   shout   some-thing ADV high   went-3PL
and they were shouting, [/] shouting something loudly. <So> they went

nhw lawr i weld um@fp cwch gwenyn oedd yn hongian ar y &ti [/] ar y [/] ar y [/] ar
they down to \see hive bees was.3SG PROG hang on the on the on the on
down to see um@fp a beehive [that] was hanging on the &ti [/] on the [/] on the [/] on

um@fp y goeden a mae 'r &b uh@fp ci bach yn dechrau cyfarth ar y gwenyn #
the \tree(f) and is.3SG the dog little PROG begin bark on the bees
um@fp the tree and the &b uh@fp little dog starts barking at the bees,

a maen nhw'n [//] dyma nhw 'n um@fp dod allan uh@fp hedfan i-ffwrdd # a
and is.3PL they PROG here's they PROG come out fly away and
and they [//] here they um@fp come out uh@fp flying away, and

mae 'r bachgen wedi sylwi bod twll bach yn y ddaear # mae 'n yn meddwl <oh>
is.3SG the boy PRF notice is.COMP hole little in the \earth(f) is.3SG PROG PROG think
the boy has notices that there is a little hole in the ground, he thinks <oh>

ni beth sydd [/] beth sy 'n byw 'na # a dyma rhyw anifail bach yn dod
xxx what is.3SG.REL what is.3SG.REL PROG live there and here's some animal little PROG come
'what [/] what lives there', and here's some little animal coming

allan o 'r twll # um@fp wedi &ca cael ei [/] ei # ei xxx <rw i 'n meddwl> gyda
out from the hole PRF get his his his is.1SG I PROG think with
out of the hole, um@fp xxx-ed <I think> with

'r holl gweiddi oedd 'na # beth oedd yr &ani anifail [/] anifail bach 'ma dw i 'm
the all shout was.3SG there what was.3SG the animal animal little here is.1SG I NEG
all the shouting there was, what was this &ani animal [/] little animal I'm not

yn siwr # fallai mai wenci bach yw e # dw i 'm [/] dw i 'm yn siwr # uh@fp
PRED sure maybe is.COMP \weasel little COP he is.1SG I NEG is.1SG I NEG PRED sure
sure, maybe it's a weasel, I'm not [/] I'm not sure, uh@fp

dyma nhw 'n gadael um@fp y twll a mae 'r um@fp # ci wedi gweld bod y
here's they PROG leave the hole and is.3SG the dog PRF see is.COMP the
here they are leaving um@fp the hole and the um@fp, dog has seen that the

cwch gwenyn wedi syrthio lawr o 'r goeden # a wedi syrthio lawr i 'r [/] i 'r um@fp
hive bees PRF fall down from the \tree(f) and PRF fall down to the to the
beehive has fallen down from the tree, and fallen down to the [/] to the um@fp

glaswellt # yna aeth y bachgen i-fyny i 'r goeden fel mae 'n um@fp
grass there went.3SG the boy up to the \tree(f) like is.3SG PROG
grass, there the boy went up to the tree like he's um@fp

dechrau dringo # a twll yn y goeden # aeth e mewn &e edrych-odd e mewn i weld
begin climb and hole in the \tree(f) went.3SG he in looked-3SG he in to \see
starting to climb, and a hole in the tree, he went in &e he looked in to see

beth oedd yn y twll 'ma # a dyma fe 'n syrthio &n- 'n-ôl mewn &s oedd e
what was.3SG in the hole here and here's he PROG fall back in was.3SG he
what was in this hole, and here he is falling &n back in &s he was

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’n   &s mewn xxx # a [//] ac   yn   gweld bod um@fp tylluan yno a   mae   ’r dylluan
PROG in   and and PROG see   is.COMP   owl   there and is.3SG the \owl(f)
&s in xxx, and [//] and seeing that there is um@fp an owl there and the owl

yn   dod allan â   ’i adenydd um@fp ar-led yn   barod i hedfan i-ffwrdd # a   mae
PROG come out   with his wings   spread PRED \ready to fly   away   and is.3SG
comes out with his wings spread ready to fly away, and

‘r ci yn   rhedeg i-ffwrdd a   ‘r gwenyn yn eu [//] yn   mynd ar ei ôl   e # a   ’r
the dog PROG run   away   and the bees   in their PROG go   on his track he and the
the dog is running away and the bees are [//] going after him, and the

bachgen ar y llawr   ar ei gefn # oedd   y ddau   wedi cael sioc <w   i ’n   meddwl>
boy   on the ground on his \back was.3SG the \two(m) PRF   get shock is.1SG I PROG think
boy on the ground on his back, the two had gotten a shock <I think>.

a # dyma ’r dylluan yn   dod um@fp ar ôl   y [/] y bachgen yn   dilyn e a   mae
    and here’s the \owl(f) PROG come   on track the the boy   PROG follow he and is.3SG
And, here’s the owl coming um@fp after the [/] the boy following him and

‘r bachgen <wi ’n   credu> braidd yn   ofn ar-no   fe ## a   dyma ’r bachgen dechrau
the boy   is.1SG PROG believe rather PRED fear on-him he   and here’s the boy   begin
the boy <I think> is rather [afraid]. And here’s the boy beginning

dringo i-fyny um@fp rhyw graig   fach a   ’r ci # yn   trio cuddio tu ôl   i ’r graig
climb up   some \rock(f) \little and the dog PROG try hide   side track to the \rock(f)
to climb up um@fp some little rock and the dog, trying to hide behind the rock

a   nawr mae ’r dylluan lan yn y [/] yn y goeden yn   edrych ar-nyn nhw ## a   tu   ôl
and now is.3SG the \owl(f) up in the in the \tree(f) PROG look   on-them they   and side track
and now the owl is up in the [/] in the tree watching them. And behind

i ’r graig # beth aeth   allan ond ## um@fp gafr? nage dw   i ’m yn   siwr y gair
to the \rock(f) what went.3SG out   but   goat no   is.1SG I NEG PRED sure the word
the rock, what went out but. um@fo A goat? no I’m not sure of the word

um@fp <stag> um@fp um@fp a   mae   ’r a [/] mae   ’r um@fp um@fp y <stag> mae   e
--   and is.3SG the and is.3SG the   the   is.3SG he
um@fp <stag> um@fp um@fp and the [/] and the um@fp um@fp the <stag> he is

‘n   dod allan o &tu tu ôl   i ’r graig   ac yn   rhedeg i-ffwrdd ac yn   [/] ac yn
PROG come out from   side track to the \rock(f) and PROG run   away   and PROG and PROG
coming out of &tu behind the rock and running away and [/] and

um@fp mynd ar ôl   y ci # a   mae   ’r &ba uh@fp bachgen bach ar gefn gwddf y <stag>
       go on track the dog and is.3SG the   boy   little on \back neck the
um@fp going after the dog, a nd the &ba uh@fp little boy on the back of the neck of the <stag>

yma a   mae ’n [/] mae ’n   yn   rhedeg ac yn   dod yn um@fp yn-agos iawn i ochr
here and is.3SG PROG is.3SG PROG PROG run   and PROG come in   near   very to side
here and it’s [/] it’s running and coming um@fp very near to the side of

rhyw graig ac um@fp mae   ’r um@fp [//] mae e ’n   eitha &s [//] tipyn o serth
some \rock and   is.3SG the   is.3SG he PROG quite   bit of steep
some rock and um@fp the um@fp [//] it’s quite &s [//] it’s a bit of steep

ar ochr arall # felly mae   ’n um@fp [/] mae   ’n   ofn um@fp fi’n   credu bod   y [/]
on side other   so is.3SG PRED   is.3SG PRED fear   I PROG believe is.COMP the
on the other side, so he’s um@fp [/] he’s a fear um@fp<I think that> the [/]

y bachgen yn   ofnus iawn fallai naeth e niwed ei-hunan os aeth   y [/] yr uh@fp
the boy   PRED afraid very maybe did.3SG he injury him-self if went.3SG the   the
the boy is very afraid maybe he hurt himself if the [/] the uh@fp

anifail mynd lawr dros ochr y   graig ## a   wedyn # dyma ’r uh@fp gafr neu’r uh@fp <stag>
animal go   down over side the \rock(f) and then   here’s the   goat or   the
animal went go down over the side of the rock. And then, here’s the uh@fp goat or uh@fp <stag>

beth-bynnag yw ’r   gair Cymraeg um@fp ar tro # neu [/] ar <dw   i ’n   credu> mae
what-ever   COP the word Welsh   on turn or   on is.1SG I PROG believe is.3SG
whatever the Welsh word is um@fp on turn, or [/] on <I think> there’s

rhyw-sut o [/] o ’r [//] o tŷ   fallai wedi cael neud o   bren um@fp yno a mae ’r
some-how of   of the   of house maybe PRF get make from \wood   there and is.3SG the
somehow of [/] of the [//] of a house maybe made of wood um@fp there and the

bachgen nawr wedi syrthio o   gefn yr um@fp [/] y gafr ac yn   cwympo lawr o   ’r
boy   now PRF fall   from \back the   the goat and PROG fall   down from the
boy now has fallen from the back of um@fp [/] of the goat falling down from the

to   y tŷ   # a ’r ci hefyd ## a   dyma ’r bachgen xxx syrthio lawr # yn   cwympo i
roof the house and the dog also   and here’s the boy   fall   down PROG fall   to
roof of the house, and the dog also. And here’s teh boy xxx falling down, falling

mewn i llyn neu afon # a   ci bach ar ei [/] ar ei [/] ar ei ysgwydd e uh@fp oherwydd mae
in   to lake or river and dog little on his   on his   on his shoulder he   because is.3SG
into a lake or river, and a little dog on his [/] on his [/] on his shoulder uh@fp because

‘n um@fp [//] mae ’r ci yn   ofnus iawn # a   fi ’n   credu bod   y bachgen braidd
PRED   is.3SG the dog PRED afraid very and I PROG believe is.COMP the boy   rather
um@fp [//] the dog is very afraid, nd I think that the boy is rather

yn   bryderus hefyd ## mae ’r ddau   yn   dod allan <w-i   ’n   meddwl> um@fp
PRED \anxious also   is.3SG the \two(m) PROG come out is.1SG-I PROG think
worried also. The two are coming out <I think> um@fp

a   mae ’r bachgen yn   um@fp # [//] wedi dod allan o   ’r afon a mae ’r ci jyst
and is.3SG the boy   PROG   PRF come out from the river and is.3SG the dog just
and the boy is um@fp, [//] has come out of the river and the dog is just

yn   nofio tu ôl   i-ddo fe ac xxx dod   allan # a   wedyn mae 'r   ddau   yn   dal
PROG swim side track to-him he and   come out   and then is.3SG the \two(m) PROG hold
swimming behind him and xxx comes out, and then the two hold

mewn um@fp rhan o goeden um@fp # ac   yn [//] fi'n   credu bod   nhw 'n   nawr [/]
in   piece of \tree   and PROG I PROG believe is.COMP they PRED now
in um@fp a piece of a tree um@fp, and [//] I think that they now are

yn   iawn wedi dod   allan o   'r afon ## pan o-nyn   nhw 'n   mynd dros um@fp # [//]
PRED okey PRF come out from the river   when was-3PL they PROG go   over
ok having come out of the river. When they were going over the um@fp, [//]

dan o   'r goeden 'ma i 'r lawr   i 'r ochr arall dyna   nhw 'n   gweld y ddau
under from the \tree(f) here to the ground(m) to the side other there's they PROG see   the \two(m)
under from this tree down to the other side there they see the two,

llyffant <dw   i 'n   meddwl> yw 'r gair arall am broga um@fp mae   dau o nhw a
  frog   is.1SG I PROG think   COP the word other for frog   is.3SG two of they and
frog I think is the other word for frog um@fp two of them and

mae   teulu bach yna ## a # <oh> mae   'r ddau   yn   edrych yn [/] yn [//] ar-ddyn nhw
is.3SG family little there and   is.3SG the \two(m) PROG look   in   in   on-them they
there's a little family there. And, <oh> the two are looking in [/] in [//] at them and

ac yn   surpreis iawn a gweld y llyffantod mae   i-gyd ar ochr arall i 'r goeden ## a
and PRED surprise very and see the frogs   is.3SG all on side other to the \tree(f)   and
very surprise[d] and seeing the frogs they all are on the other side of the tree. And

wedyn dyma 'r um@fp bachgen a 'r ci bach yn   mynd 'n ôl   dros yr afon eto   ac
then here's the   boy   and the dog little PROG go   in track over the river again and
then here's the um@fp boy and the little dog going back over the river again and

yn um@fp # [/] yn   gweud <goodbye> wrth [/] wrth y uh@fp# brogaed yn   nhw? ## a
PROG   PROG say   to   to the   frogs   is.3PL they   and
um@fp, saying <goodbye> to [/] to the uh@fp, frogs are they? And

wedyn i um@fp dyma diwedd y stori a mae   'r um@fp [/] mae   'r ddau   o nhw
then to   here's end the story and is.3SG the   is.3SG the \two(m) of them
then to um@fp here's the end of the story and the um@fp [/] the two of them

'n   saff a mynd 'n ôl   adre   a gobeithio byddan   nhw 'n   byw yn [/] yn [/]
PRED safe and go   in track homewards and hopefully be.3PL.FUT they PROG live ADV ADV
safe and going back home and hopefully they will live [/] [/]

yn hapus ar ôl um@fp yr <adventure> 'ma
ADV happy on track   the   here
happily after um@fp this adventure.

um@fp dydw   i ddim yn   gwybod pob gair   anifeiliad (xxx) <ya ok> ## um@fp <k>
--   is.1SG.NEG I NEG PROG know   every word animals
Um@fp I don't know every animal word (xxx) <ya ok>. Um@fp <k>

mae   um@fp # [/] mae   bachgen um@fp yn ystafell gwely gyda 'r um@fp uh@fp [//] ei [/] ei [/]
is.3SG   is.3SG boy   in room(f) bed   with the   his his
A um#fp, [/] a boy um@fp is in a bedroom with the um@fp uh@fp [//] his [/] his

ei gi a 'r um@fp ffrog yn y   botel ## uh@fp mae [/] mae bachgen yn   cysgu ac uh@fp
his \dog and the   frog in the \bottle(f)   is.3SG is.3SG boy   PROG sleep and
[/] his dog and the um@fp frog in the bottle. Uh@fp a [/] a boy is sleeping and uh@fp

tra uh@fp [/] tra   mae   e 'n [/] yn [/] yn   cysgu uh@fp mae   ffrog yn um@fp um@fp [/]
while   while is.3SG he PROG PROG PROG sleep   is.3SG frog PROG
while uh@fp [/] while he's [/] he's [/] he's sleeping uh@fp a frog um@fp um@fp [/]

yn um@fp ffoi o   'r [/] o   'r botel   diflannu [//] yn   diflannu ## um@fp # yn y [/] yn y
PROG   flee from the from the \bottle(f) disappear   PROG disappear   in the in the
um@fp flees from the [/] from the bottle disappear [//] disappearing. Um@fp, in the [/] in the

bore # uh@fp # mae   bachgen yn um@fp [/] yn ei [//] yn   gweld bod   yr ffrog yn [/]
morning   is.3SG boy   PROG   PROG his PROG see   is.COMP the frog PROG
morning, uh@fp, a boy is um@fp is [//] sees that the frog is [/]

yn [//] wedi diflannu # mae   e 'n   trist &tr trist iawn ## um@fp mae   e 'n um@fp #[//] mae
PROG   PRF disappear is.3SG he PRED sad   sad very   is.3SG he PROG   is.3SG
is [//] has disappeared, he is sad &tr very sad. Um@fp he's um@fp, [//]

bachgen a 'r ci yn   chwilio bob-le   uh@fp i ffeindio'r uh@fp [/] y ffrog # ac um@fp
boy   and the dog PROG search every-place   to find   the   the frog and
a boy and the dog look everywhere uh@fp to find the uh@fp [/] the frog, and um@fp

mae   e 'n um@fp [//] dydy [/] dydy   ddim yn   gallu uh@fp ffeindio'r uh@fp[/]ffeindio
is.3SG he PROG   is.3SG.NEG is.3SG.NEG NEG PROG able   find   the   find
he's um@fp [//] can't [/] he can't uh@fp find the uh@fp [/] find

'r ffrog uh@fp &rh rhyw-le ## mae   yn   edrych yn y   stafell gwely # &edr edrych uh@fp
the frog   somewhere is.3SG PROG look   in the room(f) bed   look
the frog uh@fp somewhere. [He] looks in the bedroom, &edr looks uh@fp

[/] mae 'n   agor y ffenestr a chwilio tu uh@fp [/] tu   allan ## um@fp # mae   ci yn
    is.3SG PROG open the window and search side   side out   is.3SG dog PROG
[/] [he] opens the window and searches out uh@fp [/] outside. Um@fp, a dog

syrthio um@fp uh@fp o   'r [/] o   'r ffenestr # um@fp ar um@fp um@fp mae   [/] mae 'r
fall   from the from the window   on   is.3SG is.3SG the
falls um@fp uh@fp from the [/] from the window, um@fp on um@fp um@fp the [/] the

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rhaid   y   bachgen yn   yn dod   allan i [/] i ffeindio [/] i ffeindio ci ## um@fp ## mae
necessity the boy   PROG PROG come out   to to find   to find   dog   is.3SG
boy needs [to] come out to [/] to find [/] to find a dog. Um@fp. A

bachgen a   ci um@fp yn   mynd mas uh@fp i # edrych ar y   ffrog yn um@fp [/] yn y   coed
boy   and dog   PROG go   out   to look   on the frog in   in the trees
boy and a dog um@fp go out uh@fp to, look [for] the frog in um@fp [/] in the woods.

a &am # mae   hw yn [/] yn   gweld um@fp <bees> # um@fp gwybod yr [/] y [/] y   gair
   and   is.3SG they PROG PROG see   know   the the the word
And &am, they see [/] see um@fp <bees>, um@fp know the [/] the [/] the word

um@fp a   mae   hw ffeindio'r um@fp nyth [/] nyth <bees> ## um@fp mae   ci yn uh@fp
      and is.3SG they find   the   nest   nest   is.3SG dog PRED
um@fp and they find the um@fp nest [/] nest of <bees>. Um@fp a dog is uh@fp

diddorol iawn yn y [/] yn y [/] yn [/] yn nyth [/] nyth <bees> ## uh@fp # mae   bachgen yn
intersting very in the in the   in   in nest   nest   is.3SG boy   PROG
very interesting in the [/] in the [/] in [/] yn nest [/] nest of <bees>. Uh@fp, a boy is

edrych um@fp um@fp yn yr uh@fp um@fp [/] y   pren i [/] i um@fp # i [/] i [/] i ffeindio [/] i
look   in the   the wood to to   to to to find   to
looking um@fp um@fp in the uh@fp um@fp [/] the wood to [/] to um@fp, to [/] to [/] to find [/]

ffeindio'r   ffrog ## um@fp uh@fp mae   um@fp # um@fp [/] mae [/] mae   <bees> yn um@fp #
find   the frog   is.3sg   is.3SG is.3SG   PROG
to find the frog. Um@fp uh@fp are um@fp, um@fp [/] are [/] bees are um@fp,

<chase> beth yw <chase anyway> mae [/] mae 'n <chase> yr uh@fp [/] dilyn   yr [/] dilyn y [/]
--   what COP   is.3sg is.3SG PROG   the   follow the   follow the
<chase> what is <chase anyway> are [/] are chasing the uh@fp [/] following the [/] following the

dilyn   y [/] dilyn y ci a [/] a mae   bachgen yn [/] yn um@fp syrthio tu   allan y [/] y [/]
follow the follow the dog and and is.3SG boy   PROG PROG   fall   side out the the
[/] following the [/] following the dog and [/] and a boy is [/] is um@fp falling outside the [/] the

y [/] y   pren ## um@fp ## uh@fp yr uh@fp [/] yr <owl> uh@fp <owl> yn um@fp [/] yn dilyn
the the wood   the   the   PROG   PROG follow
[/] the [/] the wood. Um@fp. Uh@fp the uh@fp [/] the <owl> uh@fp <owl> um@f [/] follows

yr [/] yn   dilyn   y [/] yn   dilyn y bachgen ## um@fp yn   diweddar # um@fp # ceff? [/]
the   PROG follow the   PROG follow the boy   ADV recent   xxx
the [/] follows the [/] follows the boy. Um@fp recently, um@fp a xxx?

ceff yn yr [/] y # [//] mae 'r bachgen yn   ffeindio'r [/] ffeindio y ceff a   mae   ceff yn
xxx in the   the   is.3SG the boy   PROG find   the   find   the xxx and is.3SG xxx PROG
[/] a xxx in the [/] the, [//] the boy finds the [/] finds the xxx and a xxx

mynd # a   'r bachgen gyda [/] gyda e ond ## um@fp mae   uh@fp [/] mae 'r bachgen a
go   and the boy   with   with he but   is.3SG   is.3SG the boy   and
goes, and the boy with [/] with him but. Um@fp the uh@fp [/] the boy and

ci   yn   syrthio mewn um@fp ## um@fp [/] mewn [/] mewn pwll # mae   ’n   [//] mae [/] mae
dog PROG fall   in   in   in   pool is.3SG PROG is.3SG is.3SG
dog fall in um@fp. Um@fp [/] in [/] in a pool, there’s [//] they [/] they

hw   yn   &goly gwlyb iawn ## uh@fp yn y   diwedd # um@fp uh@fp mae   bachgen a   ’r
they PRED   wet   very   in the end   is.3SG boy   and the
are &goly very wet. Uh@fp in the end, um@fp uh@fp a boy and the

ci   yn   ffeindio’r um@fp uuh@fp pren <hollow> # ac   mae   uh@fp mae   hw ’n
dog PROG find   the   wood   and is.3SG   is.3SG they PROG
dog find the um@fp uuh@fp <hollow> wood, and they uh@fp they

ffeindio y   ffrog gyda [/] gyda ffrind bach ## a   ’i [//] yn y # [/] yn y   diwedd # pawb
find   the frog with   with friend little   and his   in the   in the end   everyone
find the frog with [/] with a little friend. And his [//] in the, [/] in the end, everyone

yn uh@fp [/] yn   hapus # achos   mae   ffrog yn   ffeindio ei [/] ei deulu uh@fp [/] ei
PRED   PRED happy   because is.3SG frog PROG find   his   his \family   his
uh@fp [/] [is] happy, because a frog finds his [/] his family uh@fp [/] his

deulu   e ## dyma ’r [/] dyma ’r   diwedd
\family he   here’s the   here’s the end
family. Here’s the [/] here’s the end.

un nos um@fp oedd   y   lloer uh@fp [//] gyda 'r lloer um@fp tu   fas ar golau lan
one night   was.3SG the moon   with the moon   side out on light up
One night um@fp th emoon was uh@fp [//] with the moon um@fp outside [bright] up

oedd <Tomas> yn   eistedd lawr # ac yn   edrych ar y ci   fach um@fp uh@fp <Twm
was.3SG   PROG sit   down and PROG look   on the dog(m) \little
<Tomas> was sitting down, an looking at the litle dog um@fp uh@fp <Twm

Twm> # gyda trwyn yn jar ble   oedd # um@fp ffrog   fach yn   edrych lan ## pan um@fp
       with nose in jar where was.3SG   frog(m) \little PROG look   up   when
Twm>, with a nose in a jar where um@fp there was a little frog looking up. When um@fp

oedd   y dwy <Tomas> a <Twm Twm> yn   cysgu yn y gwely # mas o   'r jar
was.3SG the two(f)   and   PROG sleep in the bed   out from the jar
the two <Tomas> and <Twm Twm> were sleeping in the bed, out from the jar

aeth   y ffrog ## um@fp uh@fp### ac yn   neud swn   fach um@fp # a <Twm Twm>
went.3SG the frog   and PROG make sound(m) \little   and
went the frog. Um@fp uh@fp. And making a little sound um@fp, and <Twm Twm>

a <Tom> yn   um@fp [/] yn [/] yn <wake up> # ac yn   edrych ble   mae 'r ffrog wedi
and   PROG   PROG PROG   and PROG look   where is.3SG the frog PRF
and <Tom> um@fp [/][/] <wake up>, and looking where has the frog

mynd a   dim e wedi diflannu mae 'n   dim <sign> am xxx y ffrog # uh@fp ble
go   and NEG he PRF disappear is.3SG PROG NEG   about   the frog   where
gone and not he's disappeared [there]'s no sign about xxx the frog, uh@fp where

mae   e maen nhw 'n   edrych um@fp yn trwsus a # rhwng   yr esgidiau # um@fp
is.3SG he is.3PL they PROG look   in trousers and between the shoes
is he they look um@fp in trousers and, between the shoes, um@fp

a # yn # [//] <under> y gwely # um@fp ## a   wedyn uh@fp mae <Tom> yn   galw o
and in   the bed   and then   is.3SG   PROG call from
and, in, [//] <under? the bed, um#fp. And then uh@fp <Tom> calls from

ffenestr ble   mae ffrog ffrog ffrog oedd uh@fp <Twm Twm> y ci   wedi [/] wedi rh[o]i
window where is.3SG frog frog frog was.3SG   the dog PRF   PRF put
a window 'where's frog frog frog!' uh@fp <Twm Twm> the dog had [/] had put

ei trwyn yn y jar # a   nawr mae 'n um@fp # wel [/] mae 'n   edrych <ya> mae 'n
his nose in the jar and now is.3SG PROG   well   is.3SG PROG look   is.3SG PRED
his nose in the jar, there there's um@fp well, [/] [it] looks <oh ya> [it]'s

<stuck> # a   wedi cwympo o   'r ffenestr lawr i 'r um@fp [/] i 'r llawr # mae <Twm>
          and PRF fall   from the window down to the   to the ground is.3SG
<stuck>, and fallen from the window down to the um@fp [/] to the ground, <Twm>

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yn   edrych yn um@fp uh@fp ## wel ddim yn   cyfleus ## um@fp uh@fp ### <ah> ond mae
PROG look   PRED   well NEG PRED convenient   but is.3SG
looks um@fp hm@fp. Well not convenient. Um@fp uh@fp. <Ah> but

'r   clyfar ci   mae   'n   um@fp uh@fp mwy uh@fp peniog # mae   wedi torri 'r um@fp [/] y
the clever dog is.3SG PRED   more   clever   is.3SG PRF   break the   the
the dog clever he's um@fp uh@fp more uh@fp clever, [he]'s broken the um@fp the

jar um@fp a # xxx cwympo o   'r   ffenestr ond mae <Twm> yn   edrych yn   eitha grac
jar   and   fall   from the window but is.3SG   PROG look   PRED quite \angry
jar um@fp and, xxx fall from the window but <Twm> looks quite angry,

achos   oedd   e   'n um@fp ofn um@fp um@fp oedd   e   'n <worried> iawn ## <so>
   because was.3SG he PROG   fear   was.3SG he PRED   very
because he was um@fp fear[ing] um@fp um@fp he was very <worried>. <So>

mae   'n &da [//] nawr mae   'r um@fp [/] mae   'r [/] mae   'r   dydd wedi dod   a   maen
is.3SG PROG   now is.3SG the   is.3SG the   is.3SG the day   PRF   come and is.3PL
it's [//] now the um@fp [/] the [/] the day has come and they

nhw 'n   mas yn   galw am   y   ffrog ble   mae   'r   ffrog ## um@fp ### ond mae   'r
they PRED out PROG call   about the frog   where is.3SG the frog   but is.3SG the
are out shouting for the frog 'where's teh frog'. Um@fp. But the

ffrog wedi mynd # ac um@fp # mae   'r <honey bees> yn   dod # o   rhywle um@fp efallai
frog PRF   go   and   is.3SG the   PROG come from somewhere   maybe
frog has gone, and um@fp, the <honey bees> are coming, from somewhere um@fp maybe

gyda 'r   sŵn   a # ac o-'n   nhw'n   galw ar um@fp y   ffrog ## a   mae cŵn fach
with the sound and and was-3PL they PROG call   on   the frog   and is.3SG dogs \little
with the noise and, and they were calling on um@fp the frog. And little dogs

yn [/] yn um@fp [//] maen nhw 'n [//] mae   'n   diddorol iawn ar <honeybees> # a   mae
PROG PROG   is.3PL they PROG is.3SG PRED interesting very on   and is.3SG
are [/] are um@fp [//] they are [//] [he]'s very interesting on <honebees>, and

<Twm> yn   galw lawr twll i 'r ddaear # um@fp a   gobeithio i ffeindio'r   ffrog ond
        PROG call down hole to 'r \earth(f)   and hope   to find   the frog but
<Twm> calls down a hole to the ground, um@fp and hop[ing] to find the frog but,

o   'r y   twll aeth   y <mole> # <oh> medd <Twm> ### wedyn mae <Twm> yn
   from the the hole went.3SG the   said   then is.3SG   PROG
from the the hole went the <mole>, '<oh>' said <Twm>. Then <Twm>

mynd lan i 'r um@fp [/] i 'r coed ac yn   edrych lan y   twll arall i gobeithio i weld y
go   up to the   to the trees and PROG look   up the hole other to hope   to \see the
goes up to the um@fp [/] to the trees and looks up the other hole to hope to see the

ffrog # ond mae   'r cŵn yn   cael <problem> iawn gyda 'r <bees> #### a   mae <bees>
frog   but is.3SG the dogs PROG get   very with the   and is.3SG
frog, but the dogs are getting a very problem with the <bees>. And <bees> are

yn   dod lan [/] lan i 'r um@fp [/] i 'r dod ar ôl   y [/] y [/] y cŵn mae 'n   rhedeg
PROG come up   up to the   to the come on track the the   the dogs is.3SG PROG run
coming up [/] up to the um@fp [/] to the coming behind the [/] the [/] the dogs he's running

yn   rhedeg <off> a   mae <Twm> wedi cwympo mas o 'r [/] o 'r um@fp coed # achos
PROG run   and is.3SG   PRF fall   out of the   of the   trees because
running <off> and <Twm> has fallen out of the [/] of the um@fp trees, because

oedd um@fp aderyn fawr iawn yr <owl> yn   dod mas o   'r um@fp [/] o   'r derwen
was.3SG   bird(m) \big very the   PROG come out from the   from the oak
there was um@fp a very big bird the <owl> coming out of the um@fp [/] of the oak-tree.

ac   roedd   y sioc   i fe ## a   mae <Twm> yn   eitha grac eto # mae 'n   ofni
    and was.3SG the shock to he   and is.3SG   PRED quite \angry again is.3SG PROG fear
And it was [a] shock to him. And <Twm> is quite angry again, he's fearing

beth sy   mynd i [//] beth sy   'n   mynd i digwydd ## a   mae 'n   galw a   galw
what is.REL go   to   what is.REL PROG go   to happen   and is.3SG PROG call and call
what's go to [//] what's going to happen. And he calls and calls

ar y ffrog # a   mae   cŵn yn   dod 'n ôl #### ac   yn   edrych yn y carreg uh@fp tu
on the frog   and is.3SG dogs PROG come in track   and PROG look   in the rock(f)   side
on the frog, and dogs come back. And looking on the rock uh@fp

ôl   y   carreg um@fp yn twll arall i 'r   ardd #   ond mae <Twm> dim yn   lwcus iawn #
track the rock(f)   in hole other to the \garden(f) but is.3SG   NEG PRED lucky very
behind the rock um@fp in another hole to the garden, but <Twm> isn't very lucky,

yn   anffodus mae e wedi edrych mewn twll ## <oh> na mae   'n [/] mae 'n um@fp
ADV unfortunate is.3SG he PRF look   in   hole   no is.3SG PROG is.3SG PROG
unfortunately he has looked in a hole. <Oh> he's [/] he's um@fp

[/] mae 'n   dal i [/] i &dem [//] ar y pren ond # dim pren oedd uh@fp [/] oedd   'na
    is.3SG PROG hold to   to   on the wood but NEG wood was.3SG   was.3SG there
[/] he's holding to [/] to [//] on the wood but, it wasn't wood that was uh@fp [/] that was there

ond um@fp <a deer> # <a stag> ## ac   oedd   yr <stag> yn um@fp rhedeg a   rhedeg
but   and was.3SG the   PROG   run   and run
but um@fp <a deer>, <a stag>. And the <stag> was um@fp running and running

ar ôl   y cŵn   um@fp a <Twm> ## um@fp yn   stwc 'na # ar pen   y [/] y <stag> ##
on track the dogs   and   PRED xxx there on head the   the
after the dogs um@fp and <Twm>. Um@fp [stuck] there, on top of the [/] the <stag>.

a   'r y <stag> yn   tawlu <Twm> a   'r ci oddi-wrth y um@fp [/] y llawr i 'r uh@fp
and the the   PROG throw   and the dog from   the   the ground to the
And the <stag> throws <Twm> and the dog from the um@fp [/] the ground to the uh@fp

[/] i 'r um@fp [/] i 'r nant ## a   nhw i-gyd yn [/] yn um@fp [/] yn   cwympo # mewn i 'r
    to the   to the stream   and they all PROG PROG   PROG fall   in to the
[/] to the um@fp [/] to the stream. And they all [/] um@fp [/] falling, into the

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dŵr ## ond   mae <Twm> a   ’r ci yn   eitha hapus ## clyw-on nhw sŵn yn   dod
water   but is.3SG   and the dog PRED quite happy   heard-3PL they sound PROG come
water. But <Twm> and the dog are quite happy. They heard a sound coming

o   ’r twll arall yn pren ar-bwys y   nant ## <sh> medd uh@fp <Twm> ## aeth   y
from the hole other in wood near   the stream   said   went.3SG the
from the other hole in wood near the stream. <‘Sh’> said uh@fp <Twm>. The

dau   o nhw i edrych tu   ôl   y coed # a   wel-on nhw dau ffrog yn   eistedd
two(m) of they to look   side track the trees   and saw-3PL they two frog PROG sit
two of them went to look behind the trees, and they saw two frogs sitting

â’   i-gilydd # yn   edrych yn   hapus iawn ## ac   oedd   dau ffrog wedi cael plant
with each-other PROG look   PRED happy very   and was.3SG two frog PRF get   children
together, looking very happt. And two frogs had had little children.

bach ## saith plant   fach #### <hoorah> medd <Twm> yn   canu ## ac   yn [//] wedi um@fp
little   seven children \little   said   PROG sing   and PROG PRF
Seven little children. ‘<Hooray>’ said <Twm> singing. And [//] um@fp

ffeindio ffrog arall ## a   nawr mae   naw ffrog-iau fach ## ‘na   ni
find   frog   other and now is.3SG nine frog-s   \little   there’s we
having found another frog. And now there are nine little ffrogs. There we are.

uh@fp mae 'na   hogyn bach um@fp yn   eistedd ar um@fp um@fp gadair # efo   ei [/]
        is.3SG there boy   little   PROG sit   on   \chair   with his
Uh@fp there's a little boy um@fp sitting on um@fp um@fp a chair, with his [/]

efo um@fp ei gi # ac um@fp maen nhw 'n   edrych ar # hm@fp uuh@fp ffrog uh@fp (paid
with   his \dog and   is.3PL they PROG look   on   frog   don't
with um@fp his dog. And um@fp they are looking at, hm@fp uuh@fp a frog uh@fp (don't

poeni am   y geirfa) um@fp dw   i 'm cofio   'r enw um@fp a um@fp ond yn
worry about the vocabulary   is.1SG I NEG remember the noun   and   but ADV
worry about the vocabulary) um@fp I don't remember the noun um@fp and um@fp but

wedyn maen nhw 'n um@fp mynd i 'r gwely i gysgu # ac   mae   'r um@fp # [/] mae   'r
then is.3PL they PROG   go to the bed to \sleep and is.3SG the   is.3SG the
then they um@fp go to bed to sleep, and the um@fp, [/] the

ffrog yn [/] yn   dianc um@fp o   'r um@fp um@fp [/] o   'r   botel um@fp lle [/] lle
frog PROG PROG escape   from the   from the \bottle(f)   where where
frog [/] escapes um@fp from the um@fp um@fp [/] from the botle um@p where [/] where

oedd [/] lle   oedd   o ## ac   mae [/] mae o 'n   diflannu # ac   mae [/] mae [/] mae 'r
was.3SG where was.3SG he   and is.3SG is.3SG he PROG disappear and is.3SG is.3SG is.3SG the
he was [/] where he was. And he [/] he disappears, and the [/] the [/] the

hogyn a 'r ci yn   synni   # lle   mae o maen nhw 'n   deud ## felly maen
boy and the dog PROG are.surprised where is.3SG he is.3PL they PROG say   so is.3PL
boy and the dog are surprised, 'where is he' they say. So they

nhw 'n   edrych ym mhob-man # um@fp am   y [/] am   y ffrog um@fp # uh@fp yn uh@fp
they PROG look   in \every-place   about the about the frog   PROG
look everywhere, um@fp for the [/] for the frog um@fp, uh@fp uh@fp

ac um@fp mae 'r ci yn [/] yn   rhoi um@fp uh@fp mae 'r ci   yn um@fp um@fp
and   is.3SG the dog PROG PROG put   is.3SG the dog PROG
and um@fp the dog put [/] puts um@fp uh@fp the dog um@fp um@fp

[/] yn um@fp yn <stuff>-io ei [/] ei ben   yn y [/] yn y [/] yn y [/] yn y botel um@fp #
   PROG   PROG   -INF his his \head in the in the in the in the \bottle(f)
[/] um@fp <stuff>s his [/] his head in the [/] in the [/] in the [/] in the bottle um@fp,

um@fp felly mae [/] mae &ma [/] mae gan y ci um@fp um@fp botel ar ei um@fp [/] ar
     so is.3SG is.3SG   is.3SG with the dog   \bottle on his   on
um@fp so there's [/] there's &ma [/] the dog has um@fp a bottle on his um@fp [/] on

ei ben ### ac   mae o 'n # o [//] wedyn mae uh@fp
his \head   and is.3SG he PROG he   then is.3SG
his head. And he's, he [//] then there's uh@fp

[//] mae 'r ci yn disgyn o 'r ffenest i 'r llawr
    is.3SG the dog PROG fall   from the window to the ground
[//] the dog falls from the window to the ground

a mae 'r botel yn [/] yn [/] yn torri ## um@fp mae 'r [/] mae 'r uh@fp uh@fp
and is.3SG the \bottle(f) PROG PROG PROG break   is.3SG the is.3SG the
and the bottle [/] [/] breaks. Um@fp the [/] the uh@fp

[/] mae 'r ci yn [/] yn um@fp [/] yn falch iawn o hynny ond mae 'r hogyn yn [/]
    is.3SG the dog PRED PRED   PRED \glad very from that but is.3SG the boy   PRED
[/] the dog [/] um@fp [/] is very glad of that but the boy is [/]

yn uh@fp [/] yn digon um@fp [//] wel dydy o ddim yn edrych yn [/] yn [/] yn
PRED   PRED enough   well is.3SG.NEG he NEG PROG look   PRED PRED PRED
is uh@fp [/] is enough um@fp [//] well he doesn't look [/] [/]

rhy hapus ## ond mae 'r dau yn dal i chwilio am y [/] am y ffrog # um@fp
too happy   but is.3SG the two PROG continue to look   for the for the frog
too happy. But the two are still looking for the [/] for the frog, um@fp

uh@fp ac maen nhw 'n mynd um@fp tu mewn i rhyw ### uh@fp fforest neu rhywbeth
        and is.3PL they PROG go   side in to some   forest or something
uh@fp and the go um@fp inside some. Uh@fp forest or something

um@fp lle mae llawer o [/] o [/] o [/] o goed ## ac wedyn # um@fp mae 'r ci yn
        where is.3SG many of of of of \trees   and then   is.3SG the dog PROG
um@fp where there are lots of [/] of [/] of [/] of trees. And then, um@fp the dog

um@fp # darganfod # um@fp haid ydy o <beehive> haid dw i 'n credu um@fp o #
        discover   swarm COP he   swarm is.1SG I PROG believe   of
um@fp, discovers, um@fp a swarm is it <beehive> swarm I think um@fp of,

um@fp wenyn um@fp # ac um@fp mae 'r bachgen yn [/] yn edrych tu &me um@fp
    \bees   and   is.3SG the boy   PROG PROG look side
um@fp bees um@fp, and um@fp the boy [/] looks &me um@fp

[/] tu mewn i [/] i [/] i [/] i dwll yn y daear # dwll um@fp mwy na debyg sy 'n
    side in to to to to \hole in the earth(f) \hole   more than \likely is.REL PROG
[/] inside [/] [/] [/] a hole in the ground, a hole um@fp more than likely which

berthyn i [//] sy 'n perthyn i um@fp uh@fp uh@fp mochyn ddeaer # ond dydy o
\belong to is.REL PROG belong to   pig(m) \earth   but is.3SG.NEG he
belongs to [//] which belongs to um@fp uh@fp a groundhog, but it isn't

ddim ond um@fp mae 'r um@fp yn wedyn mae [/] mae [/] mae anifail yn um@fp um@fp
NEG but   is.3SG the   PROG then is.3SG is.3SG is.3SG animal PROG
but um@fp the um@fp then a [/] a [/] an animal um@fp um@fp

[/] yn dod allan o 'r twll dydy o ddim yn um@fp mochyn # ddeaer um@fp ond
    PROG come out from the hole is.3SG.NEG he NEG PRED   pig(m) \earth   but
[/] comes out of the hole it isn't a um@fp ground, hog um@fp but

um@fp dw   i ddim yn   gwybod be'   anifail ydy o (paid poeni) rhywbeth Americanaidd
         is.1SG I NEG PROG know   what animal COP he don't worry something American
um@fp I don't know what animanl is is (don't worry) something American

xxx siŵr-o-fod # um@fp <gopher or ya> # iawn ac um@fp mae   'r bachgen yn um@fp
    probably   ok   and   is.3SG the boy   PROG
xxx probably, um@fp <gopher or ya>, okey and um@fp the boy um@fp

[/] yn [/] yn   dringo um@fp &coe coeden # ac um@fp # mae 'r haid   yn   disgyn i 'r
   PROG PROG climb   tree   and   is.3SG the swarm PROG fall   to the
[/] [/] climbs um@fp a &co a tree, and um@fp, the swarm falls to the

llawr ## um@fp ## ac   beth sy   'n   digwydd wedyn ydy 'r [//] mae   'r um@fp <gwenyn>
ground   and what is.REL PROG happen then   COP the   is.3SG the
ground. Um@fp. And what happens then is the [//] the um@fp <bees>

um@fp xxx <ya> yn [/] yn um@fp yn   mynd ar ôl   y ci # a   maen nhw eisiau um@fp
--   PROG PROG   PROG go   on track the dog and is.3PL they want
um@fp xxx <ya> [/] um@fp go after the dog, and they want um@fp

picio   fo [/] picio o fo um@fp # ac yn um@fp lle   oedd   y [/] yr [/] y [/] y
xxx [%*pigo* - sting] he xxx   he he   and in   where was.3SG the the   the the
to sting him sting him him um@fp, and um@fp where was the [/] the [/] the [/] the

[/] y [/] y   coeden [/] lle um@fp [/] lle   oedd   y [/] y [/] y bachgen yn [/] yn   dringo [/]
   the the tree(f)   where   where was.3SG the the the boy   PROG PROG climb
[/] the [/] the tree [/] where um@fp [/] where was the [/] the [/] the boy [/] climbing [/]

yn   dringo mae 'na ## gwdihw yn y De um@fp <ya> gwdihw yn [/] yn   dod allan o
PROG climb is.3SG there owl   in the South   owl   PROG PROG come out of
climbing there's. An owl in the South um@fp <ya> coming [/] coming out from

'r [/] o   'r goeden (tylluan yn y Gogledd) <ya> tylluan diolch   yn   dod allan o   'r
the   from the \tree(f) owl   in the North   owl   thanks PROG come out   from the
the [/] from the tree (owl in the North) <ya> owl thanks coming out of the

um@fp goeden um@fp ## ac um@fp # yn &ma mae   'n   debyg fod   y dywyllan
      \tree(f)   and   ADV   is.3SG PRED \similar \is.COMP the xxx
um@fp tree um@fp. And um@fp, &ma it's likely that the xxx

yn [/] yn um@fp [/] yn   bygythi   'r   hogyn # um@fp ## wedyn uh@fp mae
PROG PROG   PROG xxx [%*bygwth* -threaten] the boy   then   is.3SG
[/] um@fp [/] threatens the boy, um@fp. Then uh@fp the

'r bachgen um@fp um@fp yn   symud um@fp [//] yn   dringo um@fp # carreg a [/] a [/] a
the boy   PROG move   PROG climb   rock   and and and
boy um@fp um@fp moves um@fp [//] climbs um@fp, a rock and [/] and [/] and

maen nhw 'n um@fp gweiddi um@fp um@fp i er-mwyn um@fp [/] er mwyn um@fp um@fp
is.3PL they PROG   shout   to in.order   in.order
they shout um@fp um@fp to in order um@fp [/] in order um@fp um@fp

dod-o-hyd-i ’r   ffrog um@fp ## ond # iawn um@fp dw   i ddim yn   cofio   ’r um@fp
find   the frog   but okey   is.1SG I NEG PROG remember the
to find the frog um@fp. But, okey, I don’t remember the um@fp

enw am <deer> ond mae ‘na um@fp <deer> sy   ’n um@fp codi ei ben i-fyny ac
noun for   but is.3SG there   is.REL PROG   raise his \head up   and
noun for <deer> but there’s a um@fp <deer> which is um@fp raising his head up and

um@fp um@fp efo   bachgen um@fp ar [/] ar ei [/] ar ei ben [//] ar y   pen um@fp um@fp ##
--   with boy   on on his on his \head on the head
um@fp um@fp with a boy um@fp on [/] on his [/] on his head [//] on the head um@fp um@fp.

ac   mae ’r um@fp <deer> yn   rhedeg efo ’r bachgen ar ei [/] ar ei [/] ar ei pen # um@fp
and is.3SG the   PROG run   with the boy   on his   on his   on his head
And the um@fp <deer> runs with the boy on his [/] on his [/] on his head, um@fp

efo ci yn [/] yn   dilyn ac mae ’n [/] mae ’n   stopio yn sydyn # ac mae ’r
with dog PROG PROG follow and is.3SG PROG is.3SG PROG stop   ADV sudden and is.3SG the
with a dog [/] following and he’s [/] he stops suddenly, and the

um@fp [/] mae ’r bachgen a   ’r ci hefyd um@fp um@fp yn [/] yn [/] yn   cwympo #
         is.3SG the boy   and the dog also   PROG PROG PROG fall
um@fp the boy and the dog also um@fp um@fp [/] [/] falls,

i-lawr i rhyw um@fp # [//] i ’r dŵr mae ‘na   dŵr um@fp fan ‘na um@fp rhyw
down to some   to the water is.3SG there water   \place there   some
down to some um@fp, to the water there’s water um@fp there um@fp some

um@fp pwll neu rhywbeth fel ‘na   um@fp felly mae [/] mae [/] mae ’r ddau   yn um@fp
       pool or something like that   so is.3SG is.3SG is.3SG the \two(m) PROG
um@fp pool or something like that um@fp so [/] [/] the two um@fp

[/] yn [/] yn   disgyn i ’r uh@fp uh@fp um@fp [/] i ’r dŵr ac # um@fp # maen nhw ’n
    PROG PROG fall   to the   to the water and   is.3PL they PROG
[/] [/] fall to the uh@fp uh@fp um@fp [/] to the water and, um@fp, they

clywed rhywbeth ## a   mae ’r bachgen yn   deud <shh> um@fp wrth y ci # a xxx maen
hear   something   and is.3SG the boy   PROG say   to the dog and is.3PL
hear something. And the boy tells the dog <shh>, and xxx they

nhw ’n   chwilio um@fp [//] maen nhw ’n um@fp edrych tu   ôl   i [/] i # um@fp rhyw
they PROG look   is.3PL they PROG   look   side track to to   some
look um@fp [//] they um@fp look behind [/], um@fp some

um@fp <trunk>-oi neu coeden coeden # a   beth ydy o um@fp tu   ôl   i ’r [/] i ’r   coeden
                -xxx or tree   tree   and what COP he   side track to the to the tree(f)
um@fp <trunk> or tree tree, and what is it um@fp behind the [/] behind the tree

[/] coeden wedi marw sy   wedi disgyn # mae ’r dau # ffrog um@fp um@fp ac   hefyd
    tree   PRF die is.REL PRF fall   is.3SG the two   frog   and also
[/] dead tree which has fallen, the two, frogs um@fp um@fp and also

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um@fp # mae   ’r dau ffrog mae gynn-on nhw [/] mae gynn-on   nhw um@fp plant   felly
        is.3SG the two frog is.3SG with-them they   is.3SG with-them they   children so
um@fp, there are two frogs they have [/] they have um@fp children so

ffrog-<s> bach # um@fp # felly # um@fp maen nhw ’n   deud um@fp um@fp um@fp [/]
frog   little   so   is.3PL they PROG say
little frogs, um@fp, so, um@fp they say um@fp um@fp um@fp

maen nhw ’n um@fp [/] maen nhw ’n   deud um@fp hwyl #   wrth [/] wrth y   ffrog-<s> #
is.3PL they PROG   is.3PL they PROG say   goodbye to   to   the frog
[/] they um@fp [/] they say um@fp goodbye, to [/] to the frogs,

a   mae   ’n &degy [//] maen nhw ’n   mynd â [//] ag un ohonyn nhw ## mae ‘n [/]
and is.3SG PROG   is.3PL they PROG go   with with one of-them they   is.3SG PROG
and it’s &deg [//] they take [//] one of them. It’s

mae ‘n &ddeg maen nhw ’n   mynd adre   nawr wel dw   i ’n   credu maen nhw
is.3SG PROG   is.3PL they PROG go   homeward now well is.1SG I PROG believe is.3PL they
[/] It’s &ddeg they go home now well I think they are

mae ’r [/] mae ’r bachgen a   ’r &hog [/] a ’r ci yn [/] yn   mynd adre   a   maen
is.3SG the   is.3SG the boy   and the   and the dog PROG PROG go   homeward and is.3PL
the [/] the boy and the &hog [/] and the dog go home and they

nhw ’n um@fp um@fp deud um@fp um@fp hwyl   wrth [/]wrth y   ffrog-<s> ond maen nhw
they PROG   say   goodbye to   to the frog   but is.3PL they
um@fp um@fp say um@fp um@fp goodbye to to the frogs but they

’n   mynd ag un o-honyn nhw # um@fp dw   i ddim yn   deall #   yr ystyr   o
PROG go   with one of-them they   is.1SG I NEG PROG understand the meaning of
take one of them, um@fp I don’t understand, the meaning of

hynny um@fp ond um@fp (xxx) ond <ya> ‘na   fo
that   but   but   there’s he
that um@fp but um@fp (xxx) but <ya> there it is.

mae ’r bachgen a ’r gi   a <frog?> <frog what’s a frog?> (broga) broga ## y broga yn
is.3SG the boy   and the \dog(m) and   frog frog   the frog in
The boy and the dog and and <frog?> < frog what’s a frog?> (frog) frog. The frog in

um@fp [/] yn yr ## jar y bachgen wedi blino # a   fe [/] a   fe xxx a   gi ## y   broga mynd
        in the jar the boy   PRF tire   and he   and he   and dog   the frog go
um@fp [/] in the. Jar the boy tired, and he [/] and he xxx and a dog. The frog go

allan ## a   mae ’r bachgen a   ’r uh@fp gi uh@fp <what’s look for?> (edrych? neu chwilio
out   and is.3SG the boy   and the   \dog(m)   look   or look
out. And the boy and the uh@fp <what’s look for?> (look? or search

am) yn yr [/] yr tir yn [/] yn yr allan ## uh@fp a ’r gi   ’r uh@fp torri ’r um@fp
for in the the land in in the out   and the \dog(m) the   broke the
for) in the [/] the land in [/] in the out. Uh@fp and the dog the uh@fp break the um@fp

<bottle> ### bachgen ar [/] ar canu y broga #### <wasps what are wasps?> (gwenyn <is
              boy   on   on sing the frog   bees
<bottle>. Boy about to about to sing the frog. <Wasps what are wasps?> (bees <is

bees>) gwenyn yn [/] gwenyn yn   mynd allan a   ’r ## <rat> # <rat beard> uh@fp #### <I’m
          bees PROG bees   PROG go   out and the
bees>) bees [/] bees go out, and the. <Rat>, <rat beard>, uh@fp. <I’m

lost on this one looking in a hole in a tree> uh@fp <what’s tree> (coeden?) coeden <that’s right>
  --   tree   tree
lost on this one looking in a hole in a tree> uh@fp <what’s tree> (tree?) tree <that’s right>

coed <is the woods isn’t it> # <right> # twll yn y   coeden ### <it’s an exciting story this> #
forest   hole in the tree(f)
forest <is the woods isn’t it>, <right>, hole in the tree. <It’s and exciting story this>,

um@fp # yr gi #   yr xxx <that one beats me> ## &ad aderyn [/] aderyn yr # <has appeared>
         the \dog(m) the   bird   bird   the
um@fp, the dog the xxx <that one beats me>. &Ad a bird [/] bird the, <has appeared>.

<the boy is now shouting from on top of a [/] on top of a> # <my Welsh is getting worse as
--
<The boy is now shouting from on tope of a [/] on top of a>, <my Welsh is getting worse as

I’m reading this> # um@fp <from on top of a rock> ### <deer is> (carw <is stag>) carw ## <god
--   stag   stag
I’m reading this>, um@fp <from on top of a rock>. <Deer is> (stag <is stag>) stag. <God

it’s not suitable for children this> (xxx) ## yr [/] yr bachgen yn   mewn i ’r dŵr ### a   ’r
--   the the boy   PRED in   to the water   and the
it’s not suitable for children this> (xxx). The [/] the boy into the water. And the.

####<finds the frog what's find the frog> (ffeindio'r   broga) ffeindio [/] ffeindio'r   broga i   'r
--   find   the frog   find   find   the frog   to the
<Finds the frog what's find the frog> (find the frog) find [/] find the frog to the

uh@fp ## brogau bach #### <I> ## uh@fp <that's all the story from me>
                frogs   little
uh@fp. Little frog(s). <I>. Uh@fp <That's all the story from me>.

[%*broga, brogaod/brogaed* - frog, frogs; *brog-au* is not a standard plural form for *broga,* but *-au*
is the most productive Welsh plural suffix.]

<right> um@fp mae   'n um@fp nos   a   mae 'r   bachgen bach 'ma wedi um@fp cael
--   is.3SG PRED   night and is.3SG the boy   little here PRF   get
<Right> um@fp it's night and this little boy has um@fp gotten

broga? [/] broga? (broga <ya>) [/] broga <yes> a   wedi rhoi e   mewn um@fp [/] mewn
frog   frog   frog   frog   and PRF put he in   in
a frog? [/] frog? (frog <ya>) [/] frog <yes> and has put it in um@fp [/] in

<glass> # mae   'n   jar # a   mae 'n um@fp ci   bach e   yn   edrych ar-no fe a
--   is.3SG PRED jar   and is.3SG PRED   dog little he PROG look   on-him he and
<glass>, it's a jar, and there's a little dog looking at it and

oedd   e 'n &sylwedd sylw[i] e 'n   iawn <oh my Welsh is xxx right ok> um@fp wedyn
was.3SG he PROG   notice he PRED okey   then
he was &sylwedd noticing he's okey <oh my Welsh is xxx right okey> um@fp then

oedd   amser nhw i 'r bachgen bach mynd i 'r gwely # a   aeth   i gwely a   ci
was.3SG time they to the boy   little go to the bed   and went.3SG to bed   and dog
it was their time for the little boy to go to bed, and he went to bed and a little dog

bach yn   eistedd ar y gwely gyda bachgen bach # ond mae 'r   broga yn um@fp mynd
little PROG sit   on the bed   with boy   little but is.3SG the frog PROG   go
sitting on the bed with a little boy, but the frog um@fp is going

i dod [//] mae 'n   dod mas o 'r um@fp jar ## pan o-'n   nhw 'n um@fp oh@fp [//]
to come   is.3SG PROG come out of the   jar   when was-3PL they PROG
to come [//] he comes out of the um@fp jar. When they were um@fp oh@fp [//]

oedd   bore   nawr um@fp a   mae 'r bachgen bach mynd i # [//] mae 'n   edrych am
was.3SG morning now   and is.3SG the boy   little go   to   is.3SG PROG look   for
it was morning now um@fp and the little boy is going to [//] he looks for

y broga # ond mae wedi mynd ## a 'r ci yn   sylweddoli hefyd oedd   e wedi
the frog   but is.3SG PRF go   and the dog PROG realize   also was.3SG he PRF
the frog, but [he] has gone. And the dog realizes also he had

mynd oh@fp 'na   drueni ## ond 'na   fe maen nhw 'n   edrych am y broga nawr
go   that's \pity   but there's he is.3PL they PROG look   for the frog now
gone oh@fp that's a pity. But there it is they are looking for the frog now

a nhw 'n   edrych mewn esgidiau neu <boots> xxx fe 'n   galw <boots> fallai # a   'r
and they PROG look   in   shoes   or   he PROG call   maybe and the
and they looking in shoes or <boots> xxx he's calling <boots> maybe, and the

ci   yn # wel twp   iawn # wedi rhoi ei penest [/] ei [/] ei [//] ei um@fp wyneb yn y [/] yn yr
dog PRED well stupid very   PRF put his xxx   his   his   face   in the   in the
dog , well very stupid, has put his xxx [/] his [/] his [//] his um@fp face in the [/] in the

jar ## naw 'n   edrych mas &tr uh@fp trwy   'r uh@fp [/] i 'r &tr trwy   'r ffenest 'ma
jar   now PROG look   out   through the   to the   through the window here
jar. Now looking out &tr uh@fp through the uh@fp [/] to the &tr through this window

a   maen nhw 'n   galw <dw   i 'm gwybod beth oedd   enw y broga> ## a <oh>
and is.3PL they PROG call   is.1SG I NEG know   what was.3SG name the frog   and
and they call <I don't know what the name of the frog was>. And <oh>

[/] a   mae 'r ci nawr wedi cwympo [/] cwympo # [/] cwympo i-lawr yn &med [//] wedi
    and is.3SG the dog now PRF fall   fall   fall   down PROG   PRF
and the dog now has fallen [/] fallen, [/] fallen down &med

torri 'r <vase> neu jar <dw   i 'm gwybod beth yw e> # a   mae 'r bachgen yn #
break the   or jar is.1SG I NEG know   what COP he   and is.3SG the boy   PROG
broken the <vase> or jar <I don;t know what it is>, and the boy

[//] ddim yn   hoffi bod   e wedi neud hwnna ## <reit> nawr te   maen nhw 'n um@fp
    NEG PROG like is.COMP he PRF do   that   now then is.3PL they PROG
[//] doesn't like that he has done that. <Reit> now then they um@fp

galw nawr am   y broga ond mae 'n   gallu [//] 's   dim # [/] 's   dim <good
call   now about the frog but is.3SG PROG can   is.3SG.NEG NEG   is.3SG.NEG NEG
call now for the frog but he can [//] there is not, [/] there is not <good

results> dim <results> da   iawn a   galw galw galw # a   mae 'na lot o pethau yn
--   NEG   good very and call call call   and is.3SG there many of things PROG
results> not very good <results> and calling calling calling, and there are a lot of things

xxx fan   hyn # <bees> fallai <dw   i 'm gwybod> <oh ya> # mae 'n   wedi um@fp
    \place this   maybe is.1SG I NEG know   is.3SG PROG PRF
xxx here, <bees> maybe <I don't know>, <oh ya>, he has um@fp

ffeindio'r &n um@fp ## <nest bees nest> # a   mae 'r bachgen yn   gwybod bod   nhw
find   the   and is.3SG the boy   PROG know   is.COMP they
found the &n um@fp. <Nest bees nest>, and the boy knows that they

'n   gallu um@fp rhoi <sting>-io ffenest uh@fp uh@fp [//] ei wyneb # a   ci yn   mynd
PROG can   put   -INF window   his face   and dog PROG go
can um#fp put stinging window uh@fo uh@fp [//] his face, and a dog going

ymlaen y coed ## a oh@fp [/] a   mae broga &m mewn xxx <ya> fallai # <dw   i 'm
forward the trees   and   and is.3SG frog   in   maybe is.1SG I NEG
forward the trees. And oh@fp [/] and a frog &m in xxx <ya> maybe, <I don't

yn   gwybod> ond xxx diwedd &fa &fa rhywbeth   arall ## maen nhw 'n   edrych i
PROG know   but   end   something other is.3PL they PROG look   to
know> but xxx end &fa &fa something else. They look inside

mewn i 'r um@fp coed ## mae 'r ci uh@fp yn   ofni nawr mae 'n   gwybod bod
in   to the   trees is.3SG the dog   PROG fear now is.3SG PROG know   is.COMP
the um@fp trees. The dog uh@fp fears now he knows that

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y \<bees\> gallu bod   yn   ddim yn   neis ## a   mae \<owl\> yn y [/] yn y   coed a
the   able be.INF PRED NEG PRED nice   and is.3SG   in the in the trees and
the bees can be not nice. And there is an \<owl\> in the [/] in the trees and

mae 'r bachgen bach wedi cwympo # a   mae 'r ci yn   rhedeg rhedeg bant achos
is.3SG the boy   little PRF fall   and is.3SG the dog PROG run   run   away because
the little boy has fallen, and the dog runs runs away because

bod   y [/] y \<bees\> yn # mynd arno   fe ## \<oh god\> # um@fp # nawr 'te # um@fp xxx
is.COMP the the   PROG go   on-him he   now then
the [/] the bees are, going on him. \<Oh god\>, um@fp, now then, um@fp xxx

bachgen dim yn   gwybod beth i neud a \<really\> bod   e 'n ofni nawr   bod   y
boy   NEG PROG know   what to do   and   is.COMP he PROG fear now   is.COMP the
a boy not knowing what to do and \<really\> that he is fearing now that the,

\<owl\> a   mae   'n &fr un &fr un &la um@fp oh@fp \<sorry pathetic\> # \<my Welsh is
--   and is.3SG PROG   one   one
\<owl\> and he's &fr one &fr one &la um@fp oh@fp \<sorry pathetic\>, \<my Welsh is

terrible\> # um@fp mae   'r   bachgen mynd lan um@fp ### \<cliff\>-an? \<sorry I'm really bad
--   is.3SG the boy   go   up   -SG
terrible\>, um@fp the boy goes up um@fp a \<cliff?\>. \<Sorry I'm really bad today

today anyway\> um@fp # a   mae gafr uh@fp yn   edrych ar y bachgen mae   'r bachgen
--   and is.3SG goat   PROG look   on the boy   is.3SG the boy
anyway\> um@fp, and there's a goat uh@fp looking at the boy the boy

yn   cwympo a   mae 'r ci yn   cwympo # cwympo lawr lawr lawr ## lawr i 'r
PROG fall   and is.3SG the dog PROG fall   fall   down down down   down to the
falls and the dog falls, falls down down down. Down to the

dŵr # mewn pwll ## ond um@fp popeth   yn   iawn # a   mae 'r bachgen yn   edrych
water in   pool but   everything PRED okey   and is.3SG the boy   PROG look
water, in a pool. But um@fp everything's ok, and the boy is looking

ar ôl   y cŵn [//] ci [/] ci # a   mae e 'n   deud \<sh\> ## mae   wedi weld rhywbeth
on track the dogs   dog dog and is.3SG he PROG say   is.3SG PRF \see something
after the dogs [//] dog [/] dog, and he says \<sh\>. He has seen something

\<dw   i 'n   credu\> ## a   mae   'n   dros um@fp # rhywbeth wedi torri # a   beth maen
 is.1SG I PROG believe   and is.3SG PROG over   something PRF break and what is.3PL
\<I think\>. And he's over um@fp, something broken, and what are

nhw 'n   ond dau frogau ## a   wedyn lot   llawer o 'r plentyn bach brogau ## a # nawr
they PROG but two \frogs   and then many many of the child   little frogs   and now
they but two frog[s]. And then many many of the little child frog[s]. And, now

maen nhw 'n   hapus iawn bod   nhw wedi ffeidio 'r peth o-'n   nhw 'n   edrych
is.3PL they PRED happy very is.COMP they PRF find   the thing was-3PL they PROG look
they are very happy that they have found the thing they were looking

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am # a   beth # llawer o nhw <k?> <dw   i ddim yn   gwybod bod   e ’n   iawn>
for   and what   many of them   is.1SG I NEG   PROG know   is.COMP he PRED okey
for, and what, many of them. <K?> I don’t know that it’s okey.

[%*broga, brogaod/brogaed* - frog, frogs; *brogau* is not a standard plural form of *broga* but -*au* is
the most productive plural ending]

Rwan sy   gyda ni bachgen bach o hogyn bach yn   sbio a   ci yn   sbio mewn
now is.REL with we boy   little of boy   little PROG look and dog PROG look in
Now we have a little boy of little boy looking and a dog looking in

rhyw jar # a   pwy sy   'n y jar? llyfant # a   lle   ydan   ni? dan ni yn y   beth
some jar and who is.REL in the jar frog   and where is.1PL.Q we is.1PL we in the what
some jar, and who's in the jar?, and where are we? We are in the what's

sy   'n   amlwg stafell y hogyn bach a   mae gyda 'r nos a   mae   'r xxx lleuad yn
is.REL PRED clear room   the boy   little and is.3SG with the night and is.3SG the   moon in
obviously the little boy's room and it's night and the xxx moon in

uh@fp [/] yn y [/] yn y awyr tu   allan ## a   beth sy   gyda ni fan 'ma? oh@fp <ya ya ya>
--   in the in the sky side out   and what is.REL with we place here
uh@fp [/] in the [/] in the sky outside. And what do we have here? oh@fp <ya ya ya>

um@fp llun   arall # a   jyst uh@fp [/] a   maen nhw 'n   cysgu [//] 'r hogyn bach a   'r
--   picture other and just   and is.3PL they PROG sleep   the boy   little and the
um@fp another picture, and just uh@fp [/] and they are sleeping [//] the little boy and the

ci yn   cysgu a   mae 'r llyffant # yn   neidio allan o   'r jar # a   be' nesa? mae
dog PROG sleep and is.3SG the frog   PROG jump   out from the jar and what next is.3SG
dog are sleeping and the frog, jumps out of the jar, and what next?

'r uh@fp hogyn a   'r ci yn   ddeffro a   gweld bod   y jar yn   wag ## um@fp # a
the   boy   and the dog PROG \wake and see is.COMP the jar PRED \empty   and
The uh@fp boy and the dog wake up and se that the jar is empty. Um@fp, and

maen nhw 'n   sbio ym bobman   yn yr ystafell am yr llyffant # dim olwg
is.3PL they PROG look in \everywhere in the room   for the frog   NEG \view
they look everywhere in the room for the frog, no sight

o-'no   fo # a   wedyn sbio allan o   'r ffenest y ci bach yn   gwisgo jar fel het
from-him he and then look out from the window the dog little PROG wear   jar like hat
of him, and then looking out of the window the little dog wearing a jar like a hat

<mwy neu lai> a   maen nhw 'n   gweiddi llyffant llyffant le   dach chi   mae 'r
 more or less and is.3PL they PROG shout   frog   frog   \where is.2PL you.PL is.3SG the
<more or less> and they are shouting 'frog frog where are you' the

oh@fp <diw diwcs-diwcs> be'   nesa mae 'r uh@fp ci yn   syrthio allan o   'r ffenest
--   god my-my   what next is.3SG the   dog PROG fall   out from the window
oh@fp <god my-my> what next the uh@fp dog falls out of the window

a   mae 'r jar gwydr yn   torri ym bobman   # um@fp mae 'r # wel   dyn ni 'n
and is.3SG the jar glass PROG break in\ \everywhere   is.3SG the well is.1PL we PROG
and the glass jar breaks everywhere, um@fp the, well we

sbio   ar gwyneb y hogyn bach # ydy   o ofn # ydy   o flin   efo 'r ci # wn
look on face   the boy   little is.3SG.Q he fear is.3SG.Q he \angry with the dog is.1SG I
are looking at the face of the little boy, is it fear, is he angry with the dog, I

i ddim yn   saff # wel mae 'r ci yn   llyfu boch-au yr hogyn fach ## um@fp a   wedyn
I NEG PRED sure   well is.3SG the dog PROG lick   cheek-s the boy(m) little   and then
am not sure, well the dog is licking the cheeks of the littl boy. Um@fp and then

xxx nesa allan o-'n   nhw yn yr wlad # uh@fp yn uh@fp # be' coedwig mwy neu lai
--   next out was-3PL they in the \country(f)   in   what forest   more or \less
xxx next out they were in the country, uh@fp in uh@fp, what forest more or less

a   mae 'na lot   o goed o-gwmpas a   dw   i 'n   meddwl bod   ni 'n   chwilio
and is.3SG there many of \trees around   and is.1SG I PROG think   is.COMP we PROG search
and there's a lot of trees around and I think that we are searching

[//] dal   i chwilio am 'n   hen ffrind y llyffant # dyn   ni 'n   sbio mewn dwll #
     continue to search   for our old friend the frog   is.1PL we PROG look in   \hole
[//] still searching for our old friend the frog, we look in a hole,

yn y   ddaear # &t oh@fp beth sy   'n   dod   allan o   twll? cwningen <timod>
in the \earth(f)   what is.REL PROG come out from hole rabbit   you.know
in the ground, &t what comes out of [the] hole? rabbit <y'know>

<dw   i 'n   meddwl> nage dim cwningen wiw[e]r # a   wedyn um@fp mae 'r ci
  is.1SG I PROG think   no NEG rabbit   \squirrel and then   is.3SG the dog
<I think> no not a rabbit a squirrel, and then um@fp the dog

yn &s mynd at rhyw goeden a   beth sy   'n   yma 'na   ond # gwenwyn [//] gwenyn?
PROG go   to some \tree   and what is.REL PRED here there but   poison   bees
&s goes to some tree and what's here there but, poison [//] bees?

um@fp um@fp dal   i sbio [/] dal   i sbio ## um@fp mae   hogyn bach wedi dringo
--   continue to look   continue to look   is.3SG boy   little PROG climb
um@fp um@fp still looking [/] still looking. Um@fp a little boy has climbed

'r   goeden sbio 'm bobman # oh@gp mae   'di disgyn y oh@fp [/] y gwdihwhw # mae
the \tree(f) look in\ \everywhere   is.3SG PRF fall   the   the owl   is.3SG
the tree look everywhere, oh@fp [he] has fallen the oh@fp [/] the owl, there's

'na   air   arall am <owl> y gwdihwhw wedi dychryn y hogyn a   mae 'di [/] mae 'di
there \word other for   the owl   PRF frighten the boy   and is.3SG PRF is.3SG PRF
another word for <owl> the owl having frightened the boy and [he] has [/] [he] has

[/] mae 'di ddisgyn ar ei gefn # mae   cymaint o ofn gyda fe 'te   a   mae 'r ci
    is.3SG PRF \fall   on his \back   is.3SG so.much of fear with he then and is.3SG the dog
[/] [he] has fallen on his back, he has so much fear then and the dog

rhe[d]eg i-ffwrdd hefyd a   mae 'r 'da holl wenyn ar ei ôl o # a   wedyn mae 'na
run   away   also and is.3SG the with all \bees on his track he and then   is.3SG there
run away also and the with all the bees after him, and then there's

jac-do   mawr oh@fp yn y wlad   ac &ella <ya ya> # mae ’r hogyn dal   ofn yr # na
jackdaw big   in the \country(f) and   is.3SG the boy   continue fear the no
a big jackdaw oh@fp un the country and &ella <ya ya>, the boy holds fear, no

dim y   jac-do # y gwdihwhw yw hwnna ## a   wedyn # um@fp mae ’r hogyn yn
NEG the jackdaw the owl   COP that   and then   is.3SG the boy   PROG
not the jackdaw, that’s the owl. And then, um@fp the boy

dringo rhyw boncen   fach a gweiddi <dw   i ’n siwr> [/] gweiddi llyffant llyffant lle
climb some \mound(f) \little and shout   is.1SG I PRED sure   shout frog   frog   where
clims some little mound and shouts <I’m sure> [/] shouts ‘frog frog where

wyt   ti? um@fp oh@fp <be’ nesa> # mae ’r &b [/] mae ’r hogyn ‘di cael ei ddal gan
is.2SG you   what next is.3SG the   is.3SG the boy   PRF get   his \catch by
are you?’ Um@fp oh@fp <what next>, the &b [/] the boy has been caught by

rhyw # <be’ ‘dy hynny> <gawr?> rhyw na gawr y xxx # um@fp a   mae ’r gawr
some   what COP that   giant   some no giant the   and is.3SG the giant
some, <what’s that> <a giant?> some no giant the xxx, um@fp and the giant

yn   cario yr hogyn &i-ffwr i-ffwrdd mae ’r ci   dal   efo fo a xxx ’n   dod i ochr
PROG carry the boy   away   is.3SG the dog continue with he and   PROG come to side
carries the boy &i-ffwr away the dog is still with him and xxx come to a side

wel rhyw ddibyn mawr # <beth sydd   yn   digwydd> # aeth   [//] dyn   nhw yn   neidio
well some \cliff big   what is.REL PROG happen   went.3SG is.3PL they PROG jump
well some big cliff, <what’s happening>, [he] went [//] they jump

dros hwnna <pwy a   wyr> #   na’ ‘da’ chi nesa # oh@fp <ya> mae ’n   wedi taflu
over that   who REL know.3SG now with you next   is.3SG PROG PRF   throw
over that <who knows>, now [what] do you have next, oh@fp <ya> [he] has thrown

yr hogyn bach a ’r ci dros y ddibyn i mewn i <beth sy   ’n   edrych fel> llyn bach
the boy   little and the dog over the \cliff(m) to in   to what is.REL PROG look   like lake little
the little boy and the dog over the cliff into <what looks like> a little lake

neu pwll <ya> dyna   nhw y ci a ’r [/] y ci a ’r hogyn bach yn y ddŵr #   a
or pool   there’s they the dog and the   the dog and the boy   little in the \water(m) and
or pool <ya> There they are the dog and the [/] the dog and the little boy in the water, and

dw   i ’n   falch ddeud bod   y ddau yn   edrych yn   saff a   mae ’r hogyn
is.1SG I PRED \glad \say   is.COMP the \two(m) PROG look   PRED safe and is.3SG the boy
I’m glad to say that the two look safe and the boy

efo ei law   at ei glust yn   gwrando am   rhywbeth a   be’ mae xxx y   llyffant
with his \hand to his \ear PROG listen   about something and what is.3SG   the frog
with his hand at his ear listening for something and what is xxx the frog

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<mae 'n siwr> y llyffant mae 'n deud # wrth y ci bach bod yn ddistaw #
is.3SG PRED sure the frog is.3SG PROG say to the dog little be. INF PRED \silent
<surely> the frog he tells, the little dog to be silent,

ble maen nhw 'di dod [//] maen nhw 'n dod i rhyw hen goeden sydd ar ei ochr
where is.3PL they PRF come is.3PL they PROG come to some old \tree is.REL on his side
Where they have come [//] they come to some old tree which is on its side

dal i chwilio <mae 'n siwr> ## <xxx a wyr> a <dyma ni> beth sydd
continue to search is.3SG PRED sure REL know.3SG and here's we what is.REL
still looking <surely>. <xxx knows> and <here we are> what do

[g]yda ni? # fwy na # llyffant llyffant-od # maen nhw 'n edrych fel mam a dad
with we \more than frog frog-s is.3PL they PROG look like mother and \father
we have? more than, a frog frogs, they look like a mother and a father

llyffant-od ac eu plant hefyd faint sy 'n yna mae 'na saith llyffant-od bach
frog-s and their children also how.may is.REL PRED there is.3SG there seven frog-s little
frogs and their children too how many are there there's seven little frogs,

a wedyn maen nhw [//] mae 'r hogyn yn edrych yn hapus iawn mae 'r ci
and then is.3PL they is.3SG the boy PROG look PRED happy very is.3SG the dog
and then the [//] the boy looks very happy the dog

yn edrych yn hapus iawn # maen nhw wedi ffeindio eu ffrind y llyffant ## a maen
PROG look PRED happy very is.3PL they PRF find their friend the frog and is.3PL
looks very happy, they have found their friend the frog. And

nhw 'n mynd â llyffant [//] un llyffant i-ffwrdd # ag &es ac beth &s <ya> a maen
they PROG go with frog one frog away and and what and is.3PL
they take a frog [//] one frog away, and &es and what &s <ya> and they

nhw 'n [/] maen nhw 'n deud <ta ta> i 'r holl llyffant-od eraill sydd yn eistedd a
they PROG is.3PL they PROG say to the all frog-s other.PL is.REL PROG sit and
[/] they say <ta ta> to all the other frogs who are sitting and

edrych digon uh@fp hapus efo beth sy 'n digwydd a dyna ni
look enough happy with what is.REL PROG happen and there's we
looking uh@fp happy enough with what's happening and here we are.

um@fp mae   nos   a   mae 'n   bachgen bach yn stafell gwely um@fp yn [/] yn edrych ar
--   is.3SG night and is.3SG PROG boy   little in room bed   in   in look   on
Um@fp [it]'s night and a little boy is in a bedroom um@fp [/] looking at

um@fp # brodyr? <frog>? yn [/] yn [/] yn jar a   mae [/] mae [/] mae ci gyda fe a   mae
--   brothers   in   in   in jar and is.3SG is.3SG is.3SG dog with he and is.3SG
um@fp, brothers? <frog>? in [/] in [/] in a jar and there's [/] there's [/] there's a dog with him and

'n   edrych fel mae   'n   paratoi i gwely # um@fp ar yr ail   tudalen mae
PROG look   like is.3SG PROG prepare to bed   on the second page   is.3SG
[he] looks like he's preparing [for] bed, um@fp on the second page there's

bachgen # wedi cwympo i gysgu a   mae 'r um@fp [/] mae 'r ffrog yn   dod mas o
boy   PRF fall   to \sleep and is.3SG the   is.3SG the frog PROG come out from
a boy, fallen to sleep and the um@fp [/] the frog comes out of

'r [/] o   'r jar um@fp trio neud dim sŵn # <dw   i 'n   credu> mae nawr bore # a
 the from the jar   try make NEG sound   is.1SG I PROG believe is.3SG now morning and
the [/] of the jar um@fp trying to make no sound, <I think> it's now morning, and

mae 'r bachgen yn   styried uh@fp [//] mae 'r anifeiliad wedi [/] wedi mynd # a   mae 'r
is.3SG the boy   PROG consider   is.3SG the animal   PRF   PRF go   and is.3SG the
the boy is considering uh@fp the animal has [/] has gone, and the

ci 'da fe hefyd a   maen nhw 'n   edrych um@fp [/] yn   edrych am-dano fe ## ydyn
dog with he also and is.3PL they PROG look   PROG look about-him he is.3PL.Q
dog with him also and they are looking um@fp [/] looking for him. Are they

[//] maen nhw 'n   edrych um@fp [//] mae 'r bachgen bach yn   edrych trwy   'r stafell
     is.3PL they PROG look   is.3SG the boy   little PROG look   through the room
[//] they are looking um@fp [//] the little boy is looking through the room

mae 'n   edrych neis um@fp ## [//] mae 'n   edrych dan y gwely mae 'n   edrych
is.3SG PROG look   nice   is.3SG PROG look   under the bed   is.3SG PROG look
he looking nice um@fp. [//] [He]'s looking under the bed [he]'s looking

yn ei # esgidiau # a   mae 'n   edrych am y [/] am yr anifeiliad # mae 'r bachgen yn
in his shoes   and is.3SG PROG look   for the for the animal   is.3SG the boy   PROG
in his, shoes, and [he]'s looking for the [/] for the animal, the boy

edrych tu   mas hefyd maen nhw wedi agor y ffenest a   maen nhw 'n   edrych um@fp am
look   side out also is.3PL they PRF open the window and is.3PL they PROG look   for
looks outside also they have opened the window and they are looknig um@fp for

yr [/] am e # beth sy   'n   digwydd nesa <oh>   mae 'r ci wedi
the   for he what is.REL PROG happen next   is.3SG the dog PRF
the [/] for him, what happens next <oh> the dog has

[//] achos   maen nhw 'n   edrych mas o   'r ffenest mae   'r ci wedi mynd lan rhy
    because is.3PL they PROG look   out from the window is.3SG the dog PRF go   up too
because they are looking out of the window the do has gone up too

gormod a   mae wedi cwympo mas ## mae   'r bachgen nawr wedi dod   mas mae   ddim
too.much and is.3SG PRF fall   out   is.3SG the boy   now PRF come out is.3SG NEG
too much and [he] has fallen out. The boy now has come out [he] does not

yn   edrych rhy hapus gyda 'r ci um@fp ond mae   'r ci yn   eitha hapus i gael uh@fp
PROG look   too happy with the dog   but is.3SG the dog PRED quite happy to \get
look too happy with the dog um@fp but the dog is quite happy to get uh@fp

help o   'r bachgen ## maen nhw nawr yn yr ardd   <dw i 'n   credu> a   mae   'r
help from the boy   is.3PL they now in the \garden(f) is.1SG I PROG believe and is.3SG the
help from the boy. They are now in the garden <I think> and the

[/] mae 'r bachgen yn [/] yn # [/] yn   galw ## um@fp mae [/] mae   'r dydd yn   edrych
    is.3SG the boy   PROG PROG   PROG call   is.3SG is.3SG the day PROG look
[/] the boy is [/] is, [/] is calling. Um@fp the [/] the day is looking

yn   hyfryd # a   hefyd ddim rhy bell mae um@fp [/] mae <beehive>   ddim yn   edrych yn
PRED lovely   and also NEG too \far is.3SG   is.3SG   NEG PROG look   PRED
lovely, and also not too far there's um@fp there's a <beehive> not looking

xxx ## mae   'r bachgen wedi gweld y   twll # yn yr ardd   a   mae   'n   edrych lawr i
--   is.3SG the boy   PRF see   the hole in the \garden(f) and is.3SG PROG look   down to
xxx. The boy has seen the hole, in the garden and [he]'s looking down to

gweld os mae 'n   gallu gweld # y ffrog a   mae   'r ci um@fp [/] mae e 'n # chwarae
see   if is.3SG PROG able see   the frog and is.3SG the dog   is.3SG he PROG play
see if [he] can see, the frog and the dog um@fp he's, playing

'n xxx gyda 'r <hive> ## a   wedyn mae [/] mae   'r bachgen yn   gael tipyn-bach o [/] o
ADV   with the   and then is.3SG is.3SG the boy   PROG \get little-bit of   of
xxx-ly with the <hive>. And then [/] the boy gets a little bit of [/] of a

<start> achos   mae # [/] mae rhyw &an # anifeil-ad wedi dod   mas fel <mole> xxx rhywbeth ##
--   because is.3SG is.3SG some   animal-s PRF come out like   something
<start> because there's, [/] there's some &an animals come out like a <mole> xxx something.

um@fp a   mae   'r [/] mae   'r bachgen dechrau # [//] mae 'n   dal   i edrych # mae
--   and is.3SG the is.3SG the boy   begin   is.3SG PROG continue to look   is.3SG
Um@fp and the [/] the boy starts, [//] [he]'s still looking, [he]'s

'n   edrych lan y coeden a   wedi dringo 'r coeden mae 'n   edrych mewn fan 'na
PROG look   up the tree(f) and PRF climb the tree(f) is.3SG PROG look in   \place there
looking up the tree and has climbed the tree [he]'s looking in there

a   mae   'r ci <fi 'n   credu> [/] mae   wedi um@fp bwrw 'r <hive> dros y coeden a
and is.3SG the dog I PROG believe   is.3SG PRF   throw the   over the tree(f) and
and the dog <I think> [/] [he] has um@fp thrown the tree and

mae   'r [/] mae   'r <bees> yn   edrych fel maen nhw 'n   dod eitha xxx uh@fp ydyn
is.3SG the   is.3SG the   PROG look   like is.3PL they PROG come quite   is.3PL.Q
the [/] the <bees> look like they are becoming quite xxx uh@fp are they

[//] maen nhw 'n   nawr um@fp# yn # dilyn   y ci   maen nhw 'n   eitha dawel a   mae
     is.3PL they PROG now   PROG follow the dog is.3PL they PRED quite \quiet and is.3SG
[//] they are now, following the dog they are quite quiet and the

'r bachgen wedi # cwympo 'n ôl   wrth coeden achos   mae um@fp [/] mae <owl> wedi rhoi
the boy   PRF   fall   in track at   tree   because is.3SG   is.3SG   PRF give
boy has, fallen back at a tree because there's um@fp an <owl> have given

<start> i fe ## mae   bachgen dal   i edrych mae   wedi dringo um@fp ar ben ## um@fp
--   to he is.3SG boy   continue to look   is.3SG PRF climb   on \head
him a <start>. A boy is still looking [he] has climbed um@fp on top of. Um@fp

<pile of rocks?> # i edrych a   hefyd mae   wedi gweld [//] mae   'r um@fp [//] mae   wedi
--   to look   and also is.3SG PRF see   is.3SG the   is.3SG PRF
a <pile of rocks?>, to look and also [he] has seen [//] the um@fp [//] [he] has

gael <start> mae   'r [/] mae   'r [/] mae   'r <reindeer> wedi dod   a   mae   wedi dringo 'r
\get   is.3SG the   is.3SG the   is.3SG the   PRF come and is.3SG PRF climb the
gotten a <start> the [/] the [/] the <reindeer> has come and [he] he has climbed the

y [//] ar ei <back> a   mae xxx um@fp mae   'r bachgen wedi cwympo lawr i 'r   llawr
the   on his   and is.3SG   is.3SG the boy   PRF fall   down to the ground
the [//] on his <back> and there's xxx um@fp the boy has fallen down to the ground

a   maen nhw wedi cwympo mewn i um@fp [/] i # [/] wedi cwympo mewn i 'r   dŵr ## nawr
and is.3PL they PRF fall   in   to   to   PRF fall   in   to the water now
and they have fallen into um@fp [/] to, [/] have fallen into the water. Now

mae   'n   edrych fel   mae   'r bachgen wedi clywed sŵn # mae   wedi deud wrth y   ci
is.3SG PROG look   like is.3SG the boy   PRF hear   sound is.3SG PRF say to   the dog
[it] looks like the boy has heard a sound, [he] has told the dog

bod   yn   dawel a   mae   'n   wedi mynd dros # ydy &y y tu   ôl um@fp <log> mae
be.INF PRED \quiet and is.3SG PROG PRF go   over is.3SG.Q the side track   is.3SG
to be quiet and [he] has gobe over, yes &y behind um@fp a <log> [he]

wedi gweld um@fp y   ffrog mae   wedi ffeindio ffrind-iau [//] ffrind um@fp [//]cariad a   hefyd
PRF see   the frog is.3SG PRF find   friend-s   friend   love and also
has seen um@fp the frog [he] has found friends [//] a friend um@fp [//] a sweetheart and also

um@fp mae   bachgen wedi gweld mae [/] mae   'r rhai bach 'da fe um@fp <smaller frogs>
--   is.3SG boy   PRF see   is.3SG is.3SG the some little with he
um@fp a boy has seen there's [/] these little ones with him um@fp <smaller frogs>,

\# ddim yn xxx wedi cymryd un o ’r rhai ifanc a   mae wedi gadael um@fp yr un
   NEG PROG   PRF take   one of the some young and is.3SG PRF leave   the one
not xxx having taken one of the young ones and [he] has left um@fp the big

fawr gyda ’i   cariad   a ’r   teulu
\big with his sweetheart and the family
one with his sweetheart and the family.

wel mae 'na bachgen bach yn   eistedd ar-bwys y gwely a   mae 'n   edrych ar y
well is.3SG there boy   little PROG sit   near the bed and is.3SG PROG look   on the
Well there's a little boy sitting near the bed and [he]'s lookin at the

ci yn   edrych ar uh@fp broga sy   tu   fewn i # jar ## mae e [/] mae e yn y stafell
dog PROG look   on   frog is.REL side \in to jar is.3SG he is.3SG he in the room(f)
dog looking at uh@fp a frog who is inside, a jar. He's [/] he's in the bedroom

gwely um@fp mae   e [//] mae 'r # [//] mae 'n   nos [//] amser y nos   yw hi ## yr un nes
bed   is.3SG he is.3SG the is.3SG PRED night   time the night COP she the one next
um@fp he's [//] the [//] [it]'s night, [//] it is nighttime. The next one

tudalen pedwar uh@fp mae 'r bachgen # yn   cysgu nawr gyda 'r ci yn   cysgu gyda fe ar
page   four   is.3SG the boy   PROG sleep now with the dog PROG sleep with he on
page four uh@fp the boy, is sleeping now woth the dog sleeping with him on

ei gwely a   mae 'r ## broga yn # [/] yn dringo mas o 'r jar ### mae 'n   bore
his bed   and is.3SG the frog PROG PROG climb out from the jar   is.3SG PRED morning
his bed and the. Frog is, [/] is climbing out of the jar, [it]'s morning

nawr # ar tudalen pump # mae 'r bachgen a   'r ci wedi deffro a   mae 'r broga wedi
now on page   five   is.3SG the boy   and the dog PRF wake and is.3SG the frog PRF
now, on page five, the boy and the dog have woken up and the frog has

mynd ### <is that enough ya?> hynny yn   digon? mae 'n &ed [/] mae 'n   chwilio am y
go   that PRED enough is.3SG PROG   is.3SG PROG look   for the
gone. <Is that enough ya?> that enough? [He]'s looking for the

[/] am y broga nawr ## dyw   'r broga ddim yn y [/] yn y het [/] ddim yn y [/] y [/] y
    for the frog now   is.3SG.NEG the frog NEG in the in the hat   NEG in the the the
[/] for the frog now. The frog isn't in the [/] in the hat [/] not in the [/] the [/] the

xxx # dim yn [/] yn &es [/] yn yr esgid ## ble   mae e mae 'r ci yn [/] yn   edrych yn
--   NEG in   in   in the shoe   where is.3SG he is.3SG the dog PROG PROG look   in
xxx, not in [/] in &es [/] in the shoe. Where is he the dog is [/] is looking in

y jar ## maen nhw 'n   chwilio dros y [/] y [/] y # [/] yr ystafell gwely trwy   'r ystafell
the jar   is.3PL they PROG look   over the the the   the room(f) bed   through the room
the jar. They are looking over the [/] the [/] the, [/] the bedroom through the whole

i-gyd # yn   chwilio am y broga maen nhw 'n   edrych mas o 'r ffenest # mae 'n
all   PROG search for the frog is.3PL they PROG look   out from the window   is.3SG PROG
room, looking for the frog they look out of the window, [he]'s

[//] mae 'r bachgen yn   galw # dim &m dim yn   wybod pam achos mae [//] dyw [/]
     is.3SG the boy   PROG call NEG   NEG PROG \know why because is.3SG   is.3SG.NEG
the boy is calling, not &m not knowing why because [it]'s [//] it isn't

dyw   broga ddim yn   deall   # bachgen bach # mae   ’r ci gyda ’r jar ar ei ben ##
is.3SG.NEG frog   NEG PROG understand boy   little   is.3SG the dog with the jar on his \head
[/] a frog doesn’t understand, a little boy, the dog with the jar on his head.

mae   ’r ci yn   neidio mas o   ’r ffenest ## mae   ’r uh@fp bachgen yn [/] yn   meddwl
is.3SG the dog PROG jump   out from the window   is.3SG the   boy   PROG PROG think
The dog jumps out of the window. The uh@fp boy is [/] is thinking

<fi ’n   credu> [/] mae e ’n   meddwl beth [/] beth mae ’n   mynd i neud nesa ## nawr
  I PROG believe   is.3SG he PROG think   what   what is.3SG PROG go   to do next   now
<I think> [/] he thinks what [/] what [he]’s going to do next. Now

ni ’n   gweld e mas ## fallai mae ’n   poeni am   y [/] am   y ci <fi ’n   credu> #
we PROG see   he out   maybe is.3SG PROG worry about the   about the dog I PROG believe
we see him out. Maybe [he]’s worrying about the [/] about the dog <I think>,

a   mae ’r # [//] mae   o wedi mynd mas i helpu’r ci a   mae ’r jar wedi torri # a
and is.3SG the   is.3SG he PRF go   out to help the dog and is.3SG the jar PRF break and
and the [//] he has gone out to help the dog and the jar has broken, and

mae   ’r ci yn   llyo ei [/] ei [/] ei uh@fp gwyneb e ## nawr maen nhw yn y [/] yn yr
is.3SG the dog PROG lick his   his   his   face   he now is.3PL they in the in the
the dog is licking his [/] his [/] his uh@fp face. Now they are in the [/] in the

ardd   <siwr-o-fod> maen nhw # [/] maen nhw ’n   dal   i chwilio am y   broga ##
\garden(f) probably   is.3PL they   is.3PL they PROG continue to search for the frog
garden <probably> they are, [/] they are still looking for the frog.

maen nhw [//] mae ’r bachgen yn   galw maen nhw ’n   edrych # mae ’r ci yn edrych
is.3PL they   is.3SG the boy   PROG call is.3PL they PROG look   is.3SG the dog PROG look
They are [//] the boy is calling they are looking, the dog is looking

ar y adar yn   hedfan ## neu fallai maen nhw ’n # uh@fp gwenyn ydyn   nhw fallai #
on the birds PROG fly   or maybe is.3PL they PRED   bees   is.3PL.Q they maybe
at the birds flying. Or maybe they are, uh@fp bees are they maybe,

dim adar ## nawr # dw   i ’n   gallu gweld uh@fp dw   i ’m yn   gwybod beth yw
NEG birds now   is.1SG I PROG able see   is.1SG I NEG PROG know   what COP
not birds. Now, I can see uh@fp I don’t know what

‘r gair am <hive> xxx <hive> gwenyn tŷ   gwenyn <ok> ## cwch gwenyn <fi ’n   credu>
the word for   bees   house bees   hive bees   I PROG believe
the word is for <hive> xxx <hive> bees house of bees <ok>. Beehive <I think>

yw [/] yw ’r gair # a &ma [/] a   mae tipyn-bach o coedwig ar gwaelod yr ardd
COP   COP the word   and   and is.3SG little-bit of forest   on bottom the garden(f)
is [/] is the word, and &ma [/] and there’s a little bit of a forest at the botom of the garden

fallai ## a   mae twll yn yr ardd #   fallai bod   y [/] y broga wedi mynd i ’r twll #
maybe   and is.3SG hole in the \garden(f) maybe is.COMP the   the frog PRF go   to the hole
maybe. And there’s a hole in the garden, maybe the [/] the frog has gone to the hole,

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mae ’r # ci yn [/] yn [/] yn cyfar[t]h # y [/] y [/] y &gwe # mae ’n neidio lan at y [/]
is.3SG the dog PROG PROG PROG bark the the the is.3SG PROG jump up to the
the, dog is [/] is [/] is barking, the [/] the [/] the &gwe, [he]’s jumping up to the

at y # y # um@fp [/] y <hive> ## mae rhywbeth yn dod mas o ’r twll ond dw i
to the the the is.3SG something PROG come out from the hole but is.1SG I
[/] to the, the, um@fp [/] the <hive>. Something is coming out of the hole but I don’t

ddim yn credu bod e ’n uh@fp # [//] taw broga yw e ## mae ’r ci wedi colli
NEG PROG believe is.COMP he PROG is.COMP frog COP he is.3SG the dog PRF lose
belive that he uh@fp, [//] that it’s a frog. The dog has lost

diddordeb yn y [/] yn y twll a <’r bachgen bach> mae ’n [/] # mae ’n edrych ar y #
interest in the in the hole and the boy little is.3SG PROG is.3SG PROG look on the
interest in the [/] in the hole and the little boy [he]’s, [/] [he]’s looking at the,

[/] ar y gwenyn [/] ar y [//] ar y tŷ gwenyn ## ble mae ’r bachgen wedi mynd
on the bees on the on the house bees where is.3SG the boy PRF go
[/] at the bees [/] at the [//] at the house of bees. Where the boy has gone

mae ’r [/] # mae ’r tŷ gwenyn wedi cwympo a mae ’r gwenyn i-gyd yn hedfan
is.3SG the is.3SG the house bees PRF fall and is.3SG the bees all PROG fly
the, [/] the house of bees has fallen and all the bees are flying

mas [//] hedfan i-ffwrdd ## fallai ### rhybeth fel &we <weasel> yw e ond fi ’n ffaelu
out fly away maybe something like COP he but I PROG fail
out [//] flying away. Maybe. It’s something like &we <weasel> but I fail

cofio ’r enw uh@fp yn Gymraeg am <weasel> # wenci bach [/] wenci bach <dw i
remember the name in \Welsh for \weasel little \weasel little is.1SG I
to rememner the noun uh@fp in Welsh for <weasel>, little weasel [/] little weasel <I

‘n credu yw e> (wenci bach) <ya> a dyma ’r y # [/] y bachgen yn [/] yn dal
PROG believe COP he weasel little and here’s the the the boy PROG PROG continue
think is is (little weasel) <ya> and here’s the the, [/] the boy [/] still

i chwilio am y broga nawr mae ’n edrych ar [/] ar y # [/] ar y coeden a # mae
to look for the frog now is.3SG PROG look on on the on the tree(f) and is.3SG
searching for the frog now [h]’s looking at [/] at the, [/] at the tree and, [he]’s

’n edrych yn y [/] yn y twll yn chwilio am y broga yn y [/] yn y twll # a mae
PROG look in the in the hole PROG look for the frog in the in the hole and is.3SG
looking in the [/] in the hole searching for the frog in the [/] in the hole, and there’s

gwdihw yn dod mas # a mae ’r bachgen wedi cwympo # a mae ’r &gwen gwenyn
owl PROG come out and is.3SG the boy PRF fall and is.3SG the bees
an owl coming out, and the boy has fallen, and all the &gwen bees

i-gyd yn   hedfan o-gwmpas ## a   maen nhw 'n uh@fp # mynd at y ci nawr ### a ble
all PROG fly   around   and is.3PL they PROG   go to the dog now   and where
are flying around. And they uh@fp, are going at the dog now. And where

mae   e ble   maen nhw nawr maen nhw wel [/] wel mae   rhyw twmpath # maen nhw #
is.3SG he where is.3PL they now is.3PL they well   well is.3SG some mound   is.3PL they
is he where are they now they are well [/] well there's some mound, they are,

lawr yn y coedwig rhywle   a   mae 'r gwdihw yn   hedfan o-gwmpas fallai
down in the forest(f) somewhere and is.3SG the owl   PROG fly   around   maybe
down in the forest somewhere and the owl is flying around maybe

mae   'r [//] mae # ar-no fe ofn # y   bachgen [//] mae   ar-na y bachgen ofn y [/] y [/] y
is.3SG the   is.3SG on-him he fear the boy   is.3SG on-me the boy   fear the the the
the [//] he's, afraid, the boy [//] the boy is afraid of the [/] the [/] the

gwdihw # mae   wedi dringo lan y twmpath nawr a   mae   'n # gweiddi # dw   i 'm
owl   is.3SG PRF climb up the mound   now and is.3SG PROG shout   is.1SG I NEG
owl, [he] has climbed up the mound now and [he]'s, shouting, I don't

gwybod pam mae   'n   gweiddi xxx dw   i ddim yn   siwr bod   y broga yn   clywed
know   why is.3SG PROG shout   is.1SG I NEG PRED sure is.COMP the frog PROG hear
know why [he]'s shouting xx I'm not sure that the frog hears.

a   nawr yn   ni 'n   gallu gweld beth ni 'n   credu a   fallai bod   y bachgen
   and now is.1PL we PROG able see   what we PROG believe and maybe is.COMP the boy
And now we can see what we think and maybe the boy

yn   credu bod # rhyw coeden bach yn   tyfu tu ôl i 'r uh@fp y twmpath ond
PROG believe is.COMP some tree(f) little PROG grow side track to the   the mound but
thinks that, some little tree grows behind the uh@fp the mound but

uh@fp carw yw e fallai # carw? # ydy # carw yw e a   mae   'r carw yn   mynd gyda
--   stag COP he maybe stag   yes stag COP he and is.3SG the stag PROG go   with
uh@fp it's a stag maybe, stag? yes, it's a stag and the stag is going with

'r bachgen yn   sownd rhwng   y [/] y cyrn ## a   mae   'n   rhedeg at # wel mae #
the boy   PRED stuck between the the horns and is.3SG PROG run   to well is.3SG
the boy stuck between the [/] the horns. And [he]'s running to, well there's,

clogwyn at uh@fp ymyl y clogwyn efallai mae [//] maen nhw gyd mynd i mynd dros yr ymyl #
cliff   to   edge the cliff maybe is.3SG is.3PL they all go   to go over the edge
a cliff, [/] to the edge of the cliff maybe [//] they all going to go over the edge,

a   mae   'r carw wedi # stopio # mae   'r ci yn   cwympo ar y bachgen hefyd # a
and is.3SG the stag PRF   stop   is.3SG the dog PROG fall   on the boy   also   and
and, the stag has, stopped, the dog falls on the boy also, and

fi 'n   credu bod   nhw 'n   cwympo mewn i rhyw pwllyn bach # dim yn   siwr
I PROG belive is.COMP they PROG fall   in to some pond little NEG PRED sure
I think that they fall into some little pond, not sure

fallai ydyn   nhw dan   y   ddŵr   nawr ## fallai maen nhw wedi cwympo lawr i pwllyn
maybe is.3PL.Q they under the \water(m) now   maybe is.3PL they PRF   fall   down to pond
maybe are they under water now? Maybe they have fallen down to a pond.

na maen nhw [//] dyw   e ddim yn dwfn iawn dw   i ddim yn   credu na ## a
   no is.3PL they   is.3SG.NEG he NEG PRED deep very is.1SG I NEG PROG believe no   and
No they are [//] it isn't very deep I don't belive no. And

fallai maen nhw 'n   mynd i ffeindio'r broga yn y pwllyn gawn   ni weld ## mae
maybe is.3PL they PROG go   to find   the frog in the pond \get.1PL.FUT we \see   is.3SG
maybe they are going to find the frog in the pond we'll see. The

'r uh@fp # bachgen yn [/] yn [/] yn   gweud <sh> wrth y [/] y ci # fallai bod   y broga tu
the   boy   PROG PROG PROG say   to   the the dog maybe is.COMP the frog side
uh@fp, boy [/] [/] tells the [/] the dog '<sh>', maybe the frog is

fewn i ' r [/] i ' r pren ## a   dyna   ni &ma maen nhw wedi ffeindio nhw # dau o-honyn
\in to the to the wood   and there's we   is.3PL they PRF find   they two of-them
inside the [/] the wood. And there we are &ma they have found them, two of them.

nhw ## 'na   pam oedd   y broga wedi [/] wedi dianc fallai oedd   e # a   mae broga
they   that's why was.3SG the frog PRF   PRF escape maybe was.3SG he and is.3SG frog
That's why the frog had [/] had escaped maybe was it, and there's a little [//]

bach [//] bychain ## maen nhw 'n   edrych yn   hapus iawn mae   ' r bachgen yn   hapus
little   little   is.3PL they PROG look   PRED happy very is.3SG the boy   PRED happy
frog. They look very happy the boy is very happy,

iawn # achos   mae e wedi ffeindio'r broga # a   mae ' r ci yn   hapus achos
very   because is.3SG he PRF find   the frog   and is.3SG the dog PRED happy because
because he has found the frog and the dog is happy because the

bod   y bachgen yn   hapus # a   mae ' r broga # yn   hapus hefyd # a   dyna   diwedd
is.COMP the boy   PRED happy and is.3SG the frog   PRED happy also   and there's end
boy is happy, and the frog, is happy also, and there's the end,

y   stori
  the story
of the story.

<ok> un   noswaith oedd   y [//] oedd   bachgen uh@fp # a   ’i ci bach um@fp yn stafell
      one evening   was.3SG the   was.3SG boy   and his dog little   in   room(f)
<Ok> one evening the [//] a boy was uh@fp, and his little dog um@fp were in a bedroom

gwely gyda ffrog # um@fp a   nhw ’n   edrych ar [/] ar-no fe oedd um@fp[/] oedd   bron
bed   with frog   and they PROG look   on   on-him he was.3SG   was.3SG nearly
with a frog, um@fp and they looking at [/] at him [he] was um@fp [/] [he] was nearly

i mynd i gwely # ac   ar ôl   i [/] i ’r bachgen # wedi mynd i gwely &ro oedd   e
to go   to bed   and on track to   to the boy   PRF go   to bed   was.3SG he
to go to bed, and after [/] the boy, had gone to bed &ro he was

cysgu gyda ci   ar y [/] ar y # [/] ar y   gwely uh@fp ## aeth   y ffrog mas o   ’r um@fp
sleep with dog on the   on the   on the bed   went.3SG the frog   out from the
sleeping with a dog on the [/] on the, [/] on the bed uh@fp. The frog went out of the um@fp

<jam> jar ## ac   wedi # mae   ddim yn &ll [/] dim yma nawr a &ma mae   yn y   bore #
--   jar   and after is.3SG NEG PROG   NEG here now and   is.3SG in the morning
<jam> jar. And [after], [he] isn’t &ll [/] not here now and &ma [it]’s in the morning,

mae   wedi mynd ac   mae   ’r bachgen a   ’r ci yn   edrych # y gwely amdano fe ond
is.3SG PRF go   and is.3SG the boy   and the dog PROG look   the bed   for-him he but
[he] has gone and the boy and the dog are looking, the bed for him but

maen nhw ddim yn   gallu weld e   o   unrywle ## a   maen nhw &r [/] maen nhw ’n
is.3PL they NEG PROG able \see he from anywhere   and is.3PL they   is.3PL they PROG
they aren’t able to see him from anywhere. And they are &r [/] they are

edrych mewn popeth   mewn [/] mewn ei sgidiau a   dan y gwely ac   yn y <jam> jar
look   in   everything in   in   his shoes and under the bed   and in the   jar
looking in everything in [/] in his shoes and under the bed and in the <jam> jar

a [/] a   mewn pobeth   arall uh@fp ond mae   ddim xxx o-gwbl maen nhw edrych mas o
and and in   everything other   but is.3SG NEG   at-all is.3PL they look   out from
and [/] and in everything else uh@fp but there’s no xxx at all they look out of

ffenest   a   mae   ’r uh@fp ci wedi # cael ei # <jam> jar ar ei ben # um@fp ## a   mae ‘r
window and is.3SG the   dog PRF   get his   jar on his \head   and is.3SG the
a windoe and the uh@fp dog has, got his, <jam> jar on his head, um@fp. And the

bachgen yn   galw uh@fp am [/] am y   ffrog i ddod yn ôl ## ac &we ci [/] ci wedi uh@fp
boy   PROG call   for   for the frog to \come in track and   dog dog PRF
boy is calling uh@fp for [/] for the frog to come back. And &we a dog [/] dog

cwympo mas o   ’r ffenestr ar [/] ar y &glas [/] ar ei uh@fp i ’r lawr   a   mae   ’r [/]
fall   out from the window on   on the &glas   on his   to the \ground(m) and is.3SG the
fallen out of the window on [/] on the &glas [/] on his uh@fp to the ground and the [/]

mae 'r <jam> jar <still> ar ei ben a pan # &o [/] pan roedd e ar y &la [/] ar y [/] ar
is.3SG the jar on his \head and when when was.3SG he on the on the on
[/] the <jam> jar is <still> on his head and when, &o [/] when he was on the &la [/] on the [/] on

y lawr um@fp torr-odd um@fp y <jam> jar ac mae 'r ci yn llyfu gwyneb y bachgen #
the \ground(m) broke-3SG the jar and is.3SG the dog PROG lick face the boy
the ground um@fp he broke um@fp the <jam> jar and the dog is licking the boy's face,

a maen nhw <still> galw mae 'na [/] mae 'na adar # yn yr awyr <i 'n credu> neu
and is.3PL they call is.3SG there is.3SG there birds in the sky I PROG believe or
and they are <still> calling there's [/] there are birds, in the sky <I think> or

fallai bod nhw 'n uuuh@fp &deili ond mae e ddim yn gallu weld e o-gwbl ## o-'n
maybe is.COMP they PROG but is.3SG he NEG PROG able \see he at-all was-3PL
maybe they are uuuh@fp &deili but he can't see ih at all. They were

nhw mas o-'n nhw mynd yn y coedwig ac yn y goedwig mae 'na ## [/] mae 'na ##
they out was-3PL they go in the forest(f) and in the forest(f) is.3SG there is.3SG there
out they were going in the forest and in the forest there's. [/] There's.

<bees> be' ti 'n galw um@fp sy 'n neud mêl ## ac mae 'na # coed-ydd &he
-- what you PROG call is.REL PROG make honey and is.3SG there trees-xxx
<Bees> what you call ym@fp who make honey. And there are, old trees &he

uh@fp hen gyda twll ynddo fe # a maen nhw edrych ar [//] maen nhw 'n um@fp [//] mae
-- old with hole in-it he and is.3PL they look on is.3PL they PROG is.3SG
uh@fp with a hole in it, and they are looking at [//] they are um@fp [//] the

'r ci yn edrych yn y <beehive> ond mae e ddim yn gallu gweld dim-byd a
the dog PROG look in the but is.3SG he NEG PROG able see nothing and
dog is lookig in the <beehive> but he can't see anything and

mae 'r bachgen yn edrych mewn twll yn y [/] yn y [/] yn y [/] yn y lawr &on mae 'n
is.3SG the boy PROG look in hole in the in the in the in the \ground(m) is.3SG PROG
the boy is looking in a hole in the [/] in the [/] in the [/] in the ground &on [he]'s

yn galw dan-o fe a mae [/] a mae 'na # rhyw anifail fach yn dod ## um@fp
PROG call under-him he and is.3SG and is.3SG there some animal(m) \little PROG come
calling under it and there's [/] there's, some little animal coming. Um@fp

<it's like a groundhog> # <that's an American that's an American one> ## uh@fp uh@fp xxx
---
<it's like a groundhog>, <that's and American that's an American one>. Uh@fp uh@fp xxx

nawr arogl ofnadwy <dw i 'n credu> mae 'r bachgen yn mynd <oh> xxx
now odor awful is.1SG I PROG believe is.3SG the boy PROG go
now an awful smell <I think> the boy goes '<oh>' xxx

uh@fp uh@fp arogl a mae 'r # [//] a mae wedi [//] mae e [//] maen nhw xxx
-- odor and is.3SG the and is.3SG PRF is.3SG he is.3PL they
uh@fp uh@fp a smell and the, [//] and [he] has [//] he has [//] they are xxx

yma # ac   mae   'r uh@fp <beehive> wedi &c [/] wedi ## [//] mae   rhywbeth wedi digwydd
here   and is.3SG the   PRF   PRF   is.3SG something PRF   happen
here, and the uh@fp <beehive> has &c [/] has. Something has happened

a   mae   'r [/] mae   'r um@fp <beehive> ar y   lawr   a   mae 'na [//] maen nhw 'n
and is.3SG the   is.3SG the   on the \ground(m) and is.3SG there is.3PL they PROG
and the [/] the um@fp <beehive> is on the ground and there's [//] they are

dod   mas ## a   mae   'r anifail   fach yn   edrych nawr yma ## ond mae   ddim yn # [/]
come out   and is.3SG the animal(m) \little PROG look   now here   but is.3SG NEG PROG
coming out. And the little animal is looking now here. But [he] isn't, [/]

mae   ddim yn   gallu siarad yna ddim-byd a   mae   'r bachgen yn &e [/] yn   gwylio mewn
is.3SG NEG PROG able speak there \nothing and is.3SG the boy   PROG   PROG watch in
[he] is not able to speak there anything and the boy is &e [/] is looking into

i   'r [/] i 'r &he i 'r hen #[//] mae   'na ## &coe &coe um@fp # gyda <hole> yma gyda 'r
to the to the   to the old   is.3SG there   with   here with the
the [/] the &he to the old, [//] there's. &coe &coe Um@fp, with a <hole> here with the

um@fp [//] o mae   ddim yn y [/] yn y twll yn [/] yn [//] ynddo fe a   mae   'r bachgen
--   he is.3SG NEG   in the in the hole in   in   in-him he and is.3SG the boy
um@fp [//] him [it] isn't in the [/] in the hole in [/] in [//] in it and the boy

yn   edrych # dw   i 'n   gallu gweld # <I don't know what an owl is> # a   mae &ad [//]
PROG look   is.1SG I PROG able see   and is.3SG
is looking, I can't see, <I don't know what an owl is>, and there's &ad

mae   'na aderyn &wed yn   byw yno a   mae   'r [//] maen [//] mae [/] mae   wedi # [/]mae
is.3SG there bird   PROG live there and is.3SG the   is.3PL   is.3SG is.3SG PRF   is.3SG
[//] there's a bird &wed living there and the [//] they [//] [it] [/] [it] has, [/] [it] has

wedi ofni 'r aderyn a   mae   'n [//] mae   'r aderyn yn   dod mas # a   mae   'r bachgen
PRF fear the bird   and is.3SG PROG is.3SG the bird   PROG come out   and is.3SG the boy
feared the bird and [it]'s [//] the bird is coming out, and the boy is,

[/] aeth   e wedi &c cwympo hefyd ar y   lawr   a   mae   'r # ci # yn   rhedeg o
      went.3SG he PRF   fall   also on the \ground(m) and is.3SG the dog PROG run   from
he went having fallen also on the ground and the, dog, is running from

'r um@fp <bees> ## ac   mae   'r um@fp [//] mae   rhywbeth arall yna rhywbeth tu   ôl
the   and is.3SG the   is.3SG something other there something side track
the um@fp <bees>. And the um@fp [//] there's something else there something behind

hwn # um@fp a   mae   'r bachgen yn   rhedeg nawr uh@fp wel ar [/] ar craig neu carreg
this   and is.3SG the boy   PROG run   now   well on   on rock or stone(f)
this, um@fp and the boy is running now uh@fp well on [/] on a rock or a big stone

fawr gyda 'r aderyn ar ei ôl # a   mae   'n   galw [//] mae   'r aderyn [//] mae   'n um@fp
\big with the bird on his track and is.3SG PROG call   is.3SG the bird   is.3SG PRED
with the bird behind him, and [he]'s calling [//] the bird [//] [he]'s um@fp

360

&a # ar y   pren yna # um@fp a   mae ’r ci [/] ci ’n [/] yn   edrych o-dan y carreg yma
      on the wood there   and is.3SG the dog dog PROG PROG look   under the stone(f) here
&a, on the wood there, um@fp the dog [/] dog is [/] is lookig under the stone here.

mae ‘na   anifail <‘t’s a deer> uh@fp mae   wedi # [//] mae   ’n   cuddio tu ’n ôl   a
   is.3SG there animal   is.3SG PRF   is.3SG PROG hide   side in track and
There’s an animal <it’s a deer> uh@fp [he] has, [//] [he]’s hiding behind and

mae   wedi sefyll &i i-fyny a   mae ’r [/] mae ’r bachgen ar ei ben ‘na ## a   mae
is.3SG PRF stand   up   and is.3SG the is.3SG the boy   on his \head there and is.3SG
[he] has stood &i up and the [/] the boy is on his head there. And the

‘r ci wedi myn’ ’n ôl   tu xxx # a   maen nhw ’n   rhedeg nawr a mae   ‘na um@fp #
the dog PRF go   in track side and is.3PL they PROG run   now and is.3SG there
dog has gone back xxx side, and they are running now and there’s um@fp,

ar lan   yr afon neu &ll [/] neu llyn neu rhywbeth neu um@fp dw   i ddim yn   gwybod
on \shore the river or   or lake or something or   is.1SG I NEG PROG know
on the river or &ll [/] or lake shore or something or um@fp I don’t know

beth yw [/] beth yw e ond mae [/] mae   ’r &anim anifail yn   rhedeg nawr gyda ’r ci
what COP   what COP he but is.3SG is.3SG the   animal PROG run   now with the dog
what [/] what is it but [/] the &anim animal is running now with the dog

ar y bachgen a ’r bachgen ar ei ben a   mae ’n [//] mae ar xx rhy yn cyflym
on the boy   and the boy   on his \head and is.3SG PROG is.3SG on too ADV quick
on the boy and the boy on his head and and [it]’s [//] [he]’s on too xxx very quickly.

iawn ## a   mae ’r bachgen a ’r ci yn [/] yn   cwympo mewn credu mae   ’n   dŵr
very   and is.3SG the boy   and the dog PROG PROG fall   in   believe is.3SG PROG water
And the boy and the dog are [/] are falling in think [it]’s water

rhywle # um@fp mae ’n   dwfn a   mae ## dim # yn   bwrw glaw fallai # na ## um@fp
somewhere   is.3SG PRED deep and is.3SG NEG   PROG throw rain maybe no
somewhere, um@fp [it]’s water and [it]’s. Not, raining maybe, no. Um@fp

um@fp ### ah@fp maen nhw ’n   gallu clywed rhybeth yma ## a   mae ’n &r
--   is.3PL they PROG able hear   something here   and is.3SG PROG
um@fp. Ah@fp they can hear something here. And [he]’s &r

[/] mae ’n [/] mae ’n [/] mae ’n # gwrando xxx mae   ’n   clywed um@fp # rhyw sŵn
    is.3SG PROG is.3SG PROG is.3SG PROG listen   is.3SG PROG hear   some sound
[/] [he]’s [/] [he]’s [/] [he]’s, listening xxx [he] hears um@fp, some sound

<somewhere> # a   mae ‘na # hen xxx o pren yna ## a   mae ’n   dweud wrth y ci
--   and is.3SG there old   of wood there and is.3SG PROG say   to the dog
<somewhere>, and there’s an, old xxx of wood there. And [he] tells the dog

&a i fod   yn   ddawel # a   bod nhw ’n   edrych tu ‘n ôl [//] dros-to fe a   dyna #
   to \be.INF PRED \quiet and is.COMP they PROG look   side in track over-it he and there’s
&a to be quiet, and that they look behind [//] over it and there’s,

ar yr ochr arall mae 'na ddau o nhw # um@fp # na mwy na ddau mae 'na teulu
on the side other is.3SG there \two of they no more than \two is.3SG there family(m)
on the other side there's two of them, um@fp, no more than two there's a big family,

fawr # o 'r [//] o ffrogs a maen &nh [/] maen nhw ddim yn byw fel &yn yna yn [/] yn yr
\big of the of frogs and is.3PL is.3PL they NEG PROG live like there in in the
of the [//] of frogs and they &nh [/] they aren't living like &yn there in [/] in the

un byd â ni ac maen nhw # wedi troi <rownd> a mae 'n # gweud <farewell> # <fi
one world as we and is.3PL they PRF turn and is.3SG PROG say I
same world as us and they, have turned <rownd> and they, say <farewell>, <I

'n credu> neu maen nhw 'n &di xxx i 'r um@fp rhywun oh@fp mae un bach yma
PROG believe or is.3PL they PROG to the someone is.3SG one small here
think> or they are &di xxx to the um@fp someone oh@fp there's one small one here

ar ei hun sy ddim yn gallu mynd
on his own is.REL NEG PROG able go
on his own who can't go.

Broga # ble   ydych chi ## mae 'r hog[yn] bach wrth y gwely efo ci bach mae 'n
frog   where is.2PL.Q you is.3SG the boy   little at   the bed   with dog little is.3SG PRED
Frog, where are you. The little boy is by the bed with a little dog [it]'s

amser gwely a   mae broga yn y jar ## mae   'r hog[yn] bach a   'r ci yn   mynd i
time bed   and is.3SG frog in the jar   is.3SG the boy   little and the dog PROG go   to
bed time and there's a frog in the jar. The little boy and the dog goes to

gwely i gysgu # a   pan maen nhw 'n   cysgu mae 'r broga yn   fynd ## mae   'n
bed   to \sleep and when is.3PL they PROG sleep is.3SG the frog PROG \go   is.3SG PRED
bed to sleep, and when they are sleeping the frog goes. [It]'s

amser nos ## yn y bore # pan mae 'r bachgen yn # dod o   'r gwely # does
time night in the morning when is.3SG the boy   PROG come from the bed   is.3SG.NEG
night time. In the morning, when the boy is, coming from bed, there

'na   ddim broga i gweld o-gwbl ## maen nhw 'n &ed edrych ym mobman # yn y jar #
there NEG frog to see   at-all   is.3PL they PROG look   in \everywhere in the jar
is not a frog to see at all. They are &ed looking everywhere, in the jar,

trwy   'r dillad # ond does   'na   ddim broga i weld ## maen nhw 'n   edrych
through the clothes but is.3SG.NEG there NEG frog to \see   is.3PL they PROG look
through the clothes, but there's not a frog to see. They are looking

trwy   'r ffenestr # maen nhw 'n   galw am y broga # ond does   'na   dim-byd yn
through the window   is.3PL they PROG call for the frog   but is.3SG.NEG there nothing PROG
through the window, they are calling for the frog, but there's nothing

dod yn ôl ## mae   ci bach yn   cwympo o   'r ffenestr # &a &a ar y llawr ## mae 'r
come in track is.3SG dog little PROG fall   from the window   on the ground is.3SG the
coming back. A little dog falls from the window, &a &a on the ground. The

jar wedi torri ond mae   'r ci yn   iawn ## mae   'r bachgen yn <cuddl>-o   ci # yn
jar PRF break but is.3SG the dog PRED okey   is.3SG the boy   PROG   -INF dog in
jar has broken but the dog is okey. The boy <cuddle>s a dog, in a

cwtsh ## maen nhw 'n   fynd allan i gweld # ble   mae   'r broga ## ond mae   gwenyn
hug   is.3PL they PROG go   out to see   where is.3SG the frog   but is.3SG bees
hug. They are going out to see, where the frog is. But bees

yn   dod ## maen nhw 'n   edrych ac yn   galw ond does   'na ddim-byd i weld #
PROG come is.3PL they PROG look   and PROG call but is.3SG.NEG there \nothing to \see
are coming. They are looking and calling but there's nothing to see,

ond # y gwenyn ## maen nhw 'n   byw # yn y coedwig # mewn <hive> ## mae   'r
but   the bees   is.3PL they PROG live in the forest(f) in   is.3SG the
but, the bees. They live, in the forest, in a <hive> the

bachgen bach yn   edrych yn y ddaear   mae twll yn y ddaear ## mae o 'n   edrych i
boy   little PROG look   in the \earth(f) is.3SG hole in the \earth(f) is.3SG he PROG look   to
little boy is looking in the ground there's a hole in the ground. He's looking to see if

weld os yd[y]'r   broga yn y twll ## mae   'r ci yn <bark>-io # at y gwenwyn # [//]
\see if is.3SG.Q the frog in the hole   is.3SG the dog PROG   -INF to the poison
there's a frog in the hole. The dog is <bark>ing at the poison, [//] bees. The

gwenyn ## mae'r bachgen bach yn   symud lan # mae 'na   rhywbeth wedi dod   allan o
bees   is.3SG the boy   little PROG move up is.3SG there something PRF   come out   from
little boy moves up there's something come out from

'r   twll yn y ddaear   ond dydy   o ddim y broga ## mae ci # yn   chwarae yn y
the hole in the \earth(f) but is.3SG.NEG he NEG the frog   is.3SG dog PROG play   in the
the hole in the ground but it isn't the frog. A dog is playing in the

coedwig ## <oh dear> <fi 'm   gwybod> ## mae   bachgen bach yn   mynd lan y coedwig i
forest(f)   I NEG know   is.3SG boy   little PROG go   up the forest(f) to
forest. <Oh dear>. A little boy is going up the forest to

weld beth sydd   yn y twll ## mae   adar yn   dod
\see what is.REL in the hole   is.3SG birds PROG come
see what is in the hole. Birds come

allan o 'r twll # a   mae 'r bachgen bach yn   cwympo ar y   llawr ##
out   of the hole and is.3SG the boy   little PROG fall   on the floor
out of the hole and the little boy falls on the ground.

mae   'r ci bach yn   rhedeg ffwrdd # a   gw[e]nyn ar ei ôl ### mae   aderyn yn
is.3SG the dog little PROG run   away   and bees   on his track is.3SG bird   PRED
The little boy is running away, and bees after him. Abird is

fawr # a   mae 'r bachen bach ddim yn   licio adar o-gwbl # ac mae 'n   cleimio
\big   and is.3SG the boy   little NEG PROG like birds at-all   and is.3SG PROG   climb
big, and the little boy doesn't like birds at all, and [he] climbs

fyny o xxx # ac yn   galw o-gwmpas # i gweld ble   mae 'r ci # a ble   mae 'r
up   from   and PROG call around   to see   where is.3SG the dog and where is.3SG the
up from xxx, and calling around, to see where the dog it, and where the

broga ## mae carw yn   dod allan o 'r coedwig ac yn   symud y [/] y bachgen bach
frog   is.3SG stag PROG come out from the forest(f) and PROG move the   the boy   little
frog is. A stag comes out from the forest and moves the [/] the little boy.

mae   o 'n   rhedeg i-ffwrdd # a   wedyn maen nhw 'n   cwympo dros y <cliff>
   is.3SG he PROG run   away   and then is.3PL they PROG fall   over the
He runs away, and then they fall over the <cliff>.

cwympo lawr   trwy 'r awyr # y ci bach a bachgen bach # a   maen nhw cwympo a
fall   down through the air   the dog little and boy   little and is.3PL they fall   and
fall down through the air, the little dog and little boy, and they fall and

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cwympo lawr # a   wedyn maen nhw yn y   dŵr   efo <splash> ## mae   bachgen a   ci
fall   down and then   is.3PL they in the water with   is.3SG boy   and dog
fall down, and then they are in the water with a <splash>. A boy and dog

yn   iawn a   maen nhw 'n   codi fyny i gweld a   maen nhw 'n   clywed rhywbeth ##
PRED okey and is.3PL they PROG rise up   to see   and is.3PL they PROG hear   something
are okey and they rise up to see and they hear something.

beth i [//] be'   maen nhw 'n   clywed y   broga? # <shh> mae   bachgen bach yn   deud ##
what to   what is.3PL they PROG hear   the frog   is.3SG boy   little PROG say
What to [//] what do they hear the frog? <shh> a little boy says.

a   maen nhw codi fyny # a   edrych dros y   coedwig # i weld beth sydd 'na # a   dyma
and is.3PL they rise up   and look   over the forest(f)   to \see what is.REL there and here's
and they rise up, and look over the forest, to see what is there, and here's

broga # efo broga arall ## a   pan maen nhw 'n   yn   edrych # mae   'na lot   o broga
frog   with frog other   and when is.3PL they PROG PROG look   is.3SG there many of frog
a frog, with another frog. And when they look, there are a lot of little frog[s],

bach # un dau tri   pedwar pump chwech saith wyth broga bach ## mae   'r   bachgen yn
little   one two three four   five six   seven eight frog little   is.3SG the boy   PRED
one two three four five six seven eigth little frogs. The boy is

hapus i weld bod   y   broga yn   hapus hefyd # ac   maen nhw 'n   mynd adre   a
happy to \see is.COMP the frog PRED happy also   and is.3PL they PROG go   homeward and
happy to see that the frog is happy also, and they go home and

gadael y   teulu broga yn ôl # mae   'na un broga wedi cwympo o   'r   coed
leave the family frog in track is.3SG there one frog PRF fall   from the trees
leave the frog family back, there's one frog fallen from the trees.

CA1   time - 2:44

un noswaith xxx # uh@fp naeth   y   bachgen um@fp rhoi llyffant mewn jar # uh@fp ## a
one evening   did.3SG the boy   put frog   in   jar   and
One eveing xxx, uh@fp the boy put a frog in a jar, uh@fp and

um@fp aeth   i gygsgu ## yn ystod   y   nos   oedd   y llyffant mynd allan o   ’r
--   went.3SG to \sleep   in duration the night was.3SG the frog   go   out from the
um@fp [he] went to sleep. During the night the frog was going out of the

jar a uh@fp dianc uh@fp drwy   ’r ffenest oedd   yn   agored # uh@fp # a   pan
jar and   escape   through the window was.3SG PRED open   and when
jar and uh@fp escaping uh@fp through the window [that] was open. Uh@fp and when

roedd   y   bachgen ddi[hi]no lan a   sylweddoli bod   dim-byd yn y   jar # uh@fp
was.3SG the boy   \wake   up and realize   is.COMP nothing in the jar
the boy was waking up and realizing that there was nothing in the jar, uh@fp

naeth   e edrych drwy   ei stafell   yn ei ddillad # um@fp allan drwy   ’r ffenest #
did.3SG he look   through his room   in his \clothes   out   through the window
he lookied through his room, in his clothes, um@fp out through the window,

wrth i-ddo agor y ffenest naeth   y   ci cwympo allan   ah@fp uh@fp naeth   y jar #
at   to-him open the window did.3SG the dog jump   out   did.3SG the jar
as he opened the window the dog jumped out. Ah@fp uh@fp the jar,

[//] oedd   ar y ci yn xxx um@fp dorri ar y [/] # ar y   llawr # um@fp aeth   y
     was.3SG on the dog PROG   \break on the   on the ground   went.3SG the
[it] was on the dog xxx, break on the [/] on the ground. Um@fp the boy went

bachgen allan i edrych am y   llyffant a galw a   galw # naeth   e alw mewn twll a   wrth
boy   out to look   for the frog   and call and call did.3SG he \call in   hole and at
out to look for the frog and calls and calls. He called in a hole and as

i xxx allan roedd   y   ci yn   cyfarth um@fp ## ar y <beesnest> <t’beth   yw hwnna> #
to   out was.3SG the dog PROG bark   on the   whatever COP that
xxx out the dog was barking um@fp at the <beesnest> <whatever that is>,

um@fp fe   wnaeth y   bachgen um@fp um@fp mynd lan y   coeden ## uh@fp ag wrth iddo
--   AFF did.3SG the boy   go   up the tree(f)   and at   to-him
um@fp the boy went up the tree. Uh@fp and as he

gwympo naeth   y   gwenyn mynd ar ôl   y   ci ah@fp ## oedd   y bachgen yw
\fall   did.3SG the bees   go   on track the dog   was.3SG the boy   COP
falls, the bees went after the dog. Ah@fp the boy was

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lwci uh@fp roedd　　e 'n　　　dychryn xxx um@fp roedd　　y　　tylluan uh@fp o-amgylch ## ac
lucky　　　was.3SG he PROG frighten　　　　　　was.3SG the owl(f)　　　　around　　　and
lucky uh@fp it was frightening xxx the owl was uh@fp around. And

wrth i-ddo　　fynd lan uh@fp um@fp <rocks> <t'beth　　　yw 'wnna> ## reit # <deer> naeth　　e
at　　to-him \go　up　　　　　　　　　　　　whatever COP that　　　　right　　　　did.3SG he
as he went up uh@fp um@fp some <rocks> <whatever that is>. Right, a <deer> he

gwympo uh@fp mewn i　goedwig # a　　mewn i　lyn ah@fp ## uh@fp naeth　　y　ci uh@fp
\fall　　　　　　　in　to \forest(f)　and in　　to \lake　　　　　　　　did.3SG the dog
fell uh@fp into a forest, and into a lake. Ah@fp uh@fp the dog　uh@fp

mynd ar ei　ben # um@fp naeth　　e　glywyd rywbeth　　mewn bonyn coeden # a　　naeth
go　　on his \head　　　did.3SG he \hear　\something in　　trunk　tree　　　and did.3SG
went on top of him, um@fphe heard something in a tree trunk, and

e　edrych tu　ôl　i 'r　bonyn # a　dyna　roedd　　y　llyffant uh@fp a　lyffant-od bach
he look　　side track to the trunk　　and there's was.3SG the frog　　　　　and \frog-s　little
he looked behind the trunk, and there was the frog uh@fp and little frogs

hefyd # <ah@fp reit　llyffant 'dden　　　　i 'n　　gweud> um@fp fe　aeth　　　y　bachgen
also　　　　　　right frog　is.1SG.COND I PROG say　　　　　AFF went.3SG the boy
also, <ah@fp right frog I'd say>. Um@fp the boy went

'n ôl　　gyda un o 'r　lyffant bach a　　gweud hwyl　fawr wrth y　teulu o　llyffantod
in track with　one of the \frog　little　and say　　bye(f) \big　to　the frog　of frogs
back with one of the little frog and says goodbye to the family of frogs

[/] llyffantod # grêt
　　frogs　　　　great
[/] frogs, great.

un bore   mae 'na hogyn bach yn   codi o   'i wely ac yn   mynd i eiste[dd] ar
one morning is.3SG there boy   little PROG rise from his \bed and PROG go   to sit   on
One morning there was a little boy xxx bed and goes to sit on a stool. Um@fp

stôl um@fp mae   siarad gyda 'i gi anwes ac maen nhw 'n   edrych ar llyffant sy
stool   is.3SG speak with his \dog pet   and is.3PL they PROG look   on frog   is.REL
[he] speaks with his pet dog and they look at a frog that they have

gyn-nyn   nhw mewn jar ## a   dyna   pan mae   'r hogyn bach yn   mynd yn ôl   i wely
with-them they in   jar   and there's when is.3SG the boy   little PROG go   in track to \bed
in a jar. And there when the little boy goes back to bed and

ac yn   mynd 'n ôl i gysgu # a   mae   'r uh@fp y ci anwes yn   cysgu ar ben ei
and PROG go   in track to \sleep and is.3SG the   the dog pet   PROG sleep on \head hi
goes back to sleep, and the uh@fp pet dog sleeps on top of his bed,

wely dyn   ni 'n xxx y llyffant yn   dechrau codi wrth mewn jar # un coes xxx bach #
\bed is.1PL we PROG   the frog   PROG begin   raise at   in   jar one leg   little
we xxx the frog beginning to raise [from] in the jar, one little leg xxx. When

um@fp pan mae   'r hogyn bach yn   deffro yn y bore   mae 'n   sylweddoli bod
        when is.3SG the boy   little PROG wake in the morning is.3SG PROG realize   is.COMP
the little boy wales in the morning, [he] realizes that the frog

y llyffant wedi mynd a   mae o 'n   synnu xxx gwybod sut mae o wedi mynd mae
the frog   PRF go   and is.3SG he PROG wonder   know how is.3SG he PRF go   is.3SG
has gone. And he wonders xxx knows how he has gone. He

e chwilio ym bobman   yn yr ystafell um@fp dydy   e ddim yn ei sgidiau #
he look   ADV \everywhere in the room   is.3SG.NEG he NEG in his shoes
looks everywhere in the room. Um@fp he isn't in his shoes,

dydy   o ddim tu allan i 'r ffenest # a   galw ar ei ôl   yn   methu ffeindio fo #
is.3SG.NEG he NEG side out   to the window and call on his track PROG fail   find   he
he isn't outside the window. And calling after him failing to find him.

ac mae   'r ci wrth i-ddo geisio ddod-o-hyd-i 'r llyffant yn   syrthio o   allan o   'r
and is.3SG the dog at   to-him \try \find   the frog   PROG fall   from out from the
And the dog as he's trying to find the frog falls out of the

ffenest # gyda 'r hogyn bach yn   galw mynd ar ei ôl   o i xxx allan o   'r gwydr ##
window with the boy   little PROG call go   on his track he to   out from the glass
window, with the little boy calling to go after him to xxx out of the glass.

um@fp mae 'r hogyn a 'r ci yn   parhau i fynd drwy   'r goedwig ac yn
--   is.3SG the boy   and the dog PROG continue to \go   through the \forest(f) and PROG
Um@fp the boy and the dog continue to go through the forest and

gweiddi ar ôl y llyffant ## um@fp maen nhw 'n edrych o fewn tyllad yn y gwair
shout on track the frog is.3PL they PROG look from \in hole in the grass
to shout after the frog. Um@fp they look inside a hole in the grass

ac yn gweiddi uwch-ben yr coed ## um@fp a mae 'r hogyn bach wrth i-ddo fo
and PROG shout above the trees and is.3SG the boy little at to-him he
and shout above the trees. Um@fp and the little boy as he's

edrych i mewn i twll yn y [/] yn y pren mae 'na uh@fp llygoden <dw i 'n meddwl>
look to in to hole in the in the wood is.3SG there mouse is.1SG I PROG think
looking inside a hole in the [/] in the wood uh@fp a mouse <I think> comes out

yn dod allan ac yn ei ddychryn um@fp ## a mae 'r ci yn creu fwya helynt
PROG come out and PROG his \frighten and is.3SG the dog PROG create \most trouble
and frightens him. Um@fp and the dog creates most trouble

yn gollwng yr um@fp # <gosh> < <my dear> yw hwnna> um@fp # <what's that in English>
PROG release the COP that
dropping the um@fp <gosh>, <<my dear> is that> um@fp <what's that in English?>

<is that a hive?> yn gollwng uh@fp # rhywbeth ar y llawr ac mae 'r uh@fp gwenwyn
-- PROG drop something on the ground and is.3SG the poison
<is that a hive?> dropping uh@fp, something on the ground and the uh@fp all the poison

i-gyd yn dod ar ei ôl o tra bod yr hogyn bach yn edrych i fewn i 'r goeden
all PROG come on his track he while is.COMP the boy little PROG look to \in to the \tree
comes after him, while the little boy is looking inside the tree.

 ## wrth i 'r gwenyn i-gyd fynd ar ôl y ci mae 'r hogyn yn syrthio allan o 'r [/]
as to the bees all \go on track the dog is.3SG the boy PROG fall out from the
As all the bees go after the dog, the boy falls out of the [/]

o 'r goeden gyda tylluan yn gweiddi ar ei ôl o ac mae e 'n ddechrau rhedeg
from the \tree with owl PROG shout on his track he and is.3SG he PROG \begin run
of the tree with an owl shouting after him and he starts to run away

i-ffwrdd gyda tylluan yn dal i fynd ar ôl yr hogyn bach xxx gweld be' mae o
away with owl PROG continue to \go on track the boy little see what is.3SG he
with an owl still going after the little boy xxx to see what he's

'n neud yr hogyn yn parhau i weiddi ar ôl y llyffant # ac yn dod ar-draws
PROG do the boy PROG continue to \shout on track the frog and PROG come across
doing the boy continuing to shout after the frog, and coming across

carw # a mae 'r carw yn pigo 'r hogyn bach i-fyny ac yn dechrau rhedeg gyda 'r
stag and is.3SG the stag PROG pick the boy little up and PROG begin run with the
a stag, and the stag picks the little boy up and begins to run with the

ci   bach yn   rhedeg ar eu hôl nhw # a ’r carw yn   gollwng y bachgen a ’r ci
dog little PROG run   on their \track they and the stag PROG release the boy   and the dog
little dog running after them. And the stag drops the boy and the dog

oddi-wrth yr um@fp <a cliff> ac   maen nhw syrthio i fewn i ’r dŵr # gyda <splash> mawr
from   the   and is.3PL they fall   to \in   to the water with   big
from the um@fp <a cliff> and they fall into the water with a big <splash>. Uh@fp

uh@fp yr hogyn a   ’r ci yn   dringo allan o   ’r dŵr a   dringo dros boncyff ac
           the boy   and the dog PROG climb out   from the water and climb over trunk   and
the boy and the dog climb out of the water and climb over a trunk and

yn   ffeindio o   ’r diwedd dau lyffant a babi llyffant-od ## maen nhw ’n   deud
PROG find   from the end   two \frog and babi frog-s   is.3PL they PROG say
find, at last, two frogs and baby frogs. They say

<ta ta> i ’r llyffantod ac   yn   dechrau mynd yn ôl   adre   gyda llyffant bach nhw yn
         to the frogs   and PROG begin   go   in track homeward with frog   little they in
<ta ta> to the frogs and start to go back home with their little frog in

law   fo
\hand he
his hand.

mae   plentyn a   ci   yn   edrych mewn i at broga sydd   yn uh@fp jar llun   nesa
is.3SG child   and dog PROG look   in   to to frog is.REL in   jar picture next
A child and dog are looking in at a frog that is in uh@fp a jar next picture

mae   plentyn yn   cysgu gyda ci   mae ’r broga yn   dod   mas o   ’r jar um@fp
is.3SG child   PROG sleep with dog is.3SG the frog PROG come out   from the jar
a child sleeps with a dog, the frog comes out of the jar um@fp

llun   nesa mae   ci a ’r plentyn yn   edrych am y   broga sy   ‘r-goll # llun
picture next is.3SG dog and the child   PROG look   for the frog   is.REL lost   picture
 next picture a dog and the child are looking for the frog who is lost,

nesa   mae   plentyn yn   trio gwisgo gyda ’r ci xxx ei ben e yn y   jar a   mae
next   is.3SG child   PROG try wear   with the dog   his \head he in the jar and is.3SG
next picture a child is trying to dress with the dog xxx his head in the jar and

uh@fp xxx pen i waered llun   nesa mae ’r ci   ‘da ’i ben yn y jar a   mae ’r
--   head to \bottom picture next is.3SG the dog with his \head in the jar and is.3SG the
uh@fp xxx upside down next picture the dog with his head in the jar and the

plentyn ‘di agor y ffenest # llun   nesa mae ’r plentyn yn   edrych mas drwy   ’r
child   PRF open the window picture next is.3SG the child   PROG look   out through the
child has opened the window, next picture the child looks out through the

ffenest gyda ci gyda ’i ben yn y   jar yn <jump>-o lan llun   nesa # mae ’r plentyn
window with dog with his \head in the jar PROG   -INF up picture next   is.3SG the child
window with a dog with his head in the jar <jump>ing out next picture, the child

yn   dal y ci a mae ’r ci   yn   llyfu gwyneb y plentyn wrth i ddim yn   edrych
PROG hold the dog and is.3SG the dog PROG lick   face   the child   at to NEG PROG look
holds the dog and the dog is licking the child’s face as [he] does not look

hapus iawn uh@fp llun   nesa mae plentyn yn xxx yn   gweiddi mas at y   goedwig gyda
happy very   picture next is.3SG child   PROG PROG shout   out to the \forest(f) with
very happy uh@fp next picture a child xxx shouts out to the forest with

ci   a gyda ’i drwyn lan mae ’r ci   yn &gw yn y   llun   nesa mae   ’r ci   yn
dog and with his \nose up is.3SG the dog PROG   in the picture next is.3SG the dog PROG
a dog and with his nose up. The dog &gw in the next picture the dog

gweld um@fp picwn-od yn # <hive> <beth-bynnag yw ‘na> um@fp a   mae ’r plentyn yn
see   wasps-PL in   whatever   COP that   and is.3SG the child   PROG
sees um@fp wasps in a <hive>, <whatever that is>, and the child

edrych mewn twll llun   nesa mae ’r plentyn yn [//] ‘di cael braw mae xxx bod #
look   in   hole picture next is.3SG the child   PROG PRF get scare is.3SG   is.COMP
is looking in a hole next picture the child gets [//] has got a scare, [he] xxx that,

anifail 'di dod mas o   'r twll gyda ci dal   yn   trio um@fp # cael # picwn-od #
animal PRF come out from the hole with dog continue PROG try   get   wasps-s
an animal has come out of the hole with a dog still trying um@fp, to get, wasps,

llun   nesa mae   plentyn 'di mynd lan coeden ac yn   edrych mewn i twll a   mae   'r
picture next is.3SG child   PRF go   up tree   and PROG look   in   to hole and is.3SG the
next picture a child has gone up a tree and is looking in a hole and the

ci yn   mynd i gael ei bigo gan y picyn-od llun   nesa mae   'r # [/] mae   'r plentyn
dog PROG go   to \get his \sting by   wasps-s picture next is.3SG the   is.3SG the child
dog is going to get stung by the wasps next picture the, [/] the child

'di cwympo mas o   'r   goeden # gyda um@fp # <owl> lle [/] lle &anwe ##
PRF fall   out from the \tree(f) with   where where
has fallen out of the tree, with uh@fp, an <owl> where [/] where &anwe.

yn   dod mas o   'r goeden a   'r ci yn   mynd bant o   picwn-od mae # uh@fp
PROG come out from the \tree(f) and the dog PROG go   away from wasps-PL is.3SG
coming out of the tree and the dog going away from wasps, a uh@fp

plentyn yn y goedwig # mae   'r plentyn ar ben # carreg mawr yn y goedwig # mae   'r
child   in the \forest(f) is.3SG the child   on \head stone(f) big   in the \forest(f) is.3SG the
child is in the forest, the child is on top of, a big stone in the forest, the

plentyn ar ben   carw ryw-fath   yn y   goedwig # a   carw cario bant y blentyn   mae   'r
child   on \head stag \some-\sort in the \forest(f)   and stag carry away the \child(m) is.3SG the
child is on top of a stag of some sort in the forest, and a stag carrying the child off, and

carw twlu 'r plentyn a   ci lawr [/] # lawr ochr y dibyn   mewn i # rywfath   o llyn
stag throw the child   and dog down   down side the precipice in   to \some-\sort of lake
the stag throws the child and dog down, [/] down the side of the precipice into, some sort of lake

o rhyw-fath neu afon # a   mae   'r plentyn a   ci yn y   llyn neu afon # mae   'r plentyn
of some-\sort or   river and is.3SG the child   and dog in the lake or   river is.3SG the child
of some sort or river, and the child and dog are in the lake or river, the child

yn   eiste yn y llyn # mae   'r plentyn lawr 'di mynd i weld coeden mae   'r coeden
PROG sit   in the lake is.3SG the child   down PRF go   to \see tree   is.3SG the tree(f)
is sitting in the lake, the child is down gone to see a tree, the tree

gyda uh@fp [//] mae   'r plentyn a   tu ôl   y coeden a   mae   'r ci 'n xxx coeden
with   is.3SG the child   and side track the tree(f)   and is.3SG the dog PROG   tree
with uh@fp [//] the child and behind the tree and the dog is xxx a tree

mae   'r plentyn a   ci yn   ffeindio dau froga un wedi colli siwr-o-fod a   llall o
is.3SG the child   and dog PROG find   two \frogs one PRF lose probably   and other from
the child and dog find two frogs, one lost probably, the other from the look of it xxx , the child

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edrych xxx   mae   ’r   plentyn yn   crwydro dros y   goeden gyda ’r   ci   mae um@fp plentyn
look   is.3SG the child   PROG roam   over the \tree(f) with the dog is.3SG   child
wanders over the tree with a dog, a child um@fp

cario ’n ôl   trwy   ’r   afon yn   gweud <ta ta> i uh@fp brogaod gyda nifer   o broga bach
carry in track throgh the river PROG say   to   frogs   with number of frog   little
carries [him] back through the river and says <ta ta> to uh@fp frogs with a number of little frogs

y   diwedd
the end
the end.

un   noswaith oedd <Johnny> bach yn ei stafell   gwely fe gyda ci <Fido> # gyda um@fp mewn
one evening was.3SG   little in hi room(f) bed   he with dog   with   in
One evening, little <Johnny> was in his bedroom with <Fido> the dog, with um@fp in.

gwydr xxx gwydr # oedd   'na uh@fp broga bach ## felly ## aeth <Johnny> bach
-- glass   glass   was.3SG there   frog little so   went.3SG   little
Glass a glass xxx, there was uh@fp a little frog. So. Little <Johnny> went

i 'r gwely â <Fido> tra   bod   nhw 'n   cysgu # naeth   y broga dechrau # um@fp
to the bed   with   while is.COMP they PROG sleep   did.3SG the frog   begin
to bed with <Fido> while they were sleeping, the frog began, um@fp

dianc # o   'r potel   gwydr ## pryd bore   roly bore   trannoeth dihun-odd <Johnny>
escape from the bottle(f) glass   when morning xxx morning next-day woke-3SG
to escape, from the glass bottle. The next morning <Johhny> and <Fido> woke up

a <Fido> a   oedd   y broga wedi dianc ## neidi-odd <Johnny> allan o   'r gwely #
and   and was.3SG the frog PRF escape jumped-3SG   out from the bed
and the frog had escaped. <Johnny> jumped out of the bed,

edrych dan   ei sgidiau fe # a   dim sôn   am y broga tra   fod   y ci bach
look   under his shoes   he and NEG mention about the frog   while \is.COMP the dog little
looking under his shoes, and no sign of the frog while the little dog

<Fido> wedi cael ei ben   e yn <stuck> yn y botel   gwydr # edrych-on nhw bobman #
--   PRF get his \head he PRED   in the \bottle(f) glass   looked-3PL they \everywhere
<Fido> had got his head <stuck> in the glass bottle, they looked everywhere,

ac yn   galw # broga broga # lle   wyt ti ## agor-on   nhw ffenest   disgwyl mas
and PROG call frog frog   where is.2SG you opened-3PL they window look   out
and calling, 'frog frog, where are you?'. They opened a window looking out

trwy   'r ffenest ond dim sôn   ## tra   fod   disgwyl mas o   'r ffenest
through the window but NEG mention while \is.COMP look   out from the window
through the window but no sign. While looking out of the window

cwympodd y ci ## lawr â   fe gyda gwydr yn   dyllu ar y llawr a <Johnny> bach
fell-3SG   the dog   down with he with glass PROG \burst on the ground and   little
the dog fell. Down with him with glass bursting on the ground and little <Johnny>

yn   codi <Fido> lan a   ci yn   llyod e ar ei foch ## mas rhwng y ci e a
PROG raise   up and dog PROG lick he on his \cheek   out between the dog he and
raising <Fido> up and a dog licking him on his cheek. Out between his dog and

coedwig maen nhw 'n   galw broga broga lle   wyt ti lle   wyt ti ond doedd
forest   is.3PL they PROG call   frog frog where are you where are you but was.3SG.NEG
a forest they call 'frog frog where are you? where are you?' but there was no

dim sôn   am y broga # tra   fod   nhw 'n   cerdded trwy   'r goedwig # ah@fp
NEG mention about the frog   while \is.COMP they PROG walk   through the \forest(f)
sign of the frog, while they walk through the forest, ah@fp

oedd <Johnny>'n   edrych lawr twll yn y   ddaear # edrychodd <Fido> lan # i 'r # [//] lan
was.3SG   PROG look   down hole in the \earth(f) looked.3SG   up   to the   up
<Johnny> was looking down a hole in the ground, <Fido looked up, to the, [//] up

ar ben y golfen lle   oedd   'na um@fp cacyne[n] gyda um@fp nyth cacwns # um@fp tra
on \head the \tree(f) where was.3SG there   wasp   with   nest wasps-PL   while
on top of the tree where there was um@fp a wasp with um@fp a wasp-nest, um@fp while,

[/] tra   fod <Fido> yn   edrych lan i 'r nyth cacwn daeth   'na   lydogen allan o 'r
    while \is.COMP PROG look   up to the nest wasp came.3SG there \mouse   out of the
while <Fido> looks up to the wasp-nest there came a mouse out of the

ddaear   a   cnoi <Johnny> ar ei trwyn e <oww> <oww> dwed-odd <Johnny> ## tra   bod
\earth(f) and bite   on his nose he   said-3SG   while is.COMP
ground, and biting <Johnny> on his nose '<oww> <oww>' <Johnny> said. While

[//] tynnodd <Fido> y nyth cacwn lawr i 'r llawr # a   tra   bod uh@fp y llygoden bach
-- pulled-3SG   the nest wasps down to the ground and while is.COMP   the mouse(f) little
[//] <Fido> pulled the wasp-nest down to the ground, and while uh@fp the little mouse

yn   edrych ymlaen &de dechreu-odd <Johnny> dringo i-fyny 'r golfen a   eistedd ar un
PROG look   on   began-3SG   climb up   the \tree(f) and sit   on one
looks on <Johnny> &de began to climb the tree and sit on one

o 'r canghennau ## tra   bod   e 'n &ed eistedd ar y cangen a   disgwyl mewn twll
of the branches   while is.COMP he PROG sit   on the branch(f) and look   in   hole
of the branches. While he's &is sitting on the branch and looking in a hole

yn y goeden daeth   gwdihw allan ## a   tra   fod <Johnny> yn   cwympo oddi-ar
in the \tree(f) came.3SG owl   out   and while is.COMP   PROG fall   from
in the tree an owl came out. And while <Johnny> falls from

y   goeden dechreuodd y cacyne[n] cwrso <Fido> # trwy   'r goedwig ## <bzzzz> ##
the \tree(f) began-3SG the wasp   chase   through the \forest(f)
the tree, the wasp began to chase <Fido> through the forest. <Bzzz>.

um@fp # <beth sy   'n   digwydd fan   hyn?> # um@fp hedfann-odd y &gwdi gwdihw
--   what is.REL PROG happen plane this   flew-3SG   the   owl
Um@fp, <what's happening here?>, um@fp the &gwdi owl flew

lan i 'r awyr ymosod ymosod lawr 'na <Johnny> gyda<Johnny> yn   xxx cer
up to the air   attack attack down there   with   PROG   go.IMP
up to the air, attacking, attacking down there <Johnny>, with <Johnny> xxx

 o 'ma cer o 'ma ## uh@fp <so> ## <ok> aeth   y gwdihw 'n ôl   lan i 'r
from here go.IMP from here   went.3SG the owl   in track up to the
'go away go away'. Uh@fp <so>. <ok> the owl went back up to the

golfen a   dring-odd <Johnny> ar ben y   gerrig fawr a   galw broga broga lle   wyt
\tree(f) and climbed-3SG   on \head the \stones \big and call frog frog   where is.2SG
tree and <Johnny> climbed on top of the big stone and calling 'frog frog where are

ti   lle   wyt ti ## tra   fod <Johnny> ar ben y   carreg fawr # daeth   carw mas o
you where is.2SG you   while \is.COMP   on \head the stone(f) \big came.3SG stag out from
you where are you'. While <Johnny> is on top of the big stone, a stag came out of

'r unman # ac ar ei ben   e # <whoosh> # naeth   e <ha ha> dodi [/] dodi <Johnny> bach ar
the nowhere # and on his \head he   did.3SG he   put   put   little on
nowhere, and on top of him, <whoosh>, he <ha ha> put little <Johnny> on his

ei ben   a   rhedeg o [/] rhedeg oddi-ar y   lle # gyda <Fido>'n   cwrsio 'n ôl y   carw
his \head and run   from run   from   the place with   PROG course in track the stag
head and runs from the place, with <Fido> coursing after the stag, [he] tossed the two of them,

tafl-odd   y ddau   o nhw # oddi-ar ochr y [/] ## ochr y <cliff> [/] ochr y hm@fp [/] ochr y
  tossed-3SG the \two(m) of they   from   side the   side the   side the   side the
from the side of the [/]. the side of the <cliff> [/] the side of the hm@fp [/] side of the [/] side of

[/] ochr y <ha> oddi-ar y pen # a   lawr a   lawr cwymp-on nhw mewn i 'r [/] mewn i 'r
    side the   from   the head and down and down fell-3PL they in   to the in   to the
the<ha> from the top, and down and down they fell into the [/] into the

afon ## lwcus oedd   yr afon dim yn [//] dim y   dŵr yn   dwfn iawn <so> codon   nhw
river   lucky was.3SG the river NEG PRED   NEG the water PRED deep very   rose.3PL they
river. Lucky the water was not [//] the water wasn't very deep <so> they rose

lan ## a   cerdded mas a   dringo ar ben hen golfen sy   wedi cwympo ## tra   bod
up   and walk   out and climb on \head old \tree(f) is.REL PRF fall   while is.COMP
up. And walking out and climbing on top of an old tree that had fallen. While

nhw ar ben [//] yn   eistedd ar y golfen bach gwelon nhw dau froga na teulu o brogaod
they on \head   PROG sit   on the \tree(f) little saw-3PL they two \frog no family of frogs
they are on top, sitting on the little tree they saw two frogs no a family of frogs.

<so> oedd   eu broga bach nhw wedi dianc o   'r teulu a uh@fp ymuno gyda teulu
        was.3SG their frog little they PRF escape from the family and   join with family
<So> their little frog had escaped from the family and uh@fp joined a little family

bach yn [/] yn yr afon oh@fp na <Johnny> bach ffeindio un xxx a   mynd â   fe 'n ôl
little in   in the river   there   little find   one and go   with he in track
in [/] in the river oh@fp there little <Johnny> finds one xxx and takes him back

gartre ac naeth-on i-gyd fyw   yn hapus iawn xxx
\home and did-3PL all   \live ADV happy very
home and everyone lived very happily xxx.

dyma <Ifan> yn # barod i mynd i ’u wely ac mae gyda fe um@fp dau <pet> uh@fp
here’s   PRED \ready to go   to his \bed and is.3SG with him   two
Here’s <Ifan>, ready to go to bed, and he has um@fp two <pets> uh@fp

un yw <Pero> y ci a broga o ’r enw <Twm> ## um@fp mae <Ifan> yn mynd i ’r
one COP   the dog and frog of the name   is.3SG   PROG go   to the
one is <Pero> the dog and a frog by the name of <Twm>. Um@fp <ifan> goes to

gwely yn eitha cynnar mae o ’n mynd i gwely ar saith o-’r-gloch y nos mae
bed ADV quite early   is.3SG he PROG go   to bed on seven o’clock   the night is.3SG
bed quite early he goes to bed at seven o’clock at night

 <Pero> yn cysgu ar y gwely a mae <Twm> yn cysgu yn ei [/] yn ei botel lle mae
      PROG sleep on the bed   and is.3SG   PROG sleep n his in his \bottle where is.3SG
<Pero> is sleeping on the bed and <Twm> is sleeping in his [/] in his bottle where

uh@fp e ’n cysgu pob nos ## um@fp noson naeth um@fp <Ifan> dihunodd yn ddisymwth
     he PROG sleep each night   night did.3SG   woke-3SG ADV sudden
he sleeps every night. Um@fp night um@fp <Ifan> woke up suddenly

a <Pero> ac edrych ar ochr y gwely a oedd y [/] y broga wedi mynd ## naeth <Ifan>
and   and look on side the bed and was.3SG the the frog PRF go   did.3SG
and <Pero> and looking on the side of the bed and the frog had gone. <Ifan> [went] into

mewn i banig mawr # dechrau chwilio ’m bobman   mewn [//] yn ei [/] yn ei esgidiau #
in to \panic big   begin look in\ \everywhere in   in his in his shoes
a big panic, beginning to look everywhere in [//] in his [/] in his shoes,

ac mae <Pero> ci yn helpu fe hefyd i edrych o-gwmpas am y [/] am y broga ## <beth
and is.3SG   ci PROG help he also to look around for the for the frog   what
and dog <Pero> helps too to look around for the [/] for the frog. <What

oedd yr enw broga?> <‘s   dim ots> um@fp naeth uh@fp <Ifan> agor y ffenest #
was.3SG the name frog   is.3SG.NEG NEG difference   did.3SG   open the window
was the name of the frog?> <doesn’t matter> um@fp uh@fp <Ifan> opened the window,

a gweiddi a <Pero> hefyd a <Pero> wedi cael ei ben yn [/] yn llond yn y [/] yn y [/] yn
and shout   and   also   and   PRF get his \head PRED PRED full in the in the in
and shouting and <Pero> too and <Pero> got his head full in the [/] in the [/] in

y botel ## ar ôl gweiddi am tipyn # naeth <Pero> yn um@fp cwympo allan o ’r silff y
the \bottle(f) on track shout for bit did.3SG   PROG   fall out from the sill the
the bottle. After shouting for a bit, <Pero> fell out of the window sill

ffenest a cwymp-odd e llawr # mae <Ifan> wedi <jump>-io allan ar ei ôl e # a
window and fell-3SG he down   is.3SG   PRF   -INF out on his track he and
and fell down, <Ifan> has jumped after him, and

mae [/] mae <Pero> [//] mae uh@fp gwydr wedi torri yn dyllion a   mae <Pero> yn <alright>
is.3SG is.3SG   is.3SG   glass PRF break in \pieces and is.3SG   PRED
[/] <Pero> [//] uh@fp glass has broken in pieces and <Pero> is okey

nawr mae   fe 'n # um@fp lapio wyneb <Ifan> # um@fp ffwrdd â   nhw mas i 'r [//] lawr i
now is.3SG he PROG   lick face   away with they out to the   down to
now he's, um@fp licking <Ifan>'s face, um@fp off with them out to the [//] down to

'r goedwig # ac mae o 'n   gweiddi eto   i weld os gallu te   ffeindio 'r   broga ## ac
the \forest(f) and is.3SG he PROG shout   again to \see if able then find   the frog   and
the forest, and he shouts again to see if he can find the frog. And

yn   chwilio gwmpas am sbel gweiddi a   dim sôn   am [/] am   y   broga # mae
PROG search around for spell shout   and NEG mention about about the frog   is.3SG
looking around for a bit shouting and no sign of [/] of the frog,

<Ifan> wedyn yn   ffeindio twll bach yn y [/] yn y   llawr # a   dechrau gweiddi lawr
--   then PROG find   hole little in the   in the ground and begin   shout   down
<Ifan> then finds a little hole in the [/] in the ground, and beginning to shout down

y twll # a   mae e 'n   cael ofn ofnadw mae &gwydd um@fp ## <mole> yn   dod
the hole   and is.3SG he PROG get fear awful is.3SG   PROG come
the hole, and he gets an awful fright a &gwydd um@fp. A <mole> comes

allan o   'r twll tra   bod <Ifan> uh@fp dim <Ifan> <Pero> y   ci yn   cyfarth ar
out from the hole while is.COMP   NEG   the dog PROG bark   on
out of the hole while <Ifan> uh@fp not <Ifan> <Pero> the dog barks

ôl uh@fp gwenwyn uh@fp yn y   coeden ## um@fp # mae <Pero> 'di xxx yn   disgwyl y
track   poison   in the tree(f)   is.3SG   PRF PROG look   the
after uh@fp poison uh@fp in the tree. Um@fp, <Pero> has xxx watching the

coeden a   mae 'r gwenwyn i-gyd yn   dod   allan o   'r um@fp # <<can't think> beth
tree(f) and is.3SG the poison   all   PROG come out   from the   what
tree and all the poison come out from the um@fp, <<can't think> what

yw 'na> ac yn y cyfamser # mae <Ifan> wedi mynd uh@fp fyny 'r goeden # i weld os gallu
COP that and in the meantime is.3SG   PRF go   up the \tree(f) to \see if able
that is> and at the time, <Ifan> has gone uh@fp to the tree to see if he can

fe [//] os 'dy   'r [/] os 'dy   'r broga wedi mynd fyny a   mae   tylluan yn # dod   allan
he   if is.3SG.Q the if is.3SG.Q the frog PRF go   up   and is.3SG owl   PROG come out
[//] if the [/] is the frog has gone up and an owl, comes out

o   'r goeden a   roi ofn i pawb   pawb xxx o   lle   i-gyd ## um@fp mae <Ifan>
from the \tree(f) and \give fear to everyone everyone   from place all   is.3SG
of the tree and gives everyone everyone a fright xxx from everywhere. Um@fp <Ifan>

wedi cael ofn # uh@fp ofnadw o   'r tylluan # ac yn   rhedeg i-ffwrdd # gyda <Pero> ##
PRF get fear   trerrible from the owl   and PROG run   away   with
has gotten a, big uh@fp fright from the owl, and runs away, with <Pero>.

um@fp ## yn ddisymwth iawn # naeth <Ifan> mynd ar ben clogwyn bach 'ma eto yn
-- ADV \sudden very did.3SG go on \head cliff little here still PROG
Um@fp. Very suddenly, <Ifan> went on top of a little cliff here still

gweiddi am y broga # a pwyso ar beth oedd e yn feddwl oedd yn um@fp [/]
shout for the frog and lean on what was.3SG he PROG \think was.3SG PRED
shouting for the frog, and leaning on what he was thinking was um@fp um@fp

yn brigyn coeden # ond beth oedd e oedd carw ## mae # carw codi 'i ben ac
PRED branch tree but what was.3SG he was.3SG stag is.3SG stag raise his \head and
[/] a tree branch, but what it was was a stag. A, stag raises his head and

mae <Ifan> yn dal yn sownd i 'r carw a mae 'r carw yn rhedeg i-ffwrdd xxx
is.3SG PROG continue PRED stuck to the stag and is.3SG the stag PROG run away
<Ifan> is still stuck to the stag and the stag runs away xxx

ei ben ## mae carw wedi gwylltu fan hyn # nes bod e 'n rhedeg i 'r ochr ac
his \head is.3SG stag PRF go.wild place this until is.COMP he PROG run to the side and
his head. A stag is xxx here, until he runs to the side and

yn stopio yn ddisymwth reit a <Pero> a <Ifan> yn cael eu taflu dros ei pen lawr i
PROG stop ADV \sudden right and and PROG get their toss over his head down to
stops right suddenly and <Pero> and <Ifan> get tossed over his head down to

ganol y dŵr # i 'r um@fp afon y <Tannon> ## um@fp # a mae 'r ddau yn iawn # a
\center the water to the river the and is.3SG the \two(m) PRED ok and
the middle of the water, to the um@fp Tannon River. Um@fp, and the two are okey, and

wedi cael dim niwed ## ar ôl dod i 'r lan # maen nhw 'n cyrraedd boncyff coeden
PRF get NEG harm on track come to the \shore(f) is.3PL they PROG arrive.at trunk tree
haven't gotten hurt. After coming to shore, they arrive at a tree trunk

a mae <Ifan> yn gweud wrth <Pero> bod yn dawel achos bod e 'n meddwl
and is.3SG PROG say to be.INF PRED \quiet because is.COMP he PROG think
and <Ifan> tells <Pero> to be quiet because he thinks

bosib bod y broga fan hyn # ac yn edrych dros ochr yr [//] y boncyff a dyna
\possible is.COMP the frog place this and PROG look over side the the trunk and there's
[it's] possible that the frog is here, and looking over the side of the [//] the trunk and there's

pwy sydd fyny yw mam a tad broga a teulu o brogaod bach ## a mae <Ifan>
who is.REL up COP mother and father frog and family of frogs little and is.3SG
who is up is a mother and father frog, and family of little frogs. And <Ifan>

wedi cael tipyn o sioc gweld y teulu 'ma i-gyd fan hyn # a mae fe 'n ## y mam
PRF get bit of shock see the family here all place this and is.3SG he PROG the mother(f)
has gotten a bit of a shock seeing this family, all here, and it's, the mother

a   tad   a   mae   tua # wyth broga arall 'na <so> mae 'n   amlwg mai   hyn yw
and father and is.3SG around eight frog other there   is.3SG PRED obvious is.COMP this COP
father and there are about, eight other frogs there <so> it's obvious that these are the

um@fp brodyr a   chwiorydd um@fp broga <Ifan> ## mae <Ifan> mor hapus i 'u um@fp
--   brothers and sisters   frog   is.3SG   so happy to his
um@fp brothers and sisters um@fp of <Ifan>'s frog. <Ifan> is so happy to his um@fp

[//] bod e wedi ffeindio broga a   mod   e 'n   mynd i fynd adre   naeth
is.COMP he PRF find   frog and \is.COMP he PROG go   to \go homeward did.3SG
[//] that he has found [his] frog and that he is going to go home he

ffarwelio   ar y   teulu brogaod a   mae 'n   meddwl bydd   rhaid   i fe edrych
say.goodbye on the family frogs   and is.3SG PROG think   be.3SG.FUT necessity to he look
said goodbye to the family of frogs and he thinks hw will have to look

ar ôl   i-ddo mwy saff o   hyn ymlaen
on track to-him more safe from this on
after him more safely from here on.

oedd <Tomas> bach yn   barod i fynd i gwely a   oedd   e ’n   edrych ar ## um@fp ##
was.3SG   little PRED \ready to \go to bed   and was.3SG he PROG look   at
Little <Tomas> was ready to go to bed and he was looking at. um@fp>

<Bob> y   broga yn y   jar # ah@fp pryd oedd <Tomas> yn   cysgu # um@fp penderfynodd
--   the frog in the jar   when was.3SG   PROG sleep   decided-3SG
<Bob> the frog in the jar, ah@fp when <Tomas> was sleeping, um@fp [//] the frog decided

i [//] yr   broga [//] <Bob> y   broga dod   mas o   ’r   jar-en [//] jar a # pryd cododd
to   the frog   the frog come out from the jar-SG   jar and when rose-3sg
[//] <Bob> the frog decided to come out of the jar [//] jar and, when <Tomas> got up

<Tomas> naeth   e sylweddoli fod   y   broga wedi mynd ## edrychodd <Tomas>
           did.3SG he realize   \is.COMP the frog PRF go   looked-3SG
he realized that the frog had gone. <Tomas> looked

bobman   am y broga uh@fp â   ’r ci bach <Twm> ## a   edrychon nhw tu allan
\everywhere for the frog   with the dog little   and looked-3SG they side out
everywhere for the frog uh@fp with the little dog <Twm>. And they looked outside

y tŷ   hefyd am-dano fe ond yn   methu gweld e dim unman ## a   cwympodd <Twm> #
the house also for-him he but PROG fail   see   he NEG anywhere and fell-3SG
the house also for him but fail to see him anywhere. And <Twm> fell, uh@fp

uh@fp dros pen y   ffenest # a   aeth <Tomas> mas i cysuro fe # a nhw galw mas am-dano
         over head the window and went.3SG   out to comfort he and they call out for-him
over the top of the window, and <Tomas> went out to comfort him, and they call out for <him>

<fe> y   broga # bobman   ## naethon nhw hefyd mynd # o-gwmpas y   tir   allan i ’r
     he the frog \everywhere did.3PL they also go   around   the land out   to the
the frog, everywhere. They also went, around the land out[side] the

tŷ   a gweiddi mor uchel ‘yn   nhw ’n   gallu # ei enw   fe # <Bob> ## daeth uh@fp
house and shout   so high is.3PL they PROG able   his name he   came.3SG
house and shouting as loud as they can his name, <Bob>. Uh@fp

picwn-s mas o   ’r # [/] mas o   ’r tŷ   nhw a [/] a ymosod ar <Twm> a ar <Tomas>
wasps-s out from the   out from the house they and and attack on   and on
wasps came out of the, [/] out of their house and [/] and attack <Twm> and <Tomas>.

aeth <Twm> yn   trio &cer um@fp [//] neidiodd   yn yr [/] yr goeden # aeth <Tomas> wedi
   went.3SG PROG try   jumped-3SG in the the \tree(f)   went.3SG   PRF
<Twm> went trying &cer um@fp [//] [he] jumped in the [/] in the tree, <Tomas> went

‘mlaen y goeden ar ôl e ## a   cwymp-odd <Tomas> a oedd   y tylluan wedi dod
onward the \tree(f) on track he   and fell-3SG   and was.3SG the owl   PRF come
on the tree after him. And <Tomas> fell and the owl had come

mas o ’r [/] o ’r goeden ar ôl e ## a <Twm> wedi mynd [/] wedi mynd a rhedeg
out from the from the \tree(f) on track he and PRF go PRF go and run
out of the [/] of the tree after him. And <Twm> gone [/] gone and running

wrth <Tomas> achos oedd y picwns mân dod ar ôl e ## oedd <Tomas> yn
at because was.3SG the wasps-PL tiny come on track he was.3SG PRED
to <Tomas> because the wasps were coming after him. <Tomas> was

ofal y tylluan <so> naeth e <climb>-o lan yr [/] yr um@fp # [/] yr uh@fp cerrig ## ac
\concern the owl did.3SG he -INF up the the the stones and
worried about the owl <so> he <climb>ed up the [/] the um@fp, [/] the uh@fp stones. And

uh@fp pryd oedd e ar ben y cerrig gweiddi yn uchel fry ble mae [//] ble ych
when was.3SG he on \head the stones shout ADV high above where is.3SG where is.2PL
when he was on top of the stones shouting loudly ‘where is [//] where are you

chi <Bob> ble ych chi <Bob> # a <Twm> wedi dod yn ôl ## a wedyn ## daeth yr
you where is.2PL you and PRF come in track and then came.3SG the
<Bob> where are you <Bob>’. And <Twm> come back. And then. Came the

um@fp # oh@fp # [/] daeth yr # <antelope> <w i ’m yn siwr ‘ma> # draw i fel #
-- came.3SG the is.1SG I NEG PRED sure here over to like
um@fp, oh@fp, [/] the, <antelope>, came <I’m not sure here>, over to like,

<sa i ’n ‘bod> dala <Tomas> lle bod e cwympo yn edrych fel a
is.1SG.NEG I NEG know catch where is.COMP he fall PROG look like and
<I don’t know>. Catch <Tomas> where he fell looks like and

mae tylluan yn edrych ‘fyd a wedyn oedd e yn mynd â <Tomas> i rywle
is.3SG owl PROG look also and then was.3SG he PROG go with to \somewhere
an owl looks too and then he was taking <Tomas> somewhere

a mae <Twm> yn dod ar ôl nhw # a wedyn naeth e # xxx fynd â fe a maen
and is.3SG PROG come on track they and then did.3SG he \go with he and is.3PL
and <Twm> comes after them and then he, xxx went with him and they

nhw dau cwympo lawr i ’r [/] i ’r uh@fp man serth te ## a cwymp-odd e yn y dŵr
they two fall down to the to the place steep then and fell-3SG he in the water
two fall down to the [/] to the uh@fp steep place then. And he fell in the water

y ddau o nhw ## a mae ’n xxx meddwl bod <Twm> yn lico dŵr o-gwbl # um@fp
the \two(m) of them and is.3SG PROG think is.COMP PROG like water at-all
the two of them. And [it]’s xxx think that <Twm> [does not] like water at all, um@fp

mae <Tomas> yn eitha [//] <Twm> yw yn dawel a wedyn maen nhw ’n cwtsio
is.3SG PRED quite COP PRED \quiet and then is.3PL they PROG hug
<Tomas> is quite [//] <Twm> is quiet and then they hug

ar ôl <e> darn o bren a trio # edrych dros-to fe mewn ffordd # a maen nhw wedi
on track he piece of \wood and try look over-it he in way and is.3PL they PRF
behind <it> a piece of wood and try, to look over it in a way, and they have

gweld <Bob> y [/] y   broga gyda partner # a   maen nhw 'n # [//] mae   'n   debyg bod
see   the   the frog   with partner   and is.3PL they PROG   is.3SG PRED \likely is.COMP
seen <Bob> the [/] the frog with a partner, and they, [//] probably there are

mwy o   brogaed 'na ## a   maen nhw 'n   mynd 'n ôl   a <Bob> gyda nhw gartre gyda
more of frogs   there   and is.3PL they PROG go   in track and   with they home with
more frogs there. And they go back and <Bob> with them home with

brogaod eraill yn [/] yn   gwylio nhw
frogs   other PROG PROG watch   they
[the] other frogs [/] watching them.

y   llyfr broga ble   wyt   ti ## mae ’r bachgen bach yn   eistedd yn ei stafell wely
the book frog   where is.2SG you   is.3SG the boy   little PROG sit   in his room(f) \bed
The book ‘Frog Where Are You.’ The little boy is sitting in his bedroom

a   mae ‘na   froga mewn # pot jam <dw   i ’n   meddwl> a   mae ‘na gi bach yn
and is.3SG there \frog in   pot jam is.1SG I PROG think   and is.3SG there \dog little PROG
and there’s a frog in a, jam pot <I think> and there’s a little dog

edrych gyda fe hefyd ## pan   mae ’r bachgen bach yn   cysgu # mae ’r broga yn
look   with he also   when is.3SG the boy   little PROG sleep   is.3SG the frog   PROG
looking with him also. When the little boy is sleeping, the frog

dianc ac <chimod> gadael yr [//] y   pot a   mae ’r bachgen bach yn   sylweddoli
escape and you.know leave the   the pot and is.3SG the boy   little PROG realize
escapes and you know leaves the [//] the pot and the little boy realizes

bod   y broga wedi diflannu ## mae ’r bachgen bach yn   chwilio yn yr esgid # yn y
is.COMP the frog   PRF disappear is.3SG the boy   little PROG search in the shoe   in the
that the frog has disappeared. The little boy searches in the shoe, in the

pot bobman   ond dim golwg o ’r broga mae ’n   edrych mas trwy   ’r ffenest ##
pot \everywhere but NEG sight of the frog is.3SG PROG look   out   through the window
pot everywhere but no sign of the frog [he] looks out through the window.

a   mae ’r ci yn   cwympo mas trwy   ’r ffenest a   mae e # yn   pigo fe lan #
and is.3SG the dog PROG fall   out through the window and is.3SG he PROG pick he up
And the dog falls out through the window and he, picks him up,

mae ’n   gweiddi mae fe ’n   mynd allan o   ’r tŷ   i ’r ardd   a   mae ’n
is.3SG PROG shout   is.3SG he PROG go   out   from the house to the \garden(f) and is.3SG PROG
[he] shouts he goes out of the house to the garden and [he]

gweiddi yn   chwilio am y broga ## mae ’n   edrych yn y twll lle   mae ‘na
shout   PROG search for the frog   is.3SG PROG look   in the hole where is.3SG there
shouts looking for the frog. [He] looks in the hole where there is

wiwer   bach neu rhywbeth yn   dod   mas o   ’r twll ## mae ‘na gwch gwenyn #
\squirrel little or something PROG come out from the hole   is.3SG there \hive bees
a little squirrel or something coming out of the hole. There’s a beehive,

mae hwn yn   cwympo mae ’n   edrych yn coeden ## mae uh@fp [/] mae ‘na   tylluan
is.3SG this PROG fall   is.3SG PROG look   in tree   is.3SG   is.3SG there owl
this falls [he] looks in a tree. There’s uh@fp [/] there’s an owl

wedyn yn   dod   mas o   ’r goeden felly dyw   e ddim yn y   goeden ## mae
then   PROG come out from the \tree(f) so is.3SG.NEG he NEG in the \tree(f)   is.3SG
then coming out of the tree so he isn’t in the tree. [He] is

’n   dal   i edrych mae   e mynd i   sefyll tu   ôl   craig   fawr i gweiddi am y broga
PROG continue to look   is.3SG he go   to stand side track rock(f) \big to shout   for the frog
still looking he goes to stand behind a big rock to shout for the frog,

mae ‘na garw tu   ôl   y &br [/] y   goed [//] yr # garreg ## &ti mae   ’n   dal
  is.3SG there \stag side track the   the \trees   the \rock(f)   is.3SG PROG continue
there’s a stag behind the &br [/] the trees [//] the, rock. &ti [He] is still

i fynd oh@fp a   mae   ’r bachgen bach yn   cwympo <off> ben   y carw mewn i ’r
to \go   and is.3SG the boy   little PROG fall   \head the stag in   to the
going oh@fp and the little boy falls <off> the top of the stag in to the

dŵr ## dim golwg o ’r broga o-hyd # ond mae   ’r bachgen bach yn   clywed sŵn ## tu
water NEG sight of the frog still   but is.3SG the boy   little PROG hear   noise side
water. No sign of the frog still, but the little boy hears a sound. Behind

ôl   y boncyff coeden mae   ’n   mynd i edrych ac yna tu   ôl   y boncyff
track the trunk   tree   is.3SG PROG go   to look   and there side track the trunk
the tree trunk [he] goes to look and there behind the trunk

mae   ’r broga # a   mae   ’na xxx froga arall a <lot of> broga<s> bach # a   mae   e
is.3SG the frog   and is.3SG there \frog other and   frog<s> little   and is.3SG he
is the frog, and there’s xxx another frog and a <lot of> little frog<s>, and he is

’n   hapus a   mae   ’n   chwifio hwyl-fawr wrth y brogaed ac mae   e ’n   gadael
PRED happy and is.3SG PROG wave   goodbye   to the frogs   and is.3SG he PROG leave
happy and [he] waves goodbye to the frogs and he leaves.

mae   broga gyda \<Ifan\> um@fp sy   'n   byw mewn jar yn ei   stafell e ## mae \<Ifan\>
is.3SG frog   with   is.REL PROG live in   jar in his room   he is.3SG
\<Ifan\> has a frog uh@fp who lives in a jar in his room. \<Ifan\>

a   'i   gi   yn   mynd i 'r gwely # ac mae 'r broga ## yn   diflannu # pan   mae
and his \dog PROG go   to 'r bed   and is.3SG the frog   PROG disappear when is.3SG
and his dog go to bed, and the frog, disappears, when

\<Ifan\> yn   dihuno yn y   bore # mae 'r broga wedi mynd # a   mae e 'n   drist ##
        PROG wake   in the morning is.3SG the frog   PRF go   and is.3SG he PRED \sad
\<Ifan\> wakes in the morning, the frog has gone, and he is sad.

mae e 'n   chwilio yn ei esgid   ond dyw   e ddim yn   gallu ffeindio fe # a   mae
is.3SG he PROG search   in his shoe but is.3SG.NEG he NEG PROG able find   he and is.3SG
He looks in his shoe but he can't find him, and

'r ci yn   helpu ## maen nhw 'n   galw mas trwy   'r ffenest ## ond does   dim
the dog PROG help   is.3PL they PROG call out through the window   but is.3SG.NEG NEG
the dog helps. They call out through the window. But there is no

ateb ## mae 'r ci yn   cwympo mas o   'r ffenest ## ac yn   torri 'r fowlen ## a
answer is.3SG the dog PROG fall   out from the window   and PROG break the \bowl(f)   and
answer. The dog falls out of the window. And breaks the bowl. And

mae \<Ifan\> yn   mynd i helpu fe # a   mae 'r ci yn   hapus iawn i weld e ## maen
is.3SG   PROG go   to help he and is.3SG the dog PRED happy very to \see he   is.3PL
\<Ifan\> goes to help him, and the dog is very happy to see him. They

nhw 'n   mynd allan i 'r cae ac yn   galw am y   broga ## maen nhw 'n   mynd
the PROG go   out to 'r field and PROG call for the frog   is.3PL they PROG go
go out to the field and are calling for the frog. They go

i 'r goedwig ## a   mae # uh@fp # nyth # picwn-s um@fp yn y [/] yn y   goeden # mae
to 'r \forest(f)   and is.3SG   nest   wasps-s   in the in the \tree(f)   is.3SG
to the forest. And there is a, uh@fp, nest, of wasps um@fp in the [/] in the tree,

\<Ifan\> yn   galw mewn i dwll yn y ddaear ## a   mae anifail bach yn   dod mas o
        PROG call in   to \hole in the \earth(f)   and is.3SG animal little PROG come out from
\<Ifan\> calls into a hole in the ground. And a little animal comes out of

'r twll # ac yn   cnoi e ar ei drwyn ## mae ci yn   cyfarth lan at y nyth ## mae 'r
the hole   and PROG bit he on his \nose   is.3SG dog PROG bark   up to the nest   is.3SG the
the hole, and bites him on the nose. [The] dog is barking up to the nest. The

picwns [//] mae 'r nyth yn   cwympo ar y llawr a   mae 'r picwn-s yn   grac
wasps.s   is.3SG the nesr PROG fall   on the ground and is.3SG the wasps-s PRED \angry
wasps [//] the nest falls on the ground and the wasps are very angry,

iawn # ac yn dod mas o ’r nyth # mae <Ifan> yn ## dringo lan i goeden ac yn
very and PROG come out from the nest is.3SG PROG climb up to \tree and PROG
and come out of the nest, <Ifan>, climbs up to a tree and

edrych mewn i twll yn y goeden ## ac yn galw am y froga ## mae gwdihw yn
look in to hole in the \tree(f) and PROG call for the \frog(m) is.3SG owl PROG
looks into a hole in the tree. And calls for the frog. An owl

dod mas o ’r goeden a mae ’r picwn-s yn grac iawn ac yn # hedfan ar ôl
come out from the \tree(f) and is.3SG the wasps-s PRED \angry very and PROG fly on track
comes out of the tree and the wasps are very angry and are, flying after

y ci ## dyw [/] dyw ’r gwdihw ddim yn hapus iawn gyda <Ifan> ## mae <Ifan>
the dog is.3SG.NEG is.3SG.NEG the owl NEG PRED happy very with is.3SG
the dog. The owl isn’t [/] isn’t very happy with <Ifan>. <Ifan>

yn dringo i-fyny carreg mawr iawn ac yn galw eto am y broga ## a mae ’r
PROG climb up rock(f) big very and PROG call again for the frog and is.3SG the
climbs up a very bog rock and calls again for the frog. And the

carw yn dod mas o tu fas i ’r goeden na tu fas i ’r garreg ## a mae <Ifan>
stag PROG come out from side out to the \tree(f) no side out to the \rock(f) and is.3SG
stag comes out from outside the tree no outside the rock. And <Ifan>

yn <stuck> ar pen y carw mae ’r carw yn car[io] lan i-ffwrdd ## a mae <Ifan>
PRED on head the stag is.3SG the stag PROG carry up away and is.3SG
is <stuck> on the stag’s head the stag carries [him] up away. And <Ifan>

a ’r ci yn cwympo mewn i pwll ## ond maen nhw ’n saff # a maen
and the dog PROG fall in to pool but is.3PL they PRED safe and is.3PL
and the dog fall into a pool. But they are safe, and they

nhw ’n clywed rhywbeth tu hôl [//] tu ôl i
they PROG hear something side \track side track to
hear something behind [//] behind a

goeden ## mae <Ifan> yn gweud wrth y ci fod yn dawel ac
\tree is.3SG PROG say to the dog \be.INF PRED \quiet and
tree. <Ifan> tells the dog ‘be quiet’ and

maen nhw ’n edrych dros ben y boncyff ## a maen nhw ’n ffeindio ’r broga #
is.3PL they PROG look over \head the trunk and is.3PL they PROG find the frog
they look over the top of the trunk. And they find the frog,

sydd wedi ffeindio ei # wraig # a mae llawer o brogaod bach gyda nhw ## a mae
is.REL PRF find his \wife and is.3SG many of frogs little with they and is.3SG
who has found his, wife, and they have a lot of little frogs. And

<Ifan> yn mynd â un broga bach adre gyda fe ## y diwedd
PROG go with in frog little homeward with he the end
<Ifan> takes one little frog home with him. The end.

un nos oedd   bachgen bach yn   gweud nos   da   i ’r broga bach ## <off> â   fe i
one night was.3SG boy   little PROG say   night(f) good to the frog   little   with he to
One night a little boy was saying goodnight to the little frog. <Off> with him to

‘r [//] i ’u wely gyda ci   bach yn   gorwedd ar y gwely # ac yn ganol   nos neidi-odd
the to his \bed with dog little PROG lie   on the bed   and in \middle night jumped-3SG
the [//] to his bed with a little dog lying on the bed, and at midnight

y broga mas o   ’r jar # yn y   bore   mae ’r bachgen bach yn   dihuno ac   yn
the frog out from the jar in the morning is.3SG the boy   little PROG wake and PROG
the frog jumped out of the jar, in the morning the little boy wakes and

chwilio am y   broga # ydy   e yn ei sgidiau? # na ‘dy #   ydy   e o-dan y
search for the frog   is.3SG.Q he in his shoes   NEG is.3SG.Q is.3SG.Q he under the
searches for the frog, is he in his shoes? no, is he under the

gwely? # na ‘dy #   oedd   y bachgen bach yn   galw ’r broga mas o   ’r
bed   NEG is.3SG.Q was.3SG the boy   little PROG call the frog out from the
bed? no, the little boy was calling the frog out of the

ffenest broga ble   wyt   ti? ## aeth   y ci   bach a   bachgen bach am dro   i
window frog where is.2SG you   went.3SG the dog little and boy   little for \turn to
window ‘frog where are you?’ The little dog and little boy went for a walk to

chwilio am y   broga # broga ble   wyt   ti? # bant â   nhw i ’r goedwig i chwilio
search for the frog   frog where is.2SG you   away with they to the \forest(f) to search
search for the frog, ‘frog where are you? away with them to the forest to search

amdano fe ydy   e yn y   twll yn y   ddaear? # na ‘dy   medd yr mochyn ddaear
for-him he is.3SG.Q he in the hole in the \earth(f) NEG is.3SG.Q said the pig(m) \earth
for him is he in the hole in the ground?, ‘no’ said the groundhog

wrth ddod mas a   cnoi trwyn y   bachgen bach ## ydy   e lan yn y   goeden yn y   twll
as \come out and bite nose the boy   little   is.3SG.Q he up in the \tree(f) in the hole
as [he] comes out and bites the little boy’s nose. Is he up in the tree in the hole

yn y   goedwig? ## naeth   y bachgen bach edrych mewn i ’r goeden a   daeth
in the \forest(f)   did.3SG the boy   little look   in   to the \tree(f) and came.3SG
in the forest? The little boy looked into the tree and a

gwdihw fawr mas o   ’r goeden # na ‘dy   dyw   e ddim fan hyn ## aeth   y
owl(m) \big out from the \tree(f) NEG is.3SG.Q is.3SG.NEG he NEG \place this   went.3SG the
big owl came out of the tree, ‘no he isn’t here’. The

bachgen bach lan i ben   y garreg fawr i edrych ydy   ’r broga bach lan fan   hyn #
bot   little up to \head the \rock(f) \big to look   is.3SG.Q the frog   little up \place this
little boy went up on top of the big rock to look is the little frog up here,

na 'dy medd yr carw fi sy 'n byw fan hyn ## cari-odd y carw 'r bachgen
NEG is.3SG.Q said the stag I is.REL PROG live \place this carried-3SG the stag the boy
'no' said the stag 'I live here'. The stag carried the little boy

bach a 'i daflu dros y clawdd lawr i 'r llawr # a mewn i 'r dŵr â fe a ci
little and his \toss over the ditch down to the ground and in to the water with he and dog
and tossed him over the ditch down to the ground, and into the water with him and little dog,

bach # welodd e boncyff coeden fawr # ydy e dros y boncyff? medd yr bachgen bach
little saw-3SG he trunk tree(f) \big is.3SG.Q he over the trunk said the boy little
he saw a big tree trunk, 'is he over the trunk?' said the little boy,

ydyn # tu ôl y boncyff oedd 'na <Mrs.> broga a <Mr.> broga yn eistedd gyda
is.3PL.Q side track the trunk was.3SG there frog and frog PROG sit with
yes, behind the trunk there was <Mrs.> frog and <Mr.> frog sitting with

chwech o brogaod bach ## hwyl-fawr <Mr.> broga # diolch am fenthyg y broga bach #
six of frogs little goodbye frog thanks for \lend the frog little
six little frogs. 'Goodbye <Mr.> Frog, thanks for lending the little frog,

na i edrych ar ei ôl e ac <off> â 'r bachgen bach i edrych ar ôl y
do.1SG.FUT I look on his track he and with the boy little to look on track the
I will look after him' and <off> with the little boy to look after the

broga # y diwedd
frog the end
frog, the end.

mae ’r bachgen bach yn   barod i fynd i wely ac yn   chawrae efo ’r broga a ’i
is.3SG the boy   little PRED \ready to \go to \bed and PROG play   with the frog and his
The little boy is ready to go to bed and is playing with the frog and his

ci bach um@fp tra   bod   y bachgen bach yn [/] yn   cysgu mae ’r broga yn
dog little   while is.COMP the boy   little PROG PROG sleep is.3SG the frog   PROG
little dog um@fp while the little boy is [/] is sleeping the frog

diengyd o   ’r [//] o   ’i &wel wely # yna mae   ’r bachgen bach yn   deffro ac yn
escape from the from his \bed   then is.3SG the boy   little PROG wake and PROG
escapes from the [//] from his &wel bed, then the little boy wakes and

gweld bod   y broga ‘di mynd ## mae   ’n   edrych yn ei sgidiau mae ’r ci
see is.COMP the frog   PRF go   is.3SG PROG look in his shoes   is.3SG the dog
see that the frog has gone. [He] looks in his shoes the dog

yn   edrych mae o ’n   edrych o-gwmpas ei lofft i-gyd mae o ’n   edrych
PROG look   is.3SG he PROG look   around   his \room all   is.3SG he PROG look
looks he looks around all his room he looks

tu   allan y ffenest # ac yna mae   ’r ci yn   neidio allan o   ’r ffenest i chwilio
side out   the window and then is.3SG the dog PROG jump   out from the window to look
outside the window, and then the dog jumps out of the window to look

<dw   i ’n   meddwl> am y broga ac um@fp mae   ’r bachgen bach yn [/] yn   dal
  is.1SG I PROG think   for the frog and   is.3SG the boy   little PROG PROG hold
<I think> for the frog and um@fp the little boy [/] holds

y ci rhag rhedeg i-ffwrdd # maen nhw ’n   gweiddi ac yn   edrych yn y coed i
the dog from run   away   is.3PL they PROG shout   and PROG look in the trees to
the dog from running away, they shout and look in the trees to

weld os ‘dy   ’r broga bach yna mae   ’r [/] mae   ’r bachgen bach yn [/] yn   gweiddi
\see if is.3SG.Q the frog little there is.3SG the   is.3SG the boy   little PROG PROG shout
see if the frog is there the [/] the little boy [/] shouts

lawr tyllau ac yna mae ‘na [//] mae o ’n   gweld nyth gwenyn ac mae o ’n
down holes and then is.3SG there is.3SG he PROG see   nest bees   and is.3SG he PROG
down holes and then there’s [//] he sees a bees’ nest and he is

dal   i weiddi ## mae o-hyd yn   neud yn   edrych mewn coeden i weld os ‘dy   ’r
continue to \shout   is.3SG still PROG do   PROG look in   tree   to see if is.3SG.Q the
still shouting. [He] is still doing looking in a tree to see if the

broga dim i fewn i ’r coeden ac um@fp mae o ’n   cwympo allan o   ’r goeden
frog NEG to \in   to the tree(f) and   is.3SG he PROG fall   out from the \tree(f)
frog isn’t into the tree and um@fp he falls out of the tree

achos   mae   'na   gwdihw wedi dod i deud helo a   mae   'r ci bach yn   rhedeg
because is.3SG there owl   PRF come to say   hellp and is.3SG the dog little PROG run
because there's an owl come out to say hellp and the little dog runs

i-ffwrdd achos   mae   'r gwenyn yn   rhedeg ar ei ôl ## yna mae   'r bachgen bach
away   because is.3SG the bees   PROG run   on his track then is.3SG the boy   little
away because the bees are running after him. Then the little boy

yn   dod i garreg ac mae   o dal   i weiddi i weld lle   mae   'r broga ## yna
PROG come to \rock   and is.3SG he continue to \shout to \see where is.3SG the frog   then
comes to a rock and he is still shouting to see where the frog is. Then

mae   o 'n   gweld carw # a   mae   'r carw yn   mynd â   fo ar ei gefn ## ond mae
is.3SG he PROG see   stag and is.3SG the stag PROG go   with he on his \back   but is.3SG
he sees a stag, and the stag takes him on his back. But

o 'n   cwympo lawr dipyn   # ac i mewn i nant ## yna # mae   o 'n   clywed sŵn
he PROG fall   down precipice and to in   to stream then is.3SG he PROG hear   sound
he falls down a precipice, and into a stream. Then, he hears a sound

ond mae   o 'n   deud wrth y   ci fod   yn   dawel ## mae   o yn   edrych dros
but is.3SG he PROG say   to   the dog \be.INF PRED \quiet   is.3SG he PROG look   over
but he tells the dog to be quiet. He looks over a

boncyff coeden ac yn   dod-o-hyd-i 'r   broga # nid un broga ond teulu o brogaod ## yna
trunk   tree   and PROG find   the frog   NEG one frog   but family of frogs   then
tree trunk and finds the frog, not one but a family of frogs. Then

mae   'r bachgen bach yn   penderfynu bod   angen i 'r broga aros gyda 'i
is.3SG the boy   little PROG decide   is.COMP need   to the frog stay with his
the little boy decides that the frog needs to stay with his

 deulu ac yn   ffarwelio 'thyn   nhw ## hwyl-fawr
\family and PROG say.goodbye at-them they   goodbye
family and says goodbye to them. 'Goodbye.'

un bore   dihun-odd <Twm> yn gynnar a   fyny aeth   i siarad gyda 'i ei froga
one morning woke-3SG   ADV \early and up   went.3SG to speak with his his \frog
One morning <Twm> woke up early and up he went to speak with his his frog

ei anifail anwes a   gan <Twm> froga a   fe gynddo fe ci   bach o 'r enw <Jim> ##
his animal pet   and with   \frog and AFF with-him he dog little of the name
his pet and <Twm> [had] a frog and he [had] a little dog by the name of <Jim>.

oedd <Jim> yn   ci bach frown a oedd   e 'n   hoffi siglo 'i cwt pryd-bynna' oedd
was.3SG   PRED dog little \brown and was.3SG he PROG like shake his tail when-ever was.3SG
<Jim> was a little brown dog and he he liked to shake his tail whenever

<Twm> yn   edrych arno ## wedi <Twm> i chwarae gyda <Jim> a   'r broga bach roedd
--   PROG look   on-him after   to play   with   and the frog   little was.3SG
<Twm> was looking at him. After <Twm> played with <Jim> and the little frog [he] was

wedi blino 'n   lân   a aeth   i gysgu am damed ar ei wely # tra   fod <Twm> yn
PRF tire PRED clean and went.3SG to \sleep for \bit on his \bed   while \is.COMP   PROG
tired out and went to sleep for a bit on his bed, while <Twm> was

cysgu wnaeth y broga drwg ddringo allan o   'i botel allan a   dechrau symud o-gwmpas
sleep did.3SG the frog bad \climb out from his \bottle out and begin   move around
sleeping the bad frog climbed out of his bottle out and began to move around

ystafell gwely <Twm> # pan   wnaeth <Twm> ddihuno # sylw-odd   bod   y broga
room(f) bed   when did.3SG   \wake   observed-3SG is.COMP the frog
<Twm>'s bedroom, when <Twm> woke up, [he] saw that the frog

wedi dianc gafodd fraw   dechreu-odd e a <Jim> y ci i chwilio am y   broga drwg ##
PRF escape got.3SG \fright began-3SG he and   the dog to search for the frog bad
had escaped he got a frght he and <Jim> the dog began to search for the bad frog.

edrych-odd e yn ei sgidiau # edrych-odd e o-dan y gwely # edrych-odd e dan   y gadair
looked-3SG he in his shoes   looked-3SG he under the bed   looked-3SG he under the \chair(f)
[He] looked in his shoes, he looked under the bed, he looked under the chair,

a   buodd <Jim> y ci bach yn   snyffian o-gwmpas i weld oedd   e medru dyfalu
  and was.3SG   the dog little PROG sniff   around   to \see was.3SG he able guess
and <Jim> the little dog sniffed around to see was he able to guess

le   yn union oedd   y broga drwg wedi mynd ## aethon   nhw draw i 'r ffenest
\where ADV exact was.3SG the frog bad PRF go   went.3PL they over to the window
where exactly the bad frog had gone. They went over to the window

a   gweiddi allan drwy   'r ffenest am y   broga # erbyn hyn mae <Jim> y ci drwg wedi
and shout   out through 'r window for the frog   by   this is.3SG   the dog bad PRF
and shouting out through the window for the frog, now <Jim> the bad dog has

cael ei   ben   yn   sownd yn <stuck> yn y   botel ## wrth i <Twm> a <Jim> bwyso allan o
get   his \head PRED stuck   PRED   in the \bottle(f) as to   and   \lean   out from
got his head stuck stuck in the bottle. As <Twm> and <Jim> lean out of

'r   ffenest # fe naeth <Jim> y ci bwyso gormod a   gwympodd gwympodd ar ei
the window AFF did.3SG   the dog \lean too.much and \fell-3SG   \fell-3SG on his
the window, <Jim> the dog leaned too much and fell fell on his

ben   allan o   'r   ffenest ## neidi-odd <Twm> allan er-mwyn   achub <Jim> # roedd
\head out from the window   jumped-3SG   out for.the.sake.of save   was.3SG
head out of the window. <Twm> jumped out in order to save <Jim>,

y botel   gwydr yn darnau mân ar y   llawr ## mi wnaeth <Jim> lyfu <Twm> gyda 'i
the \bottle(f) glass in pieces fine on the ground   AFF did.3SG   \lick   with his
the glass bottle was in little pieces on the ground. <Jim> licked <Twm> with his

dafod   mawr gwlyb # aethant   i-lawr i 'r ardd #   i weiddi ymhlith [//] ymysg y
\tongue big   wet   went-3PL down to the \garden(f) to \shout among   among the
big wet tongue, [they] went down to the garden, to shout among the

coed # gweiddi am y broga oedden nhw xxx gael dim broga ## um@fp wedi 'r
trees   shout   for the frog was.3PL they   \get NEG frog   after the
trees, shouting for the frog they were xxx getting no frog. Um@fp after the

chwilio ychydig ffeindi-odd <Jim> nyth   wenyn ## oedd   gyda xxx daeth   y gwenyn
search little   found-3SG   nest(m) \bees   was.3SG with   came.3SG the bees
searcing a little bit <Jim> found a bees' nest. There was with xxx the bees came

allan a   'i um@fp erlid   o-gwmpas y coed # um@fp tra   oedd <Jim> yn   rhedeg
out   and his   pursue around   the forest   while was.3SG   PROG run
out and um@fp pursued him around the forest, um@fp while <Jim> was running

i-ffwrdd wrth y gwenyn oedd <Twm> yn   chwilio am y broga daeth   e
away   from the bees   was.3SG   PROG search for the frog came.3SG he
away from the bees <Twm> was searching for the frog he came

dros twll yn y ddaear # 'drych-odd e mewn i 'r twll   yn sydyn   daeth   yr
over hole in the \earth(f) looked-3SG he in   to the hole ADV sudden came.3SG the
across a hole in the ground, he looked into the hole suddenly the

greadur   bach fe xxx allan ## nid yw xxx beth yw y creadur ond dwed-wn   i
\creature(m) little AFF   out   NEG COP   what COP the creature but say-1SG.SBJV I
little creature came xxx out. Not a xxx what was the creature but I'd say

mai   gwahadden yw e # gwahadden ## byw yn y twll yn y ddaear # um@fp erbyn
is.COMP mole   COP he mole   live in the hole in the \earth(f)   by
that it is a mole, a mole, living in the hole in the ground. Um@fp now

hyn fe <Twm> wedi benderfynu neidio i-fyny 'r goeden dderw gerllaw a   chwilio yn y
this AFF   PRF \decide   jump up   the \tree(f) \oak nearby and search in the
<Twm> having decided to jump up the oak tree nearby and search in the

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goeden meddwl i weld oedd y broga yn cuddio ymysg y brigau ## roedd <Jim>
\tree(f) think to \see was.3SG the frog PROG hide among the braches was.3SG
tree thinking to see the frog was hiding among the branches. <Jim> was

o-hyd yn ceisio diengyd oddi-wrth y gwenyn oedd erbyn hyn yn um@fp rhedeg ar ei
still PROG try escape from the bees was.3SG by now PROG run on his
still trying to escape from the bees [who] were now um@fp running after

ôl [//] yn hedfan ar ôl dyn nhw neud ## um@fp cwympodd <Twm> allan o ’r
track PROG fly on track is.3PL they do fell-3SG out from the
him [//] flying after they do. Um@fp <Twm> fell out of the

goeden wrth weld <Jim> yn rhedeg heibio gyda gwenyn wrth ei gwt ## oh@fp ‘na dylluan
\tree(f) at \see PROG run past with bees at his \tail there \owl
tree as [he] saw <Jim> running past with bees on his tail. Oh@fp there’s an owl

yn y goeden # a dihun-odd honnw oedd glywed ryw-fath sŵn # fe ‘na <hullabaloo>
in the \tree(f) and woke-3SG that was.3SG \hear \some-sort noise AFF there
in the tree, and that woke up he [who] was hearing somesort of noise, there [was] a <hullabaloo>

yn yr ardd ## y gwenyn yn <chas>-o ’r ci # <Twm> ar ei gefn wedi cwympo allan
in the \garden(f) the bees PROG -INF the dog on his \back PRF fall out
in the garden. The bees chasing the dog, <Twm> on his back fallen out

o ’r goeden a dyna beth dihun-odd y dylluan ## hedfan-odd y dylluan i-ffwrdd
from the \tree(f) and that’s what woke-3sg the \owl(f) flew-3SG the \owl(f) away
of the tree and that’s what woke the owl. The owl flew away

i-fyny ’r awyr yn gobeithio bod i mynd i weld broga a helpu nhw ffeindio
up the sky PROG hope is.COMP to go to \see frog and help them find
up to the sky hoping that to go to see and help them find

froga ## um@fp mae fan ‘na graig xxx yn yr ardd a benderfyn-odd
\frog is.3SG place there \rock in the \garden(f) and \decided-3SG
a frog. Um@fp there’s a rock xxx in the garden and <Twm> decided

<Twm> byddai ’n syniad i ddringo i-fyny ben y garreg fawr er-mwyn gweld
-- is.3SG.SBJV PRED idea to \climb up \head the \stone(f) \big in.order.to see
it would be an idea to climb up the big stone in order to see

ar-draws yr ardd a galw [/] a galw am y broga ## erbyn hyn benderfynodd <Twm>
across the \garden(f) and call and call for the frog by this \decided-3SG
across the garden and call [/] and call for the frog. Now <Twm> decided

oedd angen cymorth pellach arno a galwodd ar ei ffrind y carw i fod i ’u
was.3SG need help further on-him and called.3SG on his friend the stag to \be to their
he needed further help and called on his friend the stag

helpu ffeindio ’r broga # oedd <Twm> wedi blino a neidi-odd i gefn y carw fel
help find the frog was.3SG PRF tire and jumped-3SG to \back the stag like
help them find the frog, <Twm> was tired and jumped to the back of the stag as

bod e 'n galled xxx # um@fp i drio gafael yn ei ffrind broga ##
is.INF he PROG able to \try grasp in his friend frog
he could xxx to try to get hold of his friend frog.

ond wrth i carw i fynd yn sydyn um@fp fe daeth e ar-draws <ha> [/] ar-draws
but as to stag to \go ADV sudden AFF came.3SG he across across
but as the stag went suddenly um#fp he came across <ha> across

clogwy[n] cwympodd o carw i-lawr y clogwyn am bod y porfa yn wlyb
cliff fell-3SG from stag down the cliff because is.COMP the grass(f) PRED \wet
a cliff [he] fell from a stag down the cliff because the grass was wet

a gyda hwnna cwymp-odd <Twm> a <Jim> i-lawr dros-do clogwyn a cwympo yn ganol
and with that fell-3SG and down over-him cliff and fall in \middle
and with that <Twm> and <Jim> fell down over it a cliff and fall in the middle

 xxx lawr ac i-lawr i mewn i 'r llyn # <glwtch> ## dyna le o-'n nhw # yn
 \down and down to in to the lake there's where was-3PL they PRED
of xxx, down down into the lake, <glutch>. That's where they were,

'lyb <soppin'> yn y llyn ## <glimb>-odd <Jim> i ben <Twm> i drio xxx weld xxx xxx
\wet in the lake \<>-3SG.PST to \head to \try \see
<sopping> wet in the lake. <Jim> <climb>ed on top of <Twm>, to try xxx to see xxx xxx

achub ei hunan o 'r llyn # um@fp a gyda nhw wel-on nhw darn o bren a
save his self from the lake and with them \saw-3PL they piece of \wood and
save himself from the lake, um@fp and with them they saw a piece of wood and

penderfynu byddai 'n syniad dringo 'mlaen i 'r pren a dod allan o 'r llyn ##
decide is.3SG.SBJV PRED idea climb on to the wood and come out from the lake
decide it would be an idea to climb on to the wood and come out of the lake.

wrth i <Twm> i ddringo allan i 'r llyn fe gwymp-odd ei drwsus i-lawr a gaf-odd
as to to \climb out to the lake AFF \fell-3SG his \pants down and \got-3SG
As <Twm> climbs out [of] the lake his pants fell down and got

i-ddo fe xxx 'n sownd a xxx tynnu nhw i-fyny ## ac i-ddo fe ei lithro eto ## tu ôl #
to-him he PROG stucl and pull they up and to-him he his \slide again side track
him xxx stuck and xxx pulling them up. And he slides again. Behind, uuh@fp

uuh@fp goeden fawr uh@fp um@fp # hm@fp <beth yw hwnna gweud> ## bonyn coeden wedi
\tree(f) \big what COP that say trunk tree PRF
a big tree uh@fp um@fp, hm@fp <what's that [do we] say>. A fallen tree trunk,

cwympo dyna beth oedd y pren # o xxx anferth tu ôl y bonyn gwel-on nhw #
fall that's what was.3SG the wood from huge side track the trunk saw-3PL they
that's what the wood was, from a huge xxx behind the trunk they saw,

ddau froga # a gyda 'na xxx o frogaod bach yn cuddio ymysg y pysg ###
\two \frog and with that of \frogs little PROG hide among the fish
two frogs, and with that xxx of little frogs hiding among the fish.

mae ’n amlwg bod y broga wedi ffeindio cariad a wedi cael teulu dros dro ## fe
is.3SG PROG obvious is.COMP the frog PRF find love and PRF get family over \time AFF
It’s obvious that the frog has found his sweetheart and got a temporary family .

aeth <Twm> â un o brogaod mae ’n amlwg mai un o brogaod bach yma
went.3SG with one of frogs is.3SG PRED obvious is.COMP one of frogs little here
<Twm> took one of [the] frogs it’s clear that one of [the] little frogs here

oedd # y froga # <ok>
was.3SG the \frog
was, the frog, <ok>.

yn y llun   yma mae ’r bachgen yn   gorwedd ar gwely ## mae [/] mae ’r ci
in the picture here is.3SG the boy   PROG lie   on bed   is.3SG is.3SG the dog
In this picture the boy is lying on the bed. The dog is [/] is

wrth ei gefn e ac uh@fp ar y   llawr wedyn mae   llawer o bethau ar y llawr ##
at   his \back he and   on the ground then is.3SG many o \things on the ground
at his back and uh@fp on the floor then there are a lot of things on the floor.

mae   gyda ni sliperi ## mae   gyda ni esgidiau uchel ## mae   gyda ni sedd [/] sedd
is.3SG with we slippers is.3SG with we shoes   high   is.3SG with we seat   seat(f)
We have slippers. We have high boots. We have a seat a

fychan iawn tair coes # hefyd mae   gyda ni siwmper # ac un hosan ac yn y   canol
\little very three leg   also is.3SG with we sweater   and one sock and in the center
very little seat three legs, also we have a sweater, and one sock and in the middle

wedyn # mae [/] mae   jar [/] mae jar   wydr ## um@fp mae ’r bachgen yn   edrych
then   is.3SG is.3SG jar is.3SG jar(f) \glass   is.3SG the boy   PROG look
then, there’s a [/] there’s a jar [/] there’s a glass jar. Um@fp the boy is looking

yn   chwilfrydig mae   e ’n   meddwl am   y pethau neu mae   golwg ofnus
PRED curious   is.3SG he PROG think about the things or is.3SG look anxious
crious he’s thinking about the things or there’s an anxious look

ar-no fe dyn ni ddim yn   siwr ## um@fp mae ’r gwely yn fawr ac mae um@fp ar
on-him he is.1PL we NEG PRED sure   is.3SG the bed PRED \big and is.3SG   on
on him we aren’t sure. Um@fp the bed is big and there is um@fp on

bob ochr y   gwely wedyn [/] mae um@fp wel fel # beth allen   ni ddweud um@fp #
\each side the bed   then   is.3SG   well like what \able.1PL.SBJV we \say
each side of the bed then [/] there’s um@fp well like, what could we say um@fp,

dim ffon ond um@fp prennau   uchel ac uh@fp golau a-betai   ar ben y prennau ##
NEG stick but   wood.pieces high and   light as.it.were on \head the wood.pieces
not a stick but um@fp high wooden pieces and uh@fp light as it were on top of the wood.

mae   ffenest i ’r ystafell hefyd eh@fp ffenest   fychan ## oh@fp yn y   llun   blaenorol
is.3SG window to the room   also   window(f) \little   in the picture following
There’s a window to the room also eh@fp a little window. Oh@fp in the following picture

mae   ‘na froga # [/] mae ‘na froga yn   camu allan o   ’r jar ac fallai bod   y
is.3SG there \frog   is.3SG there \frog PROG step out from the jar and maybe is.COMP the
there’s a frog, [/] there’s a frog stepping out of the jar and maybe the

bachgen yn y llun   wedyn yn   meddwl wel ble   mae ’r [/] mae ’r broga wedi
boy   in the picture after PROG think well where is.3SG the is.3SG the \frog PRF
boy in the picture then thinks ‘well where has the [/] has the frog

mynd mae e 'n   chwilio mae 'n   ofni efallai # bod   y broga yn   mynd i
go   is.3SG he PROG search is.3SG PROG fear maybe is.COMP the frog PROG go   to
gone?' he searches he fears maybe, that the frog is going to

neidio   -'no fe uh@fp neb   o   'r y ci 'm yn   chwilio am y   broga # wrth
jump [from]-it he   no.one from the the dog here PROG search for the frog   by
jump [from] it uh@fp no one [apart] from this dog is serching for the frog, of

cwrs roedd   y broga yn   neidio allan pan   roedd   y lleuad uh@fp allan felly
course was.3SG the frog PROG jump   out when was.3SG the moon   out so
course the frog was jumping out when the moon was uh@fp out so

roedd   y bachgen yn   cysgu yn y gwely bryd hynny ## <o'r-gorau> ## um@fp ar ôl #
was.3SG the boy   PROG sleep in the bed   \when that   alright   on track
the boy was sleeping in the bed at the time. <Alright>. Um@fp after,

yn y llun   nesa wedyn # wrth cwrs   mae 'r bachgen yn   gwisgo ## mae   e wedi
in the picture next then   at   course is.3SG the boy   PROG dress   is.3SG he PRF
in the next picture then, of course the boy is dressing. He has

neud llanast ar y llawr mae e wedi troi neu mae 'r ci wedi neud mae   'r
make mess   on the ground is.3SG he PRF turn or is.3SG the dog PRF   make is.3SG the
made a mess on the ground he has turned of the dog has made the

[/] mae   'r [/] mae   'r sedd wedi troi wyneb &i i-waered # mae   'r coesau i-fyny #
    is.3SG the   is.3SG the seat PRF turn face   down   is.3SG the legs   up
[/] the [/] the seat upside &i down, the legs are up,

ac mae e 'n   gwisgo [/] gwisgo 'i siwmper # gwisgo wedyn xxx e 'n   gwisgo dim-ond
and is.3SG he PROG wear   wear   his sweater wear   then   he PROG wear   only
and he's wearing [/] wearing his sweater, wearing then xxx he wearing only

un esgid sydd yn y llun # ond dwy esgid yn y llun   blaenorol # dw   i ddim yn
one shoe is.REL in the picture but two shoe(f) in the picture following is.1SG I NEG PROG
one shoe which is in the picture, but two shoes in the following picture, I don't

gwybod ble   mae 'r &es oh@fp [//] ydy mae 'r esgid <ya> dim ei siwmper xxx
know   where is.3SG the   yes is.3SG the shoe   NEG his sweater
know where the &es oh@fp [//] yes the shoe is <ya> not his sweater xxx

mae e 'n &gwis [//] mae e 'n   dal yr esgudiau uwch ei ben dyna beth mae
is.3SG he PROG   is.3SG he PROG hold the shoes   over his \head that's what is.3SG
he's &gwis [//] he's holding the shoes over his head that's what he's

e 'n   gwneud ## felly dyna beth sy   'n   digwydd yn y llun   yna ## yn y llun
he PROG do   so   that's what is.REL PROG happen in the picture there   in the picture
doing. So that's what's happening in that picture. In the next picture,

nesa # wel beth sy   'n   digwydd yn y llun   nesa mae uh@fp [/] mae 'r bachgen
next   well what is.REL PROG happen in the picture next is.3SG   is.3SG the boy
well what is happening in the next picture uh@fp [/] the boy

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wedi agor y ffenest mae e 'n gweiddi [/] gweiddi ar rywun # dw i ddim
PRF open the window is.3SG he PROG shout shout on \someone is.1SG I NEG
has opened the window he's shouting [/] shouting for someone, I don't

yn gwybod pwy ## chwilio am y froga fallai <ie> ond fallai bod e 'n
PROG know who search for the \frog maybe yes but maybe is.COMP he PROG
know who. Looking for the frog maybe <yes> but maybe he's

gweiddi am help achos mae 'r ci # [//] mae pen y ci yn y jar wydr ## ac
shout for help because is.3SG the dog is.3SG head the dog in the jar(f) \glass and
shouting for help because the dog, [//] the dog's head is in the glass jar. And

fallai bod y ci yn sownd # a fallai bod y bachgen yn gweiddi am help #
maybe is.COMP the dog PRED stuck and maybe is.COMP the boy PROG shout for help
maybe the dog is stuck, and maybe the boy is shouting for help,

helpwch fi os gwelwch chi 'n dda # helpwch fi # ond beth sy 'n digwydd
help-2PL.IMPV I if see.2PL you ADV \good help-2PL I but what is.REL PROG happen
'help mi please, help me', but what happens

nesa # mae 'r ci wedi syrthio allan o 'r ffenest ## mae e 'n syrthio i-lawr
next is.3SG the dog PRF fall out from the window is.3SG he PROG fall down
next, the dog has fallen out of the window. He falls down

i-lawr ac wrth cwrs mae 'r jar yn chwalu ac mae 'r bachgen yn <cuddl>-o yn y
down and at course is.3SG the jar PROG smash and is.3SG the boy PROG -INF in the
down and of course the jar scatters and the boy cuddles the

ci yn ddiogel # mae e 'n rhydd o fod yn y jar ## a does dim sôn
dog ADV \safe is.3SG he PRED free from \be.INF in the jar and is.3SG.NEG NEG mention
dog safely, he's free from being in the jar. And there's no sign

am y broga # mae 'r broga wedi mynd # does dim # xxx o-hono fe ##
about the frog is.3SG the frog PRF go is.3SG.NEG NEG from-him he
of the frog, the frog has gone, there's no, xxx of him.

mae e siwr-o-fod wedi mynd i 'r goedwig ## <pwy a wyr> <who knows> ## iawn ##
is.3SG he probably PRF go to the \forest(f) who REL know.3SG okey
He has probably gone to the forest. <Who knows> <who knows>. Okey.

(tipynbach mwy) <ti 'n moyn mwy?> <okey> # mae 'r oh@fp [/] mae 'r &bach
 bit more you PROG want more is.3SG the is.3SG the
(a bit more) <you want more?> <okey>, the oh@fp [/] the &bach

[//] mae 'r ci yn gweld nyth cacwn yn y goeden # ac mae 'r gwenyn yn hedfan
 is.3SG the dog PROG see nest wasps in the \tree(f) and is.3SG the bees PROG fly
[//] the dog sees a wasps' nest in the tree, and the bees fly

o   'r [/] # o   'r   nyth yma ## um@fp mae   'r   bachgen yn   gweiddi [/] gweiddi lawr
from the   from the nest here   is.3SG the boy   PROG shout   shout   down
from the, [/] from the nest here. Um@fp the boy is shouting [/] shouting down

y   twll ## <oo> beth sydd   yn y   twll # beth sydd   yn y   twll? <beth yw e? dw   i ddim
the hole   what is.REL in the hole   what is.REL in the hole   what COP e is.1SG I NEG
the hole. '<Oo> what's in the hole, what's in the hole?' <What is is? I'm not

yn   siwr <ha ha> # beth yw e? beth yw 'r   creadur? um@fp ife um@fp ## dw   i ddim
PRED sure   what COP he what COP the creature   is.it   is.1SG I NEG
sure <ha ha>, what is it? What's the creature? Um@fp is it um@fp. I don't

yn   gwybod> (yn Saesneg <like gopher>) <gopher> oh@fp <dw   i ddim yn   gwybod
PROG know   in English   is.1SG I NEG PROG know
know> (in English <like a gopher>) <gopher> oh@fp <I don't know

beth yw <gopher> yn Gymraeg>   <'s   dim syniad 'da   fi> um@fp <dim
what COP   in \Welsh   is.3SG.NEG NEG idea   with I   NEG
what <gopher> is in Welsh> <I have no idea> um@fp <not a

daeargi> # <nage> # gwahadden fallai   gwahadden un   dywyll gwahadden &s <mole> > ##
terrier   no   mole   maybe mole   one \dark   mole
terrier>, <no>, a mole maybe a dark one mole &s a <mole>>.

<ya> <mole>   gwahadden # ac um@fp oh@fp mae   'r   ci   yn uh@fp edrych i-fyny 'r
--   mole   and   is.3SG the dog PROG   look   up   the
<ya> <mole> mole, and um@fp oh@fp the dog is uh@fp looking up the

goeden lle   mae 'r nyth cacwn ## a   nesa mae 'r nyth cacwn wedi cwympo i 'r
\tree(f) where is.3SG the nest wasps   and next is.3SG the nest wasps PRF fall   to the
tree where the wasps' nest is. And next the wasps' nest has fallen to the

llawr   ac mae 'r gwenyn yn   dod   allan ## yn   cyflym iawn ## mae 'r bachgen wedi
ground and is.3SG the bees   PROG come out   ADV fast   very   is.3SG the boy   PRF
ground and the bees are coming out. Very quickly. The boy has

mynd dringo 'r   goeden # hm@fp mae   twll yn y   goeden # mae 'n   edrych mewn i 'r
go   climb the \tree(f)   is.3SG hole in the \tree(f)   is.3SG PROG look   in   to the
gone to climb the tree. Hm@fp there's a hole in the tree, [he] looks into the

goeden ## ah@fp mae   e 'n   cael ofn ## mae   tylluan [/] tylluan yn   dod   allan o   'r
\tree(f)   is.3SG he PROG get fear   is.3SG owl   owl   PROG come out   from the
tree. Ah@fp he gets a fright. An owl [/] owl comes out of the

goeden ## mae &ty tylluan yn   cysgu yn y   goeden ac mae 'r   bachgen yn
\tree(f)   is.3SG   owl   PROG sleep in the \tree(f) and is.3SG the boy   PROG
tree. An &ty owl sleeps in the tree and the boy

syrthio yn ôl   i-lawr ## ac mae 'r gwenyn yn   mynd ar y ci [//] ar ôl   y ci ac
fall   in track down   and is.3SG the bees   PROG go   on the dog   on track the dog and
falls back down. And the bees are going on the dog [//] after the dog and

mae 'r ci yn rhedeg [/] yn rhedeg yn gyflym iawn ## nawr te mae 'r dylluan
is.3SG the dog PROG run PROG run ADV \fast very now then is.3SG the \owl(f)
the dog is running [/] running very fast. Now then the owl

nesa # [/] mae 'r dylluan yn hedfan uwchben y bachgen ## mae e 'n dringo #
next is.3SG the \owl(f) PROG fly above the boy is.3SG he PROG climb
next, [/] the owl is flying over the boy. He climbs,

uh@fp graig [/] dringo 'r graig ## pam mae fe 'n dringo 'r graig? mae e 'n
-- \rock climb the \rock(f) why is.3SG he PROG climb the \rock(f) is.3SG he PROG
uh@fp a rock [/] climbs the rock. Wht does he climb the rock? He's

gweiddi # ar bwy mae fe 'n gweiddi? oh@fp # <beth yw hwn?> # <beth yw e?> carw
shout on \who is.3SG he PROG shout what COP this what COP he stag
shouting, for whom is he shouting? Oh@fp, <what is this?>, <what is it?> a stag

<dw i 'n meddwl> # carw # ie # carw # ac mae 'r bachgen ar gefn y carw ac
is.1SG I PROG think stag yes stag and is.3SG the boy on \back the stag and
<I think>, a stag, yes, a stag, and the boy is on the stag's back and

mae 'r carw yn rhedeg oh@fp [/] mae 'r carw yn rhedeg at y glogwyn [//] clogwyn
is.3SG the stag PROG run is.3SG the stag PROG run to the \cliff(m) cliff
the stag is running oh@fp [/] the stag is running to the cliff [//] cliff.

oh@fp beth sy mynd yn digwydd i 'r bachgen? ac mae 'r ci yn mynd
-- what is.REL go PROG happen to the boy and is.3SG the dog PROG go
Oh@fp what's going [to] happen to the boy? And the dog goes

o'r-flaen y carw ## oh@fp # mae 'r bachgen yn syrthio a 'r ci dros y clogwyn
before the stag is.3SG the boy PROG fall and the dog over the cliff
in front of the stag. Oh@fp, the boy falls and the dog over the cliff

i-lawr mae 'r carw wedi stopio # mae e 'di stopio ar ymyl y clogwyn ac
down is.3SG the stag PRF stop is.3SG he PROG stop on edge the cliff and
down the stag has stopped, he has stopped at the edge of the cliff and

mae 'r bachgen yn syrthio i mewn i afon diolch-byth am hynny dyw
is.3SG the boy PROG fall to in to river thank-goodness for that is.3SG.NEG
the boy falls into a river thank goodness for that he doesn't

e ddim yn syrthio i 'r ddaear a dyw e ddim wedi cael dolur wedi syrthio
he NEG PROG fall to the \earth(f) and is.3SG.NEG he NEG PRF get hurt PRF fall
fall to the ground and he hasn't gotten hurt having fallen

i mewn i 'r dŵr ac mae e 'n iawn mae e 'n gwennu dw i 'n meddwl
to in to the water and is.3SG he PRED okey is.3SG he PROG smile is.1SG I PROG think
into the water and he's okey he is smiling I think

ac mae 'r ci ar ei ysgwydd e ## oh@fp mae fe nawr yn # nofio ac yn cyrraedd
and is.3SG the dog on his shoulder he is.3SG he now PROG swim and PROG arrive
and the dog is on his shoulder. Oh@fp he is now, swimming and arrives

ar ochr ac mae coeden # coeden wag ar ochr yr afon # mae e 'n dringo dros
on side and is.3SG tree tree(f) \empty on side the river is.3SG he PROG climb over
at the side and there's a tree, an empty tree at the side of the river, he climbs over

[/] dros y goeden ## a nesa wel 'drych-wch beth sy wedi digwydd ## mae e
over the \tree(f) and next well look-2PL.IMPV what is.REL PRF happen is.3SG he
[/] over the tree. And next well look what's happened. He

wedi darganfod y broga [/] y broga [/] y broga bach # oh@fp mae brogaod eraill hefyd
PRF discover the frog the frog the frog little is.3SG frogs other also
has discovered the frog [/] the frog [/] the little frog, oh@fp there are other frogs also

ar y goeden ac mae 'r bachgen yn mynd â 'r broga bach gydag e ac yn
on the \tree(f) and is.3SG the boy PROG go with the frog little with he and PROG
on the tree and the boy takes the littlr frog with him and

codi llaw ac yn dweud hwyl fawr hwyl fawr wrth y brogaod eraill ## hwyl fawr
raise hand and PROG say bye \big bye \big to the frogs other bye \big
raises a hand and says 'goodbye goodbye' to the other frogs. 'Goodbye

i chi hefyd
to you also
to you too.'

mae 'na hogyn bach yn byw mewn tŷ ## a mae gyn-no fo gi bach ac enw 'r
is.3SG there boy   little PROG live in   house and is.3SG with-him he \dog little and name the
There's a little boy living in a house. And he has a little dog and the

hogyn bach ydy <Ioan> # ac enw 'r ci bach ydy <Mott> ## ac un noson # mi oedd
boy   little COP   and name the dog little COP   and one night   AFF was.3SG
name of the little boy is <Ioan>, and the name of the little dog is <Mott>. And one night,

<Ioan> a <Mott> yn y llofft ## ac oedd-en nhw eisiau edrych ar rywbeth   oedd <Ioan>
         and in the bedroom and was-3PL they want look   on \something was.3SG
<Ioan> and <Mott> were in the bedroom. And they wanted to look at something <Ioan>

wedi xxx llyffant ## a wedi rhoi llyffant mewn pot jam mawr   ac oedd   y ddau wrth
PRF   frog   and PRF put frog   in   pot jam big   and was.3SG the \two(m) at
had xxx a frog. And put a frog in a big jam pot and the two were

eu bodd   efo llyffant a gyda nhw trio meddwl be' dyn ni mynd i neud efo? be'
their pleasure with frog   and with they try think what is.1PL we go   to do   with what
delighted with a frog and with them trying to think 'what are we going to do with [him]? What

dyn ni mynd i neud efo llyffant ## um@fp be' dyn ni 'n   mynd i neud efo
is.1PL we go   to do   with frog   what is.1PL we PROG go   to do   with
are we going to do with a frog? Um@fp what are we going to do with

llyffant bach 'ma? mae 'n biti bod   o 'n cael ei gadw mewn pot jam <on'dydy>
frog   little here is.3SG PRED \pity is.COMP he PROG get his \keep in   pot jam isn't.it
this little frog? It's a pity that he's kept in a jam pot <isn't it?>

dyn ni mynd i fod   yn ffrind i 'r llyffant bach 'ma ## mae hi 'n   dywyll heno
is.1PL we go   to \be.INF PRED friend to the frog   little here   is.3SG she PRED \dark   tonight
We are going to be a friend to this little frog. It's dark tonight

<on'dydy> ## mae mam 'm eisiau mi fynd allan â fe felly ni 'n   weld # be' dyn
 isn't.it   is.3SG mother my want I go   out with he so   we PROG \see   what is.1PL
<isn't it?> Mom wants me to take him out so we [will] see, what are

ni mynd i neud ## rhaid i mi fynd i gysgu 'm xxx nawn   ni feddwl am y peth
we go   to do   necessity to I \go to \sleep for   do.1PL.FUT we \think about the thing
we going to do. I have to go to sleep for xxx we will think about the thing

yn y bore   felly mi aeth <Ioan> i # mewn i 'r gwely a cyn   pan dim oedd   o
in the morning so AFF went.3SG to in to the bed   and before when NEG was.3SG he
in the morning' so <Ioan> went, into bed and before long he was

'n   cysgu 'n sownd   ac ar waelod y gwely mi oedd <Mott> yn   cysgu hefyd
PROG sleep ADV sound   and on \bottom the bed AFF was.3SG   PROG sleep also
sleeping soundly and at the bottom of the bed <Mott> was sleeping too

ah@fp ond # beth oedd y llyffant yn neud? <mmm> oedd o 'n meddwl reit
but what was.3SG the frog PROG do was.3SG he PROG think right
ah@fp but, what was the frog doing? 'Mmm' he thought 'right

dyma nghyfle i ddianc # w i 'n mynd i ddiengyd a tra bod nhw 'n cysgu #
here's \chance to \escape is.1SG I PROG go to \escape and while is.COMP they PROG sleep
here's my chance to escape, I'm going to escape and while they are sleeping,'

felly allan â fo o 'r pot jam ## yn y bore # mi oedd <Ioan> a <Mott> yn mynd
so out with he from the pot jam in the morning AFF was.3SG and PROG go
so out with him from the jam pot. In the morning, <Ioan> and <Mott> were going

i edrych am y llyffant yn y pot jam yn syth ## ond do' na golwg o-hono fo
to look for the frog in the pot jam ADV immediate but is.3SG.NEG no look of-him he
to look for the frog in the jam pot immediately. But there was no sign of him

wedi diflannu rywle ## oh@fp mae llyffant wedi mynd feddan nhw lle mae o 'di
PRF disappear \somewhere is.3SG frog PRF go \said.3PL they where is.3SG he PRF
disappeared somewhere. Oh@fp 'frog has gone' they said 'where has he

mynd ## felly # yn sydyn # mi wisgodd <Ioan> a'-dano ac yna dechrau chwilio am y
go so ADV sudden AFF \dressed.3SG about-him and then begin search for the
gone.' So, quickly, <Ioan> dressed and then begin to search for the

llyffant ym bob-man lle wyt ti # a mi oedd <Mott> rhoi ei
frog in\ \every-place where is.2SG you and AFF was.3SG put his
frog everywhere 'where are you.' And <Mott> put his

ben i mewn yn y pot jam ond medd <Ioan> oedd
\head to in in the pot jam but said.3SG was.3SG
head in the jam pot but <Ioan> said 'he was

o 'di mynd yn sownd yn y pot jam <www www www wwf> mae 'n
he PRF go PRED stuck in the pot jam is.3SG PRED
stuck in the jam pot' 'ww www www wwf' '[he]'s

sownd yn y pot mae 'n sownd a oedd o methu glur i cael ei ben allan #
stuck in the pot is.3SG PRED stuck and was.3SG he fail \clear to get his \head out
stuck in the pot [he]'s stuck' and he clean fails to get his head out,

a roedd rhaid efo xxx pot jam am ei ben # wedyn agor-on nhw 'r ffenest a
and was.3SG necessity with pot jam about his \head then opened-3PL they the window and
and [he] had to xxx jam pot around his head, then they opened the window and

ddau o-honon nhw 'n trio gweiddi ar y llyffant a oedd <Iaon> yn gweiddi lyffant
\two of-them they PROG try shout on the frog and was.3SG PROG shout \frog
[the] two of them try to shout for the frog and <Ioan> was shouting 'little frog

bach ble wyt ti ble yt ti 'di mynd # a wedyn roedd y # <Mott> efo pot
little where is.2SG you where is.2SG you PRF go and then was.3SG the with pot
where are you where have you gone,' and then the, <Mott> with a jam pot was

jam yn methu cyfarth iawn <w w> fel 'na fo 'n gallu mynd # ond y xxx mi syrthi-odd
jam PROG fail bark okey like that he PROG able go but the AFF fell-3SG
failing to bark well '<w w>' like that he can go. But the xxx <Mott> fell

<Mott> allan o 'r ffenest ac # yn ffodus i-ddo fe wrth cwrs mi oedd y pot
out from the window and ADV fortunate for-him he by course AFF was.3SG the pot
out of the window and, fortunately for him of course the jam pot

jam wedi malu a 'di torri yn dipiau oedd o yn hapus iawn bod yr hen bot
jam PRF smash and PRF break in \fragments was.3SG he PRED happy very is.COMP the old \pot
had smashed and broken into pieces he was very happy that the old jam pot

jam <now> wedi malu ond # mi gafodd o xxx <Ioan> ## ti 'n iawn <on'dwyt-ti>
jam PRF smash but AFF \got.3SG he you PRED okey aren't.you
had now smashed but, he got xxx <Ioan>. 'You're ok <aren't you>

<Mott> ti 'di brifo? naddo na xxx llyfu boch [/] llyfu boch <Ioan> ## a 'n dweud
you PRF hurt no no lick cheek lick cheek and PROG say
<Mott> you hurt? no' no xxx licking cheek [/] licking <Ioan>'s cheek. And [he] says

<Ioan> yn flin lle mae 'r llyffant wedi mynd? meddai fo ## 'dyn allan â nhw i
ADV \angry where is.3SG the frog PRF go said.3SG fe then out with they to
<Ioan> angrily 'where has the frog gone?' he said. Then out with them to

chwilio am-dano fo hyd at i 'r cae a oedd o-gwmpas y tŷ a mi oedd <Ioan>
search for-him he length to to the field REL was.3SG around the house and AFF was.3SG
search for him up to the field which was around the house and <Ioan>

wedi gwisgo sgidiau mawr uchel oedd yn lot yn rhy fawr i-ddo fo dw i ddim
PRF wear shoes big high was.3SG ADV lot PRED too \big for-him he is.1SG I NEG
had put on high big shoes that were a lot too big for him I'm not

yn siwr iawn sgidiau 'i dad oedd-en nhw <tybe'> # ond beth-bynnag # oedd
PRED sure very shoes his \father was-3PL they I.wonder but what-ever was.3SG
very sure they were his father's shoes <I wonder>, but whatever, he was

o 'n gwisgo sgidiau mawr ag uchel 'ma ## ac yn sydyn # beth aeth heibio
he PROG wear shoes big and high here and ADV sudden what went.3SG past
wearing these big and high shoes. And suddenly, what went past

ond <hive> o wenyn ac uh@fp oedd <Mott> y ci yn snwyrio <mm> wenyn # <mmm> ##
but of \bees and was.3SG the dog PROG sniff \bees
but a <hive> of bees and uh@fp <Mott> the dog was sniffing '<mm> bees, <mmm>.'

lle mae 'r gwenyn yna 'n mynd ond oedd <Ioan> yn meddwl <oooow>
where is.3SG the bees there PROG go but was.3SG PROG think
where are those bees going but <Ioan> was thinking '<oooow>

gwenyn dw   i ddim eisiau nhw 'n   dod   yn   agos   dw   i ddim eisiau cael 'mhigo ##
bees   is.1SG I NEG   want   they PROG come PRED near   is.1SG I NEG   want   get \sting
bees I don't want them to come close I don't want to get stung.'

wedyn dyn   ni # yn   symud lawr i 'r coed 'ma mae 'na rywbeth   lawr yn y
then   is.1SG we PROG move down to 'r the trees here is.3SG there \something down in the
Then we, move down to these trees there's something down in the

coed? # dyna   lle   mae   'r gwenyn yn   dod ## cwch gwenyn   mae 'na cwch
trees   there's where is.3SG the bees   PROG come   hive bees   is.3SG there hive
trees? that's where the bees are coming. Beehive there's a beehive,

gwenyn # yn y coed #   maen nhw 'n   dod allan o   'r cwch gwenyn dyna   lle
bees   in the trees   is.3SG they PROG come out from the hive bees   there's where
in the trees, they are coming out of the beehove that's where

maen nhw 'n   byw ## oh@fp rhaid   i ni wylio 'na dydyn   ni ddim yn   cael
is.3PL they PROG live   necessity for we \watch that is.1PL.NEG we NEG   PROG get
tey live. Oh@fp we have to watch that we aren't getting

ein pigo ## ond oedd <Mott> yn #   benderfynnu bod   o eisiau mynd at y   cwch gwenyn
our sting   but was.3SG   PROG \decide   is.COMP he want go   to the hive bees
stung. But <Mott> decided that he wanted to go to the beehive.

ac oedd   am cyfarth ac yn   cyfarth ar y gwenyn oedd-en dod   allan o   'r
   and was.3SG want bark   and PROG bark   at the bees   was-3PL come out from the
And [he] wanted to bark and barking at the bees [they] were coming out of the

cwch gwenyn ac yna dwll   wrth ymyl ac oedd <Ioan> yn   meddwl tybe'   beth sy
hive bees   and there \hole at   edge and was.3SG   PROG think I.wonder what is.REL
beehive and there was a hole nearby and <Ioan> thought 'I wonder what's

'n   yn y twll   ac yna mi 'di edrych i weld am   y llyffant yn y twll # ond beth
PRED in the hole   and there AFF PRF look to \see about the frog   in the hole   but what
in the hole' and then look[ed] to see about the frog in the hole, but what

dod   allan o   'r twll ond ydyw   anifail bach # w   i 'm yn   siwr iawn be'   oedd
come out from the hole but is.3SG.Q animal little   is.1SG I NEG PRED sure very what was.3SG
comes out of the hole but is it a little animal, I'm not very sure what

yr anifail bach yma # fel llygoden neu rywbeth # dw   i 'm yn   siwr beth oedd   hi #
the animal little here   like mouse   or \something is.1SG I NEG PRED sure what was.3SG she
what this little animal was, like a mouse or something, I'm not sure what it was,

neu gwenci o   bosib ## ond doedd <Mott> yn   dal   i gyfarth ar y gwenyn yn y   cwch
or weasel from \possible but was.3SG.NEG   PROG continue to \bark   at the bees   in the hive
or possibly a weasel. But <Mott> wasn't still barking at the bees in the beehive

gwenyn   a   roedd <Ioan> wedi cael tipyn-bach o fraw <â   dweud y gwir> yn   gweld
bees   and was.3SG   PRF get little-bit o \fright with say   the true PROG see
and <Ioan> had got a little bit of a scare <to tell the truth> seeing

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yr   anifail # llygoden neu gwenci ## wedyn # mi   benderfynn-odd <Ioan> bod   o mynd i
the animal mouse or weasel then   AFF \decided-3SG   is.COMP he go   to
the animal, a mouse or weasel. Then, <Ioan> decided that he's going to

ddringo 'r goeden a   sbio beth oedd   yn y twll 'na   oedd   yn y goeden yma 'na ##
\climb the \tree(f) and look what was.3SG in the hole there was.3SG in the \tree(f) here there
climb the tree and look what was in that hole that was in this tree there.

ac oedd <Mott> yn   dal   i fod   yn   cyfarth ond mi syrthiodd y   cwch gwenyn
and was.3SG   PROG continue to \be.INF PROG bark   but AFF fell-3SG the hive   bees
And <Mott> was still barking but the beehive fell

i-lawr # ac uh@fp oedd   'i ar y goeden # y gwenyn i-gyd yn   dod allan yn un haid
down   and   was.3SG she on the \tree(f) the bees   all PROG come out in one swarm
down, and uh@fo it was on the tree, all the bees come out in one swarm

a   'r hen wenci bach yn   sbio 'r y cyfan ## ond pwy oedd   allan o 'r twll yn
and the old \weasel little PROG watch the the whole   but who was.3SG out of the hole in
and the old little weaset looking at the whole [thing]. But who was out of the hole in

y   goeden on' tylluan # a   mae   hithau yn   dechrau galw <twyt twww> meddai 'r
the \tree(f) but owl   and is.3SG she   PROG begin   call   said.3SG the
the tree but an owl, and she begins to call '<twyt twww>' said the

dylluan # be' ti   'n   neud yma # oh@fp wrth cwrs   roedd <Ioan> wedi cael braw mawr
\owl(f)   what you PROG do   here   by   course was.3SG   PRF get fright big
owl, 'what [are] you doing here,' oh@fp of course <Ioan> had gotten a big fright

yn   gweld y dylluan yn   dod   yn   dweud <tw twywww> fel 'na ## ac wedyn # mi
PROG see   the \owl(f) PROG come PROG say   like that and then   AFF
seeing the owl coming [and] saying '<tw twywww>' like that. And then,

oedd <Mott> hefyd wedi cael braw achos mi oedd   y gwenyn wedi dechrau dod   ar ei
was.3SG   also PRF get fright because AFF was.3SG the bees   PRF begin   come on his
<Mott> had also gotten a fright because the bees had begun to come after

ôl   o-achos i-ddo wedi cyfarth gymaint ers bod   yr cwch gwenyn wedi syrthio ar y
track because to-him PRF bark   \so.much since is.COMP the hive bees   PRF fall   on the
him because he had barked so much since the beehive had fallen on

llawr roedd   y ddau   mewn dipyn o drybini ## ac achos   nad oedd   rhedog digon
ground was.3SG the \two(m) in   \bit of \trouble   and because NEG was.3SG run   enough
on the ground the two were in a bit of trouble. And because [he] didn't run enough

mi dechreu-odd y dylluan dod allan a   mynd ar ôl <Ioan> bach   oedd <Ioan> yn
AFF began-3SG the \owl(f) come out and go   on track   little was.3SG   PROG
the owl began to come out and go after little <Ioan> <Ioan> was

chwilio am rywle   i guddio # ond # yn lle   gweld rywle   i guddio mi
search for \somewhere to \hide   but   in where see   \somewhere to \hide   AFF
looking for somewhere to hide, but, instead of seeing somewhere to hide

ddringo i-fyny ar ben   ryw # um@fp garreg fawr a   dechrau galw <help> helpwch
\climb up   on \head \some   \rock(f) \big and begin   call   help-2PL.IMPV
[he] climb[s] up on top of some, um@fp big rock and starts to call '<help> <help

rywun   helpu mi   ac   wedyn oedd <Mott> yma 'na   oedd   yn xxx i mynd i 'u
\someone help me   and then was.3SG   here there was.3SG PROG to go   to his
someone help me' and then <Mott> was here [he] was xxx to go to xxx him

xxx ac   oedd   o wedi cael cwplen o fraw # ond oedd   y dylluan yn y cyfamser
      and was.3SG he PRF get couple of \fright   but was.3SG the \owl(f) in the meantime
and he had gotten a couple of frights, but the owl in the meantime

wedi mynd yn ôl   i 'r goeden ## a   beth sy   'di digwydd rwan # wel xxx yn lle
PRF go   in track to the \tree(f)   and what is.REL PRF happen   now   well   in place
had gone back to the tree. And what has happened now, well xxx instead

bod   yn   pwyso ar ddarn o # frigen # tu ôl   i 'r garreg mi oedd <Ioan> wedi pwyso
is.INF PROG lean   on \piece of \branch side track to the \rock(f) AFF was.3SG   PRF lean
of leaning on a piece of, a branch, behind the rock <Ioan> had leaned

ar gefn carw # ac   oedd   o wedi landio reit yng nghanol cairn y   carw a   drwyn y
on \back stag   and was.3SG he PRF land   right in\ \center horns the stag and \nose the
on [the] stag's back, and he had landed right in the middle of the horns of the stag and nose of the

carw # wel wir # lle   ydw i meddai fo # lle   ydw i ar y carw yn   dechrau
stag   well \true where is.1SG I said.3SG he   where is.1SG I on the stag PROG begin
stag, well indeed, 'where am I' he said, 'where am I on the stag' beginning

symud ac yn   dechrau rhedeg   a <Ioan> bach yn   sownd fan 'na   rhwng cyrn   y
moce and PRG begin   run   and   little PRED stuck   place there between horns the
to move and beginning to run and little <Ioan> stuck there between the horns of the

carw   a <Mott> yn   xxx ac yn   cyfarth   ond o   'n   mynd i fynd dros dibyn
stag   and   PROG   and PROG bark   but was.3SG PROG go   to \go over precipice
stag and <Mott> xxx and barking but [it] was going to go over precipice

o bryn fyddai   yn diwedd ar-non nhw fyddai   diwedd nhw wedi dod ## ond
of hill is.3SG.SBJV PRED end   on-them they \is.3SG.SBJV end   they PRF come but
of a hill [it] would be an end to them their end would have come. But

be'   ddigwydd-odd # mi [/] # mi xxx-odd   y carw jyst ar ymyl y xxx dibyn   yma #
what \happened-3SG AFF   AFF   -3SG.PAST the stag just on edge the   precipice here
what happened, [/] -ed the stag just at the edge of the xxx precipice here,

ac wrth cwrs mi cafodd <Ioan> ei hyrddio oddi ar [/] oddi ar-no fo   a   wedyn yn
and by   course AFF got.3SG   his hurl   from on   from on-him he   and then in
and of course <Ioan> was hurled from [/] from it and then

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sgil hynny oedd <Mott> y ci hefyd i-lawr i 'r lle a xxx ond doedd o ddim mor
back that was.3SG the dog also down to the place REL but was.3SG.NEG he NEG so
after that <Mott> the ci was also down to the place xxx but it wasn't so

bell i-lawr diolch-byth gobeithio byddan nhw 'n iawn # ynde # oh@fp brenyn mawr #
\far down thank-goodness hopefully is.3PL.FUT they PRED okey isn't.it \log big
far down thank goodness hopefully they'll be okey, won't they, oh@fp a big log,

mae 'na dŵr yn y gwaelod yna maen nhw wedi mynd yn syth i mewn i 'r
is.3SG there water in the bottom there is.3PL they PRF go ADV immediate to in to the
there's water in the bottom there they have gone straight into the

dŵr <splash> mawr i mewn i 'r dŵr y ddau o-honyn nhw ond # <uh-oh> doedd
water big to in to the water the \two(m) of-them they but was.3SG.NEG
water a big <splash> into the water the two of them but, <uh-oh> <Mott>

<Mott> ddim yn licio dŵr mae-flin-'da-fi <Mott> # ar ysgwydd <Ioan> # a <Ioan> jyst
NEG PROG like water sorry on shoulder and just
didn't like water sorry <Mott>, on <Ioan>'s shoulder, and <Ioan> just

yn eistedd yn y dŵr doedd y dŵr ddim yn ddwfn iawn <diolch i 'r drefn>
PROG sit in the water was.3SG.NEG the water NEG PRED \deep very thanks to the \order(f)
sitting in the water the water wasn't very deep <thank goodness>,

felly oedd y ddau yn iawn yr xxx bod nhw 'di syrthio oddi ar glogwyn
so was.3SG the \two(m) PRED okey the is.COMP they PRF fall from on \cliff
So the two were okey xxx they had fallen from [the] cliff

i-lawr i 'r [/] i 'r gwaelod 'na ## be' maen nhw 'n weld nesa maen nhw 'n gweld
down to the to the bottom there what is.3PL they PROG \see next is.3PL they PROG see
down to the [/] to the bottom there. What do they see next they see

yw hen foncyff # [/] foncyff a mae ar boncyff 'ma yn # golwg yn wag 'ma a
COP old \trunk \trunk and is.3SG ar trunk here PRED look PRED \empty here and
is an old trunk, [/] trunk and this trunk, looks empty here and

mor hen â hynny # a mae # <Mott> erbyn hyn wedi dod oddi ar 'sgwyddau <Ioan> ac
so old as that and is.3SG by this PRF come from on shoulders and
really old, and, <Mott> now has come off <Ioan>'s shoulders and

yn nofio yn y dŵr a mae <Ioan> yn ddweud dewch i ni weld beth sydd
PROG swim in the water and is.3SG PROG \say come.2PL.IMPV to we \see what is.REL
is swimming in the water and <Ioan> says 'come [let]'s see what is

yma yn hen xxx meddai fo ## a mae ddau ohonyn nhw 'n meddwl mynd dros y
here in old said.3SG he and is.3SG \two(m) of-them they PROG think go over the
here in this old [trunk]' he said. And [the] two of them think to go over the

boncyff a   sbio beth sy   ar ochr arall ## a   beth sydd   yno # ond dau lyffant un
trunk   and look what is.REL on side other   and what is.REL there but two \frog   one
trunk and look what is on the other side. And what's there, but two frogs one

tipyn-bach yn   fwy   a   llal tipyn-bach yn   llai # dyna beth sydd   fan   'na # a
little-bit PRED \bigger and other little-bit   PRED smaller that's what is.REL place there and
a little bit bigger and the other a little bit smaller, that's what's there, and

wyddoch   chi be' # sy   'na hefyd ond teulu o lyffantod bach   faint   o-honyn
\know-2PL you what is.REL there also but family of \frogs   little how.many of-them
you know what, there's also a family of little frogs how many of

nhw # un   dau tri   bedwar pump chwe saith llyffant bach yna ## um@fp wel # dyna   syndod
they   one two three \four   five six seven frog   little there   well   there's surprise
them, one two three four five six seven little frogs there. Um@fp well, that's a surprise

<ynde>   teulu o lyffantod yna ## felly dyna lle   oedd   y llyffant wedi dianc
 isn't.it family of \frogs   there   so   that's where was.3SG the frog   PRF escape
<isn't it> a family of frogs there. So that's where the frog had escaped

doedd   dim rhyfel bod   o 'n   benderfynu i cael dianc nac oedd   oedd   o
was.3SG.NEG NEG wonder is.COMP he PROG \decide   to get escape NEG was.3SG was.3SG he
there was no wonder that he decided to get escape was there he

eisiau mynd 'n ôl   at ei deulu ## ond mi # oedd <Ioan> wedi gofyn beth set   ti
want   go   in track to his \family but AFF   was.3SG   PRF ask   what is.2SG.SBJV you
wanted to go back to his family. But, <Ioan> had asked 'what would you

'n   licio dod i aros efo <Mott> a   fi am dipyn-bach # i 'r llyffant bach oedd   o
PROG like come to stay with   and I for \little-bit   to the \frog   little was.3SG he
like to come to stay with <Mott> and me for a little bit,' to the little frog who

wedi cael o'r-blaen am   i-ddo fo oh@fp iawn 'te # na   i ddod ## a xxx ddod
PRF get in-front about to-him he   okey then   do.1SG.FUT I \come   and   \come
had got before him oh@fp 'okey then, I'll come.' And xxx 'come

yn ôl   wedyn at yn nheulu wrth gwrs # ti 'di aros efo ni am dipynbach beth-bynnag
in track then to my\ \family by   course you PRF stay with we for \little-bit   what-ever
back then to my family of course, you've stayed with us for a little bit whatever'

<ugh ugh ugh> meddai   broga bach fel 'na   achos   mae   llais tipyn-bach yn   rhyfedd
--   said.3SG frog little like that because is.3SG voice little-bit   PRED odd
'<ugh ugh ugh>' siad little frog like that because [the] [/] frog's voice is a little bit odd

gan[/] gan lyffant <ug ugh ugh ugh> fel 'na <igh ugh ugh ugh ugh> meddai   fo   ac   wedyn
with   with \frog   like that   said.3SG he   and then
'<ug ugh ugh ugh>' like that '<ig ugh ugh ugh ugh>' he said and then

ffwrdd â   nhw 'n ôl   i aros efo [/] efo 'i-gilydd ## <Mott> a <Ioan> a   llyffant bach
away   with they in track to stay with   with each-other   and   and frog   little
away with them back to stay with [/] with each other. <Mott> and <Ioan> and a little frog.

oedd   y   bachgen bach yn   eistedd ar waelod ei wely fe yn   siarad gyda ci ## ac
was.3SG the boy   little PROG sit   on \bottom his \bed he PROG speak with dog   and
The little boy was sitting at the bottom of his bed speaking with a dog. And

yn y   jar # ar-bwys y   gwely roedd   broga mawr gwyrdd ## aeth   y bachgen
in the jar   near   the bed   was.3SG frog big   green   went.3SG the boy
in the jar, near the bed there was a big green frog. The boy went

i 'r gwely # aeth   y ci i 'r gwely hefyd # ac o-'n   nhw 'n   cysgu 'n drwm
to the bed   went.3SG the dog to the bed   also   and was-3PL they PROG sleep ADV \heavy
to bed, the dog went to bed also, and they slept heavily,

yn ystod y nos # sleifi-odd   y broga gwyrdd yn dawel bach allan o   'r jar
   in course the night slinked-3SG the frog   green   ADV \quiet little out from the jar
during the night, the green frog slinked quietly out of the jar.

doedd   neb   yn gwybod ## yn y bore # â   'r haul yn   tywynnu drwy   'r
was.3SG.NEG no.one PROG know   in the morning with the sun PROG shine   through the
Nobody knew. In the morning, with the sun shining through the

ffenest # deffr-odd   y bachgen # a   deffr-odd y ci ## edrych-on nhw ar waelod y
window woke-3SG the boy   and woke-3SG the dog looked-3SG they on \bottom the
window, the boy woke, and the dog woke. They looked at the bottom of the

gwely # a   gweld bod   y broga gwyrdd wedi diflannu ## ble   oedd   e? ## gwisg-odd
bed   and see   is.COMP the frog green   PRF disappear where was.3SG he   dressed-3SG
bed, and see that the green frog has disappeared. Where is is? [He] dressed

yn   gyflym # ac edrych-odd e yn yr esgidiau # edrych-odd e yn y   jar # o-dan y   gwely
ADV \fast   and looked-3SG he in the shoes   looked-3SG he in the jar   under the bed
quickly, and he looked in the shoes, he looked in the jar, under the bed,

on' doedd   dim golwg o 'r broga gwyrdd yn unman ## edrych-on nhw mas drwy
  but was.3SG.NEG NEG sight of the frog green   in anywhere looked-3PL they out through
but there was no sign of the green frog anywhere. The looked out through

'r ffenest # ac   roedd   y ci ychydig bach yn   drist erbyn hyn # achos   aeth   ei
the window and was.3SG the dog little.bit little PRED \sad by   this   because went.3SG his
the window, and the dog was a little bit sad now, because his head went

ben yn <stuck> yn y jar ## cwymp-odd y ci   druan   mas drwy   'r ffenest ## ond
\head PRED   in the jar   fell-3SG   the dog(m) \wretched out through the window but
stuck in the jar. The poor dog jumped out through the window. But

drwy   lwc # bwr-odd   ei ben ar borfa a   torr-odd   y jar ## erbyn hyn   roedd
through luck struck-3SG his \head on \grass and broke-3SG the jar   by   this   was.3SG
by chance, [he] struck his head on the grass and broke the jar. Now

bachgen yn grac # achos doedd   e ddim yn hoffi y ci yn llyfu ei wyneb e ##
boy   PRED \angry because was.3SG.NEG he NEG PROG like the dog PROG lick his face   he
[the] boy was angry, because he didn't like the dog licking his face.

bant â   nhw # dyma nhw 'n   mynd i 'r ardd   i chwilio am y broga gwyrdd ##
away with they   here's they PROG go   to the \garden(f) to search for the frog   green
Away with them, here's them going to the garden to search for the green frog.

pwy wel-on nhw? ond &wynir wenynen â   'i theulu mawr hi ## ro-'n   nhw 'n
who saw-3PL they but   \bee   with her \family big she was-3PL they PROG
Who did they see? But &wynir a bee with her big family. They

byw mewn cwch bach yn   hongian o   'r goeden ## edrych-odd y bachgen yn nhwll #
live in   hive little PROG hang   from the \tree(f)   looked-3SG the boy   in \hole
lived in a little hive hanging from the tree. The boy looked in a hole,

uh@fp llygoden ffyrnig ac edrych-odd y ci yn nghwch y gwenyn ## oedd   y
      mouse   fierce and looked-3SG the dog in \hive   the bees   was.3SG the
uh@fp a fierce mouse and the dog looked in the beehve. Was the

broga yno? nac oedd ## cwymp-odd y cwch gwenyn lawr o   'r goeden ## a
frog there NEG was.3SG fell-3SG   the hive bees   down from the \tree(f)   and
frog there? No. The beehive fell down from the tree. And

penderfynn-odd y gwenyn dod mas i ddweud helo ## ond doedd   y gwenyn ddim
decided-3SG   the bees   come out to \say   hello but was.3SG.NEG the bees   NEG
the bees decided to come out to say 'hello'. But the bees weren't

yn hapus o-gwbl # ro-'n   nhw 'n   canu pwy sy   wedi taflu 'n tŷ   ni ar y
PRED happy at-all   was-3PL they PROG sing who is.REL PRF throw our house we on the
happy at all, they were yelling 'who has thrown our house on the

llawr? ## gewch   chi dalu am hyn ## a dechreu-on nhw suo 'n wyllt ## daeth
ground get.2PL.FUT you \pay for that   and began-3PL they buzz ADV \wild came.3SG
ground? You'll pay for that.' And they began to buzz wildly. The

y gwdihw mas i floeddi ar y bachgen bach ## a dyma nhw 'n   rhedeg ar ôl   y ci ##
the owl   out to \scream on the boy   little   and here's they PROG run   on track the dog
owl came out to scream at the little boy. And here they are running after the dog.

nes i fod   yn rhedeg am ei fywyd allan o   'r goedwig ## doedd   y gwdihw
until to \is.INF PROG run   for his \life out from the \forest(f)   was.3SG.NEG the owl
Until he was running for his life out of the forest. The owl didn't

ddim eisiau gweld y bachgen chwaith # ar ôl   cael ei ddeffro yn nghanol y dydd ## broga
NEG want see the boy   either   on track get his \wake in \center the day   frog
want to see the boy eiher, after being woken up in the middle of the day. 'Frog,

ble   wyt ti froga? galwodd y bachgen ## neidi-odd   e ar ben yr hydd # ond
  where is.2SG you \frog called-3SG the boy   jumped-3SG he on \head the stag   but
where are you frog?' called the boy. He jumped on top of the stag, but

doedd   yr hydd ddim yn   hapus chwaith ## a   doedd   e ddim yn   rhy
was.3SG.NEG the stag NEG PRED happy either   and was.3SG.NEG he NEG PRED too
the stag wasn't happy either. And it wasn't too

gyfforddus   iawn ## aeth   yr hydd ar ochr y   clogwyn a   thaflu 'r bachgen bach
\comfortable very   went.3SG the stag on side the cliff   and \throw the boy   little
very comfortable. The stag went beside the cliff and throws the little boy

a   'r ci mewn i 'r llyn ### <splash> # pwy wels-on nhw yn y llyn # ond ## neb ## neb
and the dog in   to the lake   who \saw-3PL they in the lake   but no.one no.one
and the dog into the lake. <Splash>, who did they see in the lake, but. no one. no one

eto # <huh> # <shh> dwed-odd y bachgen ## roedd   e 'n   meddwl bod   rhywun tu
again   said-3SG the boy   was.3SG he PROG think   is.COMP someone side
again, <huh>, '<shh>' the boy said. He thought that there was someone

ôl   y boncyff ## pwy oedd   yn   cuddio tu ôl   y boncyff ond dau froga hapus hapus
track the trunk   who was.3SG PROG hide   side track the trunk   but two \frog happy happy
behind the trunk. Who was hiding behind the trunk but two happy happy frogs.

roedd   y bachgen a   'r ci wrth eu   bodd   i weld teulu o brogaod hapus ## a
    was.3SG the boy   and the dog at   their pleasure to \see family of frogs   happy   and
The boy and the dog were delighted to see a family of happy frogs. And

dyma nhw 'n   sylweddoli bod   nhw ddim yn   gallu mynd â 'r broga adre
here's they PROG realize   is.COMP they NEG PROG able go   with the frog   homeward
here they are realizing that they cannot take the frog home

achos   doedd   e ddim yn   deg # o-'n   nhw eisiau aros gyda 'i teulu ## a
because was.3SG.NEG he NEG PRED \fair   was-3PL they want   stay with his family   and
because it wasn't fair, they wanted to stay with his family. And

dyna ddiwedd y stori   pawb   yn   hapus
there's \end   the story   everybody PRED happy
that's the end of the story everybody happy.

un   tro # roedd   ʼna   fachgen o ʼr enw <Iestyn> ## ac   roedd   gan-ddo gi # <Mott> #
one time was.3SG there \boy   of the name   and was.3SG with-him \dog
Once, there was a boy of the name <Iestyn>. And he had a dog, <Mott>,

a   broga a   yn   byw mewn pot ## un   noson # naeth   y   broga sleifio allan o   ʼr pot
and frog   REL PROG live in   pot   one night   did.3SG the frog   slither out   from the pot
and a frog who lived in a pot. One night, the frog slithered out of the pot

a   dianc ## pan   dihun-odd <Iestyn> yn y bore   # doedd   dim xxx   o ʼr
and escape   when woke-3SG   in the morning was.3SG.NEG NEG x   of the
and escaped. When <Iestyn> woke up in the morning, there was no xsx of the

broga ## ʼdd <Mott> a <Iestyn> yn   chwilio # ym bobman   yn y tŷ   ac yn   gweiddi
frog   was.3SG   and   PROG search   in\ \everywhere in the house and PROG shout
frog. <Mott> and <Iestyn> searched, everywhere in the house and were shouting

am y broga   ond doedd   dim sôn   am   y   broga ## roedd <Mott> wedi rhoi ei
for the frog   but was.3SG.NEG NEG mention about the frog   was.3SG   PRF put his
for the frog but there was no sign of the frog. <Mott> had put his

ben yn y pot ## a   fe neidi-odd   allan o   ʼr ffenest a   dorr-odd   y   pot # yn
\head in the pot   and AFF jumped-3SG out   from the window and \broke-3SG the pot   in
head in the pot. And he jumped out of the window and the pot broke,

dyllion ## a   rhaid   i <Iestyn> achub y   ci ## aeth <Iestyn> a <Mott> wedyn allan i ʼr
\pieces   and necessity to   save the dog   went.3SG   and   then   out to the
into pieces. And Iestyn had to save the dog. <Iestyn> and <Mott> then went out to the

goedwig # gan chwilio am y   broga ## chwilota ym bobman   # chwilota mewn nythod
\forest(f) with search   for the frog   search   in\ \everywhere search   in   nests
forest, with searching for the frog. Searching everywhere, searching in wasps' nests

cacwn ac   yn tyllau y   llygod ar y   ddaear ## fe   dring-odd <Iestyn> i-fyny ʼr goeden
wasps and in holes the mice on the \earth(f) AFF climbed-3SG   up   the \tree(f)
and in the mouse holes in the ground. <Iestyn> climbed up the tree

i   edrych yn twll yn y   boncyff i weld os oedd   e ʼn   gallu gweld y   broga # ond
to look   in hole in the trunk   to \see if was.3SG he PROG able see   the frog   but
to look in a hole in the trunk to see if he was able to see the frog, but

doedd   dim sôn # yr un beth â fel xxx # oedd   gwdihw oedd   yn   grac
was.3SG.NEG NEG mention the one thing as like   was.3SG owl   was.3SG PRED \angry
there was no sign [of him], the same thing as like xxx, there was an owl who was angry

bod   i gael ei dihuno ## ac   roedd <Mott> wedi cynhyrfu ʼr gwenyn ac   roedd
is.COMP to \get his wake   and was.3SG   PRF agitate   the bees   and was.3SG
that he was woken. And <Mott> had agitated the bees and he was

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e 'n neidio ar ei ôl e ac yn bygwth i frathu ## dring-odd <Iestyn> i-fyny 'r
he PROG jump on his track he and PROG threaten to \bite climbed-3SG up the
jumping after it and threatening to bite [it]. <Iestyn> climbed up the

ar ben craig # a gweiddi am y broga ## yr un beth â ddaeth # oedd carw mawr a
on \head rock and shout for the frog the one \thing as \came.3SG was.3SG stag big and
on top of a rock, and shouting for the frog. The same thing that came, there wa a big stag and

fe gwymp-odd <Iestyn> rhwng cyrn carw a fe gari-odd y carw <Iestyn> ar ei
AFF \fell-3SG between horns stag and AFF \carried-3SG the stag on his
<Iestyn> fell between [the] stag's horns and the stag carried <Iestyn> on his

ben # a 'i luchio dros ben dibyn mewn # i llyn bach # mewn pwll o ddŵr # ac
\head and his \thow over \head precipice in to lake little in pool of \water and
head, and throws him over the top of the precipice in, to a little lake, in a pool of water, and

lan-odd <Iestyn> a <Mott> <ploff> yn y dŵr ## ac roedd e 'n xxx eistedd yn y dŵr
\landed-3SG and in the water and was.3SG he PROG sit in the water
<Iestyn> and <Mott> landed <ploff> in the water. And he was xxx sitting in the water

yn penderfyni beth i neud # pan glyw-odd <Iestyn> sŵn # <crawc> # <crawc> ## dyma
PROG decide what to do when \heard-3SG sound here's
deciding what to do, when <Iestyn> heard a sound, '<crawc, crawc>'. Here's

<Iestyn> yn gweud 'rtho <Mott> bydd ddistaw paid neud sŵn # a fe dring-ant
PROG say to-him be.IMPV \silent don't make sound and AFF climb-3PL.FUT
<Iestyn> telling <Mott> 'be silent don't make a sound,' and they climb

[//] dring-yssant i-fyny ar y boncyff [/] ar boncyff gerllaw a twll mawr yn y boncyff
climbed.3PL.PLPF up on the trunk on trunk nearby and hole big in the trunk
[//] they had climbed up on the trunk [/] on a trunk nearby and a big hole in the trunk

ond tu ôl yr boncyff gwel-odd <Iestyn> y broga # ac roedd &brog broga arall
but side track the trunk saw-3SG the frog and was.3SG frog other
but behind the trunk <Iestyn> saw the frog, and there was a &brog another female frog

benywaidd yno a un dau tri pedwar pump chwech saith o brogaod bychain ## ac
female there and one two three four five six seven of frogs little and
there and one two three four five six seven little frogs. And

un o 'r brogaod bychain # oedd y broga # oedd yn eiddo i <Iestyn> ##
one of the frogs little was.3SG the frog was.3SG PRED property to
one of the little frogs, was the frog, who belonged to <Iestyn>.

fe pigodd <Iestyn> y broga i-fyny a 'i gario 'n dyner adre
AFF picked-3SG the frog up and his \carry ADV \tender homeward
<Iestyn> picked the frog up and carries him tenderly home.

edrych-odd y bachgen a   ’i gi   bach mewn i ’r jar at eu   ffrind y &fr [//] y   broga ##
looked-3SG the boy   and his \dog little in   to the jar to their friend the   the frog
The boy and his little dog looked into the jar at their friend the &fr [//] the frog.

aeth   y bachgen bach a   ’i gi   i gwely a   tra   maen nhw ’n   cysgu ‘n
went.3SG the boy   little and his \his dog to bed   and while is.3PL they PROG sleep ADV
The little boy and his dog went to bed and while they are sleeping

dawel fan   ‘na # a   mas â   ’r broga o   ’r jar ## yn y bore   deffr-odd y bachgen
\quiet \place there and out with the frog from the jar   in the morning woke-3SG the boy
quietly there, and out with the frog from the jar. In the morning the boy and his dog

a ’i gi <oh> na meddai fe mae   ’r broga wedi mynd ble   wyt   ti   broga? chwilio am
and his \dog   no said   he is.3SG the frog PRF go   where is.2SG you frog   search for
woke ‘<oh> no’ he said ‘the frog has gone where are you frog?’ looking for

y broga yn ei esgidiau wyt   ti   mewn yn y fan   ’na broga? a ci yn   edrych yn
the frog in his shoes   is.2SG you in   in the \place this frog   and dog PROG look   in
the frog in his shoes ‘are you in there frog?’ and a dog looking in

y jar wyt   ti   mewn yma broga? ddim yn   gallu ffeindio ’r broga yn unman   yn yr
the jar is.2SG you in   here frog   NEG PROG able find   the frog in anywhere in the
the jar ‘are you in here frog?’ not able to find the frog anywhere in the

ystafell wely # edrych mas trwy   ’r ffenest wedyn # broga ble   wyt   ti? wyt   ti
room(f) \bed   look   out through the window then   frog   where is.2SG you is.2SG you
bedroom, looking out through the window then, ‘frog where are you? are you

allan yn   dal   yn fan   ’na? ## cwymp-odd y ci o   ’r ffenest <oh> na ## a ’r ci
out   PROG continue in \place there   fell-3SG the dog from the window   no   and the dog
still out there?’ The dog fell from the window <oh> no. And the dog

yn &llyf [//] mae   ’r ci yn iawn ond <sigh> be   ti ’n   neud &br ci   meddai ’r
PROG   is.3SG the dog PRED okey but   what you PROG do   dog said   the
&llyf [//] the dog is okey but <sight> ‘what are you doing &br dog’ said the

bachgen bach mae   popeth   yn iawn # dal   i chwilio am y   broga # broga
boy   little is.3SG everything PRED okey   continue to search for the frog   frog
little boy everything is okey, still looking for the frog, ‘frog

ble   wyt   ti? wyt   ti draw fan   ’na? a   chwilio yn y   coed # a ’r ci yn &chw
where is.2SG you is.2SG you over \place there and search in the trees   and the dog PROG
where are you? are you over there?’ and looking in the trees, and the dog &chw

yn   trio gwynto i weld os i fe ’n   gallu gwynto ’r broga i weld ble   mae   fo wedi
PROG try smell   to \see if to he PROG able smell the frog to \see where is.3SG he PRF
trying to smell to see if he can smell the frog to see where he has

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mynd # draw yn y xxx goedwig fallai # goedwig dywyll fawr ## gwel-odd y   ci um@fp
go   over in the   \forest(f) maybe forest(f) \dark \big   saw-3SG the dog
gone, over in the xxx forest maybe, a big dark forest. The dog um@fp saw

gwch gwenyn a   dechrau gwynto a   cyfarth a   chwarae gyda 'r   gwenyn oedd   yn
\hive bees   and begin   smell and bark   and play   with the bees   was.3SG PROG
a beehive and begins to smell and bark and play with the bees who were

dawnsio o-gwmpas y   cwch gwenyn # a   'r bachgen yn   dal   i chwilio am y   broga
dance   around   the hive bees   and the boy   PROG continue to search for the frog
dancing around the beehive, and boy still looking for the frog,

helo broga wyt ti   fan 'na ble   wyt   ti? i mewn i 'r twll yn y   llawr? pwy
   hello frog is.2SG you \place there where is.2SG you to in   to the hole in the ground who
'hello frog are you there where are you? into the hole in the ground? who

sy   'n   byw yn y   twll? <oh> na dim broga sydd   fan   'na # xxx mae   'r broga um@fp
is.REL PROG live in the hole   no NEG frog is.REL \place there   is.3SG the frog
lives in the hole?' <oh> no it's not a frog there, xxx the frog um@fp

[/] broga yn   dal   ar goll wyt ti   wedi gweld y broga? na meddai fe <oh> na meddai
     frog PROG continue on \lost is.2SG you PRF see   the frog   no said   he   no said
[/] frog is still lost 'have you seen the frog?' 'no' he said '<oh> no' said

'r bachgen # a   mae 'r ci yn   dal   i chwarae gyda 'r   gwenyn ## <oh dear>
the boy   and is.3SG the dog PROG continue to play   with the bees
the boy, and the dog is still playing with the bees. <oh dear>

mae 'r ci wedi bod   yn   chwarae gyda &g [/] gyda 'r goeden yn   ormod   a   mae
is.3SG the dog PRF be.INF PROG play   with   with the \tree(f) ADV \too.much and is.3SG
the dog has been playing with &g [/] with the tree too much and

'r cwch gwenyn wedi cwympo i 'r llawr   mae 'r gwenyn i-gyd yn   dod   allan #
the hive bees   PRF fall   to the ground is.3SG the bees   all   PROG come out
the beehive has fallen to the ground all the bees are coming out,

yn   grac bod   yr um@fp [//] i-gyd yn   dod allan yn   grac bod   y ci wedi
PRED \angry is.COMP the   all   PROG come out PRED \angry is.COMP the dog PRF
angry that the um@fp [//] all come out angry that the dog has

torri eu   cartre nhw ## a   'r bachgen wedi mynd i chwilio mewn twll yn y   goeden nawr
break their home they   and the boy   PRF go   to search in   hole in the \tree(f) now
broken their home. And the boy gone to search in a hole in the tree now

a   wedyn dringo 'r goeden a   gweiddi mewn i 'r twll helo broga ble   wyt ti # wyt
and then climb the \tree(f) and shout   in   to the hole hello frog   where is.2SG you is.2SG
and then climbing the tree and shouting into the hole 'hello frog where are you, are you

ti   mewn yn fan   'na ## <oh> na # tylluan sy   'n   byw yn y   dwll   yna ##
you in   in \place there   no owl   is.REL PROG live in the \hole(m) there
in there.' <oh> no, it's an own who lives in that hole.

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cwymp-odd y bachgen i 'r llawr # a mae 'r gwenyn yn dal i hedfan
fell-3SG the boy to the ground and is.3SG the bees PROG continue to fly
The boy fell to the ground, and the bees are still flying

o-gwmpas ## mae 'r gwenyn # yn um@fp [/] mae 'r gwenyn yn [/] yn dilyn y ci
around is.3SG the bees PROG is.3SG the bees PROG PROG follow the dog
around. The bees, are um@fp [/] the bees are [/] are following the dog

a mae 'r ci yn rhedeg i-ffwrdd wrth y gwenyn maen nhw 'n dal yn grac
and is.3SG the dog PROG run away by the bees is.3PL they PROG continue PRED angry
and the dog is running away by the bees they are still angry

bod e wedi torri eu cartre nhw ## mae 'r dylluan yn grac fod y bachgen
is.COMP he PRF break their home they is.3SG the \owl(f) PRED \angry \is.COMP the boy
that he has broken their home. The owl is angry that the little boy

bach wedi um@fp [/] wedi <disturb>-io fe achos mae tylluan yn cysgu yn-ystod y dydd
little PRF PRF -INF he because is.3SG owl PROG sleep during the day
has um@fp [/] has <disturb>ed him because an owl sleeps during the day,

<oh> na cer i-ffwrdd xxx chwilio am y broga meddai 'r bachgen bach ## broga
-- no go.2SG.IMPV away search for the frog said the boy little frog
<oh> na go away xxx search for the frog' said the little boy. 'Frog

ble wyt ti? wedi uh@fp dringo i ben y garreg fawr nawr i weiddi ac mae 'n
where is.2SG you PRF climb to \head the \rock(f) \big now to shout and is.3SG PROG
where are you?' uh@fp climbed on top the big rock to shout and [he]'s

pwyso ar y canghennau # <oh> na dim canghennau yw nhw ond # cyrn yr um@fp [/] cyrn
lean on the branches no NEG branches COP they but horns the um@fp [/] horns
leaning on the branches, <oh> no they aren't branches but, horns of the um@fp [/] the

yr carw mawr # 'drych mae ar uh@fp [//] 'di eistedd ar ben yr [//] y carw # mae 'r
the stag big look is.3SG on PRF sit on \head the the stag is.3SG the
big stag's horns, look there are on uh@fp [//] have sat on the head of the [//] the stag, the

carw yn rhedeg i-ffwrdd naeth e gweld ble mae 'n mynd # <oh> na #
stag PROG run away did.3SG he see where is.3SG PROG go no
stag is running away did he see where [he] was going? '<oh> no,

stopia stopia # maen nhw 'n rhedeg i ben y dibyn # <oh dear> maen
stop.2SG.IMPV stop.2SG.IMPV is.3PL they PROG run to \head the precipice is.3PL
stop stop,' they are running to the top of the precipice, <oh dear> they

nhw 'n cwympo # mae 'r carw yn llwyddo stopio mewn pryd ond mae 'r
they PROG fall is.3SG the stag PROG succeed stop in time but is.3SG the
fall, the stag succeeds in stopping in time but the

bachgen a 'r ci yn cwympo i mewn i 'r dŵr ### a # goeden arall nawr # maen
boy and the dog PROG fall to in to the water and \tree other now is.3PL
boy and the dog fall into the water. And, another tree now, they

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nhw 'n   mynd i chwilio yn fan   hyn efallai <oh> na # <splash> # <splash> â   ni
they PROG go   to search   in \place this maybe   no   with we
are going to search here maybe <oh> no, <splash>, <splash> with us

mewn i 'r dŵr ## ond mae   popeth   yn iawn # a   mae ci yn eistedd ar ben
in   to the water but is.3SG everything PRED okey   and is.3SG dog PROG sit   on \head
into the water. But everything is okey, and a dog is sitting on top of

y [/] y   bachgen bach ## <sh> meddai 'r bachgen wrth y ci dw   i 'n   clywed
the the boy   little   said   the boy   to the dog is.1SG I PROG hear
the [/] the little boy. '<Sh>' said the boy to the dog 'I hear

rhywbeth yn y gangen   bren yma # broga # ai   ti sy   mewn fan 'na? edrych i
something in the \branch(f) \wood here frog   FOC.INT you is.REL in   \place there look   to
something in the wood branch here, 'frog, is it you in there?' looking

mewn i   'r dwll # <oh> dyma 'r broga ac   wedi ffeindio ffrind ## ni mor falch   i dy
in   to the hole(m)   here's the frog and PRF find   friend   we so \pleased to your
into the hole, <oh> here's the frog and found a friend. 'We [are] so pleased to

weld di   broga # <oh> # a   mae   teulu bach gyda broga # wedi ffeindio gwraig
\see you frog   and is.3SG family little with frog   PRF find   wife
see you frog,' <oh>, and frog has a little family, found a wife

a   wedi cael plant   bach felly pawb   yn   hapus ## hyfryd # grêt # hwyl broga #
and PRF get children little so   everyone PRED happy   lovely   great bye frog
had little children so everybody is happy. Lovely, great, 'bye frog,

nei   di [//] hwyl-fawr y teulu mae 'r broga mynd adre   gyda 'r bachgen a
do.2SG.FUT you   goodbye   the family is.3SG the frog go   homeward with the boy   and
you will [//] goodbye the family' the frog goes home with the boy and

'i gi yn hapus a   mae   pawb   wedi cael diwrnod braf ## hwyl-fawr broga meddai 'i
his \dog ADV happy and is.3SG everyone PRF get day   fine   goodbye   frog said   his
his dog happily and everyone has had a fine day. 'Goodbye' said his

deulu   nawn   ni weld ti cyn bo   hir
\family do.1PL.FUT we \see you before is.3SG.SBJV long
family 'we will see you before long.'

mae   'na   blentyn bach ar waelod y gwely ## mae   hi 'n   hwyr y nos   ac feddwl
is.3SG there \child little on \bottom the bed   is.3SG she PRED late   the night and \think
There's a small child on the bottom of the bed. Its late at night and thinks

yr plentyn fod   e 'n   mynd i 'r gwely ## mae   e 'n   edrych ac mae 'na gi
the child   \is.COMP he PROG go   to the bed   is.3SG he PROG look   and is.3SG there \dog
the child that he's going to bed. He's looking and there's a little

bach gyda fe ac maen nhw 'n   edrych ar froga sydd y tu mewn i wydr ar waelod
little with he and is.3PL they PROG look   on \frog is.REL the side in   to \glass on \bottom
dog with him and they are looking at a frog who is inside glass at the end

y gwely ## mae 'r bachgen bach wedi blino'n   lan   ac mae e a 'r ci yn
the bed   is.3SG the boy   little PRF tire PRED \clean and is.3SG he and the dog PROG
of the bed. The little boy is exhausted and he and the dog

mynd i 'r gwely ac mae 'n   cysgu yn dawel # mae   e wedi tynnu ei <slippers>
go   to the bed   and is.3SG PROG sleep ADV \quiet   is.3SG he PRF pull   his
go to the bed and [they] sleep quietly, he has put on his <slippers>

ac mae 'n   chwyrnu 'n braf â 'r ci ## a beth sy   'n   digwydd # mae 'r
and is.3SG PROG snore   ADV fine with the dog and what is.REL PROG happen   is.3SG the
and [he]'s snoring fine with the dog. And what happens, the

broga yn   dod mas o   'r jar gwydr ## yn y   bore # wedi 'r bachgen a   'r ci
frog PROG come out from the jar glass   in the morning after the boy   and the dog
frog comes out of the glass jar. In the morning, after the boy and the dog

ddihuno # mae   e 'n   llawn cyffro   i-gyd ac yn   mynd lawr i waelod y gwely
\wake   is.3SG he PROG full excitement all   and PROG go   down to \bottom the bed
woke up, he's all excited and goes down to the end of the bed

i edrych i weld os yw   'r broga yna ## ond i 'r mawr siom   i-ddo   mae 'r
to look   to \see if is.3SG the frog there but to the big disappointment to-him is.3SG the
to look to see if the frog is there. But to his great disappointment the

broga wedi mynd ## dyw   e 'm yn bosibl bod   y broga wedi mynd ## mae
frog PRF go   is.3SG.NEG he NEG PRED \possible is.COMP the frog   PRF go   is.3SG
frog has gone. 'It isn't possible that the frog is gone.

hynny yn   hollol amhosibl # roedd   e yno neithiwr felly dyma 'r bachgen bach yn
that ADV entire impossible   was.3SG he there last.night so   here's the boy   little PROG
That is entirely impossible,' he was there last night so here's the little boy

chwilio ym mhobman   am y broga ac roedd   y ci hefyd yn   chwilio # roedd   y
search in\ \everywhere for the frog   and was.3SG the dog also PROG search   was.3SG the
searching everywhere for the frog and the dog was also searching, the

ddau   yn   benderfynnol o ddod-o-hyd-i 'r broga # a   dyn nhw ddim yn   deall
\two(m) PRED \determined of \find   the frog   and is.3PL they NEG PROG understand
two were determined to find the frog, and they did not understand

i ble   oedd   e wedi mynd ## roedd   y ci   druan wedi mynd i chwilio mewn i 'r
to where was.3SG he PRF go   was.3SG the dog(m) \poor PRF go   to search in   to the
where he had gone. The poor dog had gone to search into the

jar gwydr ac oedd   e 'n   methu cael ei ben   allan # ond fe   naeth-on nhw ddal   i
jar(f) glass and was.3SG he PROG fail   get his \head out   but AFF did-3PL they \continue to
glass jar and he failed to get his head out, but they continued to

chwilio ## a   dyma 'r bachgen yn   cael y syniad o agor y ffenest a galw enw
search   and here's the boy   PROG get the idea   of open the window and call name
search. And here's the boy getting the idea to open the window and call the name

y broga # broga # broga lle   wyt ti? lle   wyt ti? der   yn ôl #
the frog   frog   frog where is.2SG you where is.2SG you come.2SG.IMPV in track
of the frog, 'frog, frog where are you? where are you? Come back,

der   yn ôl ## <oh dear> # tra   bod   y bachgen bach yn   galw am y   broga #
come.2SG.IMPV in track   while is.COMP the boy   little PROG call for the frog
come back.' <Oh dear>, while the little boy is calling for the frog,

fe   gwymp-odd y ci o   silff y ffenest lawr i 'r llawr ## ac yn   anffodus #
AFF \fell-3SG   the dog from shelf the window down to the ground   and ADV unfortunate
the dog fell from the window sill down to the ground. And unfortunately,

roedd   y jar gwydr yn   dal   am ei ben e ## roedd   y bachgen bach ychydig
was.3SG the jar glass PROG continue about his \head he   was.3SG the boy   little bit
the glass jar was still around his head. The little boy was a little bit

bach yn   grac gyda 'r ci # roedd   e wedi torri 'r jar gwydr # ond oedd   y ci
little PRED \angry with the dog was.3SG he PRF break the jar glass   but was.3SG the dog
angry with the dog, he had broken the glass jar, but the dog was

yn   falch iawn iawn o gael ei ben   yn   rhydd o   'r gwydr # ac roedd   y
PRED \pleased very very of \get his \head PRED free   from the glass   and was.3SG the
very very pleased to get his head free of the glass, and the

bachgen bach hefyd yn   eitha balch   fod   y ci yn   ddiogel ## ac fe   aethon
boy   little also PRED quite pleased is.COMP the dog PRED \safe   and AFF went-3PL
little boy was also quite pleased that the dog was safe. And they went

nhw am dro   allan i 'r goedwig # a   dyma fe 'n   galw eto ## broga # broga lle
they for \turn out   to 'r \forest(f)   and here's he PROG call again   frog   frog where
for a walk out to the forest, and here he is calling again. 'Frog, frog where

wyt ti # lle   wyt ti ac oedd   'na adar yn   hedfan ac oedd   'na ddau yn
is.2SG you where is.2SG you and was.3SG there birds PROG fly   and was.3SG there \two PROG
are you, where are you' and there were birds flying and there were two

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syrthio o   ’r coed   ond dim sôn   am   y broga bach yn unman ### a   dyma nhw
fall   from the trees   but NEG mention about the frog little in anywhere and here’s they
falling from the trees but no sign of the little frog anywhere. And here they

’n   mynd at goeden fawr fawr fawr oedd   ar ymyl y goedwig # a   beth naeth-on nhw
PROG go   to \tree   \big \big \big was.3SG on edge the \forest(f) and what did-3PL they
go to a big big big tree that was at the edge of the forest, and what did they

weld ond nyth gwenyn # ac   oedd   y gwenyn yn   mynd <bzz bzzz> ac o-’n   nhw
\see but nest bees   and was.3SG the bees   PROG go   and was-3PL they
see but a bees’ nest, and the bees were going <bzz bzzz> and they

‘n   gweld lot   fawr o fynd a dod o   gwch   y gwenyn [//] o ’r nyth y gwenyn
PROG see   many(f) \big of \go and come from \hive(m) the bees   from the nest the bees
saw a whole lot of coming and going from the beehive [//] from the bees’ nest.

a   dyma ’r bachgen bach yn   dod-o-hyd-i dwll ## mae ’r bachgen bach yn
   and here’s the boy   little PROG find   \hole is.3SG the boy   little PROG
And here’s the little boy finding a hole. The little boy

dod-o-hyd-i dwll o-dan y   nyth gwenyn ## a   dyma fe ’n   gweiddi lawr y twll rhag
find   \hole under the nest bees   and here’s he PROG shout   down the hole from
finds a hole under the bees’ nest. And here he is shouting down the hole in case

ofn bod   y broga wedi mynd lawr y twll # a   tra   oedd   e ’n   gwneud hyn #
fear is.COMP the frog PRF go   down the hole and while was.3SG he PROG do   this
the frog has gone down the hole, and while he was doing this,

oedd   y ci bach yn   neidio fyny tuag   at y nyth achos   oedd   e ’n   gweld
was.3SG the dog little PROG jump   up   toward to the nest because was.3SG he PROG see
the little dog was jumping up to the nest because he saw

cymaint o fynd a   dod o ’r nyth ond dal   dim sôn   am   y broga ### hm@fp
so.much of \go and come from the nest but continue NEG mention about the frog
so much coming and going from the nest but still no sign of the frog. Hm@fp

um@fp yn   sydyn dyma ’r bachgen bach yn   teimlo rhywbeth wrth ei drwyn e # ac
        ADV sudden here’s the boy   little PROG feel   something at his \nose he and
um@fp suddenly here’s the little boy feeling something by his nose, and

oedd   e ’n   meddwl tybed   ai broga sydd yma # ond i ’r mawr syndod i-ddo #
was.3SG he PROG think   I.wonder is.it frog is.REL here but to the big   surprise to-him
he thought ‘I wonder if it is the frog who is here,’ but to his great surpprise,

fe welodd   e mai   wiwer   oedd   yno ond <fi ’n   credu> mai   gwiwer yw hi
AFF \saw-3SG he is.COMP \squirrel was.3SG there but   I PROG think is.COMP squirrel COP she
he saw that it was a squirrel there but <I think> that it’s a squirrel,

ac oedd   y gwiwer wedi bod   lawr yn [/] yn y twll ## dal   i gyfarth ac   yn
  and was.3SG the squirrel PRF be.INF down in   in the hole   continue to \bark   and PROG
and the squirrel had been down in [/] in the hole. Still barking and

dal   i neidio at y   nyth gwenyn oedd   yr hen gi bach ond # dim sôn   am
continue to jump to the nest bees   was.3SG the old \dog little but   NEG mention about
still jumping at the bees' nest was the old little dog but, no sign of

y broga ## dyma 'r ci bach yn   penderfynu ysgwyd y   goeden # nawr doedd
the frog   here's the dog little PROG decide   shake   the \tree(f)   now was.3SG.NEG
the frog. Here's the little dog deciding to shake the tree, now

hi ddim yn   syniad da   iawn ## be' ddigwydd-odd # fe wnaeth y   nyth gwenyn
she NEG PRED idea   good very   what \happened-3SG AFF did.3SG the nest bees
it wasn't a very good idea. What happened, the bees' nest

gwympo lawr i 'r llawr # ac oedd   y gwenyn yn   grac iawn iawn ac yn   dechrau
\fall   down to the ground and was.3SG the bees   PRED \angry very very and PROG begin
fell down to the ground, and the bees were very very angry and beginning

neud sŵn mawr ac yn   dawnsio ac   yn   chwyrlio o-gwmpas y nyth ond oedd   y ci
make noise big and PROG dance   and PROG whirl   around   the nest but was.3SG the dog
to make a big noise and dancing and whirling around the nest. But the little dog

bach yn   meddwl ei bod   e 'n   lot o hwyl ### tra   bod   hyn i-gyd yn   digwydd #
little PROG think   his is.COMP he PRED lot of fun   while is.COMP this all   PROG happen
thought that it was a lot of fun. While all this was happening,

roedd   y bachgen yn   dal   i chwilio am y broga yn   dal   i weiddi broga #
was.3SG the boy   PROG continue to search for the frog   PROG continue to \shout frog
the boy was still looking for the frog still shouting 'frog,

lle   wyt ti? lle   wyt ti? # a   dyma fe yn   dod-o-hyd-i dwll mewn i un coeden
where is.2SG you where is.2SG you and here's he PROG find   \hole in   to one tree(f)
where are you? where are you?' and here he is finding a hole in one

fawr fawr a   dyma fe meddwl tybed   ydy   'r broga wedi mynd i guddio yn y twll ##
\big \big and here's he think   I.wonder is.3SG.Q the frog   PRF go   to \hide   in the hole
big big tree and here he is thinking 'I wonder has the frog gone to hide in the hole.'

ond cartre y dylluan oedd   y twll # a   dyma hi yn   dod allan i ddweud <hey>
but home the \owl(f) was.3SG the hole and here's she PROG come out to \say
But the hole was the owl's home, and here she is coming out to say '<hey>

beth wyt ti 'n   neud fan   hyn fy nghartre i yw hwn dos   i-ffwrdd
what is.2SG you PROG do   \place this my \home   I COP this go.2SG.IMPV away
what are you doing here this is my home go away

cer   i-ffwrdd ac fe gwymp-odd y bachgen ar ei ben-ôl ar y llawr # ac
go.2SG.IMPV away   and AFF \fell-3SG   the boy   on his \bottom on the ground and
go away' and the boy fell on his bottom on the ground, and

uwch ei   ben e # dyma 'r gwenyn i-gyd yn   hedfan yn un   cwmwl mawr trwchus
over his \head he here's the bees   all   PROG fly   in one cloud big   thick
over him, here are all the bees flying in one big thick cloud

uwch ei ben e   yn   amlwg wedi gwylltio ac   yn   chwilio am gartre am nyth arall ##
over his \head he ADV obvious PRF go.wild and PROG search   for \home for nest other
over his head obviously gone wild and searching for home for another nest.

ond # beth sylw-odd   y   bachgen ddim oedd   mae mynd ar ôl   yr hen gi   bach
but   what observed-3SG the boy   NEG was.3SG is.3SG go   on track the old \dog little
But, what the boy didn't see was that going after the old little dog

oedd   y gwenyn ro-'n   nhw wedi sylweddoli mai   fe oedd   yn   gyfrifol   am
was.3SG the bees   was-3PL they PRF realize   is.COMP he was.3SG PRED \responsible for
were the bees they had realized that he was responsible

ollwng y   nyth ac ysgwyd y goeden ac   o-'n   nhw 'n   grac iawn ac   o-'n
\drop   the nest and shake   the \tree(f) and was-3PL they PRED \angry very and was-3PL
for dropping the nest and shaking the tree and they were very angry and they

nhw 'n   benderfynol o ddal   y ci bach ac o-'n   nhw 'n   hedfan yn   gyflym
they PRED \determined of \catch the dog little and was-3PL they PROG fly   ADV \fast
were determined to catch the dog and they were flying fast

gyflym ar ôl   y   ci ## oedd   y bachgen bach yn   dal   i bendroni ble   mae 'r
\fast   on track the dog   was.3SG the boy   little PROG continue to \worry   where is.3SG the
fast after the dog. The little dog is still worrying where the

broga # a   dyma 'r dylluan yn   dod at-o fe # a   dyna fe 'n   gofyn fallai i 'r
frog   and here's the \owl(f) PROG come to-him he   and there's he PROG ask   maybe to the
frog is, and here's the owl coming at him, and there he is asking maybe to the

dylluan am   os ydy   'r dylluan yn   fodlon helpu i chwilio am y broga ## fe
\owl(f) about if is.3SG.Q the \owl(f) PRED \willing help to search for the frog   AFF
owl about if the owl is willing to help to search for the frog.

ddaeth   y ci bach yn ôl   yn   amlwg wedi cael ofn a   braw ar ôl   i 'r gwenyn
\came.3SG the dog little in track ADV obvious PRF get fear and fright on track to the bees
The little dog came back obviously having gotten a scare and a fright after the bees

i fod   yn   mynd ar ei ôl   e # a   'r dylluan yn   edrych i weld beth oedd   yn
to \be.INF PROG go   on his track he and the \owl(f) PROG look   to \see what was.3SG PROG
were going after him, and the owl looks to see what was

digwydd a   bachgen bach yn   dal   i alw froga froga ble   wyt   ti   der
happen   and boy   little PROG continue to \call \frog \frog where is.2SG you come.2SG.IMPV
happening and [the] little boy still calling 'frog frog where are you come

yn ôl   der   yn ôl ## um@fp carw ## yn   sydyn # dyma rhywbeth mawr yn
in track come.2SG.IMPV in track   stag   ADV sudden here's something big   PROG
back come back.' Um@fp a stag. Suddenly, here's something big

dod o ’r tu cefn i ’r garreg fawr # oedd y tylluan yn gallu gweld oedd y
come from the side back to the \rock(f) \big was.3SG the owl(f) PROG able see was.3SG the
coming from behind the big rock, the owl was able to see the dog was

ci yn gallu gweld a cafodd y bachgen cymaint o fraw # carw oedd e # carw
dog PROG able see and got.3SG the boy so.much of \fright stag was.3SG he stag
able to see and the boy got so much of a fright, it was a stag, a stag

â cyrn mawr pigog ar ei ben e # ac wrth i ’r bachgen bach symud # dyma fe ’n
with horns big spiny on his \head he and as to the boy little move here’s he PROG
with big spiny horns on his head, and as the little boy moves, here he

mynd yn sownd reit yng nghanol y cyrn ar ben y carw # a dyma ’r carw # yn
go PRED stuck right in\ \middle the horns on \head the stag and here’s the stag PROG
goes stuck right in the middle of the horns on top of the stag, and here the stag,

cerdded i-ffwrdd a ’r bachgen bach yn dal ar ei ben e rhwng y cyrn ## ond
walk away and the boy little PROG continue on his \head he between the horns but
walks away and the little boy is still on his head between the horns. But

roedd ‘na glogwyn gerllaw # a dyma carw yn aros yn sydyn a dyma ’r
was.3SG there \cliff nearby and here’s stag PROG stay ADV sudden and here’s the
there was a cliff nearby, and here’s stag stopping suddenly and here is the

bachgen a ’r ci yn cwympo lawr y dibyn ### a lawr a lawr a lawr â nhw
boy and the dog PROG fall down the precipice and down and down and down with they
boy and the dog falling down the precipice. And down and down and down with them

nes bo nhw ’n mynd <splash> mewn i ’r afon oedd ar y gwaelod # mae
until is.3SG.SBJV they PROG go in to the river was.3SG on the bottom is.3SG
until they go <splash> into the river that was at the bottom,

‘r carw yn edrych lawr yn-ddyn nhw # ond # oedd y bachgen bach a ’r ci
the stag PROG look down in-them they but was.3SG the boy little and the dog
the stag looks down at them, but, the little boy and the dog had

wedi gwympo ond oedd popeth yn iawn # popeth yn iawn # dyma nhw dau
PRF \fall but was.3SG everything PRED okey everything PRED okey here’s they two
fallen but everything was okey, everything [is] ok, here are the two of them

nawr a ci bach ar ben y bachgen bach erbyn hyn yn eistedd fyny ac yn gweld
now and dog little on \head the boy little by this PROG sit up and PROG see
now and little dog on top of the little boy now sittin gup and seeing

brigyn mawr o goeden oedd wedi &gwiwa [//] wedi syrthio wrth yn y dŵr ## ac
branch big of \tree was.3SG PRF PRF fall at in the water and
a big branch of a tree that had &gwiwa [//] had fallen in the water. And

oedd yr hen gi bach yn cyfarth # a dyma ’r bachgen yn dweud wrth-o <ist> #
was.3SG the old \dog little PROG bark and here’s the boy PROG say to-him
the little old dog was barking, and here’s the boy telling hims ‘<ist>,

bydd   yn   dawel # fallai bod   y broga i fewn yn y brigyn mawr # a   dyma
be.2SG.IMPV PRED \quiet   maybe is.COMP the frog   to \in   in the branch big   and here's
be quiet, maybe the frog is in the big branch,' and here

nhw 'n   chwilio ac oedd   e 'n   dywyll tu   mewn i 'r brigyn   do-'n   nhw
they PROG search   and was.3SG he PRED \dark side in   to the branch was-3PL.NEG they
they are searching and it was dark inside the branch they weren't

ddim yn   gallu gweld ## a   beth naeth-on nhw weld # ond # nid un broga ond dau froga
NEG PROG able see   and what did-3PL they \see   but NEG one frog but two \frog
able to see. And what did they see, but, not one frog but two frogs

ac oedd   y ddau   yn   amlwg yn   hapus ac yn   gysurus   iawn ## ac i 'r
and was.3SG the \two(m) ADV obvious PRED happy and PRED \comfortable very   and to the
and the two were obviously happy and very comfortable. And to their

mawr syndod i-ddyn nhw # beth naeth   y bachgen a   'r ci weld yn   neidio yn hapus
big surprise to-them they   what did.3SG the boy   and the dog \see PROG jump ADV happy
big surprise, what did the boy and the dog see jumping happily

oedd   plant   bach oedd   'na [/] oedd   'na um@fp frogaod bach wedi ymddangos # a
was.3SG children little was.3SG there was.3SG there   \frogs little PRF appear   and
were little children there were [/] um@fp little frogs appeared there, and

'r ddau   froga balch y rhieni yn   amlwg wrth eu   bodd ## a   dyma ni 'n   dod
the \two(m) \frog proud the parents ADV obvious at   their pleasure and here's we PROG come
the two proud frogs the parents obviously delighted. And here we come

tua   diwedd y stori pawb   yn   hapus # y bachgen bach yn   cael y broga yn ei
toward end   the story everyone PRED happy   the boy   little PROG get the frog   in his
to the end of the story everybody happy, the little boy gets the frog in his

law # a   ci ag ynte' yn   mynd 'n ôl   adre   gan adael y teulu bach o frogaod
\hand and dog with he PROG go   in track homeward since \leave the family little of \frogs
hand, and dog with him going back home since leaving the little family of frogs

yn   hapus hapus ar y goeden a   'r brigyn a   'r twll mawr yn nghanol y   brigyn
PRED happy happy on the \tree(f) and the branch and the hole big   in \center   the branch
happy happy on the tree and the branch and the big hole in the middle of the branch.

um@fp ci yn   edrych lawr i ’r froga   trwy   ’r jar a   ’r plentyn bach yn   eistedd
        dog PROG look   down to the \frog(m) through the jar and the child   little PROG sit
Um@fp a dog looking down to the frog through the jar and the small child sitting

ar stôl   ar-bwys uh@fp [/] ar-bwys y   gwely # uh@fp noswaith um@fp digon? uh@fp mae
on stool near   near   the bed   evening   enough   is.3SG
on a stool near uh@fp [/] near the bed, uh@fp evening um@fp enough? Uh@fp

dal   y nos a   mae ’r bachgen a   ’r ci   yn   cysgu yn y gwely # a   mae
continue the night and is.3SG the boy   and the dog PROG sleep in the bed   and is.3SG
[it]’s still night and the boy and the dog are sleeping in the bed, and

‘r broga yn   camu mas o   ’r jar # a   mae xxx # a   nawr mae ’r &fro [//] mae
the frog PROG step out from the jar   and is.3SG   and now is.3SG the   is.3SG
the frog steps out of the jar, and xxx, and now the &fro [//] [it]’s

fore #   a   mae broga ‘di mynd a   mae ’r bachgen yn   sylwi a # mae ’r ci
\morning and is.3SG frog   PRF go   and is.3SG the boy   PROG notice and is.3SG the dog
morning, and a frog has gone and the boy notices and, the dog

yn   sylwi ‘fyd ## <so> mae bachgen yn   gwisgo yn glau mae ci   yn edrych
PROG notice also   is.3SG boy   PROG dress   ADV \swift is.3SG dog PROG look
notices also. <So> a boy dresses quickly a dog looks

i mewn i ’r jar # mae ‘na <sort of> cydweithio ‘n   troi stôl ar ei waered ## mae ’r
to in   to the jar   is.3SG there   cooperate PROG turn stool on his \bottom   is.3SG the
into the jar, there’s a <sort of> cooperation turning a stool upside down. The

jar yn   sownd ar fen y ci a   mae ’r bachgen yn   galw mas o   ’r fenest # mae
jar PRED stuck   on \head the dog and is.3SG the boy   PROG call out from the window is.3SG
jar is stuck on the dog’s head and the boy is calling out of the window,

’r ci yn <jump>-io trwy   ’r ffenest # a   mae ’r bachgen yn [/] yn <chimod>
the dog PROG   -INF through the window   and is.3SG the boy   PROG PROG you.know
the dog <jump>s through the window, and the boy is [/] <you know>

poeni am   feth # uh@fp bachgen oh@fp mae   ’r jar wedi <smash>-io a   mae ’r ci
worry about \thing   boy   is.3SG the jar PRF   -INF and is.3SG the dog
worrying about [some]thing. Uh@fp a boy oh@fp the jar has <smash>ed and the dog is

yn   llyfu ’r bachgen ond mae ’r bachgen dim yn   edrych yn   hapus ## xxx sgidiau mawr
PROG lick the boy   but is.3SG the boy   NEG PROG look   PRED happy   shoes   big
licking the boy and the boy doesn’t look happy. xxx big shoes

uh@fp mae <fe> ’n   galw y   bachgen uh@fp wrth ymyl rhyw goedwig am y   broga xxx
        is.3SG he PROG call the boy   at   edge some \forest   for the frog
uh@fp <he> is calling they boy uh@fp at the edge of some forest for the frog xxx

a   mae   ’r ci   yn   gwynto rhywbeth ## a   mae   ’n   cael golwg o   goedwig ## ac
and is.3SG the dog PROG smell   something   and is.3SG PROG get look of \forest   and
and the dog smells something. And [he] gets a look at the forest. And

yn   galw ar twll # a   mae   ’r ci   yn   cyfarth lan at <sort of> haid o   wenyn ## a
PROG call on hole   and is.3SG the dog PROG bark   up to   swarm of \bees   and
calls on a hole, and the dog is barking up at s <sort of> swarm of bees. And

<sa   i ’n   ‘wybod beth yw hwn <actually>> mae   rhyw [/] mae   rhyw anifail wedi
 is.1SG.NEG I PROG \know what COP this   is.3SG some   is.3SG some animal PRF
<I don’t know what this is <actually>> there’s some [/] there’s some animal

dod   mas o   ’r [/] o   ’r um@fp [/] o   ’r twll # uh@fp edrych fel <sa   i ’n
come out from the   from the   from the hole   look   like is.1SG.NEG I PROG
come out of the [/] of the um@fp [/] out of the hole, uh@fp looks like <I don’t

gwybod> ## <sa   i ’n   wybod beth yw <actually>> um@fp <haha> ‘di bwrw ar
know   is.1SG.NEG I PROG \know what COP   PRF strike on
know>. <I don’t know what it is <actually>> um@fp <haha> struck

bachgen ar ei drwyn a   mae   ’r ci   yn   cyfarth lan at y gwenyn dal uh@fp
boy   on his \nose and is.3SG the dog PROG bark   up to the bees continue
a boy on his nose and the dog is barking up to the bees still uh@fp

mae   ’r cwch gwenyn wedi cwympo a   mae   ’r gwenyn yn   dod mas a   mae   ’r
is.3SG the hive bees   PRF fall   and is.3SG the bees   PROG come out and is.3SG the
the beehive has fallen and the bees come out and the

ci   yn   edrych fel mae   ’n   poeni a   mae   ’r anifail fel <groundhog> neu rhywbeth
dog PROG look   like is.3SG PROG worry and is.3SG the animal like   or something
dog loks like he is worrying and the animal like a <groundhog> or something

yn <sort of> <peep>-o   mas o   ’r twll ## a   mae   ’r uh@fp bachgen yn <sort of> galw
PROG   -INF out from the hole   and is.3SG the   boy   PROG   call
<sort of> peeps out of the hole. And the uh@fp boy <sort of> calls

lawr twll mewn rhyw goeden ## t’uan dod   mas # a   wedyn # mae   ’r gwenyn yn <sort of>
down hole in   some \tree   owl   come out   and then   is.3SG the bees   PROG
down a hole in some tree. An owl come[s] out, and then, the bees <sort of>

hedfan heibio ## y   bachgen yn   cwympo ## mae   ’r gwenyn yn <chas>-o   ’r ci
fly   past   the boy   PROG fall   is.3SG the bees   PROG   -INF the dog
fly past. The boy fall[s]. The bees are <chas>ing the dog

trwy   ’r goedwig # ci   ddim yn   hapus # mae   ’r # [/] wel mae   ’r bachgen yn
through the \forest(f) dog NEG PRED happy   is.3SG the   well is.3SG the boy   PROG
through the forest, dog [is]n’t happy, the, [/] well the boy is

<sort of> trio dianc o   ’r [/] o   ’r gwdihw [//] o   ’r dylluan # yn   galw # a   ’r #
--   try escape from the   from the owl   from the \owl(f)/ PROG call   and the
 <sort of> trying to escape from the [/] from the owl [//] from the owl, calling, and the,

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wel dros garreg # neu beth sy   'n   edrych fel <sort of> <antlers> carw <oh> <ya> <ya>
well over \rock   or what is.REL PROG look   like   stag
well over a rock, or what looks like <sort of> stag <antlers> <oh> <ya> <ya>

 <antlers> carw yn   nhw   a mae 'di cwympo ar y carw ## a mae   'r carw
--   stag is.3PL they   and is.3SG PRF fall   on the stag   and is.3SG the stag
they are <antlers> and [he] has fallen on the stag. And the stag

rhedeg <off> gyda fe ar ei ben a mae 'r ci yn   cyfarth # <fel yw ei ddefod> # a
run   with he on his \head and is.3SG the dog PROG bark   like COP his \custom   and
runs <off> with him on his head and the dog barking, <as is his wont>, and

maen nhw gyd wel [//] na   mae 'r [/] mae 'r [/] mae 'r bachgen a 'r ci yn   cywmpo
is.3PL they all well   there is.3SG the is.3SG the is.3SG the boy   and the dog PROG fall
they all well [//] there, the [/] the [/] the boy and the dog fall

dros ymyl <sort of> clogwyn a   mae 'r carw [/] mae carw ddim ## jyst coeden nawr #
over edge   cliff   and is.3SG the stag   is.3SG stag NEG   just tree   now
over edge of a <sort of> cliff and the stag [/] stag doesn't. Just a tree now,

sa   i 'n   gwybod pam ond jyst un o goeden # a   maen nhw 'di cwympo wel
is.1SG.NEG I PROG know   why but just one of \tree   and is.3PL they PRF fall   well
I don;t know why but just one tree, and they have fallen well

<dramatic effect> mae [/] mae wedi cwympo mewn i wel <sort of> llyn bach ## a   mae   'r
--   is.3SG is.3SG PRF fall   in   to well   lake little   and is.3SG the
<dramatic effect> [they] [/] [they] have fallen into well <sort of> a little lake. And the

bachgen edrych fel mae 'n   clywed y broga a ci 'fyd ## mae 'n   gweud i 'r ci
boy   look   like is.3SG PROG hear   the frog and dog also   is.3SG PROG say   to the dog
boy looks like [he] hears the frog and the dog too. [He] says to the dog

fod   yn dawel ## mae 'n   edrych dros # <sort of> boncyff ## a &c dau froga
\be.INF PRED \quiet   is.3SG PROG look   over   trunk   and   two \frog
to be quiet. He looks over, a <sort of> trunk. And &c two frogs

gyda 'u gilydd ## a 'u plant   nhw # a <so> mae 'n   sylweddoli bod   y
with their \companion and their children they   and   is.3SG PROG realize   is.COMP the
together. And their children, and <so> [he] realizes that the

broga jyst 'di mynd 'n ôl   at ei wraig a 'i blant ## a   nawr # ydyw   e 'n   mynd
frog just PRF go   in track to his \wife and his \children and now   is.3SG.Q he PROG go
frog has just gone back to his wife and his children. And now, is he taking

â   broga 'n ôl? ## mae 'n   edrych tipyn-bach yn   greulon ## xxx mynd â   broga
with frog in track is.3SG PROG look   little-bit PRED \cruel   go   with frog
the frog back?. [It] looks a little bit cruel. xxx taking a little frog

bach 'n ôl ## a   mae   teulu 'r brogaod yn   edrych yn   hapus sa   i 'n #
little in track and is.3SG family the frogs   PROG look   PRED happy is.1SG.NEG I PRED
back. And the family of frogs look happy I'm not,

[/] sa   i 'n <quite> yn   siwr pam achos   mae   un wedi cael [/] # cael ei   ddwyn
   is.1SG.NEG I PRED   PRED sure why because is.3SG one PRF   get   get his \steal
[/] I'm not <quite> sure why because one has been, [/] been stolen.

roedd   'na   fachgen fach   yn   barod i fynd i 'r gwely ar y noson dywyll a
was.3SG there \boy(f) \little(m) PRED \ready to \go to the bed   on the night(f) \dark   and
There was a little boy ready to go to bed on a dark night and

lleuad yn   olau tu   fas i 'r   stafell a dyma fe yn   gwylio ei gi   bach ac
mood PRED \light side \out to the room and here's he PROG watch his \dog little and
[the] moon [is] light outside the room and here's him watching his little dog and

oedd   yna llyffant [/] roedd 'na lyffant bach mewn jar wrth ymyl ei wely   wel
was.3SG there frog   was.3SG there \frog little in   jar by   edge his \bed   well
there was a frog [/] there was a little frog in a jar next to his bed 'well

mae 'n   pryd i fi fynd i 'r gwely nawr meddai 'r bachgen bach ## a   dyma 'r
is.3SG PRED time to I \go to the bed   now said.3SG the boy   little   and here's the
[it]'s time to go to bed now' said the little boy. And here's the

bachgen bach yn   gorwedd yn y gwely mynd o-dan y dillad # a   oedd   e wedi
boy   little PROG lie   in the bed   go   under the clothes   and was.3SG he PRF
little boy lying in the bed going under the covers, and he was

blino 'n   garn # a   'r ci bach yn   mynd i gwely gyda fe # cwtsio ar waelod y
tire PRED \hilt   and the dog little PROG go   to bed   with he hddlw on \bottom the
tired through and through, and the little god going to bed with him, huddling up at the bottom

gwely mynd i gysgu ## wel unwaith oedd   y ddau   yn   cysgu yn sownd # dyma
bed   go   to \sleep   well once   was.3SG the \two(m) PROG sleep ADV firm   here's
of the bed going to sleep. Well once the two were sleeping soundly, here's

llyffant bach yn   neidio allan o   'r jar ar flaen ei draed yn   dawel dawel dawel ## <oh> #
frog   little PROG jump   out from the jar on \front his \feet ADV \quiet \quiet \quiet
little frog jumping out of the jar in front of his feet very very quietly. <Oh>,

bore   drannoeth # yr haul yn   llifo drwy   'r ffenestri # dyma 'r bachgen bach a
morning \next.day   the sun PROG flow through the windows   here's the boy   little and
the next morning, the sun flowing through the windows, here's the little boy and

'r ci yn   dihuno <oh> a   gweld y jar yn   wag # ble   mae 'r llyffant wedi
the dog PROG wake   and see   the jar PRED \empty where is.3SG the frog   PRF
the dog waking up <oh> and see the jar empty, 'where has the frog

mynd tybed ## mae   e wedi diflannu meddan nhw ## wel dyma nhw 'n   chwilio ac
go   I.wonder is.3SG he PRF disappear said.3PL they   well here's they PROG search and
gone I wonder. He has disappeared' they said. Well here they are searching and

yn   chwilio ym mhobman # dan   y dillad # yn y jar a hwn yn   wag # dan y
PROG search in\ \everywhere under the clothes in the jar and this PRED \empty under the
searching everywhere, under the clothes, in the jar and this empty, under the

gwely # chwilio ym mhobman   ond dim sôn   dim sôn   o-gwbl am   y   llyffant bach
bed   search   in\ \everywhere but NEG mention NEG mention at.all   about the frog   little
bed, searching everywhere but no sign no sign at all of the little frog.

mae   'n   chwilio y   tu   fas o   'r ffenest ac yn   galw llyffant bach   llyffant bach
     is.3SG PROG search   the side \out of the window and PROG call frog   little   frog   little
[He] searches outside the window and calls 'little frog little frog,

ble   wyt   ti? <oh dear> # <oh> dyma   'r ci yn   mynd yn   sownd yn y   jar mae
   where is.2SG you   here's the dog PROG go   PRED stuck in the jar is.3SG
where are you? <oh dear>, <oh> here's the dog going stuck in the jar

'r jar ar ei ben ac yn   cwympo mas trwy   'r ffenest ## <bum bum bum bum bum> #
the jar on his \head and PROG fall   out through the window
the jar is on his head and [he] falls out through the window. <Bum bum bum bum bum>,

lawr i 'r llawr ## <oh> oedd   e 'n   alreit oedd   e 'n   iawn   ond oedd   y
down to the ground   was.3SG he PRED alright was.3SG he PRED okey   but was.3SG the
down to the ground. <Oh> he was okey he was okey but the

jar yn xxx # wedi torri i-gyd ## <oh> w   'i 'n   falch   bod   ti 'n   iawn ci bach
jar in   PRF break all   is.1SG I PRED \pleased is.COMP you PRED okey dog little
jar was in xxx, all broken. '<Oh> I'm happy that you are okey little dog'

meddai 'r   bachgen bach a   hwn yn   llyo 'i wyneb i-gyd yn   ni 'n   ffrindiau da
said.3SG the boy   little and this PROG lick his face   all   is.1PL we PRED friends   good
said the little boy and this licking all his face 'we're good friends

<dyn   ni> # w   'i 'n   flin am   dorri 'r jar ## mas â   nhw mas i 'r ardd #
   is.1PL we   is.1SG I PRED \mad about \break the jar   out with they out to the \garden(f)
<aren't we>, I'm upset about breaking the jar.' Out with them out to the garden,

oedd   hi 'n   ddiwrnod braf yr adar yn   canu ## ble   wyt   ti llyffant bach? ble
was.3SG she PRED \day   fine the birds PROG sing   where is.2SG you frog   little where
it was a fine day the birds singing. 'Where are you little frog? where

wyt   ti? ## a   dyma nhw 'n   mynd i 'r coed ac oedd   'na   wenyn ar-bwys y   coed #
is.2SG you   and here's they PROG go   to the trees and was.3SG there \bees near   the trees
are you?' And here they are going to the trees and there were bees near the trees,

cwch gwenyn hongian ar y   goeden # tybed   oedd   y   gwenyn yn   gwybod ble
hive bees   hang   in the \tree(f) I.wonder was.3SG the bees   PROG know   where
a beehive hanging on the tree, I wonder did the bees know where

oedd   y   llyffant bach ## galw lawr mewn twll yn y   ddaear # a   'r ci yn   hapus
was.3SG the frog   little   call down in   hole in the \earth(f) and the dog PRED happy
the little frog was. Calling down in a hole in the ground, and the dog very happy

braf yn   gwylio [/] gwylio 'r gwenyn i-gyd yn   cadw sŵn hymian tu   fas ## <ooh> pwy
fine PROG watch   watch the bees   all   PROG keep noise hum   side \out   who
watching [/] watching all the bees keeping the humming sound outside. <Ooh> who

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yw hwn # llygoden fach wedi dod o ’r twll ## na nid fi yw ’r llyffant wel fe fod
COP this mouse(f) \little PRF come from the hole no NEG I COP the frog well AFF \be.INF
is this, a little mouse come from the hole. ‘No I am not the frog’ ‘well be

yn ofalus yn nhrwyn beth yw moyn cael gwninnen ar yn nhrwyn meddai ’r bachgen
PRED \careful my \nose what COP want get \rabbit on my \nose said.3SG the boy
careful of my nose what is xxx a rabbit on my nose’ said the little boy.

bach ## <oh dear> # mae ’r gwenyn yn dod yn rhydd o ’r cwch ac yn
little is.3SG the bees PROG come PRED free from the hive and PROG
<Oh dear>, the bees become free of the hive and

chwyrlio o-gwmpas yr awyr ## ble mae pawb wedi mynd? ## a dyma ’r bachgen
whirl around the air where is.3SG everyone PRF go and here’s the boy
whirl around the air. Where has everybody gone? And here’s the little boy

bach yn dringo ’r goeden ac yn edrych tu fewn i ’r goeden mewn i ’r bôn
little PROG climb the \tree(f) and PROG look side \in to the \tree(f) in to the trunk
climbing the tree and looking inside the tree into the big trunk

mawr mewn dwll mawr tywyll ## beth sydd fan ’na? # <oh> tylluan # diw diw diw # tylluan
big in \hole big dark what is.REL \place there owl god god god owl
in a big dark hole. What is there, <oh> an owl, goodness goodness goodness, a big owl

mawr gwdihw ## <tywi tyhw tywi tyhw> meddai ’r gwdihw a mae ’r bachgen bach
big owl said.3SG the owl and is.3SG the boy little
an owl. ‘<tywi tyhw tywi tyhw>’ said the owl and the little boy

yn cwympo lawr o ’r goeden # a ’r gwenyn yn mynd yn wyllt o-gwmpas #
PROG fall down from the \tree(f) and the bees PROG go ADV \wild around
falls down from the tree, and the bees go wild around,

<oh> mae ’r gwenyn yn dechrau mynd ar ôl y ci bach a mae ’r ci bach
is.3SG the bees PROG begin go on track the dog little and is.3SG the dog little
<oh> the bees start to go after the little dog and the little dog

yn rhedeg a rhedeg a rhedeg nerth ei draed mae rhaid i fi fynd mae
PROG run and run and run strength his \feet is.3SG necessity to I \go is.3SG
runs and runs and runs the strength of his feet ‘I have to go

rhaid i fi fynd dw i ’n ofn [//] mae ofn ‘da fi ’r gwenyn ‘ma ## a ’r
necessity to I \go is.1SG I PROG fear is.3SG fear with I the bees here and the
I have to go I’m [//] I’m afraid of these bees.’ And the

gwdihw yn chwilio am [//] gyda ’r bachgen bach yn chwilio am yr &ll [//] am y
owl PROG search for with the boy little PROG search for the for the
owl is searching for [//] with the little boy is searching for the &ll [//] for the

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llyffant ## maen nhw 'n mynd i ben y graig fawr # mae rhybeth tu ôl y
frog is.3PL they PROG go to \head the \rock(f) \big is.3SG something side track the
frog. They go to the top of a big rock, there is something behind the

graig hefyd ## ble yt ti llyffant bach ble yt ti mae 'r bachgen bach
\rock(f) also where is.2SG you frog little where is.2SG you is.3SG the boy little
rock too. 'Where are you little frog where are you' the little boy

yn galw ## ci bach yn chwilio # tylluan yn gwylio # ond dim sôn am y
PROG call dog little PROG search owl PROG watch but NEG mention about the
calls. Little dog searches, owl watches, but no sign of the

llyffant # <oh> # beth sy fan hyn ## wel wel wel # <o dear> <droi <off> ar munud #
frog what is.REL \place here well well well turn on minute
frog, <oh>, what is here. Well well well, <oh dear> <turn <off> for a minute,

dw i 'm cofio beth yw enw hwn> ### wel wel wel dyna fi wedi cael yng
is.1SG I NEG remember what COP name that well well well here's I PRF get my
I don't remember what the name for that is.> Well well well there I am

nghodi yn yr awyr ar ben y carw ac o-'n i 'n chwilio chwilio am llyffant
\raise in the air on \head the stag and was-1SG I PROG search search for frog
raised in the air on the stag's head and I was searching searching for a frog

mae [//] dyma beth ges i ond reid ar gefn y carw ## a mae 'r carw ar ei [/] ar ei
is.3SG here's what \got.1SG I but ride on \back the stag and is.3SG the stag on his on his
there's [//] here's what I got but a ride on the back of the stag. And the stag on his [/]

ôl i [//] ar ôl mynd ac yn mynd ac yn mynd â fi ar ben y carw a
track to on track go and PROG go and PROG go with I on \head the stag and
after him [//] after going and going and going with me on top of the stag and

[//] bachgen bach ar ben y carw yn rhedeg fel y gwynt # <oh dear> ## mae 'r carw
boy little on \head the stag PROG run like the wind is.3SG the stag
[//] little boy on top of the stag running like the wind, <oh dear>. The stag

wedi gollwng y bachgen bach dros ochr y dibyn a 'r ci wedi mynd hefyd # wel
PRF drop the boy little over side the precipice and the dog PRF go also well
has dropped the little boy over the side of the precipice and the dog has gone too, well

wel wel # dyna beth oedd antur fawr ## ac nawr maen nhw 'n lawr yn y
well well there's what was.3SG adventure \big and now is.3PL they PRED down in the
well well, that's what was a big adventure. And now they are down in the

[/] yn y goedwig mae 'r goedwig yn dywyll a 'r goedwig yn unig ble mae
in the \forest(f) is.3SG the \forest(f) PRED \dark and the \forest(f) PRED lonely where is.3SG
[/] in the forest the forest is dark and the forest is lonely where is

'r bachgen bach # ble mae 'r carw # a ble mae 'r ci # a ble mae 'r
the boy little where is.3SG the stag and where is.3SG the dog and where is.3SG the
the little boy, where is the stag, and where is the dog, and there is the

llyffant   <oh> <splash> # dyma nhw yn y   dŵr # ac   yn   hwylio i-ffwrdd yn y   dŵr
frog   here's they in the water and PROG sail   away   in the water
frog <oh> <splash>, here they are in the water, and sailing away in the water

<oh> maen nhw alreit   maen nhw 'n   eitha hapus # maen nhw 'n   ddiogel #   mae   'r
     is.3PL they alright is.3PL they PRED quite happy is.3PL they PRED \safe   is.3SG the
<oh> they are okey they are quite happy, they are safe, the

ci   a   bachgen bach yn   mynd lawr i 'r afon # <sh sh> meddai 'r bachgen bach wrth
dog and boy   little PROG go   down to the river   said.3SG the boy   little at
dog and little boy go down to the river, '<sh sh>' said the little boy to

y   ci # beth yn y   boncyff mawr yma? # fallai bod   y   llyffant mewn [//] tu   fewn i
the dig what in the trunk   big   here   maybe is.COMP the frog   in   side \in   to
the dog, 'what [is] in this big trunk?, maybe the frog is in [//] in side

hwn ## a   dyma nhw 'n   chwilio tu ôl   ac yn   chwilio tu   ôl # at ei xxx # a
this   and here's they PROG search side track and PROG look   side track to his   and
this.' And here they are searching behind and searching behind, to his xxx, and

beth ffeindi-on nhw ochr arall ond y   ddau   lyffant yn   hapus hapus braf nid un llyffant
what found-3PL they side other but the \two(m) \frog   PRED happy happy fine NEG one frog
what did they find on the other side but the two frogs very happy happy not one frog

ond dau lyffant # ac oedd   y llyffant oedd   yn y   cartre wedi dod-o-hyd-i ffrind
but dwo \frog   and was.3SG the frog   was.3SG in the home PRF find   friend
but two frogs, and the frog was who was in the home has found a friend

a   dyna ddiwedd y   stori ## <oh> teulu bach tu   ôl # mae rhagor i gael # a   dyma
and there's \end   the story   family little side track is.3SG more   to \get   and here's
and there's the end of the story. <Oh> a little fmaily behind, there's more, and here

nhw mynd â   'r bachgen bach a   'r ci i gwrdd â   'u   teulu i-gyd # teulu   o
they go   wtih the boy   little and the dog to \meet with their family all   family of
they take the little boy and the dog to meet all their family, family of

lyfantod yn   hapus i-gyd # <oh> diolch yn   fawr am ffeindio 'n ffrind i meddai 'r
frogs   PRED happy all   thanks ADV \big for find   my friend I said.3SG the
frogs [are] all happy, '<oh> thanks al lot for finding my friend' said the

bachgen bach # a   dyma 'r llyffant bach yn   penderfynu fynd i fynd adre   gyda 'r
boy   little and here's the frog   little PROG decide   \go to \go   homeward with the
the little boy, and here's the little frog deciding he si going to go mone with the

ci   a   ffwrdd â   nhw # hwyl fawr hwyl fawr a   diolch am eich cwmni ## ac
dog and away   with they   bye \big bye \big and thanks for your company and
dog and away with them, 'goodbye goodbye and thanks for your company.' And

oedd   yna   un llyffant bach ar   ôl
was.3SG there one frog   little on track
there was one little frog behind.

uh@fp oedd   y bachgen a   ’i gi wedi dala ’r broga a   wedi rhoi fe gadw mewn
        was.3SG the boy   and his \dog PRF catch the frog and PRF put he \keep in
Uh@fp the boy and his dog had caught the frog and put him to keep in

jar   wydr fawr oedd   y nos wedi dod ac oedd   y um@fp uh@fp gwisgo ar-gyfer
jar(f) \glass \big   was.3SG the night PRF come and was.3SG the   wear   for
a big glass jar the night had come and the [boy] dressed for

y gwely ond cyn   neud hynny uh@fp penderfynn-odd o ‘weud nos da   i-ddo fe ##
the bed   but before do   that   decided-3PL   he say night good to-him he
bed but before doing that uh@fp he decided to say good night to him.

tra   bod   y ci a   ’r bachgen yn   cysgu um@fp welodd   y broga gyfle i uh@fp[/]
while is.COMP the dog and the boy   PROG sleep   \saw-3SG the frog \chance to
Whilr the dog and the boy were sleeping um@fp the frog saw a chance to uh@fp

i diengyd o   ’r jar &s felly yn araf bach ac yn dawel iawn dyma fe ’n   cropian
to escape from the jar   so   ADV slow little and ADV \quiet very here’s he PROG crawl
[/] to escape from the jar &s so very slowly and very quietly here’s him crawling

mas o   ’r jar tra   bod   y ddau   arall yn   cysgu ’n sownd # erbyn y bore #
out from the jar while is.COMP the \two(m) other PROG sleep ADV sound   by   the morning
out of the jar while the other two are sleeping soundly, in the morning,

ddihunodd y bachgen a   ’i gi e a gweld bod   y jar yn wag   a ’r [/] y
\woke-3SG the boy   and his \dog he and see   is.COMP the jar PRED \empty and the   the
the boy and his dog woke up and see that the jar is empty and the [/] the

ffenest   tipyn-bach ar agor # roedd   e wedi cael uh@fp [//] gaeth e sioc   fawr #
window little-bit   on open   was.3SG he PRF get   \got.3SG he shock \big
window a little bit open, he had got uh@fp [//] he got a big shock,

felly dyma fe ’n uh@fp codi o   ’r gwely a uh@fp gwisgo ei ddillad yn uh@fp gyflym
so   here’s he PROG   rise from the bed and   wear his \clothes ADV   \fast
so here he is uh@fp rising from bed and uh@fp dressing in his clothes uh@fp very quickly

iawn tra   bod   y ci yn   chwilio yn y jar i weld um@fp le   oedd   y broga
very while is.COMP the dog PROG look   in the jar to \see   where was.3SG the frog
while the dog looks in the jar to see um@fp where the frog

wedi mynd # trio cael uh@fp gwynt y broga # um@fp yn   anffodus aeth   y jar yn
PRF go   try get   smell the frog   ADV unfortunate went.3SG the jar PRED
had gone, trying to get uh@fp the smell of the frog, um@fp unfortunately the jar went

sownd ar ben y ci # um@fp ac yn y cyfamser # agor-odd   y bachgen y ffenest
sound on \head the dog   and in the meantime opened-3SG the boy   the window
stuck on the the dog’s head, um@fp and in the meantime, the boy opened the window

a   gweiddi mas um@fp ar y   broga # ble   wyt   ti # oedd   y ci um@fp yn uh@fp
and shout   out   on the frog   where is.2SG you   was.3SG the dog   PROG
and shouts out um@fp for the frog, 'where are you,' the dog was um@fp uh@fp

[//] wedi xxx mas o   'r ffenest a cwympo i-lawr uh@fp i 'r llawr   uh@fp oedd
      PRF   out from the window and fall   down   to the ground   was.3SG
[//] had xxx out of the window and fallen down uh@fp to the ground uh@fp

y   bachgen yn   edrych yn uh@fp boenus iawn # a   dyma 'r ci yn uh@fp glanio
the boy   PROG look   PRED \worried very   and here's the dog PROG   land
the boy was looking uh@fp very worried, and here's the dog uh@fp landing

ar y   llawr uuh@fp mae 'r jar yn   torri yn ddarnau mân a   mae 'r uh@fp bachgen
on the ground   is.3SG the jar PROG break in \pieces fine and is.3SG the   boy
on the ground uuh@fp the jar breaks in little pieces and the uh@fp boy

yn   dod mas drwy 'r ffenest a   rhoi uh@fp [/] rhoi cwtch i 'r ci ond &ma uh@fp
PROG come out through the window and put   put hug   to the dog but
comes out through the window and puts uh@fp [/] puts a hug to the dog but &ma uh@fp

mae 'n   edrych yn   grac hefyd wrth y   ci mae 'r ci yn   llyo y bachgen #
is.3SG PROG look   PRED \angry also at the dog is.3SG the dog PROG lick the boy
he looks angry also with the dog the dog licks the boy,

i 'u ddangos bod   e 'n   iawn # felly aeth uh@fp y ddau   mas o 'r dŷ um@fp yn
to his \show is.COMP he PRED okey   so   went.3SG   the \two(m) out from the \house(m) in
to show him that he's okey, so the two uh@fp went out of the house um@fp in

yr [/] yn yr ardd   i chwilio am y   broga # uh@fp oedd   y [/] y bachgen yn   gweiddi
the   in the \garden(f) to search for the frog   was.3SG the   the boy   PROG shout
the [/] in the garden to search for the frog, uh@fp the [/] the boy was shouting

ym mhobman a   'r ci   yn uh@fp defnyddio ei drwyn i gael uh@fp gwynt y   broga ##
in\ \everywhere and the dog PROG   use   his \nose to \get   smell the frog
everywhere and the dog was uh@fp using his nose to get uh@fp the smell of the frog.

um@fp ffeindi-on nhw ddim-byd yn yr ardd   felly # uh@fp aeth-on nhw i 'r goedwig
        found-3PL they \nothing in the \garden(f) so   went-3PL they to the \forest(f)
Um@fp they found nothing in the garden so, uh@fp they went to the forest

i chwilio yn ddyfn-ach   am y   broga uum@fp edrych-odd y   bachgen i-lawr twll [/] twll
to search in \deep-er   for the frog   looked-3SG the boy   down hole   hole
to search deeper for the frog uum@fp he boy looked down a hole [/] a rabbits'

cwningod fel oedd   e 'n   meddwl i weld a oedd   y broga yn   cwato yn y   twll
rabbits   like was.3SG he PROG think to \see if was.3SG the frog PROG hide   in the hole
hole like he was thinking to see whether the frog hiding in the hole.

a   'r uh@fp [//] aeth   y ci i um@fp [/] i goeden le   oedd   um@fp nyth cacwn
   and the   went.3SG the dog to   to \tree where was.3SG   nest wasps
And the uh@fp [//] the dog went to um@fp [/] to a tree where there was um@fp a wasps' nest

yn   hongian ## uh@fp gaeth   y bachgen um@fp sioc achos dim broga 'na   cwningen
PROG hang   \got.3SG the boy   shock because NEG frog   there rabbit
hanging. Uh@fp the boy got um@fp a shock because [there was] no frog there [it was] a rabbit

oedd   yn   byw yn uh@fp [/] yn y   twll ond rhyw-fath o rhywbeth   fel um@fp uh@fp
was.3SG PROG live in   in the hole but   some-sort of something like
who was living in uh@fp [/] in the hole but somesort of something like um@fp uh@fp

llygoden fawr ond ddim llygoden fawr oedd   e um@fp # rhywbeth   fel um@fp <prairie dog>
mouse(f) \big but NEG mouse(f) \big was.3SG he   something like
a rat but it was not a rat, um@fp something like um@fp, a <prairie dog>

neu rhywbeth   fel 'ny   uh@fp a   mae 'r ci yn   mynd yn   wyllt uh@fp ac   yn
or   something like that   and is.3SG the dog PROG go   PRED \wild   and PROG
or something like that uh@fp and the dog goes wild uh@fp and

dechrau uh@fp [//] ac yn   hyrddu y   cacwn um@fp wrth fod   e 'n um@fp uh@fp uh@fp
begin   and PROG hurl   the wasps   as \is.COMP he PROG
starts uh@fp and [//] hurls the wasps um@fp as he's um@fp uh@fp uh@fp

cyfarth ## uh@fp yn y   diwedd um@fp oedd   y   ci wedi siglo 'r goeden a   gymaint xxx
bark   in the end   was.3SG the dog PRF shake the \tree(f) and \so.many
barking. Uh@fp in the end um@fp the dog had shaken the tree and so many xxx

nyth wedi cwympo i 'r   llawr   a daeth   y uh@fp uh@fp [/] y &cwning [//] y cacwn mas
nest PRF fall   to the ground and came.3SG the   the   the wasps out
nest had fallen to the ground and the uh@fp uh@fp [/] the &cwning [//] the wasps came out

yn   grac grac iawn ## yn y   cyfamser aeth   y bachgen yn uh@fp ddyfn-ach yn
PRED \angry \angry very   in the meantime went.3SG the boy   PRED   \deep-er in
very very agry. In the meantime the boy went uh@fp deeper in

y   goedwig a   ffeindi-odd e goeden fawr hen hen iawn um@fp a   twll yn ei chanol
the \forest(f) and found-3SG he \tree(f) \big old old very   and hole in her \center
the forest and he found a very very old big tree um@fp and a hole in the middle of

hi   uh@fp felly benderfyn-odd e ddringo 'r goeden ac edrych i mewn yn y   twll
she   so   \decided-3SG he \climb the \tree(f) and look   to in   in the hole
it uh@fp so he decided to climb the tree and look into the hole

i weld a   oedd   y broga yn   cwato ond nage gwdihw oedd   yn   byw yn
to \see whether was.3SG the frog PROG hide   but no   owl   was.3SG PROG live in
to see whether the frog was hiding but no it was an owl living in

y [/] yn y   goeden a   mae 'r uh@fp [//] daeth   y gwdihw mas yn   grac hefyd achos
the in the \tree(f) and is.3SG the   came.3SG the owl   out PRED \angry also because
the [/] in the tree and the uh@fp [//] the owl came out angry too because

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um@fp bod　　　hi　'n　trio cysgu yn y　dydd # ar yr un　pryd uh@fp ddaeth　　haid　o
　　　　is.COMP she PROG try　sleep in　the day　　on the one time　　　　\came.3SG swarm of
um@fp she was trying to sleep in the day, at the same time uh@fp a swarm of

&wen [/] o [/] o　gacwn heibio hefyd　y　cacwn oedd　　y　ci　bach wedi um@fp uh@fp
　　　　of　of \wasps past　also　　the wasps was.3SG the dog little PRF
&wen [/] of [/] of wasps came past also the wasps that the little dog had um@fp uh@fp

[/] wedi neud yn　grac ## felly gwymp-odd y　bachgen i-lawr o　　'r brigyn ar y　llawr
　PRF　do　PRED \angry so　\fell-3SG　　the boy　　down from the branch on the ground
[/] had made angry. So the boy fell down from the branch on the ground

ac # uh@fp rhed-odd y　ci　bach yn　gyflym iawn heibio um@fp achos　bod　　　y　cacwn
and　　　ran-3SG the dog little ADV \fast　very past　　　　　because is.COMP the wasps
and, uh@fp the little dog ran very quickly past um@fp because the wasps were

yn　dal　　i chaso fe ## um@fp oedd　y　gwdihw yn　grac　hefyd um@fp felly
PROG continue to chase he　　　　was.3SG the owl　PRED \angry also　　　so
still chasing him. Um@fp the owl was angry too um@fp so

oedd　　rhaid　i　'r bachgen uh@fp rhedeg a　rhed-odd e　hyd　at um@fp uuh@fp carreg
was.3SG necessity to the boy　　　run　and ran-3SG he length to　　　　rock(f)
the boy had to uh@fp run and he ran to um@fp uuh@fp a big

fawr # uh@fp tu　ôl　　i　'r carreg uh@fp oedd uh@fp beth　oedd　　e　'n uh@fp meddwl
\big　　　side track to the rock(f)　　　was.3SG　what was.3SG he PROG　　think
rock, uh@fp behond the rock uh@fp there was uh@fp what he thought uh@fp

oedd　　brigau uh@fp [/] brigau coeden fach ond # felly # dring-odd　e i ben　y　garreg
was.3SG twigs　　　　　twigs tree(f) \little but　so　　climbed-3SG he to \head the \rock(f)
were twigs uh@fp [/] little tree twiga but, so, he climbed to the top of the rock

i　weiddi yn　uchel am y　broga # ond ffeindi-odd e　taw　　carw oedd　　tu　ôl
to \shout ADV high　for the frog　　but found-3SG he is.COMP stag　was.3SG side track
to shout loudly for the frog, but he found that it was a stag behind

i　'r　garreg　　um@fp ac uh@fp oedd　　y　carw ddim yn　　hapus ei　hunan # uh@fp ac
to the \rock(f)　　　　and　　　was.3SG the stag　NEG　PRED happy his self　　　　and
the rock um@fp and uh@fp the stag wasn't happy himself, uh@fp and

uh@fp wedi codi 'r uh@fp y　bachgen bach uh@fp ar ei　ben　â　'i gyrn　e # a　dechrau
　　　PRF　raise the　　　the boy　　little　　　on his \head with his \horns he　and begin
uh@fp had raised the uh@fp the little boy uh@fp on his head with his horns, and begins

rhedeg bant um@fp uh@fp gyda 'r　bachgen bach ar ei　ben　e　a　'r ci　bach yn <chas>-o
run　　off　　　　　　　with the boy　　little on his \head he　and the dog little PROG　-INF
to run off um@fp uh@fp with the little boy on his head and the little dog chasing

a　cyfarth # uum@fp ond oedd　　y　carw um@fp fallai　yn [//] ddim yn　gallu [/] gallu
and bark　　　　　　but was.3SG the stag　　　　maybe PROG NEG PROG able　　able
and barking, uum@fp the stag was um@fp maybe [//] not able [/] able

gweld yn   glur um@fp uh@fp oedd   e 'n   rhedeg tua um@fp cwympod mawr ## ar y
see   ADV \clear   was.3SG he PROG run   toward   fall   big   on the
to see clearly um@fp uh@fp he was running toward um@fp a big fall. At the

funud   ola # mae 'r uh@fp uh@fp [//] llwydd-odd   y carw i stopio ond aeth   y ci
\minute last is.3SG the   succeeded-3SG the stag to stop   but went.3SG the dog
last minute, the uh@fp uh@fp [//] the stag succeeded in stopping but the dog

a 'r bachgen dros ben   y &ca [/] y carw ac i-lawr uh@fp i mewn i # pwll o ddŵr mae
and the boy   over \head the   the stag and down   to in   to pool of water is.3SG
and the boy went over the head of the &ca [/] the stag down uh@fo into, a pool of water

'n   edrych fel ## uh@fp yng gnhanol y goedwig uh@fp dywyll iawn um@fp oedd
PROG look   like   in\ \center the \forest(f)   \dark very   was.3SG
[it] looks like. Uh@fp in the middle of the uh@fp very dark forest um@fp there was

neb   arall i weld uh@fp yn y llun   dim ond uh@fp dŵr a uh@fp coeden a um @fp
no.one other to \see   in the picture NEG but   water and   tree   and
no one else to see uh@fp in the picture only uh@fp water and uh@fp a tree and um@fp

pethau eraill yn   tyfu # <ah> reit cyrrhaedd-odd y bachgen uh@fp uh@fp y pwll a
things other PROG grow   right   arrived-3SG the boy   the pool and
other things growing, <ah> right the boy arrived at uh@fp uh@fp the pool and

gyda <splash> uh@fp fawr # um@fp a 'r ci ar y bachgen ## uh@fp oedd um@fp y
with   \big   and the dog on the boy   was.3SG   the
with a uh@fp big <splash>, um@fp and the dog on the boy. Uh@fp the um@fp

dŵr ddim yn ddwfn iawn uh@fp felly uh@fp feindi-odd y bachgen hunan yn   saff
water NEG PRED \deep very   so   found-3SG the boy   self PRED safe
water wasn't very deep uh@fp so uh@fp the boy found himself safe

a [/] ac edrych-odd e rownd y pwll i weld beth uh@fp oedd   yn byw uh@fp yn-ddo
and   and looked-3SG he around the pool to \see what   was.3SG PROG live   in-it
and [/] and he looked around the pool to see what uh@fp was living uh@fp in it,

fe # uh@fp wel-odd e tu ôl i hen um@fp goeden wedi cwympo lawr   wedi pydru
he   saw-3SG he side track to old   \tree PRF fall   down   PRF rot
uh@fp he saw behind a uh@fp old fallen down tree rotten

uh@fp oedd   e 'n   meddwl fallai bod   y broga tu ôl # felly mae e 'n   gweud
      was.3SG he PROG think maybe is.COMP the frog side track so is.3SG he PROG say
uh@fp he thought maybe the frog was behind, so he tells

wrth y ci am gadw 'n   dawel dawel iawn # ac mae 'r ci a 'r bachgen yn   araf
to   the dog about \keep PRED \quiet \quiet very   and is.3SG the dog and the boy   ADV slow
the dog to keep very very quiet, and the dog and the boy slowly

edrych dros y goeden a# ffeindio dau froga um@fp # ei froga e a fallai um@fp gwraig
look over the \tree and find two \frog his \frog he and maybe wife
look over the tree and, find two frogs um@fp, his frog and maybe um@fp the wife

neu rywbeth y [/] y broga a wedi cwato yn y pren oedd teulu bach o brogaed
or something the the frog and PRF hide in the wood was.3SG family little of frogs
or something of the [/] the frog and hidden in the wood was a little family of frogs

hefyd # felly oedd y bachgen yn hapus iawn a 'r ci yn edrych yn syn i
also so was.3SG the boy PRED happy very and the dog PROG look PRED amazed to
also, so he boy was very happy and the dog looking amazed to

weld sut gymaint o frogaed yn yr un uh@fp fan # mae un o [/] o 'r frogaed yn
\see how \so.many of \frogs in the one \place is.3SG one of of the \frogs PROG
see how many frogs in the same uh@fp place, one of [/] of the frogs

dewis mynd gyda 'r uh@fp bachgen 'n ôl i dŷ e um@fp ac uh@fp droi-odd y
choose go with the boy in track to \house he and \turned-3SG the
chooses to go with the uh@fp boy back to his house um@fp and uh@fp the boy

bachgen uh@fp o-gwmpas i ddweud ffarwel wrth y teulu o frogaed # uh@fp oedd
boy around to \say goodbye to the family of \frogs was.3SG
turned uh@fp around to say goodbye to the family of frogs, uh@fp

y ci yn edrych yn hapus iawn uh@fp bod nhw wedi uh@fp llwyddo i ffeindio
the dog PROG look PRED happy very is.COMP they PRF succeed to find
the dog looked very happy uh@fp that they had uh@fp succeeded in finding

y broga unwaith eto ar ôl antur hir ## ac mae 'r brogaed i-gyd yn eistedd
the frog once again on track adventure long and is.3SG the frogs all PROG sit
the frog once again after a long adventure. And all the frogs sit

ar ben y [/] yr hen goeden i weld y bachgen a ci yn gadael ond mae un broga
on \head the the old \tree to \see the boy and dog PROG leave but is.3SG one frog
on top of the [/] the old tree to see the boy and dog leave but one little frog

bach ar y gwaelod sy 'n fallai rhy fach i ddringo lan i eistedd gyda 'r [//] gyda
little on the bottom is.REL PRED maybe too \little to \climb up to sit with the with
on the bottom who is maybe too little to climb up to sit with the [//] with

gweddill y teulu mae 'n edrych bach yn drist ac yn gofyn am help ## y
remainder the family is.3SG PROG look little PRED \sad and PROG ask for help the
the rest of the family [he] looks a little sad and asks for help. The

diwedd
end
end.

Transcription Abbreviations

In the line of sample text and in glosses:

\#   pause - each '#' indicates, roughly, a length of one second. (# is translated as a comma, '##', '###', or more, as a period.)
All pauses are considered utterance boundaries.

@fp   filled pause (um@fp, uh@fp, etc.)

&   fragment or false start ("... &p rhan o'r teulu ...")

[/]   retracing ("mae e'n [/] mae e'n ...")

[//]   retracing with correction ("mae e'n [//] mae hi'n ...")

[ ]   incomplete or missing text ("...idd[i] hi...") (not indicated if the abbreviated form is common and easily recognized in baseline speech as well, in which case an apostrophe marks the elision)
in the translation line, indicates something implied but missing in the text

xxx   unintelligible speech, muttering, etc.
in the line of glosses, also indicates nonsense Welsh (e.g. "rhodog" for "rhedeg")

< >   fillers (<chimod>, <dw i'n credu>)
placeholders ("<fe> sy'n dweud, y bachgen")
English codeswitches ("mae fe'n <trying to hold it>")
animal noises or other sound effects
names or place-names that need no translation

[%]   comments by the translator

-       separates segmentable morphemes of a single word (e.g. *cwymp-odd*)
connects compound prepositions (single gloss for two morphemes, e.g *o-gwbl* 'at all')

( )   interjections from the interviewer are set off in parentheses within the text

?   indicates hesitation or questioning intonation in the recording

In the line of glosses only:

\   marks initial mutations (e.g. 'his \head' under *ei ben*)
(there is no indication of a failure to mutate when it would have been grammatically motivated. These glosses are not a complete grammatical analysis.)

AFF   pre-verbal affirmative particle

PST   past - indicates past tense on a verb when the metalanguage gloss does not indicate that itself

(m)   male gender (Gender is only marked in the gloss when a mutation has, or should have, occurred.)

(f)   female gender (Gender is only marked in the gloss when a mutation has, or should have, occurred.)

Q   indicates that the form of the verb used is a question or yes/no form (forms of *bod* only)

(otherwise following Leipzig Glossing Rules)

The translation is an English rendering as close to the Welsh text as possible. It does not capture all the grammatical deviations which may be in the (especially heritage) Welsh, but wherever it was possible to indicate irregularity, I have done my best to show it in the English translation.

Variations in pronunciation are not indicated in these transcriptions.

In some instances, the speaker's intended meaning is not entirely clear. What I have written are my best conjectures.

The comments by the interviewer which are not intelligible in these transcriptions - (xxx) - are excluded from the speaker's time.