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Mūöt (Nicobarese)1

V. R. RAJASINGH
Central Institute of Indian Languages, Mysore, India

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, Tilloong Chong, Kondal, Pulomilo, Little Nicobar and Great Nicobar. Among them Tilloong 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°3450 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 malaˑkkɑ ‘a village’, jnamɑ:ɹɑ ‘a wooden fetish’, cɑnɑ: ‘bengal gram’, pupɑˑj ‘papaya’, maˑŋkɑ’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 Malaˑkkɑ is said to be from the Malay word Malacca that refers to ‘a place’, jnamɑ:ɹɑ from the Danish word Denmark that refers to ‘a place’, cɑnɑ: from the Indo-Aryan Hindi word channa that refers to the pulse ‘Bengal gram’, pupɑˑj from the Portuguese word pawpaw that refers to ‘papaya’, maˑŋkɑ’mango’ and jãˑŋ’tobacco leaf’ from Car Nicobarese, that refers to ‘tobacco leaf’.
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. CVː, CVˑC) 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 Müöt 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. 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. Hence, attempts have already been initiated for collecting data from three more languages also with the author visiting the area of Tökahāñilāhngō (Great Nicobarese) and his colleague Winston Cruz, visiting the areas of Sanënyō (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.

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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), Sanënyō (Chowra Nicobarese), Lurōī (Teressa Nicobarese), Lamòngsĕ (Kondul/Little Nicobarese) and Tökahāñilāhngō (Great Nicobarese). The survey excludes Shompen.
### Table 1: de Röepstorff (1875) words illustrating segmental values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonants &amp; simple vowels</th>
<th>de Röepstorff (1875)</th>
<th>Present day Müöt</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>kantjap (p40)</td>
<td>kinca:p</td>
<td>button</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>top (p50)</td>
<td>jō:p</td>
<td>drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ch</td>
<td>tjok (p28)</td>
<td>c̄:k</td>
<td>ache</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>tjok (p28)</td>
<td>c̄:k</td>
<td>ache</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>tīm (p46)</td>
<td>ē:m</td>
<td>cry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>nang (p50)</td>
<td>ɐ:n</td>
<td>ear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gn</td>
<td>gñi (p28)</td>
<td>ɲiː</td>
<td>abode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ng</td>
<td>jang (p62)</td>
<td>j̄:n</td>
<td>hear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>kamili (p55)</td>
<td>kamiliː</td>
<td>fighting cap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v</td>
<td>jéav (p29)</td>
<td>jeːɑʋ</td>
<td>alligator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>sajōw (p91)</td>
<td>sajoːʋ</td>
<td>sack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>lepré (p37)</td>
<td>leːpæe</td>
<td>book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>hamā (p32)</td>
<td>xamɑː</td>
<td>ask</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j</td>
<td>jéav (p29)</td>
<td>jeːɑʋ</td>
<td>alligator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>gñi (p28)</td>
<td>ɲiː</td>
<td>abode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>kanjut (p44)</td>
<td>kinjʊ:t</td>
<td>coat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ</td>
<td>hœi (p53)</td>
<td>xʉ:j</td>
<td>far</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>jéav (p29)</td>
<td>jeːɑʋ</td>
<td>alligator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ō</td>
<td>ōt (p34)</td>
<td>ʔoːt</td>
<td>be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ</td>
<td>akæ (p35)</td>
<td>ʔakɛː</td>
<td>betel leaf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>ōk (p33)</td>
<td>ʔoːk</td>
<td>back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>hamā (p32)</td>
<td>xamɑː</td>
<td>ask</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2: de Röepstorff (1875) assumed consonant values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labio–dental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p [b] [p]</td>
<td>t [d], [d̪], [t]</td>
<td>c [ch], [dj], [tj]</td>
<td>k [g], [g̪], [k]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n̠ [ŋ], [gñ], [gn]</td>
<td>ɲ [ŋg], [ng]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>s [ʃ], [ʃ]</td>
<td>j [r]</td>
<td>x [h]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v [w], [v]</td>
<td>j [y], [j]</td>
<td>j [y], [j]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3: de Röepstorff (1875) assumed vowel values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>i [ɪ], [ii], [i], [i]</th>
<th>u [œ]</th>
<th>u [ʊ], [ʊ], [u], [u]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>e [ɛ], [ee], [ɛ̆], [ɛ̃], [ĕ]</td>
<td>o [ø], [oo], [oø], [o]</td>
<td>o [o]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ [œ]</td>
<td>æ [œ], [ø], [ø]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a [ã], [ã], [aa], [á], [a], [a]</td>
<td>æ [œ], [ø], [ø]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

- ìé, ūé, etc., in such words as pié̄t ‘dust’ and kajué̄ ‘fight’;
- ei, oi, etc., in such words as jokoleit ‘wash the body’ and kanhoin ‘shirt’;
- eò, in such word as aheòl ‘shellfish’;
- ui, œe, 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, while that of those such as *tjok koi* ‘head ache’ as instances of compound formation involving case relationship.⁷ Moreover, the vocabulary is not found lagging in providing information on syntax also. The use of the sentences *ju tiu* ‘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**

<table>
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<th>de Röepstorff (1884)</th>
<th>Present day Mūöt</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>kanap (p54)</td>
<td>kɑnɑˑp</td>
<td>tooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>mātai (p78)</td>
<td>mɑt̪ɑˑj</td>
<td>village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ti</td>
<td>tiāl (p10)</td>
<td>cɑˑl</td>
<td>flame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>halāk (p23)</td>
<td>xɑlɑˑk</td>
<td>staircase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>am (p3)</td>
<td>?ɑˑm</td>
<td>dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>fanāh (p15)</td>
<td>fɑnɑˑx</td>
<td>brush</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gn</td>
<td>gnī (p19)</td>
<td>niː</td>
<td>house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ng</td>
<td>heng (p30)</td>
<td>xeˑŋ</td>
<td>sun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>fūl (p17)</td>
<td>fɯˑl</td>
<td>east</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>fanāh (p15)</td>
<td>fɑnɑˑx</td>
<td>brush</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w</td>
<td>iwī(p44)</td>
<td>?iːwī</td>
<td>spirit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>isāt (p42)</td>
<td>?isɑˑt</td>
<td>seven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>rām (p96)</td>
<td>ɾɑˑm</td>
<td>night</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>gni (p19)</td>
<td>niː</td>
<td>house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>ilū (p40)</td>
<td>?iluː</td>
<td>bachelor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ü</td>
<td>gnū (p19)</td>
<td>ɲūː</td>
<td>fine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>heng (p30)</td>
<td>xeˑŋ</td>
<td>sun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>kamilōk (p53)</td>
<td>kɑmilɔˑk</td>
<td>worm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ</td>
<td>kahæ (p50)</td>
<td>kɑxɛ̃ː</td>
<td>when</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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,’ 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,’ followed by the root -*jil* ‘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.
Table 5: de Röepstorff (1884) assumed consonant values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labio–dental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>velar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>[b], [p]</td>
<td></td>
<td>t</td>
<td>[d], [t]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td>p [g], [ŋ]</td>
<td>n [ng]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>s [sh], [s]</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>x [h]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>[w]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: de Röepstorff (1884) assumed vowel values

<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>[i], [i], [i]</td>
<td>uu [ü]</td>
<td>u [ü], [u]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>[e], [ɛ], [e], [ɛ]</td>
<td>o [ö], [ö], [o]</td>
<td>ə [ö]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ</td>
<td>[æ], [æ]</td>
<td>a [ä], [ä], [a]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

- ie, ūē, etc., seen in words such as kāfethange ‘to stick in’ and karūē ‘whale’;
- ai, oē, etc., seen in words such as main ‘shark’ and manōing ‘lip’;
- iu, ūo, etc., seen in words such as omium ‘undeveloped fruit of plantain tree’ and dēo ‘a species of fish’;
- ŏē seen in words henpōēl ‘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 kammil 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 kaiīng ‘to go on the road towards a place’ and <em> in the word hemēang ‘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 kōī ‘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
‘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.
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. 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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonants &amp; simple vowels</th>
<th>Man (1889)</th>
<th>Present day Müöt</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>peát (p193)</td>
<td>peˑɑt</td>
<td>heal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t</td>
<td>tǎk (p206)</td>
<td>ŋ ɑˑk</td>
<td>breadth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ch</td>
<td>chaling (p118)</td>
<td>caliˑŋ</td>
<td>long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k</td>
<td>tǎk (p206)</td>
<td>ŋɑˑk</td>
<td>breadth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>ām (p116)</td>
<td>ŋɑˑm</td>
<td>dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>nǎṅ (p180)</td>
<td>nɑˑŋ</td>
<td>ear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ŋ</td>
<td>ŋâñih (p180)</td>
<td>ŋãnɨ x</td>
<td>merchandise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ng</td>
<td>chaling (p118)</td>
<td>caliˑŋ</td>
<td>long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>chaling (p118)</td>
<td>caliˑŋ</td>
<td>long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>fǔl (p133)</td>
<td>fũ l</td>
<td>east wind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w</td>
<td>wâ (p212)</td>
<td>ɣɑː</td>
<td>blood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>sharuâl (p199)</td>
<td>sãruˑal</td>
<td>boar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>sharuâl (p199)</td>
<td>sãruˑal</td>
<td>boar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h</td>
<td>hakî (p134)</td>
<td>hɑkiː</td>
<td>tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>y</td>
<td>yang (p180)</td>
<td>ŋαˑŋ</td>
<td>hear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>hakî (p134)</td>
<td>hɑkiː</td>
<td>tomorrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>yũh (p217)</td>
<td>ŋuˑx</td>
<td>dirt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ü</td>
<td>minyũi (p178)</td>
<td>minjuˑj</td>
<td>yesterday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>eaṅk (p128)</td>
<td>ŋɛˑak</td>
<td>tight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eŋ</td>
<td>eŋh (p130)</td>
<td>ŋɛˑx</td>
<td>near</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>puyōl (196)</td>
<td>puoˑl</td>
<td>body hair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ō</td>
<td>milōh (p178)</td>
<td>õˑx</td>
<td>game</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ō</td>
<td>harōk (p137)</td>
<td>ɹɔˑk</td>
<td>burn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ōn</td>
<td>ōnh (p191)</td>
<td>ŋx</td>
<td>fuel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>ām (p116)</td>
<td>ŋɑˑm</td>
<td>dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ân</td>
<td>ân (p116)</td>
<td>ŋǎː</td>
<td>two</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labio‒dental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p [b], [p]</td>
<td>t [t], [t]</td>
<td>c [ch]</td>
<td>k [g], [k]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n [h]</td>
<td>n [ŋ], [ŋ]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>s [sh], [s]</td>
<td>r [r]</td>
<td>x [h]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v [w]</td>
<td>j [j], [y]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Man (1889) assumed vowel values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ia, ua, etc., found in words such as shiaka ‘stand up’ and kayual ‘leaf mould’;</th>
<th>ai, ōi, etc., found in words such as paiyuh ‘man’ and tōi ‘froth’;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ō [ō]</td>
<td>ō [ō], ō [ō], ō [ō]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ε [e]</td>
<td>ε [ē], ē [ē]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>α [ā], ā [ā], ā [ā], ā [ā]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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’;
- ō, found in words such as tomhēolare ‘move aside’;
- ui, ōe, etc., found in words such as chuisha ‘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 –ngōk ‘to eat’ to derive the word hokngōk ‘food’;
- affixation of –a with the root top‒ ‘to drink’ 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 paiyuḥ őchūa ‘jungle man’ as formed by compounding two substantives and that of ănha ta‒leät‒yōk ‘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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ane</th>
<th>inōat</th>
<th>lamang</th>
<th>ten</th>
<th>chūa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>that</td>
<td>knife</td>
<td>belongs</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>me</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

‘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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labio–dental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>c</td>
<td>k</td>
<td>?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>η</td>
<td>η</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>j</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11: Radhakrishnan (1981) vowels and diphthongs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>i</th>
<th>u</th>
<th>u</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>ə</td>
<td>o</td>
<td>ə</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>ə</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ia</td>
<td>ua</td>
<td>ua</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 ʔãh and ʔæh ‘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: ʔʉ̀y ‘smell’;
- disyllabic root with prefix: kawʉ̀ ‘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)

paʔṳ́j
bad smell
p<um>ʔ智库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 ʉ– 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 camûc ‘silent person’) as well as into prefixal syllable of disyllabic roots (see, <am> of kamalóʔ ‘thief’).

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

‒kéc
to pluck
‒ʔitkéc
RED+to pluck’
mitkéc
A+RED+to pluck
‘One who plucks’ (p.58)

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

kalóʔ
to steal
k<am>ałóʔ
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>kuác²⁰
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 $CVV(C) + \text{-in-} \rightarrow CVV(C)$.
sák
  to spear
s<an>âk
  INS+to spear
′Spear′ (pp60‒61)

–kúah
  to shave
?qikúah²¹
  RED+to shave
k<an>úah²²
  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
kán
  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 rɔ̃x ‘to win’ and rɔ̃x ‘to injure’, cɯːt ‘to dig’, cɯːt ‘to grate’), while the open syllables lack codas (such as ɯː ‘to stay’, ɯː ‘nib’, siː ‘banana plant’, liː ‘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, vɔːniːʔmɑn ‘competitive game’ is formed with the resultative infix <an> intruding into the root vîʔ ‘to do’. Consequently the infixation has created three sequential open syllables: ɔːn, niː; and ʔa.

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)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labio–dental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>p (p)</td>
<td>t̪ (t)</td>
<td>c (ch)</td>
<td>k (k)</td>
<td>? (k)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m (m)</td>
<td>n (n)</td>
<td>p (my)</td>
<td>η (ng)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l (l)</td>
<td>s (s)</td>
<td>r (r)</td>
<td>x (h)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v (v)</td>
<td>j (y)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

- The occurrence of coda f and ɹ is only in borrowed words and among these, f 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 nn in the context of infixing <in> ‘resultative’ into root syllables (e.g.: ṣinā:j ‘second’ and linuːjə ‘third’ have been observed pronounced as ṣinnā:j and linuːjə 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)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>i (i, ī)</th>
<th>u (eu, ēu)</th>
<th>u (u, ū)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>e (ē, ē)</td>
<td>o (o, ō)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ā (ō, ōď)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ē (e, ē)</td>
<td>ō (ō, ŏ)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a (a, ā)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 jān in the word mukaːklajən ‘defender’ with its stressed form jāːn in the word cumbjaːjən ‘to free’).

2.3.2. Nasalized monophthongs

Except for o, eight of nine simple vowels are found attesting their nasalized counterparts. They are ĩ (ĩ, ĩ), ŭ (u̯, ŭ), ĕ̯ (eũ̯, ŕ), ē̯ (ēı̯, ḙ̆), ő (őı̯, ŏ), ă (a, ā), ő (őı̯, ŏı̯) and â (a̯, ā̯). When nasalized, ā fronts to ā (compare, śaːx ‘to slope’ with āx ‘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: iə (iə̯, iò), uu (ua, uɐ), uə (uô, ūō), uu̯ (eu̯, eũ̯), eə (ea, eã), oə (eô, eô), oə (oô, oô). 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: suːtjə ‘one who returns’ and uuːj ‘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 koˑən in isolation or at the end of an utterance and koəˑn 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, iōṅ), uã (uaṅ, uāṅ), uə̃ (uöṅ, ūöṅ), cə (can, cāṅ). 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:
xūˑən ‘ship’s bridge’ and cuãˑt ‘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:

ʔifeː ~ ʔifeː ‘you–plural’
cũˑəŋse ~ cũˑaŋse ‘to alight’
ʔaˑʔsi ~ ʔaˑʔsi ‘touch’
xaugənəmə ~ xaugənənə ‘listen’
ʔanət leˑpae ~ ʔanət leˑpae ‘pencil’
mjniˑx jaloˑkətse ~ mjniˑx jaloˑkətse ‘grocer’
jeˑc ~ jēˑc ‘light red color’
leˑc ~ leiˑc ‘pillar for floor of a house’

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

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

kəˑp ~ kəˑp ‘to fasten’
pəˑt ~ pəˑt ‘to be of bad’
jaˑm ~ jaˑm ‘to strike’
vaˑn ~ vaˑn ‘to fish with net’
jəˑl ~ jəˑl ‘to inform’
jaˑf ~ jaˑf ‘to crystallize’
kəˑs ~ kəˑs ‘to sing’
pəˑt ~ pəˑt ‘to mix as salad’
ciʔəj ~ ciʔəj ‘1DU EXCL’
kaˑpə ~ kaˑpe ‘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. xeˑn ‘sun’, cəˑ ‘1SG’),
polymorphic words are characterized by the morphological derivation, which may be simple (e.g.
xəˑjuˑən ‘to hunt’: xəˑ ‘DIRTDR, DIST’, plus the root –juˑən ‘to hunt’) or more complex (maˑxəˑ
jin ‘engine operator’: maˑ ‘A’ plus xaˑ ‘CAUS’, plus root –jin ‘to operate engine’), and/or by
compounding (e.g. teawkəˑt ‘tear’, mum jəˑməseˑj ‘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

RAJASINGH, V. R. 2016.
Mūöt (Nicobarese). Mon-KhmerStudies 45:14-52
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: xâːsa ‘wind’ and xeːn ‘sun’, derived from xâː ‘to blow’ and xeː ‘to dry’);
2. action relatable to body parts (such as fano x ‘bladder’ and kano p ‘tooth’ derived from fo x ‘to inflate’ and ko p ‘to bite’);
3. action relatable to habitat and household articles such as fano x ‘broom’ fâːmùːr ‘fan’, derived from fo x ‘to clean’ and fûːr ‘to fan’);
4. action relatable to clothing and ornaments (such as catu p ‘loin cloth covering buttocks and genitals’ kano p ‘anklet’, derived from cuː p ‘to wrap around loin covering buttocks and genitals’ and ko p ‘to band around ankle’);
5. action relatable to kinship and social organization (such as caː v ‘elder sibling’ and ciːʔ ‘parent’, derived from cuː v ‘be as elder sibling’ and ciːʔ ‘to parent’);
6. action relatable to implements of economic activity (such as fano n ‘bow’ and kano n ‘screw’, derived from fo n ‘to shoot with arrow’ and lē n ‘to screw’);
7. action relatable to food preparation and consumption (such as ?anoː n ‘cauldron’ and lē n ‘mixture’, derived from ?âː n ‘to cook meat in open vessel’ and lē n ‘to mix’);
8. action relatable to counting and calculation (such as xiː n ‘one’ and xoː n ‘counting’, derived from xiː n ‘to be of one’ and xoː n ‘to count’);
9. action relatable to colour (such as xoː ke ‘dark red’ and nûːa ‘green’, derived from xo k ‘to be of dark red’ and nûːa ‘to be of green’);
10. action relatable to taste (such as teːk a ‘bitter’ and siːn a ‘sweet’, derived from teːk ‘to taste bitter’ and siːn ‘to taste sweet’);
11. action relatable to pronominal reference (such as caː ‘1SG’ and nâː ‘2DU’, derived from caː ‘to stand for a person in the speaker’s position’ and nâː ‘to stand for two persons in the hearer’s position’);
12. action relatable to demonstratives (such as koʔ ‘distal’ and neʔ ‘proximate’, derived from koʔ ‘to point at distal distance’ and neʔ ‘to point at proximate distance’);
13. miscellaneous action (such as cano c ‘prayer’ and fano k ‘removing punctured skin’, derived from caː c ‘to pray’ and fo k ‘to remove punctured skin’).

Roots alone are also found capable of functioning as words without taking any affixes: for example, the roots xeːn ‘to dry’, xiːn ‘to be of one’ and xoːk ‘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:

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RAJASINGH, V. R. 2016.
Müött (Nicobarese). Mon-Khmer Studies 45:14-52
PROX: Proximal, close by

DIST₁: Distal near visible

DIST₂: Distal far visible

DIST₃: 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>xu‒</td>
<td>DIRTDR, DIST₁ (towards doer, invisible)</td>
<td>e.g.: xujuːm ‘to hunt’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ki‒</td>
<td>DIRADR, DIST₁ (away from doer, near visible)</td>
<td>e.g.: kiːʈ ‘to saw’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tum‒</td>
<td>DIRTU, PROX (towards upward, proximal)</td>
<td>e.g.: tumɔ ɖ ‘to trap’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pu‒</td>
<td>DIRTDW, DIST₂ (towards welfare, far visible)</td>
<td>e.g.: puja k ‘to pound’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?i‒</td>
<td>DIRTI, DIST₁ (towards inward, near visible)</td>
<td>e.g.: ?ijuːm ‘to breathe’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cum‒</td>
<td>DIRTO, PROX (towards outward, proximal)</td>
<td>e.g.: cumle ʋ ‘peeping(snake)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ma‒</td>
<td>DIRTQ, DIST₂ (quality, invisible)</td>
<td>e.g.: maŋa n ‘weighty’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>la‒</td>
<td>DIRTW, PROX (towards welfare, proximal)</td>
<td>e.g.: sumjo n ‘to forgive’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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, xu jį ‘to arrive’, xe ɖn ‘to run away’, and xe tũ ‘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‒>ʔi–, ʔi–

ʔi– ‘DIRTI, DIST₁’  > ʔin–  ʔinjã ɲ ‘to weave’
               > ʔit–  ʔitc ɑ ɛ ‘to pray’
               > ʔit  ʔite  t ‘to write’

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

ʔiʃuːm  ‘to breathe’
ʔiʃi ət  ‘to stitch’
miʃu n  ‘to lie’
kiʔe at  ‘to pant’

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

ʔu‒ ‘DIRTI, DIST₂’  > ʔum–  ʔumlo m ‘to roll’
               > ʔuŋ–  ʔuŋso ɲ ‘to walk’
               > ʔup–  ʔupca  p ‘to pick up’
               > ʔuk–  ʔukcu ɑk ‘to move forward’

Compare to the following examples that do not meet the phonological conditions:
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. -ŋa in kumjuʔanapa ‘to disperse’, -lax in salaxilax ‘to trip’, -man in caniʔoman ‘competitive game’ and -jən in cumjaʔijən ‘to free’). Suffixes of this kind are found signifying all the nine directional meanings listed at §3.2.1; namely:

- to toward doer e.g.: ɾuŋ- k-o ‘to arrive’
- na away from doer e.g.: xe an-nə ‘to run away’\(^{24}\)
- lo toward upward e.g.: xe t-la ‘stern’
- se toward downward e.g.: cū an-se ‘to alight’
- xat toward inward e.g.: cur t-xat ‘to enter’
- no toward outward e.g.: ?unjə na ‘to thresh’
- lax toward horizontal e.g.: lo-lax ‘to run’
- man toward quality e.g.: caniʔo-man ‘competitive game’
- jən toward welfare e.g.: le at-jən ‘to get well’

3.2.4. Agentive affixes ma-/<am>, -xe

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.

ma- is found prefixed to stems formed from root after prefixing causative prefix (e.g. ma- in maxajən ‘engine operator’) as well as to stems formed from root after prefixing directional and demonstrative prefix (e.g. ma- in maxaʃənənalaʃ ‘eloper’).\(^{25}\)

<am> is found infixed into roots (see <am> in canaʃ ‘pilot’) as well as into prefixal syllables of directional and demonstrative significance after prefixing the same to roots (see <am> in kamasaʃ ‘oil press’).\(^{26}\)

-xe is found suffixed to roots (see -xe in nu ʃɛ ‘crew of sailing canoe’).

3.2.5. Resultative affixes x-, <an>, -cə?

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 xuʃəʔ ‘egg”).

As infix, they are found infixed into roots (see <an> of cana ‘prayer’).\(^{27}\)

As suffix, they are found suffixed to roots (see -cə? of ko ʃɛ ‘servant’).\(^{28}\)

\(^{24}\) Besides -na, 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 salaxilax ‘to trip’ and cumjaʔijən ‘to free’)

\(^{25}\) Besides, ma-, two more prefixes are also found in the language. They are mu- and m-

\(^{26}\) Besides <am>, two more infixes are also found in the language. They are <um>; for example k<um>ula ϱ ‘one who bathes,’ and <im>; for example m<im>ila ϱ ‘athlete’.

\(^{27}\) Besides <an>, one more infix <in> is also found in the language; for example: i<in>ा ‘one of the word inə ‘talk’. 

RAJASINGH, V. R. 2016.
Mūöt (Nicobarese). Mon-KhmerStudies 45:14-52
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 cinju vo ‘depth’ considered as the replacement for the i of ci—if the word be cui vo ‘to go deep’ or as that for the u of cu—if the word be cuvo ‘to go deep’ or as that for the u of cum—if the word be cumvo ‘to go deep’).

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

sana t ‘coconut peel/coconut peeling /coconut peeler’
s<an>a t
to peel coconut-RES

kineap ‘scissors/a piece of cloth cut with scissors’
kin−ca p
DIRADR, RES—to cut with scissors

### 3.2.6. Participial affixes t̪a−, −tet

Participial affixes (PTCP) are prefix t̪a− and suffix −tet. 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:

\[t̪a:kəːsə ‘song (that which is sung)’\]
\[t̪a−kəːs−ə PTCP‒to sing‒RES\]

\[t̪a:xəjeːlə ‘prisoner (the one who is imprisoned)’\]
\[t̪a−xə−je: l−ə PTCP‒CAUS1‒to imprison‒RES\]

\[ʔitluˑc tet ‘slough (that which is shed)’\]
\[ʔit−luˑc−tet DIRTI, DIST1‒to shed‒PTCP\]

\[xacu’txət̪et ‘prisoner (the one who is entered)’\]
\[xac−cur−xət−tet DIRTDR, DIST3‒to enter‒DIRTI‒PTCP\]

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

\[t̪a:cuːləʔ ‘the one who/which fainted’\]
\[t̪a−cuːl−ə−cəʔ PTCP‒to faint‒RES‒DIRADR\]

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

\[lanu’kəj t ‘wanderer (one who moves aimlessly)’\]
\[<RES>−u k−tet PTCP\]

18 Besides -ca?, one more suffix is also found in the language. It is -ə; for example, the morphemic structure of) jaka sə ‘the one which is sung’.

RAJASINGH, V. R. 2016.
Mūöt (Nicobarese). Mon-KhmerStudies 45:14-52
3.2.7. Instrumental affixes <ɑl>, –t̪ ɑˑj

Instrumental affixes (INS) are infix <ɑl> and suffix –t̪ ɑˑj. 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.

kalaːnə ‘spider web’
k<ɑl>ɑ–n– ɑ
DIRADR<INS>DIST, to catch prey–RES

fanɔˑxɑˑj ‘bat’
f<ɑn>ɔˑx–t̪ɑˑj<br>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:
kumʔɔˑpɑˑt̪ə ‘to close’
kum–ʔɔˑp–xɑ–t̪ə<br>DIR, 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<br>CAUS 1–to eat

mamaxɑˑm ‘a stage in the life cycle’
m–m<ɑx>aˑm<br>A–<CAUS 2> to menstruate

puʃɑˑp ‘mortality’
p<ux>u–ɲaˑp<br>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<um> the agentive noun pumunɑˑn ‘soldier’ is derived.

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

ɑtɹɛt ‘to frighten’
ɑt–ɳ–ɹet<br>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 puʃjɔˑk ‘to pound’ also conveying the meaning ‘pounding’, nu kjoˑeto ‘arrive’ for ‘arriving’, cɑmɔˑn ‘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 (j or ʋ) is inserted between vowel final roots and vocalic suffix -ə. If the root vowel happens to be i, e, ɛ, u, uit or ʋ the glide will be j; if the root vowel is a the glide may be either for j or ʋ. Examples:

tuːja ‘sickness’
̃tuː–j–ə

to be sick–LINK–RES

luːja ‘lust’
̃luː–j–ə

to lust–LINK–RES

suːaro ‘poem’
̃suː–aro

to recite fictitiously–LINK–RES

xaːvuːaːja ‘canal’
̃xaː–vuːaː–j–ə

to irrigate–LINK–RES

3.3.2. Morphophonemic deletion

Morphophonemic deletion of a phoneme occurs when the initial glottal stop of prefixes ?i–DIRTI, DIST₁ and ?u–DIRTI, DIST₂ is replaced by another prefix, as in the examples below:

ʔiːtcãˑt ‘to eat plants’
ʔi–cãˑt

DIRTI, DIST₁–to eat plants

mitcãˑt ‘grasshopper’
mit–cãˑt

A, DIST₁–to eat plants

ʔuklaːkluːan ‘to defend’
ʔuk–laːk–laː–jən

DIRTI, DIST₂–to defend–DIRTU–DIRTO

muklaːkluːan ‘defender’
muk–laːk–la–jən

A, DIST₂–to defend–DIRTU–DIRTO

3.4. Compounding

Compounding is found to be a productive process in Müöt. 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.
mumtuː mə seˑj ‘herd (gathering of animals)’
gathering + animal

see k maˑt ‘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’.

koɔn ciˑəʔ ‘relatives’
koɔn+ ciˑəʔ
children + parents

xiptuː çənɔː tɔm ‘cholera’
xiptuː+ çənɔː tɔm
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 see k suˑəŋ ‘dew’ and nan5:kɔxatɔˑm ‘supper’ whose compounding processes are depicted below as involving relativizing relationship can be taken as illustrations for the kind.

see k suˑəŋ ‘dew (water from condensation)’
see k + suˑəŋ
water + condensed

nan5:ko xatɔˑm ‘supper (meals which is taken in the night)’
nan5:ko + xatɔˑm
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:

sə m ‘race’
maxale ṣɐːɡme ‘teacher’
ciˑəʔ ‘parent’
seˑj ‘animal’
sicuːa ‘bird’
4.1.2. Proper noun

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

ket̪ɑɹiˑn ‘Catherine’ (name of a woman)
mɑˑɲ ‘Carcharius Vulgaris’ (shark species)
cumleˑv ‘peeping snake’
ʔuʃɑˑv ‘coconut tree’

4.1.3. Verbal noun

Verbal nouns denote actions, such as:

kinʃt ‘milking’
kincuːtə ‘digging’
xinmuːlə ‘reaping’

4.1.4. Copula verb

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

xãˑt ?ə̃ːʔiˑn cüˑkɛːʔiˑn ?ə̃ːʔiˑn ?ə̃ːʔiˑn GENNEG COP PROX basket 1SG PROX 3SG 1PL,INCL
‘It is not my basket’

4.1.5. Existential verb

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

xãˑt ?ɔˑtʔumpĩˑcse kəˑʔkapтеˑn xeˑʔEXIS small INTS PROX Captain 1PL,INCL
‘This house is very small’

4.1.6. Verbs: Transitive, Intransitive

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

Transitive
kujuˑŋ ‘to destroy’
kumjuˑɑŋxɑɲə ‘to disperse’
kumʔɔˑpxɑtə ‘to close’

Intransitive
cũˑɑŋse ‘to alight’
cuˑtxat ‘to go inside’
saləˑxilax ‘to trip’
4.1.7. Qualitative words

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

lapəʔ ‘beautiful’
ṭūləŋxətse ‘good’
pinkəkŋaːj ‘notoriety’
ʔumcuːmətse ‘horizontally’
pukaːkətəj ‘notoriously’
jə lŋ luni āpe ‘cleverly’
xakətəse ‘seriously’

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

ʔ:  ṭūləŋxətse kaʔ kəpən xeʔ
COP good DIST3 Captain 1PL,INCL
‘Our Captain is good’

4.2. Closed class words

4.2.1. Personal Pronouns

The following Personal Pronouns are identified:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>cə̃ː / cə̃ːʔ</td>
<td>xəʔ (incl.)</td>
<td>xeʔ (incl.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cĩʔa j (excl.)</td>
<td>ciʔa j (excl.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>mɛː</td>
<td>ʔinəː</td>
<td>ʔifeː</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ʔən 1SG</td>
<td>ʔunəː 1SG</td>
<td>ʔufeː 3SG</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

xəːt ʔ:  ʔi n cukeː  cəategorize  ʔi n ʔən
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:

nɛʔ / ʔi n ‘Proximate’
ʔɑn ‘Distal,’ (near visible)
ŋaŋ ‘Distal,’ (far visible)
kəʔ ‘Distal,’ (not visible)

Demonstratives precede the phrasal head, and their use appears to be obligatory. The Proximal nɛʔ ‘this’ (also nɛʔ ʔeː) is used to indicate specificity, while ʔi n 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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cardinals</th>
<th>Ordinals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>xiˑəŋ</td>
<td>'one'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ʔä:</td>
<td>'two'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luˑəj</td>
<td>'three'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fuˑən</td>
<td>'four'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t̪aˑn</td>
<td>'five'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jafuˑə</td>
<td>'six'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ʔiˑsaˑt</td>
<td>'seven'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ʔin-fuˑən</td>
<td>'eight'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xiˑən-xaj</td>
<td>'nine'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>səm</td>
<td>'ten'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>səm-xiˑən</td>
<td>'eleven'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t̪aˑ-ʔinaˑj</td>
<td>'twenty'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t̪aˑ-ʔinaˑj-xiˑən</td>
<td>'twenty one'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>səm-ʔinaˑj</td>
<td>'hundred'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Five classifiers are identified, as follows:

juˑəŋ  ‘human countable’
kuˑj  ‘human countable’
əc  ‘human countable’
uˑən  ‘non–human countable’
ə spilled  ‘mass’

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

luˑən ʔufeː ʔañ kən ʔinkə:nə ʔaˑj ʔiˑn cə.31
NUM, CLF PL DIST1 child F DAT PROX 1SG
‘I have three daughters’

ʔumkuˑən tən janaˑj əkə nə ənapəRio: ʔiˑn ʔsin nə ʔaˑj ʔiˑn cə: ʔajuˑx
give, DIRTDTR NUM, CLF DIST2 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.:

jəˑk  ‘one half coconut shell’
puxumle:  ‘one bottle’

4.2.3.2. Quantitative words—Measure terms

The following measure words are found:

kə눅 ʔiˑnəse  ‘many’
pəcəse  ‘a few/a little/small’
mumtuˑm  ‘all’
leˑəŋ  ‘all’
xaŋəŋəse  ‘whole’

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

The existential verb ʔɔˑt is elided.
These measure words function as verbs syntactically; note the placement of \(\text{ʔum}pĩˑcse\) ‘small’ in the following example sentence:

\[
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\text{EXIS} & \text{ʔum}pĩˑcse & \text{INTS} & \text{PROX} & \text{house} & \text{this} \\
\text{‘This house is very small’}
\end{array}
\]

4.2.3.3. Quantitative words - Temporals

Some words that denote quantity of time are noted:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
sink\text{a}:\text{m}o \quad \text{‘day’} \\
kaxē:v \quad \text{‘month’} \\
sajur\text{x} \quad \text{‘year’}
\end{array}
\]

4.2.4. Location and Direction words

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

\[
\begin{array}{c}
niː\text{n}e\text{ʔ} \quad \text{‘here’} \\
\text{tiːn}\text{ʔɛ̃x} \quad \text{‘here’} \\
\text{toŋaŋʔɛː} \quad \text{‘there’} \\
minj\text{j} \quad \text{‘yesterday’} \\
\text{ʔuʋəx} \quad \text{‘day before yesterday’}
\end{array}
\]

The following example sentence illustrates the use of the term \text{tiːn}\text{ʔɛ̃x} ‘here’ (formed by combining the Accusative marker with \text{ʔɛ̃x} ‘near’); note that it immediately follows the verb:

\[
\begin{array}{ccccccc}
k\text{a}\text{t̪iːn} & \text{ʔɛ̃x} & \text{ʔiˑn} & \text{ʔə̃n} & \text{in} & \text{ʔə̃n} & \text{in}
\end{array}
\]

\text{‘She lives here’}

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

\[
\begin{array}{c}
kap\text{a} \quad \text{‘north’} \\
lu\text{ɑxŋə} \quad \text{‘south’} \\
fu\text{l} \quad \text{‘east’} \\
sumxãː\text{ʋə} \quad \text{‘west’} \\
cur\text{l} \quad \text{‘right’} \\
\text{ʋuˑak} \quad \text{‘left’}
\end{array}
\]

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”:

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccc}
suˑpse & t̪i & \text{ʔa} & \text{ʔə̃n} & \text{ʔə̃n} & \text{xe} & \text{ŋ}
\end{array}
\]

\text{‘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’ | neˑn ‘to discard’
‘past’ | leˑat ‘to finish’
‘future’ | jɔˑʔ ‘to wish, want, will’
‘future’ | sajuˑx ‘hereafter, next year’
‘future’ | məˑk ‘exact, proper, enough’

As for the placement of tense markers, jɔˑʔ and leˑat 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 sajuˑx:

\[\text{give, DIRTDR NUM, CLF DIST}_2 \text{ rupees PROX 3SG DAT PROX 1SG FUT}\]

‘He will give me five rupees’

Man (1889) glosses neˑn 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:

jtˑn ‘accusative’
jtˑj ‘dative / instrumental’
joˑl ‘comitative’
ləˑŋ təˑn ‘ablative’
jə ‘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, kiˑ, and ʔufeˑ. The first of these has the lexical meaning ‘to narrate sentimentally’, while the second is the 3\textsuperscript{rd} Person Pronoun ‘they’. The following illustrate their usage:

\[\text{kavaˑl ŋaˑx neˑn jtˑn kiˑ kəˑʔ } \text{juˑŋ } \text{ŋuˑx}: \text{təˑk } \text{təˑʔ } \text{iˑn } \text{təˑj } \text{təˑn } \text{cəˑ: sajuˑx give, DIRTDR NUM, CLF DIST}_2 \text{ rupees PROX 3SG DAT PROX 1SG FUT}\]

‘She threw away the decayed fruits’

\[\text{kəˑʔ ʔufeˑ kəˑʔ } \text{kəˑn } \text{təˑj } \text{təˑn } \text{məˑ:32 INTER PL DIST}_3 \text{ child DAT PROX 2SG}\]

‘How many children do you have?’

4.2.5.4. Intensifier

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

\[\text{ʔɔˑt ləˑɭəʔ kəˑʔ neˑʔ } \text{ʔɔˑl məˑʔ neˑʔ } \text{ʔiˑx EXIS beautiful PROX DIR this village}\]

‘This village is very beautiful’

---

\[32\] Existential verb ʔɔˑt is elided.

RAJASINGH, V. R. 2016.
Mūöt (Nicobarese). Mon-KhmerStudies 45:14-52
4.2.5.5. Negators

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prohibitive (PROHNEG)</th>
<th>Generic (GENCNEG)</th>
<th>Pronominalized (PNLDNEG)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ʋɑˑt</td>
<td>xãˑt</td>
<td>cɨ t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ŧiˑt</td>
<td>cɨʔa jˑt</td>
<td>1DU EXCL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>niˑt</td>
<td>xâˑʔt</td>
<td>1DU INCL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cɨʔə jˑt</td>
<td>xeˑʔt</td>
<td>1PL INCL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miˑt</td>
<td></td>
<td>2SG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ŧiˑn̥ˑt</td>
<td></td>
<td>2DU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ŧiˑfeˑt</td>
<td></td>
<td>2PL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unˑn̥ˑt</td>
<td></td>
<td>3DU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?ufeˑt</td>
<td></td>
<td>3PL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

ʋɑˑt mēˑʔuˑjˑ1 kɨˑʔn n̥ˑn
PROHNEG MVS tell PL DIST 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 ŧiˑn cukiˑc câˑʔiˑn ʔn̥ˑn
GENNEG COP PROX basket 1SG PROX 3SG
‘It is not my basket’

niˑt jəˑʔ nə kajıˑn̥ˑn̥ˑn̥ˑn̥ˑn̥ˑn̥ˑn̥ˑn
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:

jəˑʔ cɨʔa jˑ1 uu kâˑpə jəˑl ʔiˑn mēˑʔiˑn cɨʔa jˑ1
FUT MVS come,DIR TDR COM PROX 2SG PROX 1DU, EXCL
pae cɨʔə jˑt sajuˑx cɨʔə jˑ1 kajurˑjəˑl ʔiˑn mēˑʔiˑn
COORD PNLD NEG FUT MVS stay COM PROX 2SG
‘We (dual) will come with you but will not stay with you’

Apparetnly, ʔn̥ˑn ‘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:

ci: ‘who’
ciˑn ‘what’
cuˑan ‘what’
cu: ‘where’
cuˑansi ‘why’
kajˑn ‘how’
kaiˑi: ‘how much/many’
The following sentence exemplifies the use of cuˑɑn ‘what’:

\[
\text{cuˑɑn} \quad \text{jə?} \quad \text{ɭoˑpə} \quad \text{ʔiˑn} \quad \text{mè:} \\
\text{INTER} \quad \text{FUT} \quad \text{drink, A} \quad \text{PROX} \quad \text{2SG}
\]

‘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)
--- | ---
laˑʔ | ‘direction’
ʔɔˑəl | ‘in, inside, interior’
ŋãˑl | ‘above, in the sky, up there, north’
ʔəˑt | ‘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:

suˑpse INTER laˑʔ sumxãː ACC ʔǎˑn PROX ɛ̃ˑŋ DIST.

‘The Sun sets in the west’

ʔəˑt Teˑxəŋ ʔunə: kəˑʔ koˑn ʔǎˑn ʔinkəˑnəוח 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, ɭeˑe is identified. Its use is exemplified as follows:

neˑn viˑʔ ʔǎˑn ʔəˑn ʔiˑn ʔǎˑn ʔə̃ˑn nəˑn ɭeˑe

PST do DIST 1 ACC DIST 1 work ANA

‘He did his work’

4.2.5.9. Exclamatory particle

Two Exclamatory particles, ʔiˑʔ, ʔaˑeˑʔ ‘alas!’ are identified. An example of usage follows:

ʔaˑeˑʔ! ɭaˑkəsi ʔiˑn ʔiˑn cəˑ kəˑʔ jeˑə

EXCLAM pull, DIRTDW ACC PROX 1SG DIST 1 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 ʔɔˑt is elided.

RAJASINGH, V. R. 2016.
Mūöt (Nicobarese). Mon-KhmerStudies 45:14-52
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:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Head</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DEM</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>?ãˑn xeˑŋ</td>
<td>John</td>
<td>‘the sun’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>DEM</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>?ufe: ?ãˑn kipö m</td>
<td>ʔinkux:na</td>
<td>‘the girls’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>DIR</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>ki: ?ãˑn miťauj:ə</td>
<td>‘clouds (in the sky)’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DU</td>
<td>DEM</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>?unà: kəʔ koˑən</td>
<td>‘the children (dual)’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEM</td>
<td>DIR</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>neʔ ?ãˑl məkaj neʔ ʔiˑx</td>
<td>‘this village (near, visible)’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>case</td>
<td>DEM</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>?aj kəʔ xuʔa:sa</td>
<td>‘due to storm’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>case</td>
<td>DEM</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>neʔ ?ãˑn: neʔ ʔiˑx</td>
<td>‘this house’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUM, CLF</td>
<td>PL</td>
<td>DEM</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>luːj juaˑŋ ʔufe: ?ãˑn kooˑn ʔinkux:na</td>
<td>‘three daughters’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>case</td>
<td>DIR</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>?aj ʔiˑx ʔeteˑj</td>
<td>‘in the sky’</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>case</td>
<td>DEM</td>
<td>DIR</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>?aj ?ãˑl məkaj ciʔəˑj</td>
<td>‘in our village’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above suggest an underlying Nominal Phrase template as follows:

\[
\text{NP} = \text{case/NUM,CLF | PL/Du | DEM | DIR} | \text{head}
\]

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 ʔufe:

kooˑn sɪʔuaˑm ʔinkuˑn ʔufeʔ: ?ãˑn sopoˑa
child PN F PLCOORD DIST1 PN
ʔufeʔ: ?ãˑn ʔiˑstəˑr ʔufeʔ: ?ãˑn culina:34
PLCOORD DIST1 PN PLCOORD DIST1 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 ʔunà:

ʔukàˑl ñàˑŋ ʔiˑx ʔunà: ñàˑŋ pîpəˑj ʔunà: ñàˑŋ padaməˑs35
cut DIST2 firewood DU COORD DIST2 PN DU COORD DIST2 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 ʔä is elided.
35 The use of accusative case marker is found to be optional with the nominal phrase ñàˑŋ ʔiˑx ‘DIST2 firewood’.

RAJASINGH, V. R. 2016.
Mùöt (Nicobarese). Mon-Khmer Studies 45:14-52
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.

\[\text{jua'nsiné}: \text{có}: \text{?ikoxo} \text{?in } \text{có}: \text{PROG MVS sing PROX 1SG}\]

‘I am singing’

\[\text{supse } \text{?on } \text{la'?: sumxamox? } \text{?an } \text{xe'ø}\]

‘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 ne'n ‘PST’, si 'HORT', juansiné: ‘PROG’, le'at ‘PERF’) forming
Multi-Verb Predicates. Such Modals are recognized as grammaticalized forms of verbs\textsuperscript{36} with regular lexical meanings.\textsuperscript{37}

\begin{verbatim}
neˑn viˑʔ ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n ta:n:ʔə̃ ʔə̃
PST do DIST$_1$ 3SG ACC DIST$_1$ work ANA
\end{verbatim}

‘He did his work’

\begin{verbatim}
cəŋ jã j ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n leˑt ?ə̃ xəŋ kaˑʔ lə x
belong DAT DIST$_1$ Moses DIST$_3$ dog REL PERF break DIST$_3$ leg
\end{verbatim}

‘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:

\begin{verbatim}
neˑn ci ʔə j puəʔ jì n ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n ci ʔə j
PST MVS catch ACC DIST$_2$ turtle PROX 1DU, EXCL
\end{verbatim}

‘We (dual) caught a turtle’

\begin{verbatim}
siː xeˑʔ viˑʔ ʔiˑn şəŋ j ʔiˑn xeˑʔ
HORT MVS make PROX canoe PROX 1PL, INCL
\end{verbatim}

‘Let us make a canoe’

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

\begin{verbatim}
niˑt jəʔ nə kajːʔə ʔə n ən ʔə n ʔə n
gencneg FUT MVS go LOC DIR forest PROX 3SG
\end{verbatim}

‘He will not go to forest’

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

\textbf{Affirmative:}

These are affirmations of fact, such as:

\begin{verbatim}
cən ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n ʔə̃ n
\end{verbatim}

collapse PST DIST$_1$ John’s house INS DIST$_3$ storm

‘John’s house collapsed due to storm’

\begin{verbatim}
ʔə n tələ nhə xeˑʔ ʔə n kəp̪eˑn xeˑʔ
COP good DIST$_3$ Captain 1PL, INCL
\end{verbatim}

‘Our Captain is good’

\begin{verbatim}
kəp̪eˑn ʔiˑn ʔə n ʔə n ʔə n ʔə n ʔə n
\end{verbatim}

live here PROX 3SG F

‘She lives here’

\textbf{Imperative:}

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

\textsuperscript{36} neˑn has the verbal realization as ‘to discard’, siː ‘to grow into a banana plant’, juˑən ‘to solidify’, leˑt ‘to cease, be enough’.

\textsuperscript{37} The position of Modals can vary somewhat from the preferred order.
Interrogative:
These are Simple sentences in the form of questioning a fact. They can utilise an Interogative such as kæ:i; ‘how much/many’ as in:
kæ:i:se ?ufe: kəʔ koʔn təj ?iʔ mə:.
INTER PL DIST1 child DAT PROX 2SG
‘How many children do you have?’

Or they can be formed with sentence final intonation (SFI). E.g.:
ʔiʔ koʔn mə: təʔ koʔn ʔanaʔiːc ə̃ː.
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:
vaʔ t mə: ?uji:1 kiʔ ?ən ɲuIBILITY.
PROHNEG MVS tell PL DIST1 lie
‘Do not tell lies’

Generic Negator:
iʔ t jɔʔ nə kæjiːŋə təʔ ?ə1 cua: ?iʔ ʔən ʔən
GENCNEG FUT MVS go LOC DIR forest PROX 3SG
‘He will not go to forest’

Pronominalized Negator:
jɔʔ ciʔa:j ɯu kəʔ jɔ1 ?iʔ mə: ?iʔ ciʔa:j
FUT MVS come,DIR TDR COM PROX 2SG PROX 1DU, EXCL
paʔ ciʔa:j’t sajɯx ciʔa:j kaʔu: jɔ1 ?iʔ mə:
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.
ʔæeʔ! maʔksi jìʔn ?iʔ n cə: kəʔ jeʔə
EXCLAM pull, DIRTDW ACC PROX 1SG DIST3 crocodile
‘Alas! The crocodile pulls me’

38 Existential verb ?ət 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,  pəɹ ‘but’). Example:

\( \text{FUT MVS} \quad \text{come.DIR TDR} \quad \text{COM PROX} \quad 2\text{SG PROX} \quad 1\text{DU, EXCL} \)

\( \text{COORD PNLDNEG FUT MVS stay COM PROX 2SG} \)

‘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,  t̪ə (REL). For example:

\( \text{belong DAT DIST}_3 \text{Moses DIST}_3 \text{dog REL PERF break DIST}_3 \text{leg} \)

‘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:

\( \text{well COMP PST MVS come DIST}_2 \text{3SG M} \)

‘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:

\( \text{EXIS here PURP FUT MVS help DAT PROX 2SG PROX 3PL} \)

‘They are here to help you’

References


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40 Compare the sentential form  leaˑt t̪ə ʔɔ̃ˑxŋə kəˑʔ lə x ʔa m ‘dog’s leg is broken’
41 Compare the sentential form  neˑn nə ɰu ʔɐ ʔa m ‘he came’
42 The existential verb ʔɔˑtˑis elided.
43 Compare to the sentential form  jəˑʔ nə ɰəsə ɰəxən tə jˑiˑn məˑʔiˑn ʔuːfə: ‘They will help you’


**Abbreviations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>First person</th>
<th>EXIS</th>
<th>Existential verb</th>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
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<td>Proper noun</td>
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Appendix 1: Glossed texts

1. Ööṅ nēk matāi kïnïhāṅ nēk ēnh
COP PROX village Kamorta this
'This is Kamorta Island'

2. Puślōtō tāi kī ngāṅng kāp ānīn ōāl kamalēk full INS PL DIST2 turtle DIST1 DIR sea
'Sea is full of turtles'

3. Hānīt ōt īn chuk mamilōōh tō ānīn ōāl matāi chïōōī COP PROX beautiful PROX DIR village our
'There is no playground in our village'

4. Ūt lapōōk nēk ōāl matāi nēk ēnh EXIS beautiful PROX DIR village this
'This village is beautiful'

5. Yāṅṅgōōō īn chi āī tīn ufē ānīn koōīn rē like PROX 1DU, EXCL ACC PL DIST1 child ANA
'We (dual) like our children (plural)'

6. Yuāṅgsisē nó it- sēch tīn kī ngāṅng rīt chī cont MVS DIRTI,DIST1-wash ACC PL DIST2 utensil
'She is cleaning utensils'

7. Hānīt yōṅ kayïngō īn ōūn tō īn iskōł GENNEG want go PROX 3SG LOC PROX school
'He is not going to school’

8. Ukeunįk īn chōōō nēn tō ōāl nyī sit PROX 1SG PST LOC PROX house
'I sat on the floor’

9. Leāt chōōō ūnyī ōōt Munāk nēn īn chōōō PERF 1SG go southward DIR Munak PST PROX 1SG
'I had gone to Munak’

10. Hasōhlōyōṅ tāi īn īnān īn chïōōī mōōōk help DAT PROX 2DU PROX 1PL, EXCL FUT
'We (plural) will help you (dual)’
11. Rôh chööń uyöl täi in choöń in chanâch mën
   able 1SG speak DAT PROX 1SG PROX language 2SG
   ‘I can speak in your language’

12. Siö hêk vîk in rewôi in hêk
   HORT MVS make PROX canoe PROX 1PL, INCL
   ‘Let us (pl, incl) make a canoe’

13. Chî in lêang kôôk matâi mën
   INTER PROX name DIST3 village 2S
   ‘What is the name of your village?’

14. Chî in könk yuângunyîhö tî in önîn?
   INTER PROX name DIST3 fruit REL rotten PROX
   ‘She threw away the decayed fruits’

Appendix 2: Basic Lexicon: 285 word list

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<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Orthography</th>
<th>IPA</th>
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<td>ʔɔɑ l̥ k̥a l̥x̥ə:jə</td>
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| 72 | fly (n.) | yōoi | ju əj |
| 73 | nose | mūah | mu əx |
| 74 | eye | ōl māt | ?sa l ma t |
| 75 | ear | nāng | ən ə |
| 76 | head | kūi | ku j |
| 77 | mouth | ōl fāŋ | ?sa l fa ə |
| 78 | tooth | kanāp | kana p |
| 79 | tongue | kalitāk | kalita k |
| 80 | hair | yēh | je x |
| 81 | neck | unglōngō | ?uŋl̪ əŋə |
| 82 | shoulder | kūi ungūah | ku j ʔuŋju əx |
| 83 | chest | ōl ān̪uŋyō | ?sa l ʔuŋjə ə |
| 84 | back | ʔōk | ʔə k |
| 85 | heart | kūi punīvō | ku j ʔuɲi:və |
| 86 | abdomen | - | - |
| 87 | intestines | pūt̪iːk | pufu ak |
| 88 | liver | ati | ʔajj |
| 89 | hand | kūal | ku əl |
| 90 | palm | ōl ān̪ ə | ʔsa l ə ə |
| 91 | nail | kisūah | kisu əx |
| 92 | leg | lāh | la x |
| 93 | foot | ʔōk lāh | ʔə k la x |
| 94 | knee | kūi kān̪uŋ | ku j kāmu ən |
| 95 | thigh | pūl̪k | pul̪ə k |
| 96 | calf | kinmūan̪ō | kinmuːnə |
| 97 | blood | vā | ʔa: |
| 98 | bone | ūŋ ing | ūŋri ə |
| 99 | skin | ʔōk | ʔə k |
| 100 | flesh | ānhō | ʔə ə ə |
| 101 | fat | _opacity:脂肪| fa əp |
| 102 | live | ānh | ʔa x |
| 103 | die | panyōop | pəna əp |
| 104 | sick | yōōn | ja n |
| 105 | breathe | iyeũōm | ʔi:jə mə |
| 106 | hear | yāŋ | ja ə |
| 107 | see | hēv | xe v |
| 108 | speak | yōl | ə ə l |
| 109 | laugh | iti | ʔi:j |
| 110 | weep | chīm | ci m |
| 111 | suck | it nyōt | ʔi:jə t |
fall, drop
=144 give kúamhōtu kho mūnəx̂ap
=145 take ukē ʔukə:k
=146 wash sēch sēc
=147 launder chīch ʔi:k
=148 split rāk ʔak
=149 tie uknāŋhak ʔuknēak
=150 wipe ʔtōōt ʔitut̪ t
=151 rub kuchāh kuça:k
=152 hit ufōh ʔufo:x
=153 cut ukrōök ʔukrō:k
=154 stab sayōh saj:x
=155 dig kachūat kacu at
=156 scratch tīnjeūıp ʔinnju:əp
=157 squeeze kumchīch kumcic
=158 man payūh inkūnyō ʔajux ʔinkə:na
=159 woman payūh inkūnəo ʔajux ʔinkə:na
=160 person payūh ʔajux
=161 father chīok inkūnyō ʔa: ʔinkə:na
=162 mother chīok inkānəo ʔa: ʔinkə:na
=163 child kinyōnm ʔinjic
=164 husband kōny kə:n
=165 wife kān ʔa:k
=166 older brother chāv inkōnyō ʔako ʔinkə:na
=167 older sister chāv inkānəo ʔako ʔinkə:na
=168 younger sibling tāv ʔa:v
=169 name lēang le:n
=170 I (fam.) cheūño / chōon cū:x cə:x
=171 you (sg.) mēn mə:n
=172 he ʔoonn inkōnyō ʔa:n ʔinkə:na
=173 we (incl.) hēk xe:j
=174 you (pl.) ifē ʔife:
=175 they ufē ʔufe:
=176 paddy rice arōs ʔa:xə
=177 pounded rice arōs ħung tōng ʔa:xə ʔuŋ ʔa:n
=178 cooked rice arōs ħungsōng ʔa:xə ʔuŋsə:nə
=179 corn - -
=180 salt sālō sa:lə
=181 red pepper/chilli kumēantō kume anjə
=182 betel akē ʔakə:
=183 pestle ungōtəŋ ʔuŋθənə
=184 mortar - -
=185 to cook sōng ʔo:nə
=186 firewood ħōth ʔo:x
=187 fire hi ʔoi xiːo:əj
=188 burn hōrk ʔao:k
=189 ashes unmlōok ʔumnə:k

RAJASINGH, V. R. 2016.
Mūt (Nicolobese). Mon-Khmer Studies 45:14-52
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RAJASINGH, V. R. 2016.
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