1. INTRODUCTION

The Cham language is in the Chamic branch of the Austronesian family of languages. It is spoken by about 300,000 to 350,000 people in Vietnam and Cambodia. The language is divided into two major dialects, or more likely, two separate languages. Eastern (or Vietnamese) Cham is spoken by about 35,000 people in Vietnam in the area of the towns of Phan Rang and Phan Ri, and Western (or Cambodian) Cham (WCham) is spoken in Cambodia by about 250,000 to 300,000 people and by about 20,000 people in the Mekong Delta region of Vietnam, with concentrations in Chau Doc, Tay Ninh, and Saigon. There are three main divisions of Western Cham—Western Cham as spoken along the Mekong, Western Cham as spoken along the Tonle Sap especially in the Kompong Chhnang province, and Western Cham as spoken in Vietnam—as well as a fourth small group of Chams near Kompot. Pronunciation accounts for much of the difference between the dialects, with vocabulary also being a factor. There seem to be few, if any, differences in grammatical structure.

This is a grammar sketch of Western Cham and is based on texts that were collected in 1970–1975 in Southeast Asia by Timothy and Barbara Friberg, who were working there with the Summer Institute of Linguistics. The texts represent several of the dialects of Western Cham. These texts have been supplemented by a small amount of elicited data. Many questions still exist and may be answered after looking at more data.

2. CLAUSES

The basic clause structure of WCham is subject–verb–object (SVO). Adverbial elements—words or phrases that modify a verb or an entire sentence—occur at four places in the clause. They may occur at the beginning of the clause (conjunctions), at the end of the clause (final particles), before the verb (preverbal adverbs) or after the verb (adverbs). Embedded adverbial clauses may occur at either the beginning or end of the clause.

2.1 BASIC CLAUSES

Basic clauses in WCham are of two types, active and non-active (also known as stative).

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1 See the appendix for a list of abbreviations.

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2.1.1 ACTIVE CLAUSES

2.1.1.1 AMBIENT ACTIVE CLAUSES

Only one example of an ambient clause has been found so far. It contains the word *djauk* to hit’ with the phrase *ngĩn rabuk* ‘storm’:

(1) \[Djauk \ ngĩn \ rabuk\]²
    \[\text{VT} \ \text{N} \ <\]
    \[\text{to.hit} \ \text{storm} \ <\]
    There arose a storm.

More examples are needed before a description of the structure of ambient clauses can be given.

2.1.1.2 INTRANSITIVE ACTIVE CLAUSES

Intransitive clauses have the structure of noun phrase as subject followed by the verb phrase. For example:

(2) \[Ku \ \text{nón} \ duaik \ nao\]
    \[\text{N} \ \text{DET} \ \text{VI} \ \text{DIR}\]
    Khmer that to.run away
    The Khmers run away.

(3) \[Nhu \ duaik \ nao\]
    \[\text{PRO} \ \text{VI} \ \text{DIR}\]
    3 to.run away
    They all ran away.

2.1.1.3 TRANSITIVE ACTIVE CLAUSES

Transitive clauses have the structure of noun phrase as subject, verb phrase, and noun phrase as direct object. For example:

(4) \[Hĩũn \ mayai \ ha \ rũng\]
    \[\text{PRO} \ \text{VT} \ \text{NUM} \ \text{N}\]
    1SG.LORESP to.say one story
    I tell a story.

2.1.1.4 BITRANSITIVE ACTIVE CLAUSES

Bitransitive clauses have the subject noun phrase followed by the verb phrase with the direct object noun phrase followed by the indirect object prepositional phrase. The prepositional phrase is introduced by the preposition *ka* ‘to’. For example:

² The orthography used here follows Vietnamese conventions.
(5) Yah rôk nao, bôh drâp kau,
ADVZ VT DIR VT N PRO
if to.dig away to.see thing 1.RESP
hul djauk ta bray ni ka kau wôk.
PRO AUX ADV VB DET PREP PRO FIN
2.LORESP must only to.give this to 1.RESP back
If, when digging, I find my belongings, you must give this territory back to me.
(Rôk means literally ‘to dig around something that can be seen’.)

2.1.2 NON-ACTIVE CLAUSES

Non-active clauses are clauses that do not show any action in the verb. This type of clause includes equative clauses, descriptive clauses, adverbial clauses (such as ‘he is here’; ‘he is at home’) and existential clauses.

2.1.2.1 EQUATIVE NON-ACTIVE CLAUSES

Equative non-active clauses contain two noun phrases. The first (in bold) functions as the subject of the clause and the second (underlined) is the predicate complement. There is no verb. For example:

(6) Kau kra kaduh.
PRO N ≤
1.HIRESP turtle ≤
I am a turtle.

2.1.2.2 DESCRIPTIVE NON-ACTIVE CLAUSES

Descriptive clauses have the structure of noun phrase as subject and adjective phrase as the predicate complement. In my data there are no words that function as a verb in descriptive clauses. For example:

(7) Nhu uan tabuan.
PRO ADJ <
3 happy <
They (the Khmers) were very happy.

(8) Nhu uan tabuan sabai tai lô.
PRO ADJ < ADJ < ADV
3 happy < happy < very
They were very, very happy.

2.1.2.3 EXISTENTIAL NON-ACTIVE CLAUSES

An existential clause in WCham may have the structure: verb phrase, consisting of the existential verb mada ‘there is’, followed by a noun phrase. For example:
2.1.3 ADVERBIAL ELEMENTS

Adverbial types of elements can occur in four positions in a clause, but generally a particular adverbial word will be found in only one of these positions. Adverbial elements can occur at the beginning of a clause, at the end of a clause, before a verb or after a verb. Those that occur sentence-initially (examples 10,11) generally carry a meaning of time of or sequencing of events in relation to other events and relate the entire sentence to a clause or sentence preceding it. Typically, these are called conjunctions. They differ from conjunctions that connect two clauses into sentences or two phrases or words. They seem to function at the discourse level and tie the time-line of the story or episode together. They also differ from adverbials (i.e. subordinating conjunctions) in that adverbials connect a subordinate clause to its main clause, with the subordinate clause providing background or setting information, while the main clause usually presents new information. This type of conjunction will be called a sentence conjunction (CNJS).

(10)  
\[
\begin{array}{llllllllllll}
\text{Bloh} & \text{patao} & \text{Ch\text{"a}m} & \text{laik}:\\
\text{CNJS} & \text{N} & \text{N.PROP} & \text{VT} \\
\text{then} & \text{king} & \text{Cham} & \text{to.say} \\
\end{array}
\]
Then the Cham king said:

(11)  
\[
\begin{array}{lllllllllll}
\text{Hani} & \text{kau} & \text{bray} & \text{hu} & \text{hu} & \text{n\text{"u}k} & \text{ha} & \text{rang}.
\text{CNJS} & \text{PRO} & \text{VT} & \text{PRO} & \text{VT} & \text{N} & \text{NUM} & \text{CL} \\
\text{now} & \text{1.HIRESP to.give} & \text{2.LORESP to.have child} & \text{one} & \text{CL (person)} \\
\end{array}
\]
Now, I will give you a child.

Adverbial elements that occur at the end of the clause or sentence have the entire clause or sentence in view and semantically carry the idea of completion (finished, completed, already), certainty (indeed, true), negation, possibility or impossibility, immediateness, or customary action (often, again). For lack of a better term these will be called sentence-final particles (FIN). For example:

(12)  
\[
\begin{array}{llllllllllll}
\text{Ru} & \text{bloh} & \text{n\text{"u}k} & \text{n\text{"o}n} & \text{matai} & \text{yd} & \text{dok} & \text{kad\text{"o}ng}.
\text{VT} & \text{FIN} & \text{N} & \text{DET} & \text{VT} & \text{FIN} & \text{VI} & \text{ADV} \\
\end{array}
\]
to.rock \text{finished} child that to.die \text{already} to.stay quite
Finished rocking, the child was dead and silent.

Preverbal adverbial words (PVA) carry the meaning of ‘ever, nearly, only, still, always, or again’. These are part of the verb phrase and occur after the tense or auxiliary and before the verb. For example:

(13)  
\[
\begin{array}{llllllllllll}
\text{Mi\text{"u}k} & \text{d\text{"e}l} & \text{ng\text{"a}k} & \text{sang} & \text{ray}? \\
\text{N} & \text{PVA} & \text{VT} & \text{N} & \text{YN.QM} \\
\end{array}
\]
younger.uncle \text{ever} to.make house also
Have you (young uncle) ever built a house?
The postverbal adverbial words (ADV) are what are more typically thought of as adverbs and usually relate the manner of action (melodiously, clumsily, well, much, for pleasure) or location or position (in a line, far). For example:

(14) Ông nôn hamit nhu mayai bangi pāng.
N DET VT PRO VT ADV <
TITLE.RESP that to.hear 3 to.talk melodious <
He heard them speaking melodiously.

Of course, there are exceptions to the above, both in that some words occur in more than one place, and some places occasionally have a meaning other than what is listed above.

2.2 Clause Variations

2.2.1 Negation

Negative clauses, as in examples (15) and (20), are formed by adding the final particle ô ‘NEG’ at the end of the clause.

(15) Rean ngāk pap gah nūk matau nôn ô.
VT VT ADJ N N N DET NEG
to.dare to.do evil direction child child.in.law that NEG
He didn’t dare do any more evil things to the son-in-law.

2.2.2 Changes in Grammatical Relations

In Cham, grammatical relations are indicated almost entirely by word order as there are no inflectional affixes, case markings or agreement markings. Passivisation has been found, but as yet no dative movement or other similar changes have been observed.

Passive clauses in Cham, as in examples (17) and (18), are formed by moving the noun phrase functioning as direct object to the beginning of the sentence and inserting djauk ‘PASS’, a passive marker or auxiliary verb, between the direct object noun phrase and the subject noun phrase.

(16) Sohput khan hlūn.
N VT PRO
friend to.tell 1SG.LORESP
A friend told me.

(17) Hlūn djauk sohput khan.
PRO AUX N VT
1SG.LORESP PASS friend to.tell
I was told by a friend.

An impersonal passive can be formed by using rang ‘someone’ after djauk. Whether the subject noun phrase can be omitted completely has not yet been determined.
2.3 EMBEDDED CLAUSES

Embedded clauses are clauses that are contained as part of the main clause, such as a relative clause, a complement clause functioning as the subject or object of a clause, or a clause that replaces an adverb phrase showing time, location, purpose, reason, and so on. Constructions such as indirect quotes, embedded questions, embedded commands, and subject-to-object raising have not yet been thoroughly analysed.

2.3.1 RELATIVE CLAUSES

A relative clause, as in examples (19)–(21), is a clause that is embedded in a noun phrase and that modifies the head noun of the noun phrase. Relative clauses are positioned just before the determiner (DET) if one is present, or at the end of the noun phrase if there is no determiner. The phrase in the relative clause that is the same entity as the head noun is replaced by kung ‘who/what/which/when, etc.’, the relative pronoun in Cham. In the following example, the relative clause is a non-active descriptive clause. The relativised noun phrase in the relative clause functions as the subject. Note that in these relative clause examples the head noun that is modified by the relative clause is underlined and the relative clause is in bold.

(19) No, tãl hrây ha - sa nôn mada dâm ha rang
PART ADVZ N NUM < DET VN N NUM CL
PAUSAL.PART when day one < that there.be suitôr one CL
kung nas, mai duh daok ông nôn.
REL.PRO ADJ VI VT < N DET
who intelligent to.come to.serve < old.man that
One day it happened that an intelligent suitor came to serve the father.

In the following example, dâm ‘suitor’ is the head noun of the noun phrase that contains the relative clause. The relativised noun phrase is the subject and is realised by the relative pronoun kung ‘who’.

(20) Yau nôn yo dâm tông hadôm kung mai mông
CNJS < < N ADJ ADJ REL.PRO VI PREP
that’s why < < suitôrs all many who to.come from
dahlau mai nôn hu drôm hông ông nôn
N FIN DET VT VI PREP N DET
before toward that to.be.able.to to.endure with old.man that
ngâk pap ô.
VT ADJ FIN
to.make evil NEG
Therefore all those previous suitors could not endure the man’s evil deeds.
Relative clauses have been found in noun phrases that are a subject, direct object, predicate complement (predicate in non-active clauses) or a vocative or addressive. The relativised phrase in the relative clause can be a noun phrase, or adverbial phrase. The relativised phrase, whether a noun phrase, adverb phrase, or predicate complement, is replaced by kung. If the relativised phrase is not the subject of the relative clause, kung will be moved to the front of the clause. Below is an example of the relativised phrase being an adverb phrase. The noun phrase containing the relative clause is underlined, and the relative pronoun, kung, is in bold.

(21) Tāl hamīt yau nond nao ām nond nao blay kan mok
CNJS VT PRO < FIN N DET VI VT N VT
when to.hear thus < away suitor that to.go to.buy fish to.take
nond kāk dałam ea lām bōng kung ōng nond
DIR VT PREP N PREP N REL.PRO N DET
away to.tie.up in water in lake where old.man that
khe[a mōk nao trah pāgē
VT VT VI VT N
to.propose to.have to.go to.fish.with.net tomorrow
When the suitor heard this he went and bought fish and took them to put them in the lake where the old man planned to fish the next day.

2.3.2 COMPLEMENT CLAUSES

Complement clauses are clauses that are used in place of a subject, object, or some other nuclear element of the clause. (Subject complements have not yet been observed in Western Cham.) Direct and indirect quotes are also complement clauses. The only complementiser found so far is lai̍k ‘that’. Not all complement clauses use a complementiser.

2.3.2.1 OBJECT COMPLEMENTS

In Cham, with certain verbs, the direct object of a clause (i.e. the noun phrase that follows a verb in a transitive clause) may be a full sentence (i.e. an object complement). In example (22) the subject of both the main clause and the embedded clause is Jawa, so Jawa does not appear in the embedded clause. In (23) the subject of the main clause (Khmer, understood from context) and the subject of the embedded clause are different, so the subject of the embedded clause (Malayu) must appear. The complement clauses in (22) and (23) do not use a complementiser to introduce them.

(22) Jawa khīn bōng kōk ta-uk.
N VT VT N <
Javanese to.want to.eat knee <
The Javanese want to eat their knees.

(23) Bōh Malayu mai gaik.
VT N VI ADV
to.see Malay to.come again
The Khmers see the Malays coming again.
Another type of complement clause uses a complementiser to introduce the complement clause. The main clause verb is a verb of mental activity (e.g. think, want, wonder, believe, hope, know, understand) as in examples (24) and (25), or a verb of speech (e.g. say, ask, cry, scream) as in (26). The clauses using verbs of speech will be presented in the section on direct quotes. The complementiser, *laik* ‘that’ is in bold, and the embedded clause is underlined.

(24) Nhu thau *laik* Patao Cham non tāk phūn krēk non pajaloh.
PRO VT CMPZ N N.PROP DET VT N N DET VT
3 to.know that King Cham that to.cut tree krēk that to.destroy
They knew that the Cham king had cut the krēk tree down.

(25) Dray yōl *laik* ngāk vau non jiang ō.
PRO VT CMPZ VT PRO < NEG <
1PL to.understand that to.do like.that < can’t <
We understand that we cannot do like that.

2.3.2.2 DIRECT QUOTES

In a clause in which the main verb is a speech act, the direct object is an embedded clause, which is preceded by the complementiser *laik* ‘that’. For example:

(26) Ông Cham non sua *laik*: “Duak gēk phōng
N N.PROP DET VT CMPZ WH.QM < N
TITLE.RESP Cham that to.ask that why < group
*hut duai?*
PRO VI
2.LORESP to.run
An old Cham man asks them: “Why are all of you running?”

2.3.3 ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Adverbial clauses are clauses which are embedded in another clause and which give information about the time, purpose or reason of the action of the clause in which it is embedded. An adverbial clause may also give the hypothetical or contrafactual condition (i.e. if...then) for the clause in which it is embedded. This is not the conjoining of two clauses, but rather the embedding of one clause inside another, with the embedded clause taking the place of an adverbial phrase. The embedded clause is introduced with an adverbialiser (ADVZ) which some may call a subordinating conjunction. In the following examples the adverbialiser is in bold, and the embedded clause is underlined.

2.3.3.1 TIME ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Embedded time Adverbial Clauses usually come at the beginning of the sentence, with the main clause following it. For example:

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3 The verb *khēn* ‘to want’ is found both with and without a complementiser. See example (22).
(27) **Haday mong than bruk nhu bloh. Patao Cham**

ADV < VT N PRO FIN N N.PROP
after < to.know matters 3 already King Cham

ko bray nhu dok.
FOC VT PRO VI
FOC to.let 3 to.stay
When he knew their situation the Cham king let them settle.

2.3.3.2 PURPOSE ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

To indicate purpose, the purpose clause is embedded at the end of the main clause and it is introduced by the adverbialiser tōk ‘in order that’. For example:

(28) **Dray ngāk saphōu ni yau ni tōk nuhk neh nhu**

PRO VT N ADJ ADV < ADVZ N < PRO
1PL to.make book this like.this < in.order.that children < 3

*takū tai hi baik.*
VT < TNS VT
to.like < FUT to.study
We make the book like this so that the students will want to study.

2.3.3.3 REASON ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Reason is indicated by embedding a clause at the end of the main clause, introducing the embedded clause with the adverbialiser kayoa ‘because’. The second clause gives the reason for the first. For example:

(29) **Nhu than laik yau nohn bray mai nohn kayoa**

PRO VT VT COMP.ADV < VT DIR DET ADVZ
3 to.know to.say like.that < to.let toward that because

maī hi pa.Jañth phun krēk.
VI TNS VT N N
to.come FUT to.destroy tree krek
They say that because she came to destroy the ‘krek’ tree.

2.3.3.4 HYPOTHETICAL CONDITION ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Hypothetical condition clauses are if...then clauses. The embedded conditional clause (the ‘if’ clause) is first and is introduced by yah ‘if’, with the main clause giving the conclusion. For example:
(30) **Yah** phūn kayau nōn prung, nao jhūl, nao pajaloth
ADVZ N < DET ADJ VI VT DIR VT
if trees < those big to.go to.push away to.destroy

phūn kayau nōn.
N < DET
trees < those
If the tree was big it would push it over.

2.3.3.5 CONTRAFACTUAL CONDITION ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

A contrafactual condition clause is an if...then clause which could be stated as ‘if this were true, but it isn’t...’. Contrafactual clauses in Western Cham have the same structure as hypothetical clauses. The identification of them as contrafactual comes from the context. In the following example, the one who came from India had asked permission to live there.

(31) **Yah** hū thau laik tanuth ca ni drāp hū
ADVZ PRO VT CMPZ N < DET N PRO
if 2.LORESP to.know that territory < this thing 2.RESP

nōn, hū mai mōng play India dōh mai,
DET PRO VI PREP N N.PROP PREP DIR
that 2.RESP to.come from country India over.there toward

hēt gēk hū mai lakau di kau dok?
N WH.QM PRO VI VT PREP PRO VI
reason why? 2.RESP to.come to.ask from 1.RESP to.live
If you knew that this territory was yours, when you came from India why did you ask us permission to live here?

2.4 CLAUSE COMBINING

Two or more clauses can be combined either with a Conjunction (CONJ) or by simply placing one clause after the other. With the tendency to leave out known information, the subject of a juxtaposed second clause can be omitted, especially if it is also the subject of the first clause.

3. PHRASES
3.1 NOUN PHRASES
3.1.1 HEAD AND MODIFIERS

In Western Cham, the head of the noun phrase (NP) can be a noun (N) (examples 37–41), pronoun (PRO) (examples 31, 33), a proper noun (N.PROP) (example 32), a determiner (DET) (example (34)) or classifier (CL) (examples 35, 36). A pronoun, proper noun, or determiner when used as the head of a noun phrase will always appear alone.
(32) Ai long lakay, ai long kamay, N < ADJ N < ADJ
oldest.sibling < male(human) oldest.sibling < female
mai pāng Idares mayai takal ha rtng gaik.
VI VT N.PROP VT N NUM N ADJ
to.come to.listen Idris to.tell story one story more
Brothers and sisters, please come close to hear Idris tell another story.

(33) Hlin lakau ma-ah di doa rang diuk pasang
PRO VI < PREP NUM CL N N
1SG.RESP to.pardon < from two CL wife husband
ai long.
N <
oldest.sibling <
I would like to ask the two of you (the couple) for pardon.

(34) Ni mayai mông rtng tanth ea Chăm mông asāl awāl
DET VT PREP N N < N.PROP PREP N <
this to.speak about history kingdom < Cham from origin <
beah mai tāl Chăm_ bih tanth ea.
ADVZ DIR PREP N.PROP VT N <
until towards at Cham completely kingdom <
This is to speak about the Cham kingdom, from the beginning to the complete
disappearance of it.

When used as the head of the noun phrase, a classifier will be preceded by at least one
number (NUM). For example:

(35) Tajuh tapān rang nao tāl kūth glai nōn.
NUM NUM CL VI < ADV N DET
seven eight person to.arrive.at < middle forest that
Seven or eight people went to the middle of the forest.

(36) Jawa blay tangoē di Chăm ha ratu ē rial.
N VT N PREP N.PROP NUM NUM CL
Javanese to.buy corn from Cham one hundred riel
The Javanese people buy corn from the Cham for a hundred riel.

If a noun is the head of the noun phrase, it can be followed by an optional possessive NP
(examples 37, 38), an adjective (ADJ) (examples 37, 38) (the order of the NP and ADJ can be
switched), a number (NUM) (examples 37–39) and classifier (CL—the number cannot appear
without the classifier) and finally by a determiner (example 39).

(37) Nhu bōh sang hlin prung klau bōh.
PRO VT N PRO ADJ NUM CL
3 to.see house 1SG.RESP big three CL
He saw my three big houses.
In addition to the above, a prepositional phrase (PP) or a noun phrase which consists of a noun or two nouns has been used to modify a head noun. Apart from coming after the head noun and before the determiner, it has not been possible to place them more accurately in the noun phrase since there were no clauses in the data which included the prepositional phrase or noun phrase along with an adjective, possessive noun phrase, or number-classifier combination. In example (40) the NP is underlined and the PP that is modifying the noun tanth ea is in bold. Note that the NP in the PP—play Ku—consists of two nouns, with Ku modifying the main noun play.

In example (41) a location NP consisting of two nouns—chok dangrèk ‘mountain Dangrek’—modifies the head noun, takai ‘foot’.
3.1.2 POSSESSION

Possession is shown by placing a noun phrase after the noun that is possessed. If an adjective exists in the main noun phrase, it may come before or after the possessive noun phrase (examples 42, 43). It is possible that the possessive noun phrase is restricted in form, although the limited amount of data examined for this sketch is not conclusive one way or the other.

(42) Nhu bôh sang hlôn prung kluo bôh.
PRO VT N PRO ADJ NUM CL
3 to.see house 1SG.LORESP big three CL
He saw my three big houses.

The possessive noun phrase and the adjective may also be reversed, with no apparent change in meaning.

(43) Nhu bôh sang prung hlôn kluo bôh.
PRO VT N ADJ PRO NUM CL
3 to.see house big 1SG.RESP three CL
He saw my three big houses.

3.2 VERB PHRASES

The verb phrase in Western Cham contains several elements. The head of the verb phrase is of course a verb. The verb may be intransitive, transitive, bitransitive, or non-active.

Three categories of words may precede the intransitive, transitive, and bitransitive verbs in the verb phrase: tense (TNS—hu ‘past’, hi ‘future’) (example 44), auxiliary (AUX—djauk ‘must’) (examples 45, 46) and a preverb adverb (PVA) (examples 45, 47).

(44) Nhu hu mayai laik mong samän dahlau tanuth ca
PRO TNS VT CMPZ PREP N ADJ N <
3 PAST to.say that from time in.the.past territory <
di play Ku ni sêt ta tasik.
PREP N N DET ADV < N
in country Cambodian this entirely < sea
They say that formerly the territory of Cambodia here was entirely sea.

(45) Yah rôk nao, bôh dráp kau, hut djauk ta
ADVZ VT DIR VT N PRO PRO AUX PVA
if to.dig away to.see thing 1.HIRESP 2.LORESP must only
bray ni ka kau wök.
VT DET PREP PRO FIN
to.give this to 1.HIRESP back
If you go dig it up and find my things, you have to give it back to me.
(46) Rani djauk hut bray pagöl tanuh ea ni mai
ADV AUX PRO VT VT N DET DIR
now must 2.ORESP to.give to.hand.over territory < this toward
ka kau wok.
PREP PRO FIN
to 1.RESP back
Now you must hand over this territory back to me.

(47) Miuuk dël ngāk sang ray?
N PVA VT N YN.QM
younger.uncle ever to.make house also
Have you (young uncle) ever built a house?

Two categories of words occur after the verb, directional (DIR—nao ‘away’, mai ‘come’) (examples 48, 50, 60, 65), and adverbs (ADV) (example 49, 50). Directionals generally occur immediately after the verb. Adverbs occur after the directionals.

(48) Yah rōk nao, bōh drāp kau, hut djauk ta
ADVZ VT DIR VT N PRO PRO AUX PVA
if to.dig away to.see thing 1.RESP 2.ORESP must only
bray ni ka kau wok.
VT DET PREP PRO FIN
to.give this to 1.RESP back
If you go dig it up and find my things, you have to give it back to me.

(49) Hu dok sanāng sanea gân lamt rai patao
TNS VI ADV < PREP NUM N N
PAST to.live peacefully < for.the.duration.of five reign king
pāk Gōk Dalōk nōn.
PREP N.PROP N.PROP DET
at Gok Dalok that
They lived peacefully for five generations of kings at Gok Dalok.

(50) Nhu duaik nao tah yd.
PRO VI DIR ADV FIN
3 to.run away far already
They have run far already.

The non-active verb appears alone (example 9), if it is there at all. Sometimes there is no verb in a non-active clause (examples 6–8).

3.3 ADJECTIVE PHRASES

Adjective phrases in WCham have an obligatory adjective (examples 51, 52) followed by an optional intensifier (usually lō ‘very’) (example 52).
(51) *Katiang ni prung.*
N DET ADJ
boil this big
This boil is big.

(52) *Katiang ni prung lô.*
N DET ADJ INT
boil this big very
This boil is very big.

3.4 ADVERBIAL PHRASES

Phrases that are adverbial in nature have three different structures: adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, and a limited set of noun phrases.

3.4.1 ADVERB PHRASES

Adverb phrases are made up of an obligatory adverb as head (examples 53, 54, 67) and an optional intensifier (usually lô ‘very’, occasionally day ‘very’) (example 54).

(53) *Ông nond hamît nhu mayai bangî pâng.*
N DET VT PRO VT ADV <
TITLE.RESP that to.hear 3 to.talk melodious <
He heard them speaking melodiously.

(54) *Madô laik mông dray mada brûk rawâm lô day dray*
CNJS < PREP PRO VT N ADV INT PRO
but < from 1PL there.be work to.be.busy much very 1PL
ngûk saphûu ni dhit ô.
VT N ADV FIN
to.make book this completely.gone NEG
Because we were so busy we weren’t able to finish the book.

3.4.2 PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Prepositional phrases are adverbial in nature and can modify a verb or a noun. In example (55) the larger prepositional phrase, indicating where something was written, is in bold, the noun phrase that is part of the prepositional phrase is underlined, and the embedded prepositional phrase that modifies the noun tapûk ‘book’ is double underlined.

(55) *Dâkâm tapûk Ku mông kal dahlau nhu hu*
PREP N N PREP N ADJ PRO TNS
in book Cambodian from time in.the.past 3 PAST
hrûk, ngên saphûu Preah Thong Neang Neak.
VT N N N.PROP N.PROP N.PROP N.PROP
to.write name book Preah Thong Neang Neak
This is written in an ancient Khmer book called ‘Preah Thong Neang Neak’.
3.4.3 NOUN PHRASES

There is a limited set of noun phrases that can be used adverbially. The head noun of these noun phrases often relates to time or location, such as malam ‘night’, mabroi ‘yesterday’, and other time-related nouns, as well as a few words like sang ‘house, home’ (examples 56–58).

(56) Täl pāng nao malām di sa, dām non hamīt ōng hōng
ADVZ VT VI N ADJ < N DET VT N PREP
when to.listen to.go night first < suitor that to.hear old.man with

muk mayai gauk laik: “Pagê ni ōng khit
N VT REFL CMPZ N DET N VT
grandmother to.speak together that tomorrow this old.man to.want

padār dām non ngāk jiang jal meok nao
VT N DET VT VN N VT VI
to.do.again suitor that to.do to.be large.fish.net to.carry to.go

trah kan dalām bōng ni bōng non’.
VI F PREP N DET N DET
to.fish.with.net fish in lake this lake that
While he was listening the first night, the suitor heard the man and woman talk together, saying: “Tomorrow I want to use that suitor as a fish net which I will take to fish in such and such a lake”.

(57) Marekāng mai mabroi.
N VI N
American(s) to.come yesterday
The Americans came yesterday.

(58) Hlān hi nao sang.
PRO TNS VI N
1SG.TENSE FUT to.go house
I will go home.

4. SENTENCES

4.1 QUESTIONS

4.1.1 YES/NO QUESTIONS

Yes/no questions in Cham can be formed in at least three ways, all of which involve adding a word or a phrase to the end of the clause.

The first way is by adding the word ray to the end of the clause (example 59). In other locations in the sentence, ray can mean ‘or’, ‘so’, or ‘also’. In this type of yes/no clause, ray marks the sentence as a question. In addition, the intonation, which usually falls at the end of a sentence, rises at the end of yes/no questions.

(59) Bōh ray?
VT FIN
to.see YN.QM
See?
The second type of yes/no question adds mǐn to the end of the clause (example 60). It can also be used at the end of a statement as an affirmative particle, but in the following clause, it marks the clause as a yes/no question. Rising intonation at the end of the clause indicates this is a question.

(60) Chim kung rang chuh non rang mōk mai
N REL.PRO PRO VT DET PRO VT DIR
animal that 3.INDEF to.hunt that 3.INDEF to.bring toward
bōng hu mǐn?
VT VT FIN
to.eat to.be.able.to YN.Q.M
Can they eat animals that they hunted?

The third type of yes/no questions uses a phrase at the end: ray ha soh mǐn. This seems to function as a tag ending on the sentence, as in English ‘Bill is tall, isn’t he?’ For example:

(61) Rang dēl padār sau nao doah pagui chim ray
PRO ADV VT N VI VT N ADV
3.INDEF ever to.use dog to.go to.search.for to.chase animal also
ha soh mǐn?
CONJ FIN <
or or.not <
Do they or don’t they ever use dogs to search for, to chase the animals?

4.1.2 CONTENT QUESTIONS

4.1.2.1 WH QUESTIONS

Content questions are questions that ask for more than a yes or no answer. Typically, these questions use a word that replaces part or all of the noun phrase, adverb phrase, adverbial clause and so on. In some cases, the questioned part of the sentence is moved to the front of the sentence.

In the following non-active sentence, the type of the subject noun is questioned (i.e. the quality, type, etc.). The noun chim is followed by the content question word, gèk.

(62) Chim gèk manūng kung rang nao
N WH.QM ADJ REL.PRO PRO VI
birds/animals(generic) what some that 3.INDEF to.go
chuh non?
VT DET
to.hunt that
What are the birds (animals) that they go hunting?

In example (63) the direct object is questioned. The word hagèk replaces the direct object in the sentence following the verb.

(63) Rang padār hagèk manūng samrap chuh chim non?
PRO VT WH.QM ADJ CONJ VT N DET
3.INDEF to.use what? some for.the.purpose.of to.hunt animals that
What (material) do they use to hunt animals?
In example (64) the manner is questioned. The content question word (or actually phrase) is *yau bār* and it occurs in the position in the sentence where adverbs or adverbal clauses explaining manner would be found.

(64) *Kanrām ko rang chēk yau bār?*
*animal.trap(falls on victim) FOC PRO VT WH.QM < 3.INDEF to.place how? <*

How do they set up the trap that falls on victims?

### 4.1.2.2 EITHER/OR

Either/Or questions are content questions that give the one who responds only two options (examples 65, 66). In this type of question, there are two clauses which are connected by the conjunction *ha* ‘or’. The conjunction is marked by bold type, and the full clauses are underlined on either side of the conjunction.

(65) *Rang nao chuh nōn rang nao chuh ma-ūn ha*
*PRO VI VT DET PRO VI VT ADV CONJ 3.INDEF to.go to.hunt that 3.INDEF to.go to.hunt for.pleasure or*

*rang chuh mōk mai bōng?*
*PRO VT VT DIR VT 3.INDEF to.hunt to.bring toward to.eat*

When they go hunting, do they hunt the animals for pleasure or do they hunt them for food?

(66) *Hi nao ha rang doa rang ha nao lō gauk?*
*TNS VI NUM CL NUM CL CONJ VI ADJ N FUT to.go one person two person or to.go many companion*

Do they go alone, in a group of two, or a lot more (than that)?

### 4.2 COMMANDS

There are two types of commands that have been found so far. The first is a mild command or request. It begins with *lakau* ‘to ask’ and ends with *wek* ‘mild imperative’. For example:

(67) *Lakau chōp dō ni wek!*
*VT VT ADV < FIN to.ask to.stop at.this.point < MILD.IMPER*

Please let me stop now! (lit. I ask to stop now.)

The second is a negative command. In this type of command, the word *di* is found between the noun phrase subject and the verb phrase and *juai* ‘negative imperative’ is found at the end of the clause (examples 68–70).

(68) *Hu di tāk juai.*
*PRO NEG... VT FIN 2.RESP don’t to.cut NEG.IMPER*

Don’t cut (me) down.

The subject of the negative command is optional. For example:
A grammar sketch of Western (Cambodian) Cham

(69) \textit{Di duāik juai.}
NEG... VI FIN
don't to.run NEG.IMPER

Don't run away.

A regular command may be given in which the main clause (underlined) ends with the final particle \textit{wek}. For example:

(70) \textit{Hōi, rup hū di nāo hlay juai, hū}
INTER N PRO NEG... VI PRO FIN PRO
Oh body 2.SRESN don't to.go where neg.imper 2.SRESN
\textit{chang kau moh ni wek.}
VT PRO PRO < FIN
to.wait.for 1.SRESN here < MILD.IMPER
Hey, body, don't go anywhere, just wait for me here.

APPENDIX: LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

< Connects to previous word to form compound word
ADJ adjective
ADV adverb
ADVZ adverbiaiser
AUX auxiliary
CL classifier
COMP.ADV comparative adverb
CMPZ complementiser
CONJ conjunction
CNJS conjunction, sentence level
DET determiner
DIR directional
DUM.SUBJ dummy subject
FIN final particle
FOC focus marker
HIRESN higher respect
IMPER imperative
INT intensifier
INTER interjection
LORESN lower respect
N noun
N.PROP noun, proper
NEG negative
NUM number
PART particle
PREP preposition
<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRO</td>
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<td>preverbal adverb</td>
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