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Mūöt (Nicobarese)[1]

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Abstract
The paper presents a sketch of the Mūöt language of the Nicobar islands (also known as Nancowry or Central Nicobarese), and is a synthesis of earlier studies and the latest available synchronic data. Mūöt is a small endangered language, and present various remarkable typological characteristics, especially in the wider context of Austroasiatic typology., such as VOS word order, highly inflected morphology, and highly constrained syllable structure. The present sketch is unique in being the only linguistic description of Mūöt published in English in more than three decades.
Keywords: Nicobarese, syntax, phonology, morphology
iso 639-3 codes: ncb

1. Introduction

Mūöt (ISO 639–3 ncb) is one of the Nicobarese languages of ethnic Nicobarese of Nicobar Archipelago, India. The language has generally been referred to as Nancowry or Central Nicobarese in the linguistic literature, but in the present work Mūöt is adopted as it is the usual autonym. The Nicobar Archipelago is a chain of twenty two islands – with thirteen inhabited– lying North to South in the Bay of Bengal (the thirteen inhabited islands are Car Nicobar, Chowra, Teressa, Bompoka, Nancowry, Katchal, Kamorta, Trinket, Tillong Chong, Kondul, Pulomilo, Little Nicobar and Great Nicobar. Among them Tillong Chong is devoid of ethnic inhabitants, see Map 1). Mūöt is spoken by those who presently inhabit the islands of Nancowry, Katchal and Kamorta (which fall between 93°22 and 93°34´50 longitude and 7°56 and 8°08 latitude). Till 2004, prior to tsunami, speakers of the language were also living on Trinket. After the tsunamic devastation, the Indian Administration had to declare the island as inhospitable and the surviving inhabitants were settled down in neighboring Kamorta Island. The Administration has named their new habitation in Kamorta as Vikas Nagar. As per the 2001 census, the total number of people who speak Mūöt stands as 5826 spreading over a geographical area of 515.8 Sq kms.

Historically the speakers of the language have been in persistent contact with outsiders.[2]This was with traders, government representatives and missionaries until the middle of the twentieth century, and more latterly was with government representatives, researchers and designated welfare agencies in the post independent period. Such contacts have left their imprints on the vocabulary of the language. The presence of lexical items as mɑlɑˑkkɑ ‘a village’, t̪ɑnɑmɑːɹɑ ‘a wooden fetish’, cɑnɑː ‘bengal gram’, pupɑˑj ‘papaya’, mɑˑŋkɑ‘mango’ and jãˑŋ‘tobacco leaf in the present day language are indicative.[3]

The language is a member of the Nicobarese branch of the Austroasiatic phylum, this fact being evident from the richness of Austroasiatic roots in the lexicon and morphological characteristics such as nasal infixes. Linguistically, Mūöt is marked by typological characteristics such as the following:

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[1] The present sketch was originally intended for inclusion in the Brill “Handbook of the Austroasiatic Languages” (published December 2015). However, the text took longer to prepare than intended and was not received by the editors in time for inclusion. Consequently, one of the Brill volume editors, Paul Sidwell, extensively edited the present sketch in collaboration with the author to produce the paper presented here.

[2] The term ‘outsiders’ here refers to those who are outside of Nicobar archipelago as well as to those who are inside of Nicobar archipelago but outside of the four islands.

[3] Mɑlɑˑkkɑ is said to be from the Malay word Malacca that refers to ‘a place’, t̪ɑnɑmɑːɹɑ from the Danish word Denmark that refers to ‘a place’, cɑnɑː from the Indo-Aryan Hindi word channa that refers to the pulse ‘Bengal gram’, pupɑˑj from the Portuguese word pawpaw that refers to ‘papaya’, mɑˑŋkɑ from the Dravidian Tamil word mɑˑŋkɑˑj that refers to ‘mango’ and jãˑŋfrom Car Nicobarese, that refers to ‘tobacco leaf’.

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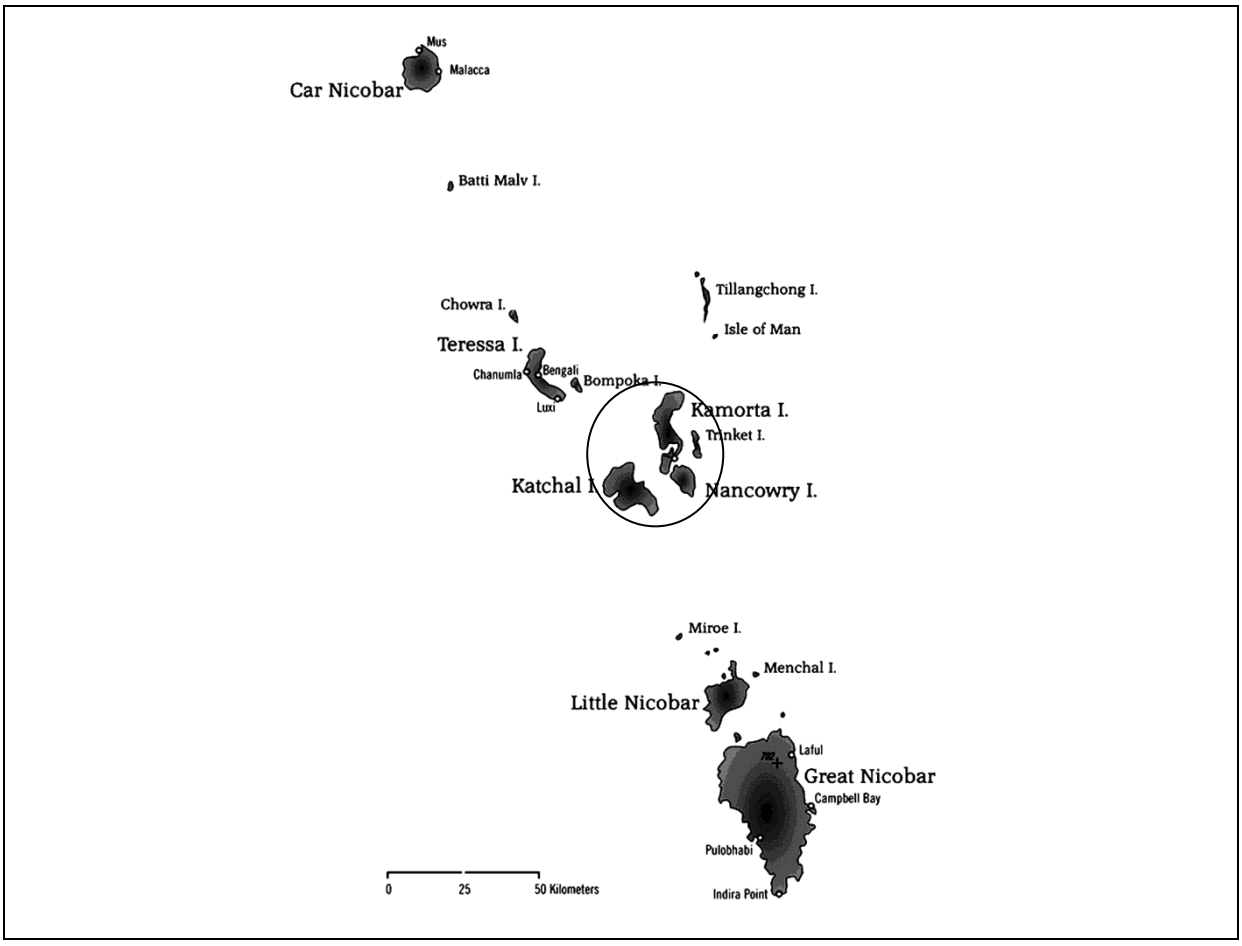
- The language is of Verb–Object–Subject syntactic pattern.
- The language marks eight case relationships, namely, nominative, accusative, dative, instrumental, comitative, possessive, ablative and locative. Among these, except nominative and possessive, all the others are found marked with distinct markers. The possessive is realized by juxtaposing the possessed and the possessor in the possessed+possessor pattern and the nominative by virtue of being an agent to an action.
- The pronouns do not exhibit any phonological change while taking case markers.
- Three tenses are recognised, present, past and future. The present tense is found left unmarked, while the past and the future are obligatorily marked.
- The constituents of adverbial clauses are found to reorder quite freely.
- Morphology is affixal and agglutinative.
- Four kinds of affixes, namely, prefix, infix, suffix and replacive are identified.
- All lexical roots and affixes are monosyllabic, and lexical roots are basically verbal.
- Syllable structure is quite simple; there are no consonant clusters within syllables, and stressed syllables tend to conserve length (i.e. CV:, CV·C) while other syllables are CV(C).
- Lexical roots are typically stressed within a word, although suffixes are found stressed occasionally.
- The phonemic inventory includes a large set of monophthongs and diphthongs, and nasalization is contrastive in lexical roots.



Map 1: Nicobar Archipelago with Mūöt area circled

Data collection for this project

The present study combines insights from earlier studies (de Röepstorff 1875 and 1884, Man 1889, and Radhakrishnan 1981, reviewed latter in this work) and the latest available synchronic data.

The latter have been drawn from the Andaman Commissioned Project data base built up with the data collected as part of the collaborative program entered into by the Union Territory Administration of the Andaman and Nicobar Islands with the Central Institute of Indian Languages, Mysore. The objective of the collaboration is to bring out a Linguistic Description of Mūöt so as to enable the Union Territory Administration to initiate steps for the educational and economic development of its speakers.

The Nancowry Island, with an ethnic human population of 881 over a geographical area of 66.9 Sq. kms and which is said to be the seat of local administration of the four islands during the colonial era, was selected as the field location. Mr. Mark Paul, a native of this island, aged 60 years with the educational qualification of Higher Secondary School Examination passed became the informant.[4] The CIIL questionnaire comprising a word list of 4202 words and a sentence list of 1555 sentences was made use of for the purpose. The data have been collected between September 19th and December 26th of 2004, independently by the author both by observation and elicitation besides recording them in magnetic tapes. During the entire period of field work the author had to stay with the speakers day and night, being immersed into their language and culture.

The launching of linguistic description of Mūöt is conceived of as part of a larger objective of bringing out descriptive accounts on all the Nicobarese languages.[5] Hence, attempts have already been initiated for collecting data from three more languages also with the author visiting the area of Tökahāṅilāhngö (Great Nicobarese) and his colleague Winston Cruz, visiting the areas of Sanënyö (Chowra Nicobarese) and Lamòngsĕ (Kondul Nicobarese). All the data thus collected are the property of Central Institute of Indian Languages, Mysore and they are marked as Andaman Commissioned Project data in order to differentiate them from the others. The author has been permitted by the Institute to use the data for realizing the avowed objective.

Previous work on the language

While the present sketch is based substantially on data the author has collected in the field, one has also existing publications, which are themselves quite substantial, for reference purposes. Principally they are:

- *Vocabulary of Dialects spoken in Nicobar and Andaman Isles* by de Röepstorff (1875),
- *A Dictionary of the Nancowry Dialect of the Nicobarese Language* by de *Röepstorff* (1884),
- *A Dictionary of the Central Nicobarese Language* by Man (1889) and
- *The Nancowry word, Phonology, Affixal morphology and Roots of A Nicobarese Language* by Radhakrishnan (1981)

The above works are classics, which continue to throw lights on the structure of the language.

de Röepstorff (1875)

Although de Röepstorff (1875) doesn't make any formal statement on the structure of language, from his vocabulary on **THE NANCOWRY DIALECT**, it is possible to deduce information concerning its phonology, morphology and syntax. Vocabulary transcription makes use of twenty eight consonants, thirty one simple vowels and a host of complex vowels. The similarity these consonantal and simple vowel sounds share with the consonants and vowels of the present day language in semantically identifiable words enables one to assume their phonetic properties. Example of such word comparisons are given in below, followed by corresponding consonant and vowel values.

[4] He, and only he, was authorized by the Tribal Council of the Island to work as informant.

[5] To determine the number of Nicobarese languages, a survey was conducted as part of this collaborative program between August 11th and October 24th of 2002, by the author along with his colleague Winston Cruz, covering all the twelve islands inhabited by the ethnic Nicobarese. The yet to be published report of the survey enables to fix the number of languages tentatively as six, the other five being, Pū (Car Nicobarese), Sanënyö (Chowra Nicobarese), Luröö (Teressa Nicobarese), Lamôngsĕ (Kondul/Little Nicobarese) and Tökahāṅilāhngö (Great Nicobarese). The survey excludes Shompen.

Table 1: de Röepstorff (1875) words illustrating segmental values

Consonants & simple vowels	de Röepstorff (1875)	Present day Mūöt	Gloss
p	kantjap (p40)	kincɑ·p	button
t	top (p50)	ʈo·p	drink
ch	tjok (p28)	cə·k	ache
k	tjok (p28)	cə·k	ache
m	tjīm (p46)	ci·m	cry
n	nang (p50)	nɑ·ŋ	ear
gn	gñi (p28)	ɲi:	abode
ng	jang (p62)	jɑ·ŋ	hear
l	kamili (p55)	kɑmili:	fighting cap
f	fuan (p113)	fu·ɑn	four
v	jéav (p29)	je·ɑʊ	alligator
s	sajōw (p91)	sɑjo·ʊ	sack
r	lepré (p37)	le:pəɹe	book
h	hamā (p32)	xɑmɑ:	ask
j	jéav (p29)	je·ɑʊ	alligator
i	gñi (p28)	ɲi:	abode
u	kanjut (p44)	kinju·t	coat
œ	hœi (p53)	xɯ·j	far
e	jéav (p29)	je·ɑʊ	alligator
ò	ôt (p34)	ʔɔ·t	be
æ	akæ (p35)	ʔɑkɛ:	betel leaf
o	ōk (p33)	ʔo·k	back
a	hamā (p32)	xɑmɑ:	ask

Table 2: de Röepstorff (1875) assumed consonant values

Bilabial	Labio–dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar
p [b] [p]		t [d], [d^{h}], [t]		c [ch], [dj], [tj]	k [g], [g^{h}], [k]
m			n	ɲ [ñ], [gñ], [gn]	ŋ [ñg], [ng]
			l		
	f	s [sh], [s]	ɹ [r]		x [h]
	ʊ [w], [v]			j [y], [j]	

Table 3: de Röepstorff (1875) assumed vowel values

i [ī], [ii], [ìì], [i]		ɯ [œ]	u [ū], [ù], [ú], [u]
e [ē], [ee], [é], [ée], [e]			o [ō], [oo], [oō], [ōo], [o]
	ə [o]		
ɛ [æ]			ɔ [ó], [ô], [ò]
		ɑ [ă], [ā], [aa], [á], [aá], [à], [àa], [a]	

The complex vowels of the vocabulary can be phonetically classed into four groups as follows:

- ié, ué, etc., in such words as piét ‘dust’ and kajué ‘fight’;
- ei, oi, etc., in such words as jokoleit ‘wash the body’ and kanhoin ‘shirt’;
- eô, in such word as aheôl ‘shellfish’;
- ui, oe, etc., in such words as duinde ‘row with paddle’ and hoeng ‘breath’.

Besides, it is possible to find instances of phonological process of free variation and morphophonemic process of gemination also. The attestation of words such as doochool and toochool

both referring to 'darkness' can be said of as substantiating the process of free variation, while that of words such as mattai to refer to 'village' can be said of as substantiating the process of gemination.[6]

Concerning word formation, it is possible to deduce structure of words as consisting of roots and affixes and the formation of compounds as involving case relationship. The attestation of words like katang 'fence', fanue 'string', ketjalde 'swim' etc., can be taken as instances of word formation with roots and affixes,[7] while that of those such as tjok koi 'head ache' as instances of compound formation involving case relationship.[8] Moreover, the vocabulary is not found lagging in providing information on syntax also. The use of the sentences ju tju 'I am off' (ibid.p80) and tjit akah 'I do not know' (ibid.p79) would speak of the structure of a declarative simple sentence as **verb+subject** pattern with verb as the starting word and that of a negative sentence as **negator+verb** pattern with negative marker as the starting word.

de Röepstorff (1884)

de Röepstorff's (1884) dictionary similarly does not give formal statements about the structure of language, yet, it is possible to make various deductions on its phonology, morphology and syntax from the words made use of in the dictionary and the notes provided in it. The dictionary seems to make use of twenty consonants, twenty simple vowels and a host of complex vowels. The similarity these consonantal and simple vowel sounds share with the consonants and vowels of the present day language in semantically identifiable words enables one to assume their phonetic properties. Examples of such word comparisons are given in below, followed by corresponding consonant and vowel values.

Table 4: de Röepstorff (1884) words illustrating segmental values

Consonants & simple vowels	**de Röepstorff (1884)**	**Present day Mūöt**	**Gloss**
p	kanap (p54)	kɑnɑˑp	tooth
t	mātai (p78)	mɑ̪tɑˑj	village
ti	tiāl (p110)	cɑˑl	flame
k	halāk (p23)	xɑlɑˑk	staircase
m	am (p3)	ʔɑˑm	dog
n	fanāh (p15)	fɑnɑˑx	brush
gn	gñi (p19)	ɲiː	house
ng	heng (p30)	xeˑŋ	sun
l	fūl (p17)	fuˑl	east
f	fanāh (p15)	fɑnɑˑx	brush
w	iwi(p44)	ʔiʋiː	spirit
s	isāt (p42)	ʔisɑˑt	seven
r	rām (p96)	ɹɑˑm	night
h	halāk (p23)	xɑlɑˑk	staircase
i	gñi (p19)	ɲiː	house
u	ilū (p40)	ʔiluː	bachelor
ü	gnü (p19)	ɲʉ̃ː	fine
e	heng (p30)	xeˑŋ	sun
ö	kamilök (p53)	kɑmiləˑk	worm
æ	kahæ (p50)	kɑxɛ̃ː	when

[6] The sketch grammar arrived at here treats gemination as a sort of free variation.

[7] According to the sketch grammar arrived at here, the morphemic structure of katang 'fence' can be stated as consisting of the prefix ka- 'DIRADR, $DIST_3$' followed by the root -tang 'to fence', that of fanue 'string' as consisting of the root fue 'to tie' and the infix <an> 'resultative marker' and that of ketjalde 'swim' as consisting of the prefix ke-'DIRADR, $DIST_1$' followed by the root -tjal- 'to swim' which is followed by the suffix -de 'agentive marker'.

[8] According to the sketch grammar arrived at here, the case relationship which binds the two words tjok 'ache' and koi 'head' can be said of as locative.

o	tom (p115)	t̪oˑm	bunch
a	am (p3)	ʔɑˑm	dog

Table 5: de Röepstorff (1884) assumed consonant values

Bilabial	Labio–dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	velar
p [b], [p]		t [d], [t]		c [ch], [ti]	k [g], [k]
m			n	ɲ [gñ], [gn]	ŋ [ng]
			l		
	f	s [sh], [s]	ɹ [r]		x [h]
	ʋ [w]				

Table 6: de Röepstorff (1884) assumed vowel values

i [ī], [í], [i]		ɯ [ü]	u [ū], [u]
e [ē], [é], [ĕ], [e]			o [ō], [ŏ], [ó] [o]
	ə [ö]		
ɛ [œ], [æ]			
		ɑ [ă], [ā], [a]	

The complex vowels of the vocabulary can be phonetically classed into four groups as follows:

- ie, ūĕ, etc., seen in words such as kāfiethange ‘to stick in’ and karūĕ ‘whale’;
- ai, ōi, etc., seen in words such as main ‘shark’ and manōing ‘lip’;
- iu, ēo, etc., seen in words such as omium ‘undeveloped fruit of plantain tree’ and dēo ‘a species of fish’;
- ōĕ seen in words henpōĕl ‘a snare to catch birds’.

Additionally, it is possible to deduce instances of the morphophonemic process of gemination also. The attestation of the word such as kammili to refer to ‘fighting cap’ is offered as an example.

With respect to formation of word, the introductory note gives a fair treatment separately for affixal word formation and word formation by compounding. By affixal word formation, words are said to be formed by adding affixes to roots, and three kinds of affixes, namely, prefix, suffix and infix, are stated to be as part of the process. Among the affixes discussed, the forms op– in the word opshāpe ‘to catch’, –nge in the word kaiīnge ‘to go on the road towards a place’ and in the word heméang ‘only one’ can be taken as respective examples.

As regards compound word formation, examples are offered such as halāk am ‘dog ladder (the ladder for dog)’ and tanangs kōi ‘head plank (plank for the head)’. Besides, nine word–classes, namely, article, noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, moods and tenses, adverb, conjunction, and preposition have also been listed as parts of speech. Regarding syntax, it is said that the normal word order is of subject followed by predicate which is followed by object, as reproduced below:

tiūe akā gaiī
I know road[9]
‘I know the road’

However, it is said that this order would change to the sort mentioned below, with the subject shifting to a position next to predicate or to the end, if it is to convey a sense of emphasis or imperative mood.

[9] Gloss as inferred from the findings of the sketch grammar arrived at here.

Būakgna	en	Arang
drown	PROX	PN

'Arang was drowned'

Man (1889)

In Man (1889) also, there is no formal statement on the structure of language. But, the words made use of and the notes provided in the dictionary enable one to deduce aspects of the phonology, morphology and syntax. It is apparent that the dictionary makes use of twenty one consonants, seventeen simple oral vowels, three simple nasalized vowels and a host of complex vowel sounds.[10] One may readily identify these segments from the functional similarities they share with the consonants and vowels of the present day language in semantically identifiable select words. Examples of such word comparisons are given in below, followed by corresponding consonant and vowel values.

Table 7: Man (1889) words illustrating segmental values

Consonants & simple vowels	Man(1889)	Present day Mūöt	Gloss
p	peat (p193)	peːɑt	heal
t	tâk (p206)	t̪ɑːk	breadth
ch	chaling (p118)	cɑliːŋ	long
k	tâk (p206)	t̪ɑːk	breadth
m	âm (p116)	ʔɑːm	dog
n	nâng (p180)	nɑːŋ	ear
ñ	ñanih (p180)	ɲɑniːx	merchandise
ng	chaling (p118)	cɑliːŋ	long
l	chaling (p118)	cɑliːŋ	long
f	fūl (p133)	fuːl	east wind
w	wâ (p212)	ʋɑː	blood
s	sharuâl (p199)	sɑɹuːɑl	boar
r	sharuâl (p199)	sɑɹuːɑl	boar
h	hakī (p134)	hɑkiː	tomorrow
y	yang (p180)	jɑːŋ	hear
i	hakī (p134)	hɑkiː	tomorrow
u	yūh (p217)	juːx	dirt
ü	minyüi (p178)	minjɯːj	yesterday
e	eaṅk (p128)	ʔɛ̃ːɑk	tight
eṅ	eṅh (p130)	ʔɛ̃ːx	near
o	puyōl (196)	pujoːl	body hair
ö	milöh (p178)	ləːx	game
ò	haròk (p137)	ɹɔːk	burn
òṅ	òṅh (p191)	ɔ̃ːx	fuel
a	âm (p116)	ʔɑːm	dog
aṅ	âṅ (p116)	ʔãː	two

[10] Four more nasalized vowels, namely, i̱ṅ, o̱ṅ, ö̱ṅ and u̱ṅ are come across in the dictionary; of which, i̱ṅ, u̱ṅ and o̱ṅ have been made known through the introductory note and ö̱ṅ through the body of the dictionary. Among the three that are made known through introductory note, the dictionary does not seem attest words with u̱ṅ and o̱ṅ but, in the case of i̱ṅ it does attest word for which semantically identifiable word cannot be found in the present day language. Whereas, in the case of ö̱ṅ though it attests in words in the body of the dictionary, semantically identifiable word for it cannot be found in the present day language.

Table 8: Man (1889) assumed consonant values

Bilabial	Labio–dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar
p [b], [p]		t [d], [t]		c [ch]	k [g], [k]
m			n	ɲ [ñ]	ŋ [ñg], [ng]
			l		
	f	s [sh], [s]	ɹ [r]		x [h]
	ʋ [w]			j [j], [y]	

Table 9: Man (1889) assumed vowel values

i [ī], [i]		ɯ [ü]	u [ū], [u]
e [ē], [e], ẽ [eṅ]			
	ə [ö]		
ɛ [e]			ɔ [ô], [ò], ɔ̃ [òṅ]
		ɑ [ā], [à], [â], [ä] [a], ã [aṅ]	

The complex vowel sounds identified in the dictionary can be phonetically classed into four types:

- ia, ua, etc., found in words such as shiaka ‘stand up’ and kayual ‘leaf mould’;
- ai, ōi, etc., found in words such as paiyuh ‘man’ and tōi ‘froth’;
- ēo, found in words such as tomhēolare ‘move aside’;
- ui, ōe, etc., found in words such as chuishla ‘splash’ and arōe ‘rice’.

With respect to word formation, it appears to take place both by affixation and by compounding, both of which are seen throughout the twelve topics of discussion: articles; substantives; adjectives; pronouns; verbs; adverbs; prepositions and post positions; conjunctions, interjections, exclamations and phrases; numerals; particles; prefixes; suffixes. Three kinds of affixes, prefix, suffix and infix, are found to be made use of. The discussion includes examples such as:

- prefixing of hok– with the root –ngôk‘to eat’ to derive the word hokngôk‘food’;
- affixation of –a with the root top– ‘todrink’ to derive the word topa ‘beverage’;
- infixation of <am> with the root chang ‘to own’ to derive the word chamang ‘owner’.

Compounding is illustrated with examples such as: paiyūh òlchūa ‘jungle man’ as formed by compounding two substantives and that of âṅha ta–leät–yòk ‘rotten flesh’ as formed by compounding of a substantive with an adjective.

On syntax, it is said that the word order is very similar to English as seen in the sentence reproduced below.

ane	inôat	lamang	ten	chüa
that	knife	belongs	to	me
‘That knife belongs to me’				

It is also said that this sentential word order would undergo change thematically.

Radhakrishnan (1981)

Radhakrishnan (1981), unlike the previous three, does provide formal statements on phonology and morphology, though not on syntax. The phonology part recognizes sixteen consonants, ten simple vowels and three complex vowels. The phonetic properties of these consonants and simple vowels can be inferred from the table–10 and table–11 respectively.

Table 10: Radhakrishnan (1981) consonants

Bilabial	Labio–dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
p			t	c	k	ʔ
m			n	ɲ	ŋ	
			r			
			l			
	f	s				h
w				j		

Table 11: Radhakrishnan (1981) vowels and diphthongs

i	ɯ	u
e	ə	o
ɛ		ɔ
æ	a	
ia	ɯa	ua

Among the monophthongs, those except ə are said to have nasalized counterparts. Unlike oral vowels which form nucleus of both root and affixal syllables, the nasalized ones are said to occur as nucleus of root syllables only. In addition, forms such as ʔãhə and ʔæ̃hə 'body' suggest some free variation.[11]

Coming to morphology, roots and affixes (prefixes, infixes and suffixes) are identified. All roots of monosyllabic origin, and the root forms of the disyllabic ones are stated to be stressed and consequently tensed.[12] Roots are dealt with as: monosyllabic roots, disyllabic roots with a root prefix, and derived disyllabic roots with a derived prefix which is derived by reduplication.[13] For example:

- monosyllabic root: ʔɯ̃y 'smell';
- disyllabic root with prefix: kawú 'to be foolish';
- disyllabic root derived by reduplication: ʔuké 'to rescue'.[14]

Affixes are classified on the basis of their distinct function, they are treated as causative, agentive, instrumental, possessive, and objective. Two forms, the prefix ha– and the infix –um– are discussed as causative affixes; examples:[15]

–káh
to know
hakáh
CAUS+to know
'To cause to know' (p54)

paʔɯ̃j
bad smell
p<um>ʔɯ̃j[16]
CAUS+bad smell
'To cause to have bad smell' (p54)

Two forms of an agentive affix, the prefix ma– and the infix –am– are discussed. Among these, as can be seen in the following reproduced words, the former is said to be prefixed to stems formed after affixing causative prefix ha– (see, ma– of mahacím 'one who causes someone to cry') or into prefixal syllable of derived disyllabic roots (see, m– in mitkéc 'one who plucks') and the latter to

[11] The sketch grammar arrived at here does not come across instances of free variation of the sort.
[12] The sketch grammar presented here finds non-root syllables also as occasionally stressed and tensed.
[13] The sketch grammar arrived at here recognizes all roots as monosyllabic.
[14] The prefix ʔu- of the disyllabic root ʔuké is said to be derived from the root -ké through root reduplication.
[15] The sketch grammar arrived at here treats <um> as the causative infixed into roots.
[16] Note the morphophonemic change by the rule #CV- + -um- → #Cum-.

monosyllabic roots (see, <am>of camúc ‘silent person’) as well as into prefixal syllable of disyllabic roots (see, <am>of kamaló? ‘thief’).

–cím
to cry
–hacím
CAUS+to cry
mahacím
A+CAUS+to cry
‘One who causes someone to cry’ (p57)

–kéc
to pluck
–?itkéc[17]
RED+to pluck’
mitkéc[18]
A+RED+to pluck
‘One who plucks’ (p.58)

cúc
silence
c<am>úc
A+silence
‘Silent person’ (p.57)

kaló?
to steal
k<am>aló?
A+to steal
‘Thief’ (p.57)

Two infixes –in– and –an– are dealt with as instrumental affixes.[19] Of these, the former is said to be infixed into initial syllables of disyllabic roots or into stems formed after the affixation of causative affix, while the latter into monosyllabic roots. Examples:

takuác
to have a trace
t<in>kuác[20]
INS+to have trace
‘Tracer’ (p.62)

–kuãt
to hang
hakuãt
CAUS+to hang
hinkuãt
CAUS+INS+to hang
‘A hook’ (p.62)

[17] The disyllabic root is stated as derived from the monosyllable kéc ‘to pluck’ by reduplication.
[18] The morphophonemic change follows the rule $C_1V_1 + C_2V_2 (C_3) \rightarrow C_1V_2 (C_3)$.
[19] According to the sketch grammar arrived at here, these are resultative infixes. In addition, there is another resultative affix in which is a replacive - it replaces the demonstrative markers of the directional and demonstrative prefixes.
[20] Note the morphophonemic change by the rule CVCV(C) + -in- → CinCV(C).

sák
to spear
s<an>ák
INS+to spear
'Spear' (pp60–61)

–kúah
to shave
ʔikúah[21]
RED+to shave
k<an>úah[22]
INS+to shave
'Knife' (p.61)

As possessive affix, only one form –u is discussed, and it is said to become part of the possessed, not of the possessor, as seen below:[23]

kán–
a female
kánu
a female+POSS
'married (to possess a woman)' (p.65)

As objective affix also, only form –a is discussed and it is said to refer to the objective or goal which suffers the action indicated in the word, as follows:

wíʔ–
to make
wíʔa
to make+POSS
'a thing made' (p.66)

2. Phonetics / Phonology

The sound system of the language is sufficiently characterized by reference to the phonemes/segments and syllables; there is no contrastive tone or phonation, and stress – although important – is generally fixed on lexical roots.

2.1. Syllable structure

Mūöt syllable structure is very simple; syllables are either of closed or open types. The closed syllables have the structure with a nucleus preceded by an onset and followed by a coda (such as ɹɔ̈ːx 'to win' and ɹə̃ːx 'to injure', cuːɑt 'to dig',cũːɑt 'to grate'), while the open syllables lack codas (such as t̪ɯː 'to stay', t̪ɯ̃ː 'nib', siːə 'banana plant', lĩːə 'spinster'). Consonant clusters are absent inside syllables, arising only at syllable juncture.

Due to the prevalence of affixation, re-syllabification occurs quite frequently. For example, ʊɑniːʔəmɑn 'competitive game' is formed with the resultative infix <ɑn> intruding into the root ʊiːʔ 'to do'. Consequently the infixation has created three sequential open syllables: ʊɑ, niː and ʔə.

2.2. Consonants

The consonants are tabled immediately below; note that round brackets enclose equivalents in Mūöt orthography:

[21] The disyllabic root is stated as derived from the monosyllabic root kúah 'to shave' by reduplication.
[22] Note the morphophonemic change by the rule CV(C) + -an- → CanV(C).
[23] The insights obtained from the sketch grammar arrived at here enables to regard it, and a which is discussed as objective affix as different forms of one and the same resultative affix -ə.

Table 12: Mūöt consonants (orthographic forms in brackets)

Bilabial	Labio–dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
p (p)		t̪/t (t)		c (ch)	k (k)	ʔ (k̲)
m (m)			n (n)	ɲ (ny)	ŋ (ng)	
			l (l)			
	f (f)	s (s)	ɹ (r)		x (h)	
	ʋ (v)			j (y)		

All the consonants are found to occur in both onset and coda positions, but with some restrictions/features:

- The occurrence of coda f̲ and ɹ̲ is only in borrowed words and among these, f̲ is found with only one word.
- /t/ is dental [t̪] in onsets and alveolar in codas.
- /n/ is found freely varying with its geminated form nn̲ in the context of infixing <in̲> 'resultative' into root syllables (e.g.: ʔinãːjə̲ 'second' and linuːəjə̲ 'third' have been observed pronounced as ʔinnãːjə̲ and linnuːəjə̲ respectively.

2.3. Vowels

2.3.1. Monophthongs

Nine monophthongs are tabled below; note that round brackets enclose equivalents in Mūöt orthography:

Table 13: Mūöt monophthongs (orthographic forms in brackets)

i (i, ī)		ɯ (eu, eū)	u (u, ū)
e (ĕ, ē)			o (o, ō)
	ə, (ö öö)		
ɛ (e, ë)			ɔ (ò, ô)
		ɑ (a, ā)	

All these simple vowels occur as nuclei of closed or open syllables. The syllables are found stressed or unstressed, and when stressed they are phonetically tensed and lengthened. This extends to full length in the case of open syllables and to half long in the case of closed syllables. The syllables are found stressed invariably when they happen to be the lexical root and occasionally when happen to be of suffixal ones (compare, for example, the unstressed form of the suffix jənin the word muklɑˑklɑjən 'defender' with its stressed form jəˑn in the word cumjɑːʔijəˑn 'to free').

2.3.2. Nasalized monophthongs

Except for o̲, eight of nine simple vowels are found attesting their nasalized counterparts. They are ĩ (iṅ, īṅ), ũ (uṅ, ūṅ), ɯ̃ (euṅ, eūṅ), ẽ (ĕṅ, ēṅ), ə̃ (öṅ, ööṅ), ɛ̃ (eṅ, ëṅ), ɔ̃ (òṅ, ôṅ) and ɑ̃ (aṅ, āṅ). When nasalized, ɑ̃ fronts to ã (compare, ɹɑˑx 'to slope' with ɹãˑx 'tray'). The nasalized vowels are apparently restricted to nuclei of root syllables; this conforms to the finding of Radhakrishnan (1981:17).

2.3.3. Diphthongs

Seven centring diphthongs are identified: iə̲ (iö, īö), uɑ̲ (ua, uā), uə̲ (uö, ūö), ɯə̲ (euö, eūö), eɑ̲ (ea, eā), eə̲ (eö, ēö), oə̲ (oö, ōö). The principle of conservation of syllable length applies generally, and consequently diphthongs also follow the pattern of being pronounced longer in open syllables than in closed ones (compare: suːɑt̪ɑɹe̲ 'one who returns' and ɹuˑɑj̲ 'to beckon').

Additionally, we find that diphthongs vary as to whether the first of second vowel target is phonetically stressed/lengthened; this appears to be predictable, with, for example, 'child' varying between ko·ən in isolation or at the end of an utterance and koə·n elsewhere in an utterance.

2.3.4. Nasalised Diphthongs

Except for eə and oə, the other diphthongs also have nasalized counterparts. They are iə̃ (iöṅ, ïöṅ), uã̄ (uaṅ, uāṅ), uə̃ (uöṅ, ūöṅ), ɯə̃ (euöṅ, eūöṅ), eã̄ (eaṅ, eāṅ). Note that it is also important that only one of the vowel targets is nasalized, and it can be either the first or second member (compare: xʉ̃·ən 'ship's bridge' and cuã·t 'to grate').

2.3.5. Vowel Phonotactics

Among the vowels, e and ə seem to display variations in their usage. The e is found freely varying with ɛ, i and ei. Examples such as the following have been observed:

ʔife: ~ ʔifɛ:	'you–plural'
cũ·ɑŋse ~ cũ·ɑŋsɛ	'to alight'
ʈə·ʔse ~ ʈə·ʔsi	'touch'
xɑʈə·ŋsenɑ·ŋɹe ~ xɑʈə·ŋsinɑ·ŋɹe	'listen'
ʔɑne·t le:pəɹe ~ ʔɑni·t le:pəɹe	'pencil'
miɲi·x ʈalo·kʈetse ~ miɲi·x ʈalo·kʈitse	'grocer'
ʈẽ·c ~ ʈẽi·c	'light red color'
le·c ~ lei·c	'pillar for floor of a house'

The latter two examples indicate conditioned transitions to the palatal coda.

Also ə is found to vary with ɑ and ɛ. Examples such as the following have been observed:

kə·p ~ kɑ·p 'to fasten'	mɑxɑle·əpxɑʈə ~ mɑxɑle·əpxɑʈɛ 'teacher'
pə·t ~ pɑ·t 'to be of bad'	cɑnɑ:cə ~ cɑnɑ:cɛ 'language'
ɹə·m ~ ɹɑ·m 'to strike'	ɹɔ:mə ~ ɹɔ:mɛ 'rest'
ʊə·n ~ ʊɑ·n 'to fish with net'	pɑnɔ:nə ~ pɑnɔ:nɛ 'war'
ʈə·l ~ ʈɑ·l 'to inform'	pu·sɲə ~ pu·sɲɛ 'abundance'
ɹə·f ~ ɹɑ·f 'to crystallize'	ʈincu:lə ~ ʈincu:lɛ 'darkness'
kə·s ~ kɑ·s 'to sing'	kɑnə:sə ~ kɑnə:sɛ 'song'
pə·r ~ pɑ·ɹ 'to mix as salad'	ʔuxɔ:ʊə ~ ʔuxɔ:ʊɛ 'cave'
ciʔə·j ~ ciʔɑ·j '1DU EXCL'	jɑ:jə ~ jɑ:jɛ 'sand'
kɑ:pə ~ kɑ:pɛ 'sting'	

3. Word formation

The word in Mūöt is formed by at least one root morpheme, plus various affixes which may be optional or obligatory. All roots and affixes are monosyllabic, variously open (CV) or closed syllables (CVC).

Monomorphic words consist of simple monosyllables (e.g. xe·ŋ 'sun', cə̃: '1SG'), polymorphemic words are characterized by the morphological derivation, which may be simple (e.g. xɑ–jɯ·ən 'to hunt': xɑ– 'DIRTDR, $DIST_3$' plus the root –jɯ·ən 'to hunt') or more complex (mɑ–xɑ–ji·n 'engine operator': mɑ– 'A' plus xɑ– '$CAUS_1$' plus root –ji·n 'to operate engine'), and/or by compounding (e.g. ɹeɑ·kmɑ·t 'tear', mum ʈu:məse·j 'herd').

3.1. Roots

All roots are found to be free forms and they constitute the only obligatory element for word formation. They are basically found to be verbal forms and by derivation (which may be

morphological or syntactic) give rise to other word classes, such as nouns, qualitative words, quantitative words, locational words, directional words and particles.

The roots that are identified in the language can broadly be classified into thirteen types, denoting:

1) action relatable to natural objects (such as: xãːsə ‘wind’ and xeˑŋ ‘sun’, derived from xãˑs ‘to blow’ and xeˑŋ ‘to dry’);
2) action relatable to body parts (such as fɑnəˑx ‘bladder’ and kɑnɑˑp ‘tooth’ derived from fəˑx ‘to inflate’ and kɑˑp ‘to bite’);
3) action relatable to habitat and household articles such as fɑnɑˑx ‘broom’ fɑnũːə ‘fan’, derived from fɑˑx ‘to clean’ and fũːə ‘to fan’);
4) action relatable to clothing and ornaments (such as cɑnuːə ‘loin cloth covering buttocks and genitals’ kɑnəˑp ‘anklet’, derived from cuːə ‘to wrap around loin covering buttocks and genitals’ and kəˑp ‘to band around ankle’);
5) action relatable to kinship and social organization (such as cɑˑʊ ‘elder sibling’ and ciˑəʔ ‘parent’, derived from cɑˑʊ ‘to be as elder sibling’ and ciˑəʔ ‘to parent’);
6) action relatable to implements of economic activity (such as fɑnəˑɲ ‘bow’ and lɑnɛˑɲ ‘screw’, derived from fəˑɲ ‘to shoot with arrow’ and lɛˑɲ ‘to screw’);
7) action relatable to food preparation and consumption (such as ʔɑnãˑŋ ‘cauldron’ and leːnə ‘mixture’, derived from ʔãˑŋ ‘to cook meat in open vessel’ and leˑn ‘to mix’);
8) action relatable to counting and calculation (such as xiːəŋə ‘one’ and ɹoːʊə ‘counting’, derived from xiˑəŋ ‘to be of one’ and ɹoˑʊ ‘to count’);
9) action relatable to colour (such as ʔəːkə ‘dark red’ and ŋũːɑ ‘green’, derived from ʔəˑk ‘to be of dark red’ and ŋũːɑ ‘to be of green’);
10) action relatable to taste (such as ʈeːɑkə ‘bitter’ and siːəŋə ‘sweet’, derived from ʈeˑɑk ‘to taste bitter’ and siˑəŋ ‘to taste sweet’);
11) action relatable to pronominal reference (such as cə̃ː ‘1SG’ and nə̃ː ‘2DU’, derived from cə̃ː ‘to stand for a person in the speaker’s position’ and nə̃ː ‘to stand for two persons in the hearer’s position’);
12) action relatable to demonstratives (such as kəˑʔ ‘distal$_3$’ and nɛˑʔ ‘proximate’, derived from kəˑʔ ‘to point at distal$_3$ distance’ and nɛˑʔ ‘to point at proximate distance’);
13) miscellaneous action (such as cɑnɑˑc ‘prayer’ and fɑnɔˑk ‘removing punctured skin’, derived from cɑˑc ‘to pray’and fɔˑk ‘to remove punctured skin’).

Roots alone are also found capable of functioning as words without taking any affixes: for example, the roots xeˑŋ ‘to dry’, xiˑəŋ ‘to be of one’ and ʔəˑk ‘to be of red’ refer to the noun ‘sun’, to the numeral quantitative word ‘one’ and to the red colored object ‘cock’s comb’ respectively.

3.2. Affixes

All affixes are bound forms and the following eight types are identified.

3.2.1. Directional and demonstrative object agreement marking prefixes

Prefixes, with combined directional and demonstrative meanings, are found prefixed to roots; both closed and open syllable types are attested. They behave like object–agreement marking on the verb, although they can result in nominalization (see ‘village’ example below). What we are calling ‘Directional’ meaning includes a wide range of attributive meanings including benefactive (e.g. to the welfare of the object, see ‘to forgive’, below) and adjectival meaning (see ‘weighty’ below).

Four degrees of demonstrative proximity are distinguished:

PROX: Proximal, close by

$DIST_1$: Distal near visible

$DIST_2$: Distal far visible

$DIST_3$: Distal invisible

Syllabically, the prefixes of this kind are of closed or of open type; it appears that the onset consonants correlate with the directional meanings, while the nuclei or nuclei+coda correlate with the demonstrative meanings. Examples:

xɑ–	DIRTDR, $DIST_3$ (towards doer, invisible)	e.g.: xɑjɯːən ‘to hunt’
ki–	DIRADR, $DIST_1$ (away from doer, near visible)	e.g.: kiʈɑːl ‘to saw’
ʈum–	DIRTU, PROX (towards upward, proximal)	e.g.: ʈumɹɔːp ‘to trap’
pu–	DIRTDW, $DIST_2$ (towards welfare, far visible)	e.g.: pujəːk ‘to pound’
ʔi–	DIRTI, $DIST_1$ (towards inward, near visible)	e.g.: ʔijɯːəm ‘to breathe’
cum–	DIRTO, PROX (towards outward, proximal)	e.g.: cumleːʊ ‘peeping(snake)’
mɑ–	DIRTH, $DIST_3$ (towards horizontal, invisible)	e.g.: mɑʈɑːj ‘village’ (ʈɑːj ‘to be cleared’)
lɑ–	DIRTQ, $DIST_3$ (quality, invisible)	e.g.: lɑŋãːn ‘weighty’
sum–	DIRTW, PROX (towards welfare, proximal)	e.g.: sumjɔːŋ ‘to forgive’

This use of these prefixes depends upon the need to convey such directional and demonstrative meaning as intended; additionally there are some verbs that do not take the prefixes as their meaning inherently encodes the directionality of the action (for example, ɹɯːkʈə ‘to arrive’, ɹeːɑnŋə ‘to run away’, and ɹeːtlə ‘stern of ship’).

3.2.2. Coda–copying with prefixes ʔi–, ʔu–

In regard to prefixes with initial glottal stop and i and u vowels, Mūöt evidences a form of coda–copying (also known as in–copy–fixation) which is already well known from Aslian languages (see Matisoff 2002 for discussion) and has also been described in detail for Nancowry by Radhakrishnan (1981).

The ʔi– prefix acquires a coda by copying the root coda, when the latter is a coronal or palatal, although the copy will only be coronal, hence ʔi–>ʔit–, ʔin–

ʔi– ‘DIRTI, $DIST_1$’	> ʔin–	ʔinʈãːɲ ‘to weave’
		ʔinɹuːn ‘to treat’
	> ʔit–	ʔitcɑːc ‘to pray’
		ʔitʔeːt ‘to write’

Compare to the following examples that do not meet the phonological conditions:

ʔijɯːəm	‘to breathe’
ʔiciːx	‘to stitch’
miɲuːɲ	‘to lie’
kiʔeːət	‘to pant’

Similarly, the ʔu– prefix also triggers coda–copying, but with labial and velar codas; examples:

ʔu– ‘DIRTI, $DIST_2$’	> ʔum–	ʔumlɔːm ‘to roll’
	> ʔuŋ–	ʔuŋsɔːŋ ‘to walk’
	> ʔup–	ʔupcɑːp ‘to pick up’
	> ʔuk–	ʔukcuːɑk ‘to move forward’

Compare to the following examples that do not meet the phonological conditions:

ʔujuːɑl	‘to grate’
kuʔɔːp	‘to close’
ʔuɹɔːl	‘to squint’
kucɔːk	‘to rinse’
ʔukəːx	‘to know’
pujuːm	‘to ridicule’
ʔupɑːl	‘to weed’
kujuːŋ	‘to destroy’

3.2.3. Directional suffixes

These are suffixes with directional meaning attached to roots, and also to stems formed from roots after previous suffixation (e.g.–ɲə in kumjuːɑŋxɑɲə ‘to disperse’, –lɑx in sɑləːxilɑx ‘to trip’, –mɑn in ʊɑniːʔəmɑn ‘competitive game’ and –jəːn in cumjɑːʔijəːn ‘to free’). Suffixes of this kind are found signifying all the nine directional meanings listed at§3.2.1; namely:

–ʈə	toward doer	e.g.: ɹɯːk–ʈə ‘to arrive’
–ŋə	away from doer	e.g.: ɹeːɑn–ŋə ‘to run away’[24]
–lə	toward upward	e.g.: ɹeːt–lə ‘stern’
–se	toward downward	e.g.: cũːɑŋ–se ‘to alight’
–xət	toward inward	e.g.: cɯːt–xət ‘to enter’
–ɲə	toward outward	e.g.: ʔunʈɔːŋ-ɲə ‘to thresh’
–lɑx	toward horizontal	lɔː-lɑx ‘to run’
–mɑn	toward quality	ʊɑniːʔə–mɑn ‘competitive game’
–jəːn	toward welfare	leːɑt-jəːn ‘to get well’

3.2.4. Agentive affixes mɑ–/<ɑm>, –ɹe

Agentive affixes index the doer of the action indicated by root; the doer may either be an instrument or an animate being. The category includes prefixes, infixes and suffixes.

mɑ– is found prefixed to stems formed from root after prefixing causative prefix (e.g. mɑ– in mɑxɑjiːn ‘engine operator’) as well as to stems formed from root after prefixing directional and demonstrative prefix (e.g. mɑ– in mɑxɑɹeːɑnŋalɑx ‘eloper’).[25]

<ɑm> is found infixed into roots (see <ɑm>in cɑmɔːŋ ‘pilot’) as well as into prefixal syllables of directional and demonstrative significance after prefixing the same to roots (see <ɑm>in kɑmɑɹɑːn ‘oil press’).[26]

–ɹe is found suffixed to roots (see –ɹe in ɹuːənɹe ‘crew of sailing canoe’).

3.2.5. Resultative affixes x–, <ɑn>, –cəʔ

Resultatives denotes nouns or verbal nouns that result from action indicated by roots. They include prefix, infix, suffix and replacive forms.

As prefix, the form is found prefixed to stems that are formed from roots after prefixation of directional and demonstrative prefix (see x– of xujɑːʔ ‘egg’).

As infix, they are found infixed into roots (see <ɑn> of cɑnɑːc ‘prayer’).[27]

As suffix, they are found suffixed to roots (see –cəʔ of koːəncəʔ ‘servant’).[28]

[24] Besides -ŋə, one more suffix -i- is also found used in the sketch grammar arrived at here (for illustration see, for example, the morphemic structure of the words sɑləːxilɑx ‘to trip’ and cumjɑːʔijəːn ‘to free’)

[25] Besides, mɑ-, two more prefixes are also found in the language. They are mu- and m-.

[26] Besides <ɑm>, two more infixes are also found in the language. They are <um>; for example k<um>ulɑːc ‘one who bathes,’ and <im>; for example m<im>iləːx ‘athlete’.

[27] Besides <ɑn>, one more infix <in> is also found in the language; for example: j<in>ɔːlə of the word jinɔːlə ‘talk’.

As replacive, the form operates on stems that are formed from roots after prefixing directional and demonstrative prefixes, and is found replacing the demonstrative marker of the prefixal syllable (see in of cinjɑːʊə ‘depth’ considered as the replacement for the i of ci–if the word be cijɑˑʊ ‘to go deep’ or as that for the u of cu–if the word be cujɑˑʊ ‘to go deep’ or as that for the ɑ of cɑ– if the word be cɑjɑˑʊ ‘to go deep’ or as that for the um of cum–if the word be cumjɑˑʊ ‘to go deep’).

Occasionally, the resultative infix <ɑn> and the resultative replacive in form nouns that are used as instruments of action indicated by roots, consider the following:

sɑnɑˑt ‘coconut peel/coconut peeling /coconut peeler’
s<ɑn>ɑˑt
to peel coconut-RES

kinʊɑˑp ‘scissors/a piece of cloth cut with scissors’
kin–ʊɑˑp
DIRADR, RES–to cut with scissors

3.2.6. Participial affixes ʈɑ–, –ʈet

Participial affixes (PTCP) are prefix ʈɑ– and suffix –ʈet. They mark the sufferers of the action indicated by root (which may be animate or inanimate). The prefix attaches to roots as well as to stems that are formed after prefixing the causative prefix (see below). The suffix attaches to roots as well as to stems that are formed from already suffixed forms. Examples:

ʈɑkəːsə ‘song (that which is sung)’
ʈɑ–kəːs–ə
PTCP–to sing–RES

ʈɑxɑjeːlə ‘prisoner (the one who is imprisoned)’
ʈɑ–xɑ–jeːl–ə
PTCP–$CAUS_1$–to imprison–RES

ʔitluˑcʈet ‘slough (that which is shed)’
ʔit–luˑc–ʈet
DIRTI, $DIST_1$–to shed–PTCP

xɑcɯˑtxɑtʈet ‘prisoner (the one who is entered)’
xɑ–cɯˑt–xət–ʈet
DIRTDR, $DIST_3$–to enter–DIRTI–PTCP

The ʈɑ– prefix can denote the sufferer either in the passive or active voice. The passive gets realized with transitive verbs, and active with intransitives. Examples:

ʈɑcuːlɑcəʔ ‘the one who/which fainted’
ʈɑ–cuːl–ə–cəʔ
PTCP–to faint–RES–DIRADR

In like manner, the suffix –ʈet is found denoting the sufferer either in the passive voice with transitive verbs and the active voice with intransitives. Examples:

lɑnuˑkʈet ‘wanderer (one who moves aimlessly)’
l<ɑn>uˑk–ʈet
<RES>to move aimlessly–PTCP

[28] Besides -cəʔ, one more suffix is also found in the language. It is -ə; for example, the morphemic structure of ʈɑkəːs-ə ‘the one which is sung’.

3.2.7. Instrumental affixes <ɑl>, –t̪ɑˑj

Instrumental affixes (INS) are infix <ɑl> and suffix –t̪ɑˑj. They form nouns that realize the action indicated by root. The infix is found with directional and demonstrative stems that are formed from prefixed roots. The suffix occurs with roots.

kɑlɑʊəːnə ‘spider web’
k<ɑl>ɑ–ʊəːn–ə
DIRADR<INS>$DIST_3$–to catch prey–RES

fɑnɔˑxt̪ɑˑj ‘bat’
f<ɑn>ɔˑx–t̪ɑˑj
<RES>to hit ball–INS

3.2.8. Transitive suffix –xɑ

The transitive (TR) suffix –xɑ indicates the capability to take a direct object, exemplified as follows:

kumʔɔˑpxɑt̪ə ‘to close’
kum–ʔɔˑp–xɑ–t̪ə
DIRADR, PROX–to close–TR–DIRADR[29]

3.2.9. Causative affixes xɑ–/<ɑx>/<ux>, –ɹet

Causatives are formed with prefixing of xɑ– to monosyllables, or infixing of the allomorphs <ɑx>/<ux> to multi–syllabic froms (e.g. stems that are already affixed), see examples below:

xɑŋɔ̃ˑk ‘to feed’
xɑ–ŋɔ̃ˑk
$CAUS_1$–to eat

mɑmɑxɑˑm ‘a stage in the life cycle’
mɑ–m<ɑx>ɑˑm
A–<$CAUS_2$> to menstruate

puxuŋəˑp ‘mortality’
p<ux>u–ɲəˑp
DIRTDW-<$CAUS_2$>-$DIST_2$–to die

Besides these two, one more infix <um> which is found infixed into the root as, p<um>ɔˑn ‘to cause to fight’ is also attested in the language. With this, infixing the agentive <um> as, p<um><um>ɔˑn, the agentive noun pumumɔˑn ‘soldier’ is derived.

The suffix –ɹet is applied to stems that are already suffixed, e.g.:

ɹɑˑtŋɑɹet ‘to frighten’
ɹɑˑt–ŋɑ–ɹet
to be afraid–DIRADR–$CAUS_3$

Beside the resultative affixes, the other seven kinds of affixes discussed above, unless warranted for their respective semantic specific denotation, are also found conveying the sense of verbal noun. For example, it is not surprising to find puɟəˑk ‘to pound’ also conveying the meaning ‘pounding’, ɹɯˑkt̪ə ‘to arrive’ for ‘arriving’, cɑməˑŋ ‘pilot’ for ‘piloting’, xɑŋɔ̃ˑk ‘to feed’ for ‘feeding’ and so forth.

[29] The occurrence of multiple derivational affixes of similar semantic significance in the derivational process of a word (as seen here), which is termed as multiple synonymous affixation, is found to be common in the language.

3.3. Morphophonemics

Morphophonemic processes of both addition and deletion are observed.

3.3.1. Morphophonemic addition

Morphophonemic addition occurs when a linking glide (j̲ or a ʊ̲) is inserted between vowel final roots and vocalic suffix –ə. If the root vowel happens to be i̲, e̲, ɛ̲, ɔ̲, u̲, ɯ or ə̲ the glide will be j̲; if the root vowel is ɑ̲ the glide may be either for j̲ or ʊ̲. Examples:

ʈu̲ːj̲ə ‘sickness’
ʈu̲ː–j–ə
to be sick–LINK–RES

lɯ̲ːj̲ə ‘lust’
lɯː–j–ə
to lust–LINK–RES

suː ɑʊ̲ə ‘poem’
suːɑ–ʊ–ə
to recite fictitiously–LINK–RES

xɑʊ̲uːɑj̲ə ‘canal’
xɑ–ʊuːɑ–j–ə
$CAUS_1$–to irrigate–LINK–RES

3.3.2. Morphophonemic deletion

Morphophonemic deletion of a phoneme occurs when the initial glottal stop of prefixes ʔi̲– DIRTI, $DIST_1$ and ʔu̲– DIRTI, $DIST_2$ is replaced by another prefix, as in the examples below:

ʔitcãːt̲ ‘to eat plants’
ʔit–cãːt
DIRTI, $DIST_1$–to eat plants

mitcãːt̲ ‘grasshopper’
mit–cãːt
A, $DIST_1$–to eat plants

ʔuklɑːkl̲ɑj̲ən ‘to defend’
ʔuk–lɑːk–lɑ–jən
DIRTI, $DIST_2$–to defend–DIRTU–DIRTO

muklɑːkl̲ɑj̲ən ‘defender’
muk–lɑːk–lɑ–jən
A, $DIST_2$–to defend–DIRTU–DIRTO

3.4. Compounding

Compounding is found to be a productive process in Mūöt. The underlying relationships between the components of the compounded forms allow us to identify three kinds as follows: Case Compound, Conjunctive Compound, and Adjectival Compound.

3.4.1. Case Compound

Case Compounds are those in which the constituents are recognized as having an underlying case relationship. The example compounds below meaning ‘herd’ and ‘tear’ can be understood as reflecting possessive and ablative relations respectively.

mumʈuːmə seˑj ‘herd (gathering of animals)’
gathering + animal

ɹeɑˑk mɑˑt ‘tear (the liquid that flows from eye)’
liquid + eye

3.4.2. Conjunctive Compound

In the case of Conjunctive Compounds the constituents are in underlying coordinate relationship. This is seen in the following examples in which ‘children + parents’ is used to mean ‘relatives’ and ‘diarrhea + vomiting’ comes to mean ‘cholera’.

koəˑn cɨˑəʔ ‘relatives’
koəˑn+ cɨˑəʔ
children + parents

xitpuːcə ʔɑnɔːʊə ‘cholera’
xitpuːcə + ʔɑnɔːʊə
diarrhea + vomiting

3.4.3. Adjectival Compound

Adjectival Compounds have the characteristic structure that having their constituents being held together with an underlying relativizing relationship. The compounds such as ɹeɑˑk suˑəŋ ‘dew’ and ŋɑnɔ̃ːkəxɑʈɔˑm ‘supper’ whose compounding processes are depicted below as involving relativizing relationship can be taken as illustrations for the kind.

ɹeɑˑk suˑəŋ ‘dew (water from condensation)’
ɹeɑˑk + suˑəŋ
water + condensed

ŋɑnɔ̃ːkə xɑʈɔˑm ‘supper (meals which is taken in the night)’
ŋɑnɔ̃ːkə + xɑʈɔˑm
meals + night

In terms of class membership of their constituents, the six compounds dealt with above can be analysed as having the patterns, Verbal Noun+Noun, Noun+Noun, Noun+Noun, Noun+Verbal Noun, Noun+Verb and Noun+ Locational word.

4. Word classes

The words of the language can be broadly divided into Open and Closed classes. The Open class includes the words we would classify as Nouns, Verbs, and Qualitative words, based on their functions and inherent semantics, but principally on their syntactic behaviours. The closed word classes include: Quantitative words, Locational words, Directional words, Particles, and Pronouns.

4.1. Open class words

4.1.1. Common noun

Common nouns denote general, rather than specific, things. Some examples follow:

səˑm	‘race’
mɑxɑleˑəpʈɑɹe	‘teacher’
cɨˑəʔ	‘parent’
seˑj	‘animal’
sicuːɑ	‘bird’

4.1.2. Proper noun

Proper nouns are denoting things with specific characteristics, such as naming humans or specific species, such as:

keʈɑɹiːn	‘Catherine’ (name of a woman)
mɑːɲ	‘Carcharius Vulgaris’ (shark species)
cumleːʊ	‘peeping snake’
ʔujɑːʊ	‘coconut tree’

4.1.3. Verbal noun

Verbal nouns denote actions, such as:

kinɹãːt	‘milking’
kincuːɑtə	‘digging’
xinmuːlə	‘reaping’

4.1.4. Copula verb

Only one copula ʔə̃ː, is attested. The following sentences provide samples for its usage in the language.

ʔə̃ː	ʈuləːŋxətse	kəːʔ	kɑpʈeːn	xeːʔ
COP	good	$DIST_3$	Captain	1PL,INCL

‘Our Captain is good’

xãːt	ʔə̃ː	ʔiːn	cukɛː	cə̃ː	ʔiːn	ʔə̃ːn
GENNEG	COP	PROX	basket	1SG	PROX	3SG

‘It is not my basket’

4.1.5. Existential verb

One existential verb, ʔɔːt, is attested. The following sentences are illustrative for its usage in the language.

ʔɔːt	ʔumpĩːcse	kəːʔ	nɛːʔ	ɲiː	nɛːʔ ʔɛ̃ːx
EXIS	small	INTS	PROX	house	this

‘This house is very small’

xãːt	ʔɔːt	ʔiːn	cuːk mɑmiləːx	ʈə	ʔiːn	ʔɔɑːl	mɑʈɑːj ciʔəːj
GENNEG	EXIS	PROX	play ground	LOC	PROX	DIR	our village

‘There is no playground in our village’

4.1.6. Verbs: Transitive, Intransitive

Verbs can be classified according to whether they take a direct argument (Transitive) or not (Intransitive):

Transitive

kujuːŋ	‘to destroy’
kumjuːɑŋxɑŋə	‘to disperse’
kumʔɔːpxɑʈə	‘to close’

Intransitive

cũːɑŋse	‘to alight’
cɯːtxət	‘to go inside’
sɑləːxilɑx	‘to trip’

4.1.7. Qualitative words

Qualitative words have typically adjectival or adverbial meanings, such as the following examples:

lɑpəˑʔ	‘beautiful’
t̪uləˑŋxətse	‘good’
pinkɑˑkŋɑt̪ɑˑj	‘notoriety’
ʔumcɯˑəmxətse	‘horizontally’
pukɑˑkxətt̪ɑˑj	‘notoriously’
jɔˑlt̪ə lɑniˑəpɹe	‘cleverly’
xɑkɑ̃ːt̪ase	‘seriously’

The sentence ‘Our Captain is good’ illustrates the syntax of Qualitative words: we see t̪ulə·ŋxətse ‘good’ characteristically following the Copular verb:

ʔə̃ː	t̪ulə·ŋxətse	kəˑʔ	kɑpt̪eˑn	xeˑʔ
COP	good	$DIST_3$	Captain	1PL,INCL

‘Our Captain is good’

4.2. Closed class words

4.2.1. Personal Pronouns

The following Personal Pronouns are identified:

Person	Singular	Dual	Plural
1	cə̃ː / cɯ̃ːə	xɑ̃ˑʔ (incl.) ci ʔɑˑj (excl.)	xeˑʔ (incl.) ci ʔəˑj (excl.)
2	mɛ̃ː	ʔinɑ̃ː	ʔifeː
3	ʔə̃ˑn	ʔunɑ̃ː	ʔufeː

The example sentence ‘It is not my basket’ illustrates the use of pronoun cə̃ː ‘1SG’ as a possessive (‘my basket’), and ʔə̃ˑn ‘3SG’ indexes the subject (‘it’):

xɑ̃ˑt	ʔə̃ː	ʔiˑn	cukɛː	cə̃ː	ʔiˑn	ʔə̃ˑn
GENNEG	COP	PROX	basket	1SG	PROX	3SG

‘It is not my basket’

4.2.2. Demonstratives

Five demonstratives are identified, two proximal, and three degrees of distal:

nɛːʔ / ʔiˑn	‘Proximate’
ʔɑ̃ˑn	‘$Distal_1$’ (near visible)
ŋɑ̃ˑŋ	‘$Distal_2$’ (far visible)
kəˑʔ	‘$Distal_3$’ (not visible)

Demonstratives precede the phrasal head, and their use appears to be obligatory. The Proximal nɛːʔ ‘this’ (also nɛːʔ ʔɛ̃ˑx) is used to indicate specificity, while ʔiˑn is used otherwise. The Distal forms discriminate according to relative distance and visibility.

4.2.3. Quantitative word

The words that fall under this class denote quantity of concrete things and time periods, in terms of counting and measuring.

4.2.3.1. Quantitative words for counting objects– Numerals and Classifiers

The cardinal and ordinal numerals are illustrated below:

Cardinals			Ordinals[30]	
xiːəŋ	‘one’		xinʈəːh	‘first’
ʔãː	‘two’		ʔinnãːjə	‘second’
luːəj	‘three’		linnuːəjə/linnuːjə	‘third’
fuːɑn	‘four’		finnuːɑnə	‘forth’
ʈɑnɑːj	‘five’		ʈinnɑːjə	‘fifth’
ʈɑfuːəl	‘six’			
ʔisɑːt	‘seven’			
ʔin-fuːɑn	‘eight’			
xiəːŋ-xɑʈə	‘nine’			
səːm	‘ten’			
səːm-xiːəŋ	‘eleven’			
ʔãː-ʔinɑːj	‘twenty’			
ʔãː-ʔinɑːj-xiːəŋ	‘twenty one’			
səːm-ʔinɑːj	‘hundred’			

Five classifiers are idenyitified, as follows:

juːɑŋ ‘human countable’
kuːj ‘human countable’
ɹeː ‘human countable’
nuːɑŋ ‘non–human countable’
ʈɑːk ‘mass’

The numeral is followed by the appropriate classifier, and these precede the thing being counted, as illustrated in the following example sentences:

luəːj juɑːŋ	ʔufeː	ʔãːn	koəːn	ʔinkɑːnə	ʈɑːj	ʔiːn	cə̃ː[31]
NUM, CLF	PL	$DIST_1$	child	F	DAT	PROX	1SG

‘I have three daughters’

ʔumkuɑːmʈə	ʈɑnɑːj ʈɑːk	ŋãːŋ	ɹupiəː	ʔiːn	ʔə̃ːn	ʈɑːj	ʔiːn	cə̃ː	sɑjɯːx
give, DIRTDR	NUM, CLF	$DIST_2$	rupees	PROX	3SG	DAT	PROX	1SG	FUT

‘He will give me five rupees’

There are also words for specific quantities of particular items, e.g.:

jɑːk ‘one half coconut shell’
puxumlɛː ‘one bottle’

4.2.3.2. Quantitative words –Measure terms

The following measure words are found:

kɑɹuːʔŋɑse ‘many’
pĩːcse ‘a few/a little/small’
mumʈuːm ‘all’
leːəŋ ‘all’
xɑŋuːŋŋɑse ‘whole’

[30] Ordinals above 'fifth' are known to exist but the forms have not been given here as further confirmation in the field is considered necessary.

[31] The existential verb ʔɔːt is elided.

These measure words function as verbs syntactically; note the placement of ʔumpĩ˙cse ‘small’ in the following example sentence:

ʔɔ˙t	ʔumpĩ˙cse	kə˙ʔ	nɛ˙ʔ	ɲi:	nɛ˙ʔ ʔɛ̃˙x
EXIS	small	INTS	PROX	house	this

‘This house is very small’

4.2.3.3. Quantitative words - Temporals

Some words that denote quantity of time are noted:

sinkɑ:mə	‘day’
kɑxɛ̃˙ʊ	‘month’
sɑjɯ˙x	‘year’

4.2.4. Location and Direction words

The following words indicate the location of action in terms of space and time:

ni:nɛ˙ʔ	‘here’
t̪i˙nʔɛ̃˙x	‘here’
t̪ɑŋã˙ŋʔɛ:	‘there’
minjɯ˙j	‘yesterday’
ʔuʊə˙x	‘day before yesterday’

The following example sentence illustrates the use of the term t̪i˙nʔɛ̃˙x ‘here’ (formed by combining the Accusative marker with ʔɛ̃˙x ‘near’); note that it immediately follows the verb:

kɑt̪ɯ:	t̪i˙nʔɛ̃˙x	ʔi˙n	ʔə̃˙n	ʔinkɑ:nə
live	here	PROX	3SG	F

‘She lives here’

The following words indicate the direction of action when used as adverbials:

kɑpɑ:	‘north’
lu˙ɑxŋə	‘south’
fu˙l	‘east’
sumxã:ʊə	‘west’
cɯ˙l	‘right’
ʊu˙ɑk	‘left’

When these adverbials are combined with the locative case marker and a directional particle, a location is indicated, as in the following example “in the west”:

su˙pse	t̪ə	lɑ˙ʔ	sumxã:ʊə	ʔã˙n	xe˙ŋ
set, DIRTDW	LOC	DIR	west	$DIST_1$	sun

‘The Sun sets in the west’

4.2.5. Particles

The words that fall under this class appear to convey their meanings as constituents of phrasal structures. They are identified as Tense markers, Case markers, Plural markers, Intensifiers, Negators, Interrogatives, Directional particles and Anaphoric particles.

4.2.5.1. Tense markers

The following Tense markers identified:

Tense		Lexical meaning
'past'	neːn	'to discard'
'past'	leːɑt	'to finish'
'future'	jɔːʔ	'to wish, want, will'
'future'	sɑjɯːx	'hereafter, next year'
'future'	məːk	'exact, proper, enough'

As for the placement of tense markers, jɔːʔ and leːɑt are found occurring only clause initially, while the others occur both clause initially and clause finally. Also we find no instances of multiple tense markers within clauses. Note the following example of clause final sɑjɯːx:

ʔumkuɑːmʈə	ʈɑnɑːj ʈɑːk	ŋãːŋ	ɹupiəː	ʔiːn	ʔãːn	ʈɑːj	ʔiːn	cə̃ː	sɑjɯːx
give, DIRTDR	NUM, CLF	$DIST_2$	rupees	PROX	3SG	DAT	PROX	1SG	FUT

'He will give me five rupees'

Man (1889) glosses neːn as 'now, immediately; lately'. So it may also be appropriate to characterise the tense distinction as Future versus Non-Future.

4.2.5.2. Case markers

The following five case markers are identified in the language:

ʈiːn	'accusative'
ʈɑːj	'dative / instrumental '
joːl	'comitative'
ləːŋ ʈə	'ablative'
ʈə	'locative'

Besides these, there are nominative and possessive case relationships which are not overtly marked with particles.

Case markers are placed initially within the Nominal phrase.

4.2.5.3. Plural markers

Two plural markers are identified, kiː, and ʔufeː. The first of these has the lexical meaning 'to narrate sentimentally', while the second is the 3rd Person Pronoun 'they'. The following illustrate their usage:

kɑʊɑːl ŋɑlɑːx	neːn	ʈiːn	kiː	kəːʔ	juɑːŋ ʔuɲiːxə	ʈə	jɔːk	ʔiːn	ʔãːn	neːn
throw	PST	ACC	PL	$DIST_3$	fruit	REL	rotten	PROX	$DIST_1$	PST

'She threw away the decayed fruits'

kɑɹiːse	ʔufeː	kəːʔ	koəːn	ʈɑːj	ʔiːn	mɛ̃ː.[32]
INTER	PL	$DIST_3$	child	DAT	PROX	2SG

'How many children do you have?'

4.2.5.4. Intensifier

Only one intensifier, kəːʔ 'very' (INTS), is identified. It occurs at the end of the predicate, as in the following example:

ʔɔːt	lɑpəːʔ	kəːʔ	nɛːʔ	ʔɔɑːl	mɑʈɑːj nɛːʔ ʔɛ̃ːx
EXIS	beautiful	INTS	PROX	DIR	this village

'This village is very beautiful'

[32] Existential verb ʔɔːt is elided.

4.2.5.5. Negators

Negators of several types are identified; Prohibitive, Generic, and Pronominalized:

Prohibitive (PROHNEG)	Generic (GENCNEG)	Pronominalized (PNLDNEG)	
ʊɑˑt	xãˑt	ciˑt	1SG
	ʈiˑt	ciʔɑˑjˈt	1DU EXCL
	niˑt	xãˑʔˈt	1DU INCL
		ciʔəˑjˈt	1PL EXCL
		xeˑʔˈt	1PL INCL
		miˑt	2SG
		ʔinãˑˈt	2DU
		ʔifeˑˈt	2PL
		unãˑˈt	3DU
		ʔufeˑˈt	3PL

The ʊɑˑt ‘Prohibitive’ is clause initial, and forms negative imperatives or requests, such as:

ʊɑˑt	mɛ̃ː	ʔujɔˑl	kiː	ʔãˑn	ɲuˑɲ
PROHNEG	MVS	tell	PL	$DIST_1$	lie

‘Do not tell lies’

The Generic Negators, also clause initial, and are the normal negators when the subject is filled by a Nominal Phrase formed with a regular Noun. For example:

xãˑt	ʔəː	ʔiˑn	cukɛː	cə̃ː	ʔiˑn	ʔəˑn
GENNEG	COP	PROX	basket	1SG	PROX	3SG

‘It is not my basket’

niˑt	jɔˑʔ	nə	kɑjiːŋə	ʈə	ʔɔɑˑl	cuɑː	ʔin	ʔəˑn
GENNEG	FUT	MVS	go	LOC	DIR	forest	PROX	3SG

‘He will not go to forest’

The Pronominalized Negators are used when the subjects of sentences are Nominal Phrases with the respective pronouns as head. An example follows:

jɔˑʔ	ciʔɑˑj	ɹɯˑkʈə	joˑl	ʔiˑn	mɛ̃ː	ʔiˑn	ciʔɑˑj
FUT	MVS	come,DIR TDR	COM	PROX	2SG	PROX	1DU, EXCL
pəɹe	ciʔɑˑjˈt	sɑjɯˑx	ciʔɑˑj	kɑʈɯː	joˑl	ʔiˑn	mɛ̃ː
COORD	PNLD NEG	FUT	MVS	stay	COM	PROX	2SG

‘We (dual) will come with you but will not stay with you’

Apparetnly, ʔəˑn ‘3SG’ does not seem to form into its PNLD, because the purpose appears to be served by any of the Generic Negators.

4.2.5.6. Interrogatives

The following Interrogatives are noted:

ciː	‘who’
ciˑn	‘what’
cuˑɑn	‘what’
cuː	‘where’
cuˑɑnsi	‘why’
kɑjəˑn	‘how’
kɑɹiː	‘how much/many’

The following sentence exemplifies the use of cu·ɑn ‘what’:

cuɑ·n	jɔ·ʔ	ʈo·pɹe	ʔi·n	mɛ̃:
INTER	FUT	drink, A	PROX	2SG

‘What will you drink?’

4.2.5.7. Directional particle

Various Directional particles are identified. An indication of their meanings can be gleaned from the definitions given in Man’s dictionary:

Form	Definition given in Man (1889)
lɑ·ʔ	‘direction’
ʔɔ·ɑl	‘in, inside, interior’
ŋã·l	‘above, in the sky, up there, north’
ʔə·t	‘in, at (for some country, island or village)’

Directional particles are placed immediately before the appropriate Location or Direction word, as illustrated in the following sentences:

su·pse	ʈə	lɑ·ʔ	sumxã:ʊə	ʔã·n	xe·ŋ
set, DIRTDW	LOC	DIR	west	$DIST_1$	sun

‘The Sun sets in the west’

ʔə·t	ʈe·xlɔŋ	ʔunã:	kə·ʔ	koə·n	ʔã·n	ʔinkɑ:nə[33]
DIR	Teressa	DU	$DIST_3$	child	3SG	F

‘Her children (dual) are in Teressa island’

4.2.5.8. Anaphoric particle

One anaphoric particle, ɹe: is identified. Its use is exemplified as follows:

ne·n	ʊi·ʔ	ʔã·n	ʔə̃·n	ʈi·n	ʔã·n	ʊɑni:ʔəcəʔ	ɹe:
PST	do	$DIST_1$	3SG	ACC	$DIST_1$	work	ANA

‘He did his work’

4.2.5.9. Exclamatory particle

Two Exclamatory particles, ʔi·ʔ, ʔɑɹe·ʔ ‘alas!’ are identified. An example of usage follows:

ʔɑɹe·ʔ!	ʈuə·ksi	ʈi·n	ʔi·n	cə̃:	kə·ʔ	je·ɑʊ
EXCLAM	pull, DIRTDW	ACC	PROX	1SG	$DIST_3$	crocodile

‘Alas! The crocodile pulls me’

5. Phrases, Clauses, Sentences

In this section we discuss the formation of phrases, and the arrangement of phrases and clauses in the formation of sentences. The preferred syntactic pattern of the language is Verb–Object–Subject, although some re-ordering can occur.

5.1. Phrase

Two types of phrase are discussed below, depending on the head of the phrase, namely: Nominal phrases and Verbal phrases.

[33] The existential verb ʔɔ·t is elided.

5.1.1. Nominal phrase

Nominal phrases are those which have a noun or compound noun as their head, and the constituent units whose meanings converge towards head are found to occur in positions preceding it. The following patterns of nominal phrases are attested in the language:

						Examples
		DEM		head		ʔãˑn xeˑŋ ‘the sun’; kəˑʔ ɲiː cɔˑn *‘John’s house’*
	PL	DEM		head		ʔufeː ʔãˑn kiɲõˑm ʔinkɑːnə *‘the girls’*
	PL		DIR	head		kiː ŋãˑl miʈãːjə *‘clouds (in the sky)’*
	DU	DEM		head		ʔunãː kəˑʔ koˑən *‘the children (dual)’*
		DEM	DIR	head		nɛˑʔ ʔɔɑˑl mɑʈɑˑj nɛˑʔ ʔɛ̃ˑx *‘this village (near, visible)’*
case		DEM		head		ʈɑˑj kəˑʔ xuɹɑːsə *‘due to storm’*
		DEM		head		nɛˑʔ ɲiː nɛˑʔ ʔɛ̃ˑx *‘this house’*
case			DIR	head		ʈə ʔɔɑˑl kɑlɑxəːjə *‘in the sky’*
case		DEM	DIR	head		ʈə ʔiˑn ʔɔɑˑl mɑʈɑˑj ciʔəˑj *‘in our village’*
NUM, CLF	PL	DEM		head		luəˑj juɑˑŋ ʔufeː ʔãˑn koəˑn ʔinkɑːnə *‘three daughters’*

The above suggest an underlying Nominal Phrase template as follows:

NP = case/NUM,CLF | PL/Du | DEM | DIR| head

Multiple Nominal phrases can be chained, as in the following example of a list of three names; note that each name is preceded by a Demonstrative and they are coordinated with the Plural marker ʔufeː.

koəˑn	siʈɑɹɑˑm	ʔinkɑːnə	ʔufeː	ʔãˑn	sopiːɑ
child	PN	F	PLCOORD	$DIST_1$	PN
ʔufeː	ʔãˑn	ʔesʈəˑr	ʔufeː	ʔãˑn	culinɑː[34]
PLCOORD	$DIST_1$	PN	PLCOORD	$DIST_1$	PN

‘Sophia, Esther and Julina are Sitaram’s daughters’

Compare the above with the following example in which there are two names only, consequently coordinated with the Dual pronoun ʔunãː.

ʔukãˑl	ŋãˑŋ	ʔõˑx	ʔunãː	ŋãˑŋ	piʈəˑɹ	ʔunãː	ŋãˑŋ	pɑɹnɑpəˑs[35]
cut	$DIST_2$	firewood	DU COORD	$DIST_2$	PN	DU COORD	$DIST_2$	PN

‘Barnabas and Peter cut fire wood’

5.1.2. Verbal phrase

The Verbal phrase is equivalent to the Predicate, and may consist of:

a) an intransitive verb,
b) a transitive verb followed by a Nominal phrase (in one of seven case relationships),
c) a verb followed by a Qualitative (with or without an intensifier) or a Locational word.

Examples follow:

[34] Copula verb ʔəː is elided.

[35] The use of accusative case marker is found to be optional with the nominal phrase ŋãˑŋ ʔõˑx ‘$DIST_2$ firewood’.

a)

ʔukũˑʔ ʔiˑn cə̃ː neˑn ʈə ʔɔɑˑl ɲiː
sit PROX 1SG PST LOC DIR house
‘I sat on the floor’

ɹɔˑx cə̃ː ʔujɔˑl ʈɑˑj ʔiˑn cə̃ː ʔiˑn cɑnɑˑc mɛ̃ː
able 1SG speak DAT PROX 1SG PROX language 2SG
‘I can speak in your language’

b)

xɑsɔˑxlɑjən **ʈɑˑj** **ʔiˑn** **ʔinə̃ː** ʔiˑn ci ʔəˑj məˑk
help **DAT** **PROX** **2DU** PROX 1PL,EXCL FUT
‘We (plural) will help you (dual)’

kɑʋɑˑl ŋɑlɑˑx **neˑn** **ʈiˑn** **kiː** **kəˑʔ** **juɑˑŋ ʔuɲiːxə** ʈə jɔˑk ʔiˑn ʔãˑn neˑn
throw **PST** **ACC** **PL** **DIST$_3$** **fruit** REL rotten PROX DIST$_1$ PST
‘She threw away the decayed fruits’

c)

ʔɔˑt **lɑpəˑʔ** **kəˑʔ** nɛˑʔ ʔɔɑˑl mɑʈɑˑj nɛˑʔ ʔɛ̃ˑx
EXIS **beautiful** **INTS** PROX DIR village this
‘This village is very beautiful’

ʔoːŋə **ʈə** ʔãˑn ɲiː cə̃ː
Go, DIRADR **LOC** DIST$_1$ my house
‘Go to my house’

5.2. Clause

5.2.1. Independent clause

Independent clauses convey complete meaning on their own and give rise to Simple and Coordinate sentences.

5.2.1.1. Simple sentence

An ideal Simple sentence consists of a Predicate followed by a Subject. The Subject will be a Nominal phrase which is unmarked for case.

juɑˑŋsiŋɛ̃ː cə̃ː ʔikəːsə ʔiˑn cə̃ː
PROG MVS sing PROX 1SG
‘I am singing’

suˑpse ʈə lɑˑʔ sumxãːʋə ʔãˑn xeˑŋ
set, DIRTDW LOC DIR west DIST$_1$ sun
‘The Sun sets in the west’

Note also the use of both Locative case marker and Directional in the example immediately above.

Within the Predicate, the Main verb may be preceded by one or more Modal verbs marking Tense, Mood, or Aspect (such as neˑn ‘PST’, siːə ‘HORT’, juˑɑŋsiŋɛ̃ː ‘PROG’, leˑɑt ‘PERF’) forming

Multi-Verb Predicates. Such Modals are recognised as grammaticalized forms of verbs[36] with regular lexical meanings.[37].

neːn	ʊiːʔ	ʔãːn	ʔõːn	t̪iːn	ʔãːn	ʊɑniːʔəcəʔ	ɹeː	
PST	do	$DIST_1$	3SG	ACC	$DIST_1$	work	ANA	

‘He did his work’

cəːŋ	t̪ɑːj	kəːʔ	mɔsəːs	kəːʔ	ʔɑːm	t̪ə	**leɑːt**	ʔõːxŋə	kəːʔ	lɑːx
belong	DAT	$DIST_3$	Moses	$DIST_3$	dog	REL	**PERF**	break	$DIST_3$	leg

‘The dog whose leg is broken belongs to Moses’

In the case that the Subject is a pronoun other than that of 3rd person, the same pronoun may be repeated between the Modal and the Main verb; we refer to these as Multi-Verb Subjects (MVS). Examples:

neːn	**ci ʔɑːj**	puɑːʔ	t̪iːn	ŋãːŋ	kɑːp	ʔiːn	ci ʔɑːj
PST	**MVS**	catch	ACC	$DIST_2$	turtle	PROX	1DU, EXCL

‘We (dual) caught a turtle’

siːə	**xeːʔ**	ʊiːʔ	ʔiːn	ɹɯəːj	ʔiːn	xeːʔ
HORT	**MVS**	make	PROX	canoe	PROX	1PL, INCL

‘Let us make a canoe’

In the case that the Subject is a third person pronoun or a regular noun, the form nə occurs as Multi-Verb Subject between the Modal and the Main verb as seen in the following sentence:

niːt	jɔːʔ	**nə**	kɑjiːŋə	t̪ə	ʔɔɑːl	cuɑː	ʔiːn	ʔõːn
GENCNEG	FUT	**MVS**	go	LOC	DIR	forest	PROX	3SG

‘He will not go to forest’

The Simple sentences of the language are found to be in the form of five types, as follows:

Affirmative:

These are affirmations of fact, such as:

cɑjɑːŋ	neːn	kəːʔ	ɲiː cɔːn	t̪ɑːj	kəːʔ	xuɹɑːsə
collapse	PST	$DIST_3$	John’s house	INS	$DIST_3$	storm

‘John’s house collapsed due to storm’

ʔõː	t̪uləːŋxətse	kəːʔ	kɑpt̪eːn	xeːʔ
COP	good	$DIST_3$	Captain	1PL,INCL

‘Our Captain is good’

kɑt̪ɯː	t̪iːn ʔɛ̃ːx	ʔiːn	ʔəːn	ʔinkɑːnə	
live	here	PROX	3SG	F	

‘She lives here’

Imperative:

These are simple sentences which are in the form of command and lack overt Subjects, such as:

[36] neːn has the verbal realization as ‘to discard’, siːə ‘to grow into a banana plant’, juːɑŋ ‘to solidify’, leːɑt ‘to cease, be enough’.

[37] The position of Modals can vary somewhat from the prefered order.

ʔoːŋə	t̪ə	ʔãˑn	ɲiː cə̃ː
Go, DIRADR	LOC	$DIST_1$	my house

‘Go to my house’

ʔoːŋəlɑˑx	ʔiˑn	mɛ̃ː
Go, DIRADR, DIRTO	PROX	2SG

‘Go away’

Interrogative:

These are Simple sentences in the form of questioning a fact. They can utilise an Interogative such as kɑɹiː ‘how much/many’ as in:

kɑɹiːse	ʔufeː	kəˑʔ	koəˑn	t̪ɑˑj	ʔiˑn	mɛ̃ː.[38]
INTER	PL	$DIST_3$	child	DAT	PROX	2SG

‘How many children do you have?’

Or they can be formed with sentence final intonation (SFI). E.g.:

ʔə̃ː	ʔiˑn	koəˑn	mɛ̃ː	ʔinkɑːnə	ʔiˑn	meɹiː↗?
COP	PROX	child	2SG	F	PROX	Mary SFI

‘Is Mary your daughter?’

Negative:

These are simple sentences which negate a fact or action, and are formed with three types of negators:

Prohibitive Negator:

vɑˑt	mɛ̃ː	ʔujɔˑl	kiː	ʔãˑn	ɲuˑɲ[39]
PROHNEG	MVS	tell	PL	$DIST_1$	lie

‘Do not tell lies’

Generic Negator:

niˑt	jɔˑʔ	nə	kɑjiːŋə	t̪ə	ʔɔɑˑl	cuɑː	ʔiˑn	ʔə̃ˑn
GENCNEG	FUT	MVS	go	LOC	DIR	forest	PROX	3SG

‘He will not go to forest’

Pronominalized Negator:

jɔˑʔ	ciʔɑˑj	ɹɯˑkt̪ə	joˑl	ʔiˑn	mɛ̃ː	ʔiˑn	ciʔɑˑj
FUT	MVS	come,DIR TDR	COM	PROX	2SG	PROX	1DU, EXCL
pəɹe	ciʔɑˑjˈt	sɑjɯˑx	ciʔɑˑj	kɑt̪ɯː	joˑl	ʔiˑn	mɛ̃ː
COORD	PNLDNEG	FUT	MVS	stay	COM	PROX	2SG

‘We (dual) will come with you but will not stay with you’

Exclamatory:

These are Simple sentences which express surprise over a fact, and are found making use of exclamatory particles.

ʔɑɹeˑʔ!	t̪uəˑksi	t̪iˑn	ʔiˑn	cə̃ː	kəˑʔ	jeˑɑʊ
EXCLAM	pull, DIRTDW	ACC	PROX	1SG	$DIST_3$	crocodile

‘Alas! The crocodile pulls me’

[38] Existential verb ʔɔˑt is elided.

[39] The subject got deleted because of its imperative nature.

5.2.1.2. Coordinate sentence

Coordinate sentences are found formed by coordinating simple sentences by means of coordinate markers (for example, pəɹe ‘but’). Example:

jɔˑʔ	ciʔɑˑj	ɹɯˑkʈə	joˑl	ʔiˑn	mɛ̃ː	ʔiˑn	ciʔɑˑj
FUT	MVS	come,DIR TDR	COM	PROX	2SG	PROX	1DU, EXCL
pəɹe	ciʔɑˑjˈt	sɑjɯˑx	ciʔɑˑj	kɑʈɯː	joˑl	ʔiˑn	mɛ̃ː
COORD	PNLDNEG	FUT	MVS	stay	COM	PROX	2SG

‘We (dual) will come with you but will not stay with you’

5.2.2. Dependent clause

Dependent clauses are indicated by subordinating markers: Relativizer, Complementizer and Adverbializer.

5.2.2.1. Relative clause

A Relative clause is embedded into an independent clause by means of a relativizer, ʈə (REL). For example:[40]

cəˑŋ	ʈɑˑj	kəˑʔ	mɔsəˑs	kəˑʔ	ʔɑˑm	ʈə	leɑˑt	ʔɔ̃ˑxŋə	kəˑʔ	lɑˑx
belong	DAT	$DIST_3$	Moses	$DIST_3$	dog	REL	PERF	break	$DIST_3$	leg

‘The dog whose leg is broken belongs to Moses’

5.2.2.2. Complement clause

Complement clauses are embedding into independent clauses by means of a complementizer, nə (COMP). For example:[41]

ʈuləˑŋxətse	nə	neˑn	nə	ɹɯˑk	ŋãˑŋ	ʔɔ̃ˑn	ʔinkɔːɲə[42]
well	COMP	PST	MVS	come	$DIST_2$	3SG	M

‘It is well that he came’

5.2.2.3. Adverbial clause

An Adverbial clause is embedded into independent clauses by means of an adverbializer, nə (PURP). For example:[43]

ʔɔˑt	niːnɛˑʔ	nə	jɔˑʔ	nə	xɑsɔˑxlɑjən	ʈɑˑj	ʔiˑn	mɛ̃ː	ʔiˑn	ʔufeː
EXIS	here	PURP	FUT	MVS	help	DAT	PROX	2SG	PROX	3PL

‘They are here to help you’

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[40] Compare the sentential form leɑˑt ʔɔ̃ˑxŋə kəˑʔ lɑˑx ʔɑˑm ‘dog’s leg is broken’

[41] Compare the sentential form neˑn nə ɹɯˑk ŋãˑŋ ʔãˑn ʔinkɔːɲə ‘he came’

[42] The existential verb ʔɔˑt is elided.

[43] Compare to the sentential form jɔˑʔ nə xɑsɔˑxlɑjən ʈɑˑj ʔiˑn mɛ̃ː ʔiˑn ʔufeː‘They will help you’.

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Abbreviations

1	First person	EXIS	Existential verb
2	Second person	F	Feminine
3	Third person	FUT	Future tense
A	Agent	GENCNEG	Generic negator
ACC	Accusative	HORT	Hortative
ANA	Anaphoric	INCL	Inclusive pronoun
CAUS	Causative	INS	Instrumental
$CAUS_1$	Causative prefix	INTER	Interrogative
$CAUS_2$	Causative infix	INTS	Intensifier
$CAUS_3$	Causative suffix	LINK	Linker
CLF	Classifier	LOC	Locative
COM	Comitative	M	Masculine
COMP	Complementizer	MVS	Multi-Verb subject
COORD	Coordinator	NEG	Negator
COP	Copula	NUM	Numeral
DAT	Dative	PERF	Perfect
DEM	Demonstrative	PL	Plural
DIR	Directional	PLCOORD	Plural nominal phrase coordinator
DIRADR	Directional away from doer	PN	Proper noun
DIRTDR	Directional toward doer	PNLDNEG	Pronominalized negator
DIRTDW	Directional toward downward	POSS	Possessive
DIRTH	Directional toward horizontal	PROG	Progressive
DIRTI	Directional toward inward	PROHNEG	Prohibitive negator
DIRTO	Directional toward outward	PROX	Proximate demonstrative
DIRTQ	Directional toward quality	PST	Past tense
DIRTU	Directional toward upward	PTCP	Participle
DIRTW	Directional toward welfare	PURP	Purposive
$DIST_1$	Distal demonstrative near visible	QUAL	Qualitative
$DIST_2$	Distal demonstrative far visible	QUAN	Quantitative
$DIST_3$	Distal demonstrative invisible	RED	Reduplication
DU	Dual	REL	Relativizer
DUCOORD	Dual nominal phrase coordinator	RES	Rsultative affix
EXCL	Exclusive pronoun	SFI	Sentence final intonation
EXCLAM	Exclamatory	SG	Singular

Appendix 1: Glossed texts

1. *Öön̊ nëk̲ matāi kinlāhö nëk̲ ën̊h*
   ʔə̃ː nɛːʔ maʈaːj kinlɑːxə nɛːʔ ʔɛ̃ːx
   COP PROX village Kamorta this
   'This is Kamorta Island'

2. *Pūslötö tāi kī ngān̊ng kāp ān̊n òāl kamalëk̲*
   puːslaʈə ʈaːj kiː ŋãːŋ kɑːp ʔãːn ʔɔɑːl kamɑlɛːʔ
   full INS PL $DIST_2$ turtle $DIST_1$ DIR sea
   'Sea is full of turtles'

3. *Hān̊t ôt īn chuk mamilööh tö ān̊n òāl matāi chiööi*
   xãːt ʔɔːt ʔiːn cuːk mɑmiləːx ʈə ʔãːn ʔɔɑːl maʈaːj ciʔəːj
   GENNEG EXIS PROX playground LOC PROX DIR village our
   'There is no playground in our village'

4. *Ôt lapöök̲ nëk̲ òāl matāi nëk̲ ën̊h*
   ʔɔːt lapəːʔ nɛːʔ ʔɔɑːl maʈaːj nɛːʔ ʔɛ̃ːx
   EXIS beautiful PROX DIR village this
   'This village is beautiful'

5. *Yān̊hngötò īn chi āi tīn u̯fē ān̊n koön rē*
   jãːx ŋɑʈɔ ʔiːn ciʔɑːj ʈiːn ʔufeː ʔãːn koəːn ɹeː
   like PROX 1DU, EXCL ACC PL $DIST_1$ child ANA
   'We (dual) like our children (plural)'

6. *Yuāngsisĕ nö it- sēch tīn kī ngān̊ng rīt chī*
   juɑːŋsise nə ʔit- seːc ʈiːn kiː ŋãːŋ ɹiːt ciː
   cont MVS DIRTI,$DIST_1$-wash ACC PL $DIST_2$ utensil
   ngān̊ng öṅn inkānö
   ŋãːŋ ʔə̃ːn ʔinkɑːnə
   $DIST_2$ 3SG F
   'She is cleaning utensils'

7. *Hān̊t yôk̲ kayīngö īn öṅn tö īn iskōl*
   xãːt jɔːʔ kɑjiːŋə ʔiːn ʔə̃ːn ʈə ʔiːn ʔiskoːl
   GENNEG want go PROX 3SG LOC PROX school
   'He is not going to school'

8. *Ukeūṅk̲ īn chööṅ nēn tö òāl nyī*
   ʔukũːʔ ʔiːn cə̃ː neːn ʈə ʔɔɑːl ɲiː
   sit PROX 1SG PST LOC DIR house
   'I sat on the floor'

9. *Leāt chööṅ ūnyi ööt Munāk nēn īn chööṅ*
   leɑːt cə̃ː ʔuː ɲi ʔəːt munɑːk neːn ʔiːn cə̃ː
   PERF 1SG go southward DIR Munak PST PROX 1SG
   'I had gone to Munak'

10. *Hasôhlöyön tāi īn inān̊ īn chiööi möök*
    xɑsɔːxlɑjən ʈaːj ʔiːn ʔinãː ʔiːn ciʔəːj məːk
    help DAT PROX 2DU PROX 1PL, EXCL FUT
    'We (plural) will help you (dual)'

11. *Rôh* *chöön̊* *uyôl* *tāi* *īn* *chöön̊* *īn* *chanāch* *mën̊*
ɹɔˑx cɜ̃ː ʔujɔˑl t̪aˑj ʔiˑn cɜ̃ː ʔiˑn cɑnɑˑc mɛ̃ː
able 1SG speak DAT PROX 1SG PROX language 2SG
'I can speak in your language'

12. *Siö* *hēk̲* *vīk̲* *īn* *reuöi* *īn* *hēk̲*
siəː xeˑʔ vɪˑʔ ʔiˑn ɹɯəˑj ʔiˑn xeˑʔ
HORT MVS make PROX canoe PROX 1PL, INCL
'Let us (pl, incl) make a canoe'

13. *Chī* *īn* *lĕāng* *köök̲* *matāi* *mën̊*
ciː ʔiˑn leɑˑŋ kəˑʔ mɑt̪aˑj mɛ̃ː
INTER PROX name $DIST_3$ village 2S
'What is the name of your village?'

14. *Ôt* *tulöönghötsĕ* *nö* *nganôn̊kö* *īn* *öṅn?*
ʔɔˑt t̪uləˑŋxətse nə ŋɑnɔ̃ːkə ʔiˑn ʔə̃ˑn↗?
EXIS good PURP meal PROX 3SG
'Is it good to eat?'

15. *Kavālngölah* *nēn* *tīn* *kī* *köök̲* *yuāngunyīhö* *tö* *yôk* *īn*
kɑʊɑˑlŋɑlɑˑx neˑn t̪iˑn kiː kəˑʔ juɑˑŋʔuɲiːxə t̪ə jɔˑk ʔiˑn
throw PST ACC PL $DIST_3$ fruit REL rotten PROX
öṅn *nēn*
ʔə̃ˑn neˑn
$DIST_1$ PST
'She threw away the decayed fruits'

Appendix 2: Basic Lexicon: 285 word list

*Swadesh 100 list item
= Remaining items on Swadesh 200 list

	Gloss	Orthography	IPA
=1	sky	Òāl kalahööyö	ʔɔɑˑl kɑlɑxəːjə
*2	cloud	mifãn̊yö	mifɜ̃ːjə
*3	sun	Hēng	xeˑŋ
*4	moon	kahēn̊v	kɑxɛ̃ˑʊ
*5	star	sāk malīchö	sɑˑk mɑliːcə
=6	wind	hāṅs	xɜ̃ˑs
*7	rain	amīs	ʔɑmiˑs
8	rainbow	kaminrô	kɑminɹɔː
=9	mist	ūs	ʔuˑs
*10	night	hatôm	xɑt̪ɔˑm
=11	day	hihēng	xixeˑŋ
=12	year	sayeūh	sɑjɯˑx
=13	hail	hurāsö	xuɹɑːsə
=14	snow	-	-
=15	freeze	kūapngö	kuˑɑpŋə

*16	water	rēak	ɹeˑɑk
=17	river	rĕāk tö vūa	ɹeɑˑk t̪ə ʊuːɑ
=18	lake	-	-
=19	sea	kamalëk̲	kɑmɑlɛˑʔ
*20	earth, soil	pīöt	piˑət
*21	stone	mangëk̲	mɑŋɛˑʔ
*22	sand	yāyö	jɑːjə
23	mud	rūk̲	ɹuˑʔ
=24	dust	ungnāng	ʔuŋnɑˑŋ
25	gold	kulmôrĕ	kulmɔːɹe
26	silver	chūa	cuːɑ
*27	mountain	hinyūön	xinjuˑən
*28	tree	unyīhö	ʔuɲiːxə
=29	forest	òāl chūa	ʔɔɑˑl cuːɑ
*30	leaf	rāi unyīhö	ɹɑˑj ʔuɲiːxə
*31	bark	ōk hittūch	ʔoˑk xit̪uˑc

=32	flower	fūl	fuˑl
*33	root	yīöh	jiˑəx
=34	fruit	yuāng unyīhö	juɑˑŋ ʔuɲiːxə
*35	seed	ung yūöng	ʔuŋ juˑəŋ
=36	grass	upyūap	ʔupjuˑɑp
=37	stick	kanôh	kɑnɔˑx
38	banana	hipū	xipuː
39	rattan	nāṅt	nãˑt
40	areca	hiyāh	xijɑˑx
41	papaya	pupāi	pupɑˑj
42	coconut	Ngūṅat	ŋũˑɑt
*43	bird	sichūa	sicuːɑ
=44	wing	nūai	nuˑɑj
*45	feather	puyōl	pujoˑl
46	fly (v.)	hēh	xeˑx
*47	egg	huyāk̲	xujɑˑʔ
*48	tail	rēt	ɹeˑt
=49	claw	kisūah	kisuˑɑx
*50	horn	hintōp	xint̪oˑp
=51	animal	sēi	seˑj
*52	dog	ām	ʔɑˑm
53	pig	nôt	nɔˑt
54	chicken	kamūös	kɑmuˑəs
55	duck	vēt	ʋeˑt
*56	fish	kā	kɑː
=57	snake	pāch	pɑˑc
58	rat	kum ēt	kum ʔeˑt
59	rabbit	-	-
60	monkey	kīny	kiˑɲ
61	deer	-	-
62	tiger	-	-
63	buffalo	kapōv fūkörĕ	kɑpoˑʋ fuːkɑɹe
64	cow	kapōv kān	kɑpoˑʋ kɑˑn
65	elephant	kalifāntö	kɑlifɑˑnt̪ə
66	tusk	kanēal	kɑneˑɑl
=67	worm	kamilöök	kɑmiləˑk
68	scorpion	kalungreūöngö pik̲	kɑluŋɹɯˑəŋə piˑʔ
69	spider	kalungreūöngö	kɑluŋɹɯˑəŋə
*70	louse	sēi kūi	seˑj kuˑj
71	mosquito	mihūyö	mixuːjə

*72	fly (n.)	yūöi	juˑəj
*73	nose	mūah	muˑɑx
*74	eye	òāl māt	ʔɔɑˑl mɑˑt
*75	ear	nāng	nɑˑŋ
*76	head	kūi	kuˑj
*77	mouth	òāl fãng	ʔɔɑˑl fɑˑŋ
*78	tooth	kanāp	kɑnɑˑp
*79	tongue	kalit̪ɑˑk	kɑlit̪ɑˑk
*80	hair	yēh	jeˑx
*81	neck	unglôngö	ʔuŋləːŋə
82	shoulder	kūi ungūah	kuˑj ʔuŋuˑɑx
*83	chest	òāl inrāyö	ʔɔɑˑl ʔinɹɑːjə
*84	back	ōk	ʔoˑk
*85	heart	kūi panīvö	kuˑj pɑniːʋə
*86	abdomen	-	-
=87	intestines	pufūak	pufuˑɑk
88	liver	atī	ʔɑt̪iː
*89	hand	kūal	kuˑɑl
90	palm	òāl tāi	ʔɔɑˑl t̪ɑˑj
*91	nail	kisūah	kisuˑɑx
=92	leg	lāh	lɑˑx
*93	foot	ōk lāh	ʔoˑk lɑˑx
*94	knee	kūi kanūang	kuˑj kɑnuˑɑŋ
95	thigh	pulôk̲	pulɔˑʔ
96	calf	kinmūanö	kinmuːɑnə
*97	blood	vā	ʋɑː
*98	bone	ung īng	ʔuŋʔiˑŋ
*99	skin	ōk	ʔoˑk
*100	flesh	āṅhö	ʔãːxə
*101	fat	fãp	fɑˑp
=102	live	āṅh	ʔãˑx
*103	die	panyööp	pɑɲəˑp
104	sick	yöön	jəˑn
=105	breathe	iyeūöm	ʔijɯˑəm
*106	hear	yāng	jɑˑŋ
*107	see	hēv	xeˑʋ
*108	speak	yôl	jɔˑl
=109	laugh	itī	ʔiṯiː
110	weep	chīm	ciˑm
=111	suck	it nyôt	ʔiṯɲɔˑt

=112	spit (v.)	tapūh	ʈapuˑx
=113	blow	feūṅö	fɯ̃ːə
*114	bite	kāp	kɑˑp
*115	eat	ungôṅk	ʔuŋɔ̃ˑk
*116	drink	tōp	ʈoˑp
117	drunk	tötōpö	ʈɑʈoːpə
=118	vomit	hu ōv	xuʔoˑʊ
=119	smell	eūṅ	ʔɯ̃ː
=120	think	itmôt	ʔitmɔˑt
*121	know	akāh	ʔɑkɑˑx
=122	count	harōv	xɑɹoˑʊ
=123	fear	pahūaḵ	pɑxuˑɑʔ
124	want	yôḵ	jɔˑʔ
*125	sleep	itēak	ʔiʈeˑɑk
*126	lie	lômngö	lɔˑmŋə
*127	stand	uksöök	ʔuksəˑk
*128	sit	ukeūṅḵ	ʔukɯ̃ˑʔ
*129	walk	ungsônghö	ʔuŋsɔˑŋxə
*130	come	reūk	ɹɯˑk
131	go	kayīng	kɑjiˑŋ
132	ascend	chūṅanglö	cɯ̃ˑɑŋlə
133	descend	chūṅangsĕ	cɯ̃ˑɑŋse
134	enter	cheūthöt	cɯˑtxət
135	return	sūatörĕ	suˑɑʈɑɹe
=136	turn	vīöl	ʊiˑəl
*137	swim	kichāl	kicɑˑl
=138	float	töôh	ʈɔˑx
=139	flow	vūa	ʊuːɑ
=140	push	tīn	ʈiˑn
=141	pull	uktūök	ʔukʈuˑək
=142	throw	kavāl	kɑʊɑˑl
=143	fall, drop	fūk	fuˑk
*144	give	kūamhötö	kuˑɑmxɑʈə
=145	take	ukë	ʔukɛː
=146	wash	sēch	seˑc
=147	launder	chīch	ciˑc
=148	split	rāk	ɹɑˑk
=149	tie	uknyēṅak	ʔukŋẽˑɑk
=150	wipe	it töôt	ʔitʈɔˑt
=151	rub	kuchāh	kucɑˑx

=152	hit	ufôh	ʔufɔˑx
=153	cut	ukröök	ʔukɹəˑk
=154	stab	sayôh	sɑjɔˑx
=155	dig	kachūat	kɑcuˑɑt
=156	scratch	tinyeūöp	ʈinjɯˑəp
=157	squeeze	kumchīch	kumciˑc
*158	man	payūh inkônyö	pɑjuˑx ʔinkɔːɲə
*159	woman	payūh inkānö	pɑjuˑx ʔinkɑːnə
*160	person	payūh	pɑjuˑx
=161	father	chiöḵ inkônyö	ciəˑʔ ʔinkɔːɲə
=162	mother	chiöḵ inkānö	ciəˑʔ ʔinkɑːnə
=163	child	kinyôṅm	kiɲɔ̃ˑm
=164	husband	kôny	kɔˑɲ
=165	wife	kān	kɑˑn
=166	older brother	chāv inkônyö	cɑˑʊ ʔinkɔːɲə
=167	older sister	chāv inkānö	cɑˑʊ ʔinkɑːnə
168	younger sibling	tāv	ʈɑˑʊ
*169	name	lēang	leˑɑŋ
*170	I (fam.)	cheūṅö / chööṅ	cɯ̃ːə/ cə̃ː
*171	you (sg.)	mëṅ	mɛ̃ː
=172	he	ööṅn inkônyö	ʔə̃ˑn ʔinkɔːɲə
*173	we (incl.)	hēḵ	xeˑʔ
=174	you (pl.)	ifē	ʔifeː
=175	they	ufē	ʔufeː
176	paddy rice	arōös	ʔɑɹoˑəs
177	pounded rice	arōös hung tông	ʔɑɹoˑəs xuŋ ʈɔˑŋ
178	cooked rice	arōös hungsööng	ʔɑɹoˑəs xuŋsəˑŋ
179	corn	-	-
180	salt	sālö	sɑːlə
181	red pepper/ chilli	kumēantö	kumeˑɑnʈə
182	betel	akë	ʔɑkɛː
183	pestle	ungtông	ʔuŋʈɔˑŋ
184	mortar	-	-
185	to cook	söông	səˑŋ
186	firewood	ôṅh	ʔə̃ˑx
*187	fire	hi ōöi	xiʔoˑəj
*188	burn	harôk	xɑɹɔˑk
*189	ashes	umnöök	ʔumnəˑk

*190	smoke	fus hi ōöi	fuˑs xiʔoˑəj
*191	road, path	kayī	kɑjiː
192	house	nyī	ɲiː
193	roof	ōk nyī	ʔoˑk ɲiː
=194	cord	tanūkö	t̪anuːkə
=195	sew	ichīh	ʔiciˑx
=196	clothing	lōi vanīk̲löyön	loˑj ʋaniˑʔlɑjən
197	loincloth	nīng	niˑŋ
=198	work	vīk̲	ʋiˑʔ
=199	play	milööh	miləˑx
=200	sing	iköös	ʔikəˑs
=201	dance	chāt	cɑˑt
=202	drum	tumpōrĕ	t̪umpoːɹe
203	gong	sanūn	sɑnuˑn
=204	buy	halāv	xɑlɑˑʋ
205	crossbow	fòöny töharôṅnö	fəˑɲ t̪axɑɹɔ̃ːnə
206	arrow	āṅhchök̲	ʔãˑxcəʔ
=207	spear	sanëh	sɑnɛˑx
=208	shoot	hafööny	xɑfəˑɲ
=209	hunt	hayeūön	xɑjɯˑən
*210	kill	urik̲ngöfah	ʔuɹiˑʔŋɑfax
=211	fight	pumôn	pumɔˑn
*212	one	hīöng	xiˑəŋ
*213	two	āṅ	ʔãː
=214	three	lūöi	luˑəj
=215	four	fūan	fuˑɑn
=216	five	tanāi	t̪anɑˑj
217	six	tafūöl	fuˑəl
=218	seven	isāt	ʔisɑˑt
=219	eight	infūan	ʔinfuˑɑn
220	nine	hēanghötö	xeˑɑŋxɑt̪ə
=221	ten	sööm	səˑm
=222	twenty	āṅ ināi	ʔãː ʔinɑˑj
=223	hundred	tösō	t̪asoː
*224	all	mumtūmö	mumt̪uːmə
*225	many	karūk̲ngösĕ	kɑɹuˑʔŋase
=226	some	pīṅchsĕ	pĩˑcse
=227	few	pīṅchsĕ	pĩˑcse
*228	big	karūk̲	kɑɹuˑʔ
*229	small	umpīṅch	ʔumpĩˑc

*230	long	chalīng	cɑliˑŋ
231	short (length)	mitāṅt	mit̪ãːt
232	tall	chôngkui	cɔˑŋkuj
=233	short (height)	miteūṅ	mit̪ũː
*234	round	ukīṅl	ʔukĩˑl
=235	smooth	leūön	lɯˑən
=236	thick	fūai	fuˑɑj
=237	thin	nyeūṅ	ɲũː
=238	wide	karūk̲tak	kɑɹuˑʔt̪ak
=239	narrow	umpīṅchtak	ʔumpĩˑct̪ak
*240	black	eūl	ʔɯˑl
*241	red	öök	ʔəˑk
*242	white	tīṅöh	t̪ĩˑəx
*243	green	chungūṅa	cuŋũːɑ
*244	yellow	ngööṅ	ŋə̃ː
*245	dry	hēöh	xeˑəx
=246	wet	mīk̲	miˑʔ
=247	rotten	yôk	jɔˑk
=248	swell	feūṅö	fũːə
*249	full	pūs	puˑs
=250	dirty	yūhö	juːxə
=251	sharp	sông	sɔˑŋ
=252	dull	hāṅt kalëk̲	xãˑt kɑlɛˑʔ
*253	new	tiyööh	t̪ijəˑx
*254	hot	tāny	t̪aːɲ
*255	cold /cool	hūang	xuˑɑŋ
=256	heavy	ngāṅn	ŋãˑn
=257	straight	cheūöm	cɯˑəm
=258	right	lë	lɛː
*259	good	lööng	ləˑŋ
=260	bad	pööt	pəˑt
=261	old-aged	sööktò	səˑkt̪ɔ
=262	far	heūi	xɯˑj
=263	near	mi īṅhö	mi ʔĩːxə
=264	right side	lāk̲ cheūlö	lɑːʔ cɯːlə
=265	left side	lāk̲ vūakö	lɑːʔ ʋuːɑkə
266	same	hīöngrĕsĕ	xiˑəŋɑɹese
=267	different	hasööt	xɑsəˑt
=268	here	tin ëṅh	t̪in ʔɛ̃ˑx

=269	there	töngānṅg ë	t̪ɑŋɑ̃ˑŋ ʔɛ:
*270	this	nëk̲ ëṅh	nɛˑʔ ʔɛ̃ˑx
*271	that	ānṅn ë ngānṅng ë köök̲ ë	ʔɑ̃ˑn ʔɛ: ŋɑ̃ˑŋ ʔɛ: kəˑʔ ʔɛ:
=272	when?	kahëṅ	kɑxɛ̃:
=273	where?	chū / kā	cuː / kɑː
*274	who?	chī	ci:
*275	what?	chūa	cuːɑ
=276	and	unāṅ / ufē	ʔunɑ̃: / ʔufe:

=277	with	yōl / māt	joˑl / mɑˑt
=278	at	tö	t̪ə
=279	because	tāi	t̪ɑˑj
=280	how?	kɑsī	kɑsi:
=281	if	yôk̲	jɔˑʔ
=282	in	tö	t̪ɑ
*283	not	hāṅt ööṅ	xɑ̃ˑt ʔə̃:
284	(not) yet	hāṅrĕ	xɑ̃ːɹe
285	already	lēathötsĕ	leˑɑtxətse