AN OUTLINE OF TEMIAR GRAMMAR

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0.   *Introduction*

Temiar is a member of the Central division
(Diffloth's 'Senoic') of Aslian, a group of Austro-
asiatic languages spoken in the Malay Peninsula by
a variety of tribal peoples. The Temiar comprise
some 10,000 swidden cultivators occupying a terri-
tory of about 2,000 square miles on the Kelantan-
Perak watershed in the northern part of West Malaysi
The author has spent a total of nearly two years in
close contact with them, carrying out ethnological
and linguistic fieldwork, almost entirely in the
Temiar language.

The purpose of this paper is to provide an
overview of Temiar phonetics, phonology, morphology
and (to a lesser extent) syntax sufficient to
illustrate the main features of the language.   A
somewhat informal style of presentation has been
followed, so as to remain more in keeping with
the unfinished character of the analysis.

Temiar possesses two major dialects, Northern
and Southern, the differences between which are
mainly phonological. The dividing line between
them runs between the Piah and Plus valleys in
Perak; in Kelantan it continues between the Enching
and upper Perolak valleys until it dips southwards
at the point where the Perolak becomes raftable;
it continues just westwards of the Kelaik river,

ally to cross the Brok river at Jeram Gajah.
s means that each dialect has roughly the same
ber of speakers. The present account is based
the Northern dialect as spoken in the Betis
lower Perolak valleys of Ulu Kelantan. Occa-
nal reference is made to the Southern dialect, and
other dialects, where the differences warrant
tion.

The Sound System

The Phonemes

Only the segmental phonemes are dealt with here,
no analysis of the intonational system has yet
n made. The phonemic norms are charted below.

.1 Consonants

Consonants are non-syllabic vocoids and contoids,
l are the only phonemes that occur word-initially
word-finally.

	labial	dental	palatal	velar	glottal	pharyngal
voiced stop	p	t	c	k		
sal	m	n	ɲ	ŋ		
iced stop	b	d	j	g		
ni-vowel	w		y			
teral		l				
ap		r				
ica-tive			s			
ryngal					?	h

e first four points of articulation should more
ecisely be labelled bilabial, apico-alveolar,
mino-alveolar and dorso-velar, respectively.

1.1.2   *Vowels*

Vowels are syllabic vocoids, and they occur onl
medially between consonants (*i.e.* not word-initially
or word-finally). Vowels may be: oral or nasal;
short or long; high, mid or low; front, central or
back. In all there are 30 vowel phonemes:

short oral			*long oral*			*short nasal*			*long nasal*		
i	ʉ	u	ī	ʉ̄	ū	į	ʉ̨	у̨	į̄	ʉ̨̄	ӯ̨
e	ə	o	ē	ə̄	ō						
ɛ	a	ɔ	ɛ̄	ā	ɔ̄	ɛ̨	ą	ɔ̨	ɛ̨̄	ą̄	ɔ̨̄

On articulatory and distributional grounds the vowel
may also be classified into two overall sets: the
'inner' vowels /e ə o/ and the 'outer' vowels
/i ʉ u ɛ a ɔ/, along with their long and nasal
variants.

1.1.3   *The phonemes exemplified*

The following examples serve to justify the
phonemes by minimal or semi-minimal contrasts.

1.1.3.1   *Consonants*

p	pūp	'to lie on one's front'	d	də̄j	'to become accustomed'
t	tūk	'to fear'	j	jə̄b	'to tear (eyes)'
c	cūs	'to select'	g	gə̄b	'completely'
k	kūs	'porcupine'	w	wāl	'fireplace'
m	mɔs	'to pick up'	y	yāj	'noise'
n	nɔh	'odour'	l	lɛŋlāk	*'sideways'*
ɲ	ɲɔh	'to set alight'	r	rɛɲrāk	'senile'
ŋ	ŋɔh	'to waver'	s	sɛŋsāk	'(place-name)'
b	bə̄h	'father'	ʔ	ʔə̄p	'to brood (hen)'
			h	hɛɲhak	'to heal'

	'sick'	sʉk	'cigarette-end'	tuh	'to tell'
ɪ̀?	'soft'	tʉɣ	'spring!' (expr.)	gatʉ?	'snail'
gɪd	'middle'	tʉ̄h	'to drop'	tʉ̄y	'elsewhere'
gɪ̄d	'to rub hard'	lʉ̄d	'to get angry'	katʉ̄d	'bark-fibre'
	'to swell'				
j	'quickly'	bək	'rhizomorph'	do?	'to run'
j	'to burn'	tə̄h	'to rain'	dō?	'father'
?	'earth'	tab	'egg'	tɔs	'to pluck'
?	'fish'	tə̀b	'deaf'	lɔy	'to arrive'
?	'just now'	ba?	'to carry on back'	cɔ̀s	'bird'
d	'bark-cloth'	bā?	'rice'	lɔ̄y	'to wade'
d	'giddy'	wās	'branching'	sɔ̄̃b	'hoarse'
		wā̃s	'childless'		

is sometimes useful to treat length and nasality
co-vowels, combining, as illustrated above, with
e basic short oral vowels.

2   *Phonetics*

2.1   *Pronunciation of the segmental phonemes*

2.1.1   *Consonants*

a) *Unvoiced stops*

Before vowels, *i.e.* word-initially and
edially, /p t k/ are un-postaspirated stops:
5c/ 'to wait', /gapɪd/ '(place-name)', /teh/
oove', /tatā?/ 'old man', /kakōw/ 'to call hard'.
fore /ə̄/ they are slightly lip-rounded, [pʷ] etc.:
ə̄w/ 'bang!', /tə̄l/ 'to curse', /kə̄t/ 'to move up'.
fore vowels /c/ is slightly affricated, [tᵞš]:
acꞱb/ 'to go of a sudden'. Before /Ʈ ē/, /k/ is

fronted to the centro-domal position: /kTj/ 'to
grate', /kēw/ '(personal name)'. Word-finally after
non-front vowels /k/ is barely audible as a back
dorso-velar stop [q]: /lāk/ 'side'.

Medially, unvoiced stops are slightly pre-
aspirated: /gapid/ [ga^hpid] '(place-name)', /gatē?/
[ga^htē?] 'mite'.

Finally /p t c k/ are released nasally,
audible phrase-finally as a long voiceless nasal,
[P̄m̄] etc.: /?ōp/ 'to hug', /cɛt/ 'to be fully
cooked', /tāc/ 'to plait', /lɛk/ 'to know'.

b) *Nasals*

Initially and medially /m n ɲ ŋ/ are
voiced nasal obstruents: /mɔɲ/ 'tooth', /na-nūy/
'he copulates', /ɲɔb/ 'you plural', /ŋāw/ 'silly'.
Medially before homorganic stops they are unreleased
/?empēd/ '(place-name)', /?ɛn-tūy/ 'over there',
/?ɛɲcTk/ 'Enching River', /?ɛŋkū?/ 'thunder deity'.
Before /ə̄/ the nasals are slightly lip-rounded,
especially /m/ [m^W]: /mə̄h/ 'nose'. Before vowels
/ɲ/ has a slight i-offglide.

Finally, the nasals have a non-oral re-
lease, and they exhibit a modification, noticeably
audible phrase-finally, whereby the oral closure
occurs before the velic opening, effectively pro-
ducing a very short voiced stop with a long voiced
homorganic nasal release, [^bm̄] etc.: /ram/ 'to
sit (hen)', /koman/ 'nibling', /?āɲ/ 'to be stupid',
/lanɛŋ/ 'knowledge'. After vowels, *i.e.* as syllable
coda, /ɲ/ has no offglide.

Before /r/ the nasals have a voiced
homorganic stop transition, [m^br] etc.: /?ɛm-rō?/
'we shall say', /?ɛnrɔs/ 'kidney', /rɛɲrec/ 'to eat

sh', /geŋrak/ 'pleasant'.

In the same syllable as /s/ in fast tempo
ech /m n/ sometimes become devoiced and syllabic:
st͡ī?/ ~ [m̥t͡ī?] 'needs must', /sɛn?ɔ̄y/ ~ [n̥?ɔ̄y]
man being'.

c) *Voiced stops*

Initially and medially /b d j g/ are
spirated voiced stops: /bɔ̄j/ 'to lick', /dɛŋdək/
storm', /jɔb/ 'to roast tubers', /gagəl/ 'to
down of a sudden'. Before /ɔ̄/ they are slightly
-rounded, especially /b/ [bʷ]: /bɔ̄h/ 'father'.
ore vowels /j/ is slightly affricated, [dᵛž].

Word-finally /b d j g/ are unexploded, hav-
g a nasal release which is audible phrase-finally as
short voiced homorganic nasal, [bᵐ] etc.: /?āb/
ger', /?ād/ 'stick, rod', /bəhuj/ 'guilty', /bə?āg/
flood'.

d) *Semivowels*

Initially and syllable-finally /w/ is the mid-
h back rounded vocoid [o]: /wāl/ 'fireplace', /yɛ̄w/
stay awake'. Between vowels it has very slight bi-
ial friction, especially before /ɛ/: /?awɛn/ 'bam-
.'

/y/ is everywhere the mid-high centralised-
nt half-spread vocoid [ɪ]: /yayāp/ 'to cry sud-
ly', /mənɔ̄y/ 'sister-in-law'.

e) *Lateral*

/l/ is the 'clear' voiced apico-alveolar lat-
al continuant in all positions: /lɛk/ 'to know',
əlud/ 'to explode', /wɛl/ 'again'. Finally /l/ is
exploded.

f) *Flap*

/r/ is the voiced apico-alveolar flap in al
positions: /rɔ̄p/ 'to tickle fish', /marɛ̄k/ 'weir',
/sǫr/ 'cockroach'. In the Ber and Plus valleys many
speakers pronounce /r/ as a labialised retroflex vo-
coid.

g) *Fricative*

/s/ is the voiceless lamino-alveolar rill
spirant in all positions: /səlɔg/ 'to lie down',
/gasɛ̄p/ 'bamboo sliver', /gɛ̄s/ 'incest'.

h) *Laryngals*

Word-finally following a long vowel, /h/
represents simple aspiration, hardly more than pro-
longation of the preceding vowel: /mɛ̄h/ 'nose'.
Elsewhere, /h/ is an unvoiced vocoid taking on the
coloration of the adjacent vowel(s): /hup/ 'feeling
/hahēr/ 'to heave'. Following /u/ there is con-
siderable bilabial friction: /tuh/ 'to speak'.

Following a long vowel, /ʔ/ represents a
lenis closure of the vocal cords: /tā̄ʔ/ 'sir'.
Word-finally after short vowels /ʔ/ is somewhat more
fortis, consisting of a sudden interruption of the
airstream: /bəʔ/ 'to carry'. Elsewhere, /ʔ/ is a
rapid closure-and-opening of the vocal cords, more
lenis word-initially than -medially: /ʔaʔɛ̄ʔ/
'(personal name)'.

i) *Geminates*

Phonemic geminates are pronounced as single
consonants: /lɛllɛ̄d/ '(bird sp.)', /rɛnnɔn/ 'catch-
ing'. This holds wherever there occurs the phonetic
sequence [-ɛCV-], which in all cases is the phonemic
sequence /-ɛCCV-/. (The rationale for this solution
is given in section 1.3.3.1b.)

2.1.2 *Vowels*

a) *Covowels*

Nasality, written with a subscript hook,
s no effect on either the quality or length of the
wel, and no special discussion of the pronunciation
the nasal vowels is necessary: in all cases they
e pronounced in exactly the same way as the
uivalent oral vowels except for the added feature
at the velic is open. It must be remarked, however,
at all vowels may become freely and non-signifi-
ntly nasalised in the environment of nasal
nsonants; this applies equally to the 'inner'
wels /e ə o/ which do not possess independent
onemically nasal forms. In other words, for vowels
e contrast oral/nasal is neutralised in the en-
ronment of nasal consonants.

Specifically, non-significant nasalisation
 vowels occurs in the following circumstances:

> i) Vowels are usually pronounced
>   nasal immediately preceding
>   nasal consonants: /səlantab/
>   'ritual generosity' = [səlą̈ntab],
>   /ʔūɲ/ 'to smell' = [ʔ$\bar{\tilde{y}}$ɲ].

> ii) Vowels preceded by nasal conso-
>   nants and followed by non-nasal
>   pronunciations, even in the same
>   speaker: /ɲɔ̄ʔ/ 'mother' =
>   [ɲɔ̰̄ʔ ~ ɲɔ̄ʔ], with a range of
>   intermediate degrees of nasal-
>   isation.

> iii) Between two nasal consonants
>   vowels are almost always pro-
>   nounced nasally: /moɲ/ 'tooth' =
>   [mɔ̰ɲ].

iv) A nasal consonant in an adjacent
syllable allows a vowel to vary
freely between oral and nasal
pronunciations: /sɛn?ɔ̄y/ 'human
being' = [sɛn?ɔ̄̃y ~ sɛn?ɔ̄y].

v) Phonemically nasal vowels in the
absence of nasal consonants may
also cause non-significant nasa-
isation in adjacent syllables:
/catyd/ 'to crash into' = [cą̄tyd̃
~ cątyd].

Length, written as a macron, increases the
duration to between 1½ and 2 moras, while making
the vowel more lenis in enunciation. *Since long*
vowels often have rather different qualities than
the equivalent short vowels, their pronunciation is
described below separately for each vowel.

b) *Vowels*

/i/ is the short mid-high centralised-fron
spread vocoid [ɪ]: /git/ 'to fetch water'. Long,
/ī/, it is higher, fronter and twice as long:
/baïTk/ 'sky'.

/e/ is the short mid-front unrounded vocо
[eᵛ]; /teh/ 'above'. Long, /ē/, it is higher, abo
Cardinal /e/, and twice as long: /yē?/ 'I'. Befor
/c j ɲ s/ both /e/ and /ē/ have an i-offglide: /re
'to eat flesh', /?adēs/ 'to take exercise'.

/ɛ/ is the short mid-low centralised-fron
unrounded vocoid [ɛ^]: /rɛh/ 'below'. Long, /ɛ̄/,
is low, front and twice as long: /tɛ̄?/ 'just now'.

/ʉ/ is the short high central half-
rounded vocoid [ʉ]: /mʉn/ 'true'. Long, /ʉ̄/, it

more back and twice as long, [ʉːˀ]: /kənʉ̄h/
ne'.

/ə/ is normally the short high-mid central
ounded vocoid [ə^]: /gəl/ 'to sit'. Before
ɛ-/ it is fronted [əᶜ], probably overlapping
h /i/: /səkɛʔ/ 'screwpine'. Between /s/ and
or /r/ in prefinal syllables /ə/ is very short,
etimes disappearing altogether: /səluh/ 'to
ot blowgun', /sərāw/ '(place-name)'. Long, /ə̄/,
is high-mid back unrounded [ɤ̈ː], causing some
-rounding and velarisation of adjacent consonants:
y/ 'to nose-kiss', /mə̄h/ 'nose'.

/a/ is normally the short low back-central
ounded vocoid [aˀ]: /galag/ 'greedy'. Long,
, it is more back, sometimes slightly rounded,
about half as long again as the short vowel,
]: /ʔāl/ 'to swear'. Both /a/ and /ā/ have
arly audible i-offglides before /c j ɲ s/:
j/ 'to arrive unexpectedly', /tāc/ 'to plait'.

/u/ is the short high slightly centralised
k rounded vocoid [ɵ]: /ləpud/ 'caudal fin'.
g, /ū/, it is higher, more back and twice as long,
ut Cardinal /u/: /gūl/ 'mortar'. When bearing
entence-stress /ū/ is slightly labialised, [uʷə].
ore /c j ɲ s/ both /u/ and /ū/ have i-offglides:
j/ 'to sip', /ʔūɲ/ 'to smell'.

/o/ is normally the short mid-high back
nded vocoid, about Cardinal /o/: /bəloʔ/
igh'. In open prefinal syllables it is higher,
probably overlaps the area of /u/, which does
occur in that position within the morpheme:
lap/ 'to carry on shoulder'. Long, /ō/, it
also about Cardinal /o/, but tends to be

labialised in positions of sentence-stress: /go͞/
'deep pool'. Both /o/ and /o͞/ have i-offglides
before /c j ɲ s/: /ʔo͞j/ 'to request'.

/ɔ/ is the short mid-low centralised-back
rounded vocoid [ɔˊ]: /bəlɔʔ/ 'parent-in-law'.
Long, /ɔ͞/, it is the back vocoid about Cardinal
/ɔ/ and about twice as long: /gɔ͞l/ 'Batang
Padang River'.

1.2.2   *Overall speech features*

1.2.2.1   *Rhythm*

Temiar speech-rhythm is 'syllable-timed',
i.e. syllabic peaks succeed each other at
approximately equal intervals of time.

1.2.2.2   *Stress*

Word-stress is not significant, falling
regularly on the final syllable. Sentence-stress
forms part of the suprasegmental accentual system
and is accordingly not discussed here, except
insofar as it affects allomorphic alternations.

1.2.2.3   *Articulatory setting*

In speaking Temiar the jaws are held fairly
open and are active. The lips too are active, but
are held neutral. The overall state of the oral
cavity is rather tensed, and the pharynx is con-
tracted (due perhaps to the frequent occurrence of
/ʔ/). The main consonantal articulation is apico-
alveolar, with the lingual contact made slightly
more towards the blade than in English. Articulati
throughout is by the application of firm pressure.
The tongue is anchored centrally to the floor of
the mouth, with the body held (so far as it is
possible to tell) slightly concave to the roof. Th
tip is tapered.

The foregoing description applies to the state
the articulatory organs in 'neutral gear', and
s not necessarily apply to the production of all
iar speech sounds. Nevertheless, the more
iking features of Temiar 'accent' may be accounted
in this way.

.2.4 *Phonological differences between dialects*

One important difference between Northern and
thern Temiar should be discussed here, as it is
rerequisite for understanding some of the mor-
phonemic alternations to be described in section
.3:

Words that in Northern Temiar (NT) end
an unvoiced stop, in Southern Temiar (ST) end
the equivalent voiced stop: NT /bɔt/ 'to
kle' = ST /bɔd/; NT /bəcuc/ 'sour' = ST /bəcuɉ/.

Words that in Northern Temiar end in a
ced stop, in Southern Temiar end in the equiva-
t unvoiced stop: NT /bɔd/ 'to wear in belt' =
/bɔt/; NT /gabag/ 'to sing' = ST /gabak/.

It might seem from these examples that
fusion could result between speakers of the
ferent dialects (who do in fact often meet).
the context always makes the meaning clear.
since these sound-changes apply to all words
h final stops, the Temiar can continue to regard
difference as merely a matter of regional accent
ough sometimes a cause of amusement). However,
effect of this difference is to make morpho-
nemics rather more complex in Northern than
Southern Temiar.

1.3   *Phonology*

1.3.1   *Canonic structures*

1.3.1.1   *The syllable*

Only two types of syllable occur: *open syllables* of canonic form CV, and *closed syllables* of canonic form CVC. Hence every syllable has a consonant as onset. (The reasons for not admitting syllables of canonic form CCVC are given in section 1.3.4.1; in this analysis such structures are written as CəCVC, and are regarded as bi-syllabic.)

1.3.1.2   *The word*

Words are potentially free-standing forms which always begin and end with a consonant. Hence word-final syllables are always closed, while prefinal syllables may be either open or closed. There appears to be no restriction on the permitted sequence of closed and open syllables in the prefinal parts of the word. In general, word-building proceeds by *infixation*, *prefixation* and *proclisis*: suffixation never occurs. The final syllable is therefore in whole or part always the root of the word.

The minimal canonic structure of the word is CVC: /dēk/ 'house'. The maximal structure is perhaps CV.CVC.CVC.CV.CVC.CV.CVC: /kəʔam-bar-tərɛlhəwal/ 'you-two shall make (it) emerge'. (Note: the hyphen marks an enclitic linkage be-tween units one or both of which are bound forms; it is written therefore only within the word or when identifying units as bound forms in the course of grammatical analysis.) All possible combinations of syllables may occur in words intermediate in

e between the two just quoted.

.2   *Distribution of phonemes*

.2.1   *Consonants*

  a) *Unvoiced stops*

        These may not occur as the first element
medial consonantal clusters, nor immediately
.lowing nasal or nasalised vowels (1.2.1.2a)
 the same syllable. (Such very rare forms as
ɔnōp/ 'fleshy pericarp' -- they are *almost all*
:anical terms! -- must therefore be assumed to
ʒe phonetically oral vowels in the final syllable.
:ds of this type probably derive from earlier forms
:h medial prenasalised stops (*cf.* section 1.3.3.
.iii).) Some partial exceptions to this rule are
ted in section 1.3.3.1a.

  b) *All other consonants*

        These may occur in all possible canonic
positions. (There may, however, be some hitherto
recognised restrictions on the co-occurrence
 the first two consonants in words (? morphemes)
 the schewa form CəCVC.)

3.2.2   *Vowels*

  a) In final (tonic) syllables, all vowels
y occur, with the exception that nasal vowels do
t occur in syllables with final unvoiced stops.

  b) In prefinal (atonic) syllables, only short
al vowels may occur, with the following further
strictions:

        i) In open syllables, /ɛ ʉ ɔ/ do not
cur (with the exception of the bound allomorphs of
e pronouns /kanɛ-/ 'we (exclusive)', /ɲɔ-/ 'you
lural)', and /wɛ-/ 'they two', which are in any

case usually pronounced /kanɪ-/, /ɲə-/ and /we-/.

   ii) In closed syllables, /e ə ʉ o/
do not occur.

   iii) Therefore, /ʉ/ occurs only in final
syllables.

1.3.3 *Morphophonemic alternations*

1.3.3.1 *Obligatory alternations*

 These ensue from the restrictions on distri-
bution outlined in section 1.3.2, and they come
into operation as the result of certain common
morphological processes.

   a) *Consonants*

   i) If the first element of a medial
consonantal cluster is an unvoiced stop, it under-
goes voicing to the equivalent nasal in Northern
Temiar, and to the equivalent voiced stop in
Southern Temiar (*cf*. 1.3.2.1a):

 NT: *yɛpyāp → yɛmyāp 'to cry' (root: yāp)

 ST: *ʔɛtʔɔ̄t → ʔɛdʔɔ̄t 'to fast' (root: ʔɔ̄t)

 NT: *hup-bō? → hum-bō? 'normally' (roots:
   hup, bō?)

This alternation most commonly occurs in verbal
reduplication processes (2.2.2.1) and in the bound
allomorphs of certain nouns (2.1.2.3).

   ii) A word-final unvoiced stop in
a syllable with a nasal consonant as onset under-
goes nasalisation:

 *lanɛk → lanɛŋ 'knowledge' (root: lɛk)

 *kɛmnəp → kɛmnəm 'burying' (root: kəp)

This alternation most commonly occurs as a result

verbal nominalisation by infixation of /-n-/
2.2.3a).

In some variants of Northern
miar, however, when a final unvoiced stop follows
medial sequence of two nasal consonants, as in
second example above, it remains unassimilated.
:h forms as /bɛnnɔt/ and /tɛɲnāc/ may then be
ird where other speakers say /bɛnnɔn/ 'giving
:k' (root: /bɔt/) and /tɛɲnāɲ/ 'plaiting' (root:
īc/). In cases where adults make the assimilation,
:ir children frequently fail to do so. (It may
11 be that this alternation should strictly be
isidered a non-obligatory one; it has much in
mmon with alternations described in sections
3.3.2 and 1.3.3.3.)

In Southern Temiar these
plications do not arise, as in that dialect,
llowing from rules 1.2.2.4 and 1.3.3.1, medial
:al clusters are rare. In place of the Northern
niar forms /bɛnnɔn/ and /tɛɲnāɲ/, Southern
niar has /bɛdnɔd/ and /tɛjnāj/, which involve
morphophonemic changes.

b) *Vowels*

i) In prefinal closed syllables the
ner vowels /e ə o/ are replaced by the *outer*
vels /ɪ ɛ u/ respectively:

*deŋ-rəb → dɪŋ-rəb 'shelter'

*səglɔg → sɛglɔg 'to lie down'

*bon-mɔ̄ŋ → bun-mɔ̄ŋ 'bug-flower'

is alternation most commonly occurs as the
sult of verb reduplication (2.2.2.1a) *and in*
und allomorphs of certain nouns (2.1.2.3).

Conversely, in prefinal open syllables the outer vowel /ε/ is replaced by the inner vowel /ə/:

*tɛrɛj?ɔj → tərɛj?ɔj 'to raise'

*sɛrɛglɔg → sərɛglɔg 'to lay down'

This alternation most commonly occurs in the causative voice of the verb when deriving the continuative aspect from the perfective (2.2.2.1a).

              ii) In prefinal syllables long vowels are replaced by the equivalent short vowels:

*kanɛ̄-cʈb → kanɛ-cʈb 'we go'

*lāŋ-tɪw → laŋ-tɪw 'opposite side of river'

*kərōp-dēk → *kərop-dēk → kərum-dēk 'under-
    house'

This alternation most commonly occurs in bound allomorphs of certain nouns (2.1.2.3) and pronouns (2.1.3.3).

              iii) In prefinal syllables nasal vowels are denasalised to the equivalent oral vowel (in the absence of any adjacent nasal consonant, that is):

*hą-cʈb → ha-cʈb 'you go'

*jəhỹ?-cah → jəhu?-cah '*cah*-tree'

1.3.3.2 *Non-obligatory alternations*

    a) *Nasal consonants*

        i) Final nasal consonants in prefinal syllables tend to undergo partial regressive assimilation to a following stop or nasal consonant, especially in fast tempo speech:

kərum-dēk ~ kərun-dēk 'under-house'

ʔun-bəʔ ~ ʔum-bəʔ 'they *carry*'

cɛnkəb ~ cɛŋkəb 'lid'

is assimilation does *not* occur, however, with
sal consonants in the reduplicated syllable of
rbs in the continuative aspect (2.2.2.1a):
ɛnpət/ not /*pɛmpət/ 'to long for'. This some-
mes allows a distinction to be made between
e continuative aspect of the verb and the verbal
un derived from it (2.2.2.3a.i):

sɛŋlɔ̄k 'to hunt successfully' (səlɔ̄k redupli-
cated)

sɛnlɔ̄k 'success at hunting' (səlɔ̄k + -n-)

        ii) Initial voiced stops in prefinal closed
llables with a nasal coda freely alternate with
e equivalent nasal consonant (but *cf*. 1.3.3.3b):

bɛn-dēk ~ mɛn-dēk 'space around house'

jɛnlap ~ ɲɛnlap 'waning of moon'

gɛntɔk ~ ŋɛntɔk '*ear*'

buŋ-lay ~ muŋ-lay '(a leafy plant sp.)'

jɛmnɔm ~ ɲɛmnɔm 'birth'

esumably, those speakers who use the assimilated
sal form are those who also make the nasal as-
milation mentioned in section 1.3.3.1a.ii.

    b) *Proclitics*

        Proclitics of the highest order within the
rd tend in fast tempo speech to undergo progressive
akening by centralisation of the vowel and/or loss
 the final consonant:

```
bar-halab → ba-halab → bə-halab 'to go down-
    river'

mu-cȾb → mə-cȾb 'they shall go'
```

The proclitics affected in this way are primarily the
morpheme /-bar-/ (2.2.4) and the bound forms of the
pronouns (2.1.3.3).

1.3.3.3 *Loanwords*

Most loanwords in Temiar come from or *via*
Malay, and in most cases the form they take is
understandable (though not always entirely predict-
able) in terms of the alternations described in
the preceding sections. However, there are a few
classes of Malay loanwords which in Temiar undergo
certain consonantal substitutions the rationale for
which is not covered by the morphophonemic and
distributional rules so far presented. The fact
that the consonantal systems of Malay and Temiar
are very similar in structure strongly suggests
that the rationale for these substitutions lies
simply in the fact that they *are* loanwords
(*cf.* Henderson 1951). Insofar as nothing has yet
been discovered in the phonology of either
language which would require such substitutions, the
alternations may best be regarded as a kind of
morphophonemic process, applicable only to those
morphemes marked as 'Malay loans'. The Temiar
are acutely aware of the distinctiveness of this
class of word and that they treat them in a
phonologically special manner. The processes
involved are still fully productive and may be
applied to any suitable word.

Malay final nasals

Final nasal consonants of Malay words are
anged in Temiar to the equivalent unvoiced stops,
atever classes of vowels and consonants constitute
e remainder of the word. (In the following
amples the Malay forms are on the left, the Temiar
the right.):

kəbun	→	kəbut 'orchard'
tuhan	→	tohāt 'God'
raɲcaŋ	→	raɲcak 'programme'
kucin	→	kucik 'cat'
lobaŋ	→	lobak 'hole'
bilaŋ	→	bilak 'to count'
kambiŋ	→	kambik 'goat'

Malay initial nasals

The initial consonants of Malay words with
dial nasal consonants are optionally changed in
miar to the equvalent voiced stops, even though
miar phonology does permit words to contain several
sal consonants in succession (*e.g.* /ɲɛmɲɔm/
tamen'):

naŋka	→	daŋkā? 'jackfruit'
ɲamo?	→	jamo? 'mosquito'
nama	→	damə̄h 'name'
numbor	→	dumbɔ̄h 'number'
naga	→	nagā ~ daŋgā? 'dragon'

te that the final example illustrates clearly the
fluence of the medial nasal consonant; furthermore,
e intrusive nasal seems to have been deliberately

added in order to allow the denasalising of the
initial consonant so that the word may be better
marked as a Malay loan.

c) *An attempted explanation*

　　Though the purpose of this paper is to provide
a synchronic description, the alternations just
described are clearly cases where phonological
history and the present-day cultural context
are both immediately relevant. Once this is
acknowledged, at least three mutually inclusive
explanations seem possible.

　　　　i) The alternations described in section
1.3.3.3a: The earliest Malay loans were probably
borrowed at a time when Temiar was undergoing a
sound-shift (Diffloth, personal communication) in
which some word-final nasal consonants became
devoiced to the equivalent unvoiced stop.   If
this was the case then the Malay loans could well
have been swept along analogically in the process.
Later loans (the alternation is still 'productive')
would then have continued the pattern thus establish-
ed simply because they were loans, in keeping with
the desire of the Temiar to keep the distinction
between Malay and indigenous culture elements
well marked (*cf.* Benjamin 1966:6).

　　　　ii) The alternations described in section
1.3.3.3b are all the more striking because they
appear at first sight to be the exact reverse
of the more normal morphophonemic processes
described in section 1.3.3.2a.ii. However, the
problem eases somewhat when it is noted that both of
these alternations are non-obligatory: the words
remain well-formed even if the assimilation is not

ried out.   This suggests that in the environment
NC... (where N is any nasal consonant) the
osition between voiced stop and nasal is neu-
lised to a degree sufficient to allow of either
nunciation without change of meaning.   Never-
less, the degree of neutralisation is not so
plete as to prevent speakers expressing a
listically-based preference for the one pronun-
tion over the other.   Temiar culture, as we
e seen, makes it desirable that Malay loanwords
uld be specially marked, and in such cases the
ced-stop form is the standard one.   With 'pure'
niar words, however, the choice is strictly a
rsonal matter.

iii) A third explanation[2] is one which
uld treat both of the above alternations as
flexes of a single set of pro-phonemes.   This
to posit the existence for both Temiar and
lay of some sort of pro-phonemic series of pre-
salised stops in addition to the normal stop and
sal consonants (leaving undiscussed here the
atus of such pro-phonemes as possibly a feature
an earlier stage of the history of these lan-
ages or of their generative grammars).   Taking
e labial pro-phoneme $*/^mb/$ as an example, we
n posit the following series of allophones and
velopments in each language according as they
cur word-initially, -medially or -finally,
d in nasal or oral syllables.   (Nasal syllables
e those with nasal consonants as onset or coda,
with phonemically nasal vowels, or any combin-
on of these.)

Derived Phonemes

Pro-allophones	Oral Syllables			Nasal Syllables		
	initial	medial	final	initial	medial	fin[al]
Malay: all positions: ᵐb	b-	-ᵐb-	-m	m-	-ᵐb-	-m
Temiar: initial or medial: (-)ᵐb-	b-	-m-		m-	-m-	
finally after oral vowels: -ᵐₒp			-p			
finally after nasal vowels: -ᵐb						-m

In addition to explaining the alternations described in section 1.4.3.1, this interpretation would have the merit of also explaining the following phenomena

1) The lack of simultaneity in the velic, velar and oral closures described in section 1.2.1.1 for the pronunciation of medial unvoiced stops, final unvoiced stops, final voiced stops and final nasals.

2) Certain (not widely accepted) interpretation of Malay phonological history which also posit a series of prenasalised stop phonemes (*e.g.* Verguin 1964).

This whole argument would, of course, be better presented in terms of distinctive feature analysis, but such a discussion would wander too far from the

in lines of this paper.

3.4   *Orthography*

This is not the place to make suggestions for
practical orthography, especially as young Temiars
sem to have little difficulty in gaining their
sic literacy directly in Bahasa Malaysia.   From
scientific point of view, however, two features
the orthography used here need discussion.

3.4.1 *Schewa-forms*

Many linguists working on Austroasiatic lan-
ages prefer not to write the *schĕwa* vowel in
rds of the form CəCVC, as they regard the first
o consonants as constituting a single cluster
d the whole structure a monosyllable. Nevertheless
have decided to retain this orthography even
ough it is clear that the occurrence of /ə/ in
ch a position is wholly determined by the absence
any other vowel.   (The same, of course, applies
the writing of /ɛ/ in words of the form CɛCCVC.)
e reasons for this are:

a) It increases the ease of reading of many
rds that would otherwise look very clumsy on paper,
pecially in the case of such reduplicated forms
/sɛglɔg/ 'to lie down', which in a strictly
onemic orthography would be written /sglɔg/.

b) The initial and medial consonants of
ots of the form CəCVC do not hold together as a
uster when the word is altered by morphological
ocesses: the reduplicated form of /səlɔg/ is
ɛglɔg/ not /*slɛgslɔg/, an impossible structure.
thermore, such expressive forms as /səralɔg lɔg/
cur in which the erstwhile 'cluster' loses all
entity.   It seems best that the orthography

should separate such consonants clearly.

c) Most importantly, *schẽwa*-forms are physiologically disyllabic.

1.3.4.2 *The dialects*

The orthographic problems encountered in finding a single writing system to encompass all the dialects of Temiar are not as serious as might at first be thought. This is because the phonological differences between Northern and Southern Temiar are predictable. It is interesting to note, though, the curious result that an orthography which is phonemic for one of the dialects automatically becomes a morphophonemic orthography for the other, and vice versa. The decision to take the phonemic orthography for Northern Temiar as standard is based on three considerations: it is the dialect spoken by the Temiar announcers in the Orang Asli service of Radio Malaysia; it is the dialect described by Carey in his pioneer study (1961); and it is the dialect I speak myself and on which I have done most of my research.

2.0 *Morphosyntax*

This term identifies a level of analysis in which just enough of Temiar syntax is outlined to identify the significant word-classes and to indi-cate the more common constructions into which they enter.[3] The sentence as a syntactical structure is not analysed here, except to point out that its major components are *noun phrases* and *verb phrases*, with the optional addition of elements (*adjuncts*) that fit into neither of these categories. The basic word-order of Temiar is subject + verb + object, though this may be modified in certain

rcumstances.

All classes of words that enter into the con-
ruction of noun phrases and verb phrases are
tegorised as *nominal elements* and *verbal elements*
spectively. Each word-class set up on this basis
 regarded as 'primarily' either a nominal or a
rbal element: it is in their primary roles
at the word-classes display their widest range
 morphological and syntactical potentialities.
me of the word-classes, however, possess
econdary' roles as elements of the kind other
an that of their primary role; *e.g.* the primarily
rbal elements 'verb' and 'adjective' may func-
on secondarily as nominal elements in certain
rcumstances, while the primarily nominal element
ronoun' may function secondarily as a verbal
ement. In general, word-classes are more
stricted as regards their morphological and
ntactical potentialities in their secondary
les than in their primary roles. (Additionally,
ny word-classes may function tertiarily as
ntence-adjuncts.)

It must be noted that, as is common in
utheast Asian languages, many individual lexemes
ssess membership in two or more different word-
asses. But this is a lexical matter, and the
tegrity of the word-classes as such remains un-
sailed.

1   *Nominal elements*

1.1   *The noun phrase*

The noun phrase (NP) may be rewritten as
llows:

$$NP \rightarrow (prep) \begin{bmatrix} noun \\ pron \end{bmatrix} (mod) \left(\begin{bmatrix} (pron)(dem) \\ dem \end{bmatrix} \right)$$

$$\text{where mod} \rightarrow \begin{Bmatrix} adj \\ verb_c \end{Bmatrix}$$

The primary nominal elements are therefore:
nouns (noun), pronouns (pron), demonstratives (dem),
and prepositions (prep). The secondary nominal
elements are: adjectives (adj) and verbs in the
continuative aspect ($verb_c$). The primary elements
are discussed in this section, while the secondary
elements are discussed later as verbal elements.

All realisations of the above NP formula
constitute possible utterances, but not complete
sentences, in Temiar. Some examples follow:

1. *(prep)noun(adj)(pron)(dem)*:

    dēk 'house'

    dēk mənū? (house big) 'big house'

    dēk yē? (house I) 'my house'

    dēk rɛh 'house below'

    dēk mənū? yeh (house big I) 'my big house'

    dēk mənū? ?i-rɛh (house big I-below) 'my
        big house below'

2. *(prep)pron(adj)(dem)*:

    hā̄? 'thou'

    ha-?ajəg   hā̄? ?ajəg 'thou senior'

    ha-doh 'thou here'

    ha-?ajəg doh 'thou senior here'

3. *(prep)noun(verb_c)(pron)(dem)*:

    dēk kɛlkəl (house collapsing) 'collapsing
        house'

dēk kɛlkəl yeh (house collapsing I) 'my
    collapsing house'

dēk kɛlkəl rɛh (house collapsing below)
    'collapsing house below'

dēk kɛlkəl ?ì-rɛh (house collapsing I-below)
    'my collapsing house below'

(prep)pron(verb_c) (dem):

na-cɛ? cā? (he-eating) 'he who is eating'

na-cɛ? cā? tūy (he-eating there) 'he
    who is eating there'

ᵗte: this last example is syntactically am-
ᵍuous, and can also, as a complete sentence,
ᵃn 'he is eating'; but see the prepositional
ᵣms below.)

na-doh 'he here' (dem)

ha-?ajəg doh 'you senior here' (adj + dem)

na-cɛ?cā? tūy 'he eating there' (verb_c + dem)

ᴵ these constructions can be preceded by a
ᵉposition (which is what clearly indicates that
ᵣstructions of the form pron + verb_c may be noun
ᵣases in which the verb is a modifier rather
ᵃn a predicate):

num-dēk kɛlkəl ?ì-rɛh 'from my collapsing
    house below'

ma-na-cɛ?cā? tūy 'to him eating there'

L.2   *Nouns*

Nouns may take a proclitic preposition and
ᵉy may be modified by an immediately following
ᵣnoun in a 'possessive' construction.

L.2.1   *Primitive nouns*

These are non-inflecting, and function in no
ᵢer syntactic class: /jəhy?/ 'tree', /mɔɲ/

'tooth', /maŋkey/ 'scar'.

2.1.2.2 *Inflecting nouns*

These form plurals on the same morphological patterns as the aspectual inflections of the verbs (2.2.2.1). They may also function syntactically as verbs and adjectives:

tā? 'sir'

tatā? 'old man'

tɛ?tā? 'old men'

hɔj na-tatā? (already he-old) 'he has grown old'

gɔb tatā? (Malay old) 'an old Malay'

rəwāy 'head-soul'

na-rɛywāy 'he is suffering from soul-loss'

2.2.2.3 *Compounding nouns*

These possess two allomorphs: free, behaving as primitive nouns; and *bound*, proclitic to another noun or verb (in which case the morphophonemic alternations outlined in section 1.3.3 apply). In some cases the bound form is only recognisable as such because it bears no word-stress:

dēk 'house' → diŋ- (diŋ-yɛ̄w 'guard-house')

bɔ̄t 'flower' → bun- (bun-mɔ̄ŋ 'bug-flower')

kā? 'fish' → ka- (ka-hɔ̄? fish-shell = 'tortoise')

kərɔ̄p 'place beneath' → kərum- (kərum-dēk 'space under house')

mɛn- 'collectivity of' (forms plurals; no free allomorphs)

These constructions are all class-maintaining.

1.2.4 *Verbal nouns*

Though behaving syntactically much as
imitive nouns, these are derived by productive
rivational processes from verb roots. (The
rphology of verbal nouns is therefore treated
 section 2.2.2.3):

cɛbnⲧb yeh 'my going' (root: cⲦb 'to go')

tɛn?ɛl dēk 'house-building' (root: tə?ɛl
    'to make')

dēk sɛnlɔg 'house for sleeping' (root:
    sәlɔg 'to sleep')

cәrɛŋkʉb na? 'that lid' (root: cɛrkʉb
    'to close')

cәnɛr 'knife' (root: cɛr 'to pare')

1.3 *Pronouns*

Pronouns may take a proclitic preposition, but
ey may not be modified by another pronoun. There
e three allomorphic classes of pronouns:
ressed, *unstressed* and *bound*. In all cases the
onouns express obligatorily the categories of
mber (singular, dual, plural) and person (first,
cond, third). The first-person pronouns also
press the category of inclusion (the inclusion
 exclusion of the person addressed). The
llowing paradigm sets out all the forms:

	Stressed	*Unstressed*	*Bound*
	yē?	yeh	?i-
(emphatic)	cē?	-	yi-
ou	hā̄?	hah	ha-
, she, it	-	?әh	na-, ?ә-
(thou and I)	?ār	.?ah	?a-
(he and I)	yār	yah	ya-
u two	kә?an	kә?an	kә?a-

	Stressed	Unstressed	Bound
they two	-	wɛh, weh	wɛ-, we-
we (you and I)	ʔɛ̄ʔ	ʔɛh	ʔɛ-
we (they and I)	kanɛ̄ʔ	kanɛh	kanɛ-, kĭ-, kɛ-
---- (emphatic)	kandē̄ʔ	kaneh	kanĭ-
you (plural)	ɲɔb	ɲɔb	ɲɔb-, ɲɔ-
they (plural)	-	ʔun, ʔən	ʔun-

The lack of stressed third-person pronouns is commented on in section 2.1.4.5.

Note that in the dual and plural pronouns 'attraction' occurs:

yā̄r ʔaluŋ (we-two Alung) 'Alung and I'

ɲɔb mɛn-ʔaluŋ (you plural-Alung) 'you and Alung's people'

The various allomorphs function as follows:

2.1.3.1 *Stressed pronouns*

This allomorph occurs:

a) In unmodified noun phrases:

cɔ̄ʔ ʔa-na?? --yē̄ʔ 'who's there?' --'I'

ma-cɔ̄ʔ nam-ʔog? --ma-hā̄? 'to whom will he give?' --'to you'

kəʔan kəʔa-sɛhluh 'you-two, you are blow-piping'

b) As a nominal modifier ('possessive') when bearing sentence-stress:

kəwā̄s ˈyā̄r '*our* child'

1.3.2 *Unstressed pronouns*

These occur immediately succeeding a word bear-
ing sentence-stress, especially when functioning
as a nominal modifier or as the subject of auxiliary
and adjectival verbals:

kə'wā̱s yah   'our *child*'

cə'lək ʔəh   'it's red'

'hɔj yeh   (already I)   'I'm off'

1.3.3 *Bound pronouns*

The major function of the bound form of the
pronoun is as an element in the verb phrase: it
will accordingly be discussed as such in section
2.7.

As a nominal element, the bound allomorph
replaces the unstressed allomorph in all construc-
tions or utterances where the pronoun immediately
follows its head and is in turn immediately followed
by a word or phrase within the same sentence-stress
group. Its occurrence is, then, essentially phono-
logically determined, and it need bear no special
relationship, morphologically or syntactically, to
the word to which it is attached. Indeed, the
resultant form can be classed as a word only in
the phonological sense.

    kəwā̱s ʔə-na-jiʔ = kəwā̱s ʔəh na-jiʔ   (child he
       he-sick) 'his child is sick'

    səlāy kanɛ-tūy = səlāy kanɛh tūy   (swidden
       our-there) 'our swidden over there'

    hɔj ʔi-ma-teh = hɔj yeh ma-teh   (already I-to-
       above) 'I'm off upstream'

Note that there are two bound forms of the
third-person singular pronoun: /ʔə-/ occurs in the

positions just described (*i.e.* as a modifier), while
/na-/ occurs as the head in its construction:

> na-ʔajəg doh (he-senior this) 'this senior
>   one'
>
> dēk ʔə-tūy (house ʔə-there) 'his house over
>   there'
>
> dēk na-tūy (house na-there) 'the house of
>   him over there'

In verb phrases /na-/ is the form used (2.2.7).

2.1.4   *Demonstratives*

These are a closed group of temporal and loca-
tional deictic particles that may take a proclitic
preposition, but may not be modified by an immediate-
ly succeeding word of any class. The basic forms
are:

Temporal		*Locational*	
kāl	'soon'	doh	'here', 'this'
tɛ̄ʔ	'earlier today'	naʔ	'there', 'that'
tɔp	'past'	nin	'just out of reach'
nɛŋ	'before'	tūy	'elsewhere, other side, far away'
nin	'indefinite past'	rɛh	'below, downstream'
		teh	'above, upstream'

2.1.4.1   *With prepositions*

Demonstratives may take prepositions to form
class-maintaining demonstrative constructions. The
locational demonstratives combine freely with the
'true' prepositions (2.1.5):

> ma-doh   'to here'
>
> num-naʔ   'from there'

rɛʔ-tūy 'like elsewhere'

.4.2 *Defined demonstratives*

Additionally, the meaning of most demonstratives
be made more definite by the proclitic /ʔa-/
finer', which is used with the same function with
e other word-classes also (kin terms, personal
es):

ʔa-kāl 'immediately'

ʔa-tɛ̄ʔ 'just now'

ʔa-naʔ 'just there'

.4.3 *Inflected demonstratives*

Sometimes a change of form effects a change in
ning, though the resultant demonstratives should
bably be considered as distinct lexemes:

rɛ̄h '(movement) vertically downwards' (*cf.*
    rɛh)

tēh '(movement) vertically upwards' (*cf.* teh)

nɛŋnɛŋ 'formerly, long time ago' (*cf.* nɛŋ)

All of the forms in the last three sections may
nd as independent utterances.

.4.4 *As modifiers*

In constructions, the demonstratives have a mod-
ing deictic function in noun phrases, and serve as
erbial adjuncts to verb phrases. It is good
iar idiom to use demonstratives freely in this way
never possible, even when it does not seem to add
thing to the meaning; this is especially the case
h pronouns:

yē? doh ʔim-ʔog ma-hą̄ʔ naʔ 'I here will give to
    you there'

na-kəlʉʔ ma-tɛʔ rɛh (he-fall to-earth below)

'he fell down'

kì-cĪb ma-bŌk lumpŌh tūy (we-go to-Kuala Lumpur
    elsewhere) 'we went to Kuala Lumpur'

səlāy tawun ʔənam puloh ha-tɔp (swidden year
    sixty formerly) 'the swidden of 1960'

2.1.4.5 *As pronomial complements*

The demonstratives are essential complements to
allow the third-person pronouns /na-/, /wɛ-/ and
/ʔun-/ to stand free:

na-doh   'he here'

wɛ-tɛ̄ʔ   'they-two just now'

ʔun-tūy   'they elsewhere'

When compounded in this way the third-person pronouns
behave syntactically like any other stressed-form
pronoun.

2.1.5 *Prepositions*

2.1.5.1 *True prepositions*

All true prepositions are obligatorily proclitic
and may occur attached to nouns, pronouns, demonstra-
tives, and interrogative particles. The most common
prepositions are: /ma-/ 'to', /num-/ 'from', /rɛʔ-/
'like', and /ʔɛn-/ 'in, at'.

ʔɛn-jəhy̆ʔ tūy (in-tree there) 'in the tree
    over there'

num-tìw bŌʔ (from-river main) 'from the main
    river'

rɛʔ-yē̄ʔ ham-təʔɛl (like-I you-m-do) 'do it
    like I do'

ma-lŌ̄ʔ ha-cĪb ma teh (to-where you-go --to-
    above) 'where are you going?' --'upstream'

Some prepositions are restricted in occurrence
certain word-classes, and *occasionally to certain
:emes*:

do-rɛ̄h; do-tēh   'downwards; upwards'

ʔe-loʔ   (ʔe-what?)   'what?, why?'

.5.3 'Articles'

Some prepositions serve purely syntactic rather
ιn 'semantic' functions, in particular that of
licating the 'case' of noun phrases, especially
ιn they are in inverted positions within the
ιtence.   The major prepositions of this type are
-/ 'subjective' and /ha-/ 'objective':

na-wɛʔ ʔi-kəlō̄ʔ ʔəh   (he-leave ʔi-brother he)
    'his brother left'   (a reversal of the normal:
    kəlō̄ʔ ʔə-na-wɛʔ)

ha-ʔō̄s wɛ-ɲɔh   (ha-fire they-light)   'they lit
    the fire'

Note: /ʔi-/ and /ha-/ also make the attached
ın phrase definite, and further analysis may show
ιt they have something of the character of definite
:icles, differentiated by 'case'.   In the first
ιtence /ʔi-kəlō̄ʔ/ identifies specifically the
other already mentioned in the discourse, and none
ιer.   The second sentence contrasts with /ʔō̄s wɛ-
ɔ/ 'they lit (any) fire', and it refers specifi-
ly to the particular fire they had got ready, and
other.   This usage may be compared with the 'de-
ıer' usage of /ʔa-/ with demonstratives (2.1.3).

.5.4 *Synthetic prepositions*

Certain nouns of location and quantity possess
ınd allomorphs which may behave syntactically as
positions, with the sole difference that they

may in turn take true prepositions (like any noun).
The preposed forms, however, behave as compound
prepositional phrases rather than as noun phrases.
These words are the following:

    kərum-   'beneath' (kərōp 'underside')

    paŋ-   'on top of' (pāk 'topside')

    laŋ   'other side of' (lāk 'side')

    kəlɔj-   'inside' (kəlōj 'interior')

    rɔm-   'as much as' (rɔp 'how much?')

    mar-   'as big as' (mar 'size')

For example: kəlɔj-ʔōk 'in the water'; num-kəlɔj-
ʔōk 'from (out of) the water'

2.1.5.5 /ma-/ *as a verbal element*

    The use of /ma-/ to link some transitive verbs
with their noun-phrase objects is mentioned in
section 2.2.1.

2.2   *Verbal elements*

2.2.1   *The verb phrase*

    The verb phrase (VP) may be rewritten as follow

$$VP \rightarrow (tɔʔ)(aux) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} adj + NP \\ pron(-m-)verb \end{array} \right\}$$

$$where\ verb \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} verb^i\ (pron + -m- + verb) \\ verb^t \left\{ \begin{array}{l} pron + -m- + verb \\ (ma-)NP \end{array} \right\} \\ bar- + noun \end{array} \right\}$$

    The primary verbal elements are therefore:
verbs (verb), falling into two major subclasses,
intransitive (verb^i) and transitive (verb^t); adjec-
tives (adj); auxiliaries (aux); the morpheme /bar-/;
the morpheme /-m-/; and the negative /tɔʔ/. The
secondary verbal elements are: nouns (noun); pro-

ıns (pron); noun phrases (NP); and the preposition
ı-/. The secondary verbal elements have already
ən discussed in their primary roles in section 2.1.

Note that unlike the noun phrase rules the above
les allow of the construction of complex phrases
the subordination of a noun phrase object or of a
:ursive verb phrase.

All realisations of the above VP formula consti-
te possible utterances, and in some cases possible
ntences also. Some examples follow:

1. (tɔ?)(aux)adj + NP:

    mənū? ?əh (big it) 'it's big'

    mənū? dēk rəŋah ha-?ɛn-tūy (big house dark
       you-at-there) 'your dark house there
       is big'

    tɔ? mɛ?nū? dēk na? (not big house that)
       'that house is not big'

    mɔ? mənū? ?əh (exists big it) 'it *is* big'

2. (tɔ?)(aux)pron(-m-)verb^1(pron + -m- + verb):

    na-cTb (he-go) 'he goes'

    hɔj na-cTb (already he-go) 'he has gone'

    tT? nam-cTb (still he-m-go) 'he still
      wants to go'

    na-cTb nam-nɛ̄h (he-go he-m-see) 'he goes
      to see'

    tɔ? mɔ? nam-?og kim-cTb (not exist he-m-
      give we-m-go) 'he just won't allow us
      to go'

3. (tɔ?)(aux)pron(-m-)verb^t + pron + -m- + verb:

    ?i-səluh ɲam ?im-rec (I-shoot animal I-m-
      eat) 'I shot an animal to eat'

4. (tɔʔ)(aux)pron(-m-)verb^t(ma-)NP:

    hɔj mu-pəluʔ ma-kanē̃ʔ (already they-m-hit
        ma-we) 'they were about to hit us'

    (ʔe-loʔ) tɔʔ ha-rɛɲrec sec mɛjmɛj naʔ
        ((why) not you-eat meat excellent that)
        '(why) didn't you eat that excellent
        meat?'

5. (tɔʔ)(aux)pron(-m-)bar- + noun:

    tT̃ʔ na-bar-lɛh (still he-bar-wife) 'he
    is still married'

    (jəhy̆ʔ naʔ) tɔʔ na-bar-səlā̃ʔ ((tree that)
        not-it-bar-leaf) '(that tree) has no
        leaves'

Note: most verbs may be modified by adjectives
but the VP formula would be made unnecessarily com-
plicated if it were altered to account for such
'adverbial' constructions; some examples are given
in section 2.2.8.4b.ii.

2.2.2 *Verbs*

    Morphologically, verbs fall into three form-
classes according to the canonic structure of the
root:

    Monosyllabic: $c^i v c^f$ (kɔ̄w 'to call')

    Schewa-form: $c^i {}_ə c^m v c^f$ (səlog 'to lie down')

    Polysyllabic: $c^i v c^m v c^f$ (halab 'to go down-
                 river')

              $c^i v c c^m v c^f$ (sindul 'to float')

    Inflectional (*i.e.* class-maintaining) morpho-
logical processes allow verbs to express the
following categories: aspect (perfective, con-
tinuative, simulfactive); voice (active, causative);
and mode (indicative, desiderative). In addition,
cross-cutting these categories is a contrast

:ween transitivity and intransitivity, sometimes
narked morphologically but lexically defined, and
netimes marked indirectly by the inflection of the
:b. Tense is unmarked in the Temiar verb, though
 may be expressed by various verbal auxiliaries
i sentence adjuncts.

Derivational (*i.e.* class-changing) morphological
>cesses allow verbs to form verbal nouns and
eophones (expressive adjuncts) of various kinds.

2.2.1 *Verb inflection*

a) *Monosyllabic and schewa-form verbs*:

The morphological processes that generate
e various aspects, voices and modes of the verb are
st illustrated paradigmatically.

In general, the perfective aspect is un-
rked, consisting of the root alone. The other two
pects are formed by reduplicative processes, in-
lving the initial and final consonants in the
ntinuative aspect, and the initial consonant and
e marker vowel /-a-/ in the simulfactive aspect.
e active voice is unmarked, while the causative
ice is formed variously by the infixation of /-r-/
 by prefixation of its allomorphs /tɛr- ~ bɛr-/.
e desiderative mode is in all cases formed by the
fixation of /-m-/ between the proclitic pronoun
d the verb; it is discussed separately in section
2.5.

It should be noted, however, that many
rbs are defective: for example, *schewa* verbs
mmonly lack perfective forms, or they exist only
 the causative form. Discussion of these exceptions
 out of place in this summary account, as they in-
lve no new morphological principles.

Taking the roots /kɔ̄w/ 'to call' and /səlɔg/ 'to lie down, sleep, marry' as models, the patterns of verb inflection are as follows (note that many of the morphophonemic alternations described in section 1.3.3.1 are involved in these processes).

Active Voice

Perfective:	$c^i v c^f$	kɔ̄w
	$c^i \vartheta c^m v c^f$	səlɔg
Simulfactive:	$c^i a c^i v c^f$	kakɔ̄w
	$c^i a c^m v c^f$	salɔg
Continuative:	$c^i \varepsilon c^f c^i v c^f$	kɛwkɔ̄w
	$c^i \varepsilon c^f c^m v c^f$	sɛglɔg

Causative Voice

Perfective:	$t\varepsilon r c^i v c^f$	tɛrkɔ̄w
	$c^i \varepsilon r c^m v c^f$	sɛrlɔg
Simulfactive:	$t\vartheta r a c^i v c^f$	*tərakɔ̄w
	$c^i \vartheta r a c^m v c^f$	*səralɔg
Continuative:	$t\vartheta r \varepsilon c^f c^i v c^f$	tərɛwkɔ̄w
	$c^i \vartheta r \varepsilon c^f c^m v c^f$	sərɛglɔg

Notes:

i) The above examples are for the sake of illustration only; hardly any verbs are employed in every possible inflected form. The two starred forms are not yet attested; see note iv below.

ii) Monosyllabic roots with initial /c-/ or /t-/ take /bɛr-/ instead of /tɛr-/ in the causative: /cā?/ 'to eat' gives /bɛrcā?/ 'to feed'.

iii) Some apparently irregular verbs diverge
m this paradigm in one or more respects. The
sative perfective of /həwal/ 'to emerge', for ex-
le, is /*hɛrwal/. The 'irregularity' here, how-
r, is not in the reduplicative pattern employed
is a frequent means of forming expressives), but
the use to which it is put.

iv) Where the meaning allows, all these forms
 productive, with the exception of the causative
ulfactive which occurs in certain 'crystallised'
ms only, and even then usually with a meaning
er than that implied by the inflectional cate-
ies. It is a pattern frequently occurring in ex-
ssives, however.

v) Non-productive patterns different from the
ndard ones but obviously causative in form are
o found: /jɐl/ 'to bark', /pəjɐl/ 'to go hunting
h dogs'; /lɛk/ 'to know', /təlɛk/ 'to teach';
s/ 'to live', /təgɔ̄s/ 'to hunt for food'. The
ived verbs all inflect like ordinary *schewa*-form
bs, except that they do not form causatives in
-/.

b) *Polysyllabic verbs:*

These undergo very few morphological
nges. The root form marks the active perfective.
eriphrastic construction equivalent to the active
tinuative can be formed with the proclitic /bar-
a- ~ bə-/:

bə-halab   'to go downriver'

ba-sindul   'to float'

There are no other morphological devices
ilable to these verbs. Many polysyllabic verbs
 nevertheless be employed causatively with only
 context to indicate the change of meaning:

ʔi-halab ma-rɛh   'I went downriver'

ʔi-halab tɛŋtɛ̄k mə-rɛh   (I-go-downriver cane
   to-below) 'I took the cane downriver'

2.2.2.2 *Functions of verb inflections*
a) *The contrast perfective/continuative*

    i) *Focus*:

          While the perfective aspect puts the
emphasis on the result or object of the action,
the continuative aspect puts the emphasis on the
action itself. Other contrasts implied are:
completive/continuative, punctiliar/iterative, re-
sultative/self-sufficient. The following examples
illustrate these contrasts (the perfective form
is given first, the continuative second):

> na-rec ʔamboj 'he eats pork' (as
>   opposed to other meats)

> na-rɛɲrec ʔamboj 'he's eating pork' (as
>   opposed to bathing or sleeping)

> na-səlɔg babō? 'he slept with a woman'
>   (*i.e.* married her)

> na-sɛglɔg babō? 'he sleeps around with
>   women'

> na-bɛrcā? kəwā̄s ʔəh 'she fed her child'
>   (*i.e.* got it fed)

> na-bərɛʔcā? kəwā̄s ʔəh 'she was feeding
>   her child' (*i.e.* occupied herself
>   in feeding)

> ʔi-halab ma-rɛh 'I went downriver'
>   (and reached my destination)

> ʔi-bə-halab ma-rɛh 'I was going downriver
>   (when something happened)

    ii) *Transitivity*:

          The continuative aspect neutralises the
transitivity of otherwise transitive verbs. For
example, /səluh/ 'to shoot with a blowgun' is ob-
ligatorily transitive in the perfective aspect, but
only optionally so in the continuative:

?i-səluh ɲam   'I shot an animal/some
   animals'

?i-sɛhluh   'I went shooting'

?i-sɛhluh ɲam   'I was shooting animals'

e: if the object of the verb has already been
tioned it may be left unexpressed after a
nsitive verb: /?i-səluh/ could then mean 'I
k a shot at it' where 'it' has already been
tioned.

The simulfactive

i) *Intensification*:

   The simulfactive indicates suddenness,
ensity, simultaneity:

   ?ɛm-cā? mənū?   'we'll eat a lot'

   ?ɛm-cacā? mənū?   'we'll have a feast'

   ?un-cɛbcīb ma-teh   'they're going upstream'

   ?un-cacīb ma-teh   'they're all going up-
      stream together'

   ?i-gəl   'I sat down'

   ?i-gagəl   'I sat down suddenly'

   ?impəlu? hah   'I'll hit you'

   ?im-palu? hah   'I'll hit you hard'

   na-səlɔg   'he went to sleep'

   na-salɔg   'he went straight off to sleep'

ii) *Spontaneity*:

   The simulfactive may indicate an action
t appears to occur without an external agency;
etimes the perfective form of the same verb

expresses the corresponding ergative construction:

>> na-wɔ̄g kəbē? 'he peeled open the fruit'

>> kəbē? na-wawɔ̄g 'the fruit split open'

>> na-cɛrtək rɛŋkā? 'he shut the door'
>> (causative perfective)

>> rɛŋkā? na-catək 'the door slammed shut'
>> (active simulfactive)

iii) *Reciprocity*:

With a preceding dual-number pronoun and the morpheme /bar-/ (see section 2.2.4) the simul-factive forms the reciprocal construction:

>> wɛ-bə-salɔg (they slept each other)
>> 'they got married'

>> kə?am-sɛnmā̄n 'ask questions, you two!'

>> kə?am-bə-samā̄n 'ask each other questions!'

>> na-cɔ̄? kəwā̄s ?əh 'she slapped her child'

>> kəwā̄s ?əh wɛ-bə-cacɔ̄? 'her children were
>> slapping each other'

This construction is sometimes ambiguous; the follow-ing sentence is not a reciprocal one, but a syntheti continuative-intensive: /wɛ-bə-cacā̄?/ 'they were eating well together'.

c) *Causative*:

Both transitive and intransitive verbs may be given a causative meaning. In the case of otherwise intransitive verbs the causative in-flection makes them transitive:

>> papē̄t na-cā̄? bər 'the baby eats vegeta-
>> bles'

>> ?i-bɛrcā̄? bər ma-papē̄t 'I feed vegetables

> to the baby'

> tɔʔ ʔi-sənᵀl (not I-wake) 'I didn't wake up'

> tɔʔ ha-sɛrŋᵀl yeh (not you-cause-wake I) 'you didn't wake me up'

> cɛp na-səg 'the bird got trapped'

> yē̃ʔ ʔi-tɛrsəg cɛp 'I trapped the bird'

Adjectivalisation

The continuative form of the verb may also ...ction as a nominal modifier (see section 2.1.1).

...2.3 Verbal derivatives

Verbs may undergo two major class-changing ...rphological processes: nominalisation, and the ...rmation of various kinds of verbal adjuncts (...pressives, ideophones).

Nominalisation:

The affix /(-)n-/ 'nominaliser' may occur with ...l three aspects of the active voice and with the ...ntinuative aspect of the causative voice. But ... does not follow that the same aspectual *meaning* ... carried over into the nominalised form; 'aspect' ... here used in its morphological sense only. It is ...usual for any single root to exhibit all possible ...minalised derivatives, so the following paradigm ...ploys a mixture of roots. (*Cf*. section 2.2.2.1a.)

...tive Voice

Perfective:	C^iənVC^f	cɛr 'to pare' →	cənɛr 'knife'
	C^iɛnC^{m}VC^f	səluh 'to shoot' →	sɛnluh 'shooting'

Simulfactive: C^1anVC^f kēj 'to scrape' →
                                    kanēj 'scraper'

               C^1anaC^{m}VC^f səluh 'to shoot' →
                                    sənaluh 'leaf-
                                    monkey' ('thing
                                    shot at')

Continuative: $C^1\varepsilon C^f$nVC^f or   kēj 'to scrape' →
               nεC^{f}C^{1}VC^f kεjnēj or nεjkē
                                    'scraping'

               C^1ənεC^{f}C^{m}VC^f sεgləg 'to knot' →
               or nεC^{f}C^{1}ə-   sənεgləg or
               C^{m}VC^f nεgsələg 'knot'

Causative Voice

Continuative: tərεnC^{1}VC^f tεr?ɔj 'to raise' →
                                    tərεn?ɔj
                                    'raising'

               C^1ərεnC^{m}VC^f sεrlɔg 'to lay dow
                                    → sərεnlɔg 'lay
                                    ing down'

    Polysyllabic verbs have only one nominalised
form:

    C^1ənVC^mVC^f golap 'to carry on shoulder' →
                        gənolap 'carrying on shoulder'

    C^1ənVCC^mVC^f sindul 'to float' → sənindul
                        'floating'

    Note: The forms with word-initial /n-/ are
customary in Perak, while the infixal forms are use
in Kelantan. This difference cross-cuts the Northe
Southern dialect difference.

    All of these verbal nouns fall syntactically
into the noun class, and their role in phrase
structure has already been dealt with (2.1.2.4).
Semantically, however, it is possible to distinguish

r different kinds of verbal noun:

      i) *Gerunds*: These may be freely formed
m any verb root, expressing the act or state
doing or being, whatever the verb denotes. The
ferent form-classes of verbs derive their gerunds
m different morphological aspects, thus:

  Active: monosyllabic – continuative
          schewa-verbs – perfective (in Kelantan)
                      perfective or (prefixal)
                         continuative (in
                         Perak)

          polysyllabic – root

  Causative:

          monosyllabic – continuative
          schewa-verbs – continuative
          polysyllabic – (none)

      ii) *Agentive nouns*: These may not be
ely formed, even from verb roots that would seem
allow it. They usually are nouns denoting the
erial object used to bring about the action
oted by the verb root:

        canūŋ 'hammer' (cūk 'to hammer')

        cənɛr 'knife' (cɛr 'to pare')

ntive nouns are formed from the perfective
nife') or simulfactive ('hammer').

      iii) *Resultative nouns*: These may not be
ely formed (though they probably retain a greater
ree of productivity than agentive nouns). They
 nouns denoting the physical object resulting
m the action denoted by the verb root:

        sənɛgləg 'knot' (sɛgləg 'to knot')

kənalēk   'strut' (kalēk 'to prop up')

kərɛnwāk   'frame' (kɛrwāk 'to frame')

Resultative nouns are usually formed from the con-
tinuative of *schewa*-form and causative verbs ('knot',
'frame'), and from the root of polysyllabic verbs.

iv) *Objective nouns*: These may not be
freely formed. A few lexemes can be analysed as
being of this type: /sənaluh/ 'dusky leaf-monkey'
is morphologically equivalent to 'that which is
shot' (/saluh/ + /-n-/); /sənalɔg/ may occasionally
be used for 'the state of marriage' (/salɔg/ 'to
marry'). Both these words are derived from the
simulfactive of the verb.

b) *Expressives*:

This is a heterogeneous category of adjuncts
many of which are formed from real or imaginary verb
roots by what can only be described as 'redupli-
cative play'. Syntactically they stand in apposition
to the whole verb phrase, or even to the whole
sentence. Semantically they serve as a kind
of expressive mirror-phrase, summing up in a word
or two the 'feelings' that are stereotypically
supposed to be aroused in the interlocutors' minds.
It is extremely difficult to find satisfactory
translation labels for these forms because, even
though they are standarised phrases, they are con-
cerned more with connotational than with denotational
meaning. They are very common in ordinary conver-
sation, and in stories and song-lyrics they are an
essential element of the style.

Only a few of the very many patterns are
exemplified here:

$c^1 \varepsilon c^f c^1 \partial c^m v c^f$ derived from $c^1 \partial c^m v c^f$ verbs:

   bɛybəguy (bəguy 'to waft' (smoke))

   rɛgrəwēg (rəwēg 'to stand conspicuously up-
                right')

is is a productive pattern.

) $c^1 \partial r a c^m v c^f \; c^m v c^f$ derived from $(*) c^1 \varepsilon r c^m v c^f$:

   kəralɔg lɔg sound of heavy footsteps (no
                       root *kəlɔg)

   cəra?ūk ?ūk stomach queeziness (no root cə?ūk
                      known)

   kərahab hab lip-smacking (kɛrhab 'to eat
                    noisily')

i) $c^1 \varepsilon c^f c^1 \varepsilon r c^m v c^f$ derived from $c^1 \varepsilon r c^m v c^f$:

   gɛngɛrlʉt spindly-ness (gɛrlʉt 'long and thin
                           (of small objects)')

    Note: Diffloth has shown that in the Aslian
nguages the category 'expressive' is historically
d grammatically distinct from that of 'verb' (see
s paper in this volume). However, insofar as a)
pressive and verbal morphology uses many of the
me patterns and b) some expressives actually
rive from verb roots, it does not destroy Temiar
ammar too much to treat expressives as 'verbal
rivatives' in an elementary analysis such as this.

2.3   *Auxiliaries*

    The verbal auxiliaries are: /hɔj/ 'already',
ɔ?/ 'there is/are', /tT?/ 'yet, still, more', and
oleh/ 'can'. (/boleh/ is probably a Malay loan-
rd.) Their functions are as follows:

   Verbal modifiers:

    Within the verb phrase the auxiliaries limit or
alify the verb:

hɔj na-tə?ɛl ?əh (already he-do it) 'he *has done it*'

t�width? ?i-jɛ?ji? 'I am still sick'

mɔ? ha-cā? sej doh? -- mɔ? (mɔ? you-eat meat this? --mɔ?) 'Is it the case that you eat this meat?' --'it is'

boleh na-cᵀb -- boleh 'can he go?' -- '(he) ca-

Note: /hɔj/ is the most common way of indicating the past tense, and this is its major function.

b) *As independent words*:

Apart from serving as affirmatives in responses to questions (as in some of the above examples), the auxiliaries /tᵀ?/ and /mɔ?/ may function adjectivally, sometimes reduplicated as /tɛ?tᵀ?/ and /mɛ?mɔ?/:

tᵀ? bēh hah? (still father you) 'Is your father still alive?'

tɛ?tᵀ? ?əh (still he) 'Yes, he is'

mɔ? dēk ?ɛn-tūy 'there are houses over there'

hɔy, tɔ? mɛ?mɔ? (no, not there-are) 'no, there are not'

hɔj yeh (already I) 'I'm *off!*'

2.2.4   *The morpheme* /bar-/

2.2.4.1 *Allomorphs*

/bar-/, a proclitic, has the following phono-logically determined allomorphs:

/bar-/ before monosyllables: bar-dēk 'to have a house'

/ba-/ before CəC...: ba-bərɛbcᵀb 'to make (something) go'

/bə-/ before CVC... (where V is any vowel other than /ə/): bə-halab 'to go downriver'

In slow speech, however, /bar-/ may be used in these positions (*cf.* section 1.3.3.2b).

.4.2 *Functions of* /bar-/

a) With monosyllabic and *schewa*-form verbs in continuative aspect, /bar-/ expresses 'to be the middle of doing something':

?i-bə-cɛbcīb ma-rɛh 'I was in the middle of going down'

na-bə-sɛglɔg 'he is sleeping'

b) With polysyllabic roots, /bar-/ forms the tinuative aspect:

?i-bə-golap palɔ? (I-bar-carry-on-shoulder firewood) 'I am carrying firewood'

c) With some adjectives /bar-/ makes the as-bed characteristic inherent rather than contingent:

cəwa? la?əs (dog bad) 'a bad dog' (either for the moment or always)

cəwa? bə-la?əs 'a bad dog' (inherently so)

d) With numerals /bar-/ forms adjectival phrases:

kanē? bar-nɛ? doh (we bar-three here) 'we three'

e) With nouns, /bar-/ forms verbs:

?im-bar-dēk ?ɛn-tūy (I-m-bar-house at-there) 'I shall have my house over there'

cɔ̄? bar-yāj ?a-tɛ̄?? (who bar-noise just-now) 'who made a noise just now?'

wɛ-bar-gēs (they(-two)-bar-incest) 'they committed incest'

.5 *The morpheme* /-m-/

.5.1 *Morphosyntax of* /-m-/

The affix /-m-/ occurs only bound simultaneously a preceding bound-form pronoun and a succeeding

verb (to which extent it serves as a verb-marker).
The paradigm of the *m*-affixed forms of the pronouns
is as follows, with the stressed-form pronoun on
the left:

	Singular		Dual		Plural	
1st person	yē?	?im-	yār	yam-	kanē?	kim-
	cē?	yim-	?ār	?am-	kandē?	kanim-
2nd person	hą̄?	ham-	kə?an	kə?am-	ɲɔb	ɲɔm-
3rd person	na-	nam-	wɛ-	wɛm-	?un-	mu-, mə-

2.2.5.2 *Functions of* /-m-/

a) In declarative verb phrases /-m-/ marks the
desiderative and intentive modes; /-m-/ does not
necessarily imply futurity.

> ?og ?im-cā? (give, I-m-eat) 'give me some,
> I'd like to eat it'

> ham-gabag ka-hɔy? (you-m-sing or-no) 'Do
> you want to sing or not?'

b) *With second-person pronouns* /-m-/ *forms the*
imperative mode; with first- and second-person pro-
nouns /-m-/ expresses the hortatory mode:

> ham-tuh (you-m-tell) 'tell me!'

> *nam-?ɛn ma-doh (he-m-carry to-here)* 'let him
> bring it here' or 'tell him to bring it here'

c) Between verbs the construction (pron + -m-)
marks the subordination of the second verb phrase
to the first; it implies a purposive or resultative
relationship between the phrases:

> ?ōr nam-cⁱb nam-dalag ma-?un-tūy (order he-m-
> go he-m-call to-they-there) 'tell him to
> go and call them'

> ?i-hǭd nam-?og ma-yē? ney (I want he-m-give
> to-me one) 'I want him to give me one'

d) With the auxiliary /hɔj/ 'already' /-m-/
ms an idiomatic construction with the meaning 'to
about to...', 'almost to...':

    hɔj nam-kəbʉs 'he almost died' or 'he is about
      to die'

e) With interrogative particles /-m-/ forms
ɔmatic constructions expressing querulous questions
the type 'why should...?':

    cɔ̄ʔ nam-tuh ʔəh? (who he-m-tell he) 'why
      should you think anyone told him?'

    ʔe-lo? nam-cīb ma-teh? (why he-m-go to-above)
      'why should you think he went up there?'

2.6　The negative

2.6.1　/tɔʔ/

Verbal phrases are made negative by the addition
/tɔʔ/ 'not' initially:

    tɔ? na-kəlʉ? (not he-fall) 'he didn't fall'

    tɔ? boleh mu-gabag (not able they-m-sing)
      'they won't be able to sing'

2.6.2　Negative imperative

The negative imperative is formed with /jɛ? ʔa-/
iterally: 'refrain from') proclitic to the verb:

    (ham-)jɛ? ʔa-cīb 'don't (you) go!'

2.6.3　With adjectives

Adjectives (2.2.8) may be made negative by /tɔ?/,
which case they are usually in the reduplicated
rm:

    tɔ? sɛnjɛk 'not straight' (səjɛk 'straight')

2.6.4　As independent utterance

/tɔ?/ may occasionally be used as an independent
terance to mean 'no!' when denying the truth of
mething just said. More usual in such positions,

however, are various sentence adjuncts that do not
occur as verbal elements.

2.2.7 *Pronouns*

The pronouns have already been treated in some
detail as primary nominal elements in section 2.1.3,
and examples of their functioning in verb phrases
were given in section 2.2.1. It remains only to
give special attention to pronouns in this latter
role.

In verb phrases the pronoun takes the bound
form (*indeed the main function of the bound pronouns*
is as verbal elements), and it serves to link the
verb proper with its antecedent noun-phrase subject.
The pronoun agrees with the subject in number, per-
son and inclusivity. In this construction the
pronoun is proclitic directly to the verb proper or
to /bar-/ or /-m-/:

> mɔɲ na-lut   (tooth it-emerge)   'the tooth has
>   emerged'
>
> kanɛ̄? kanim-cTb   (we we-m-go)   'we want to go'
>
> tatā̄? na-bə-halab   (old-man he-bar-go-down-
>   river)   'the old man is going downriver'

If the subject is unexpressed, being under-
stood from the context, the proclitic pronoun
may occur alone with the verb to form a self-
sufficient utterance or sentence:

> ?i-cTb   'I go'
>
> tɔ? ha-tɛhtuh ka-deh?   (not you-tell (question-
>   marker))   'didn't you tell?'
>
> na-pəlud ?a-kāl   (it-explode ?a-soon)   'it'll
>   explode any minute now'
>
> hɔj mu-kōw   (already they-m-call)   'they were
>   *about to call*'

s subject-less construction allows the setting-up
a paradigm analogous to a verbal 'conjugation'
f. Carey 1961: 14-5); but both classes of elements
such a paradigm are separable and may also occur
th quite other formatives.

.8   *Adjectives*

Most adjectives are morphologically similar to
rbs (and most adjectives may indeed function as
ative verbs); the diagnostic difference from verbs
that adjectives may not take the modal affix /-m-/
undergo causative inflection.   There are at least
ree classes of adjcetives:

.8.1   *Inflecting adjectives*

a) Almost all adjectives may be inflected for
urality, intensity or adverbiality by taking a
rm corresponding morphologically to the continuative
ect of verbs:

dēk jəroʔ (house long) 'a long house'

dēk jɛʔroʔ 'long houses'

ʔabat cələk (cloth red) 'red cloth'

ʔabat cɛŋlək 'red cloths'

sej mɛj (meat good) 'good meat'

sej mɛjmɛj 'excellent meat'

mɛjmɛj ham-bəʔ (good-good you-m-carry) 'carry
    it carefully'

b) A subclass of inflecting adjectives is a
up of words describing characteristics of animate
ins.   These inflect for number on the pattern of
ⁱ simulfactive and continuative aspects of the verb
ⁱ. section 2.1.2.2):

bō? ?əh   (female it)   'it's a female'

sɛn?ɔ̄y babō? tūy   (person female there)   'that
   woman/girl over there'

?un-bɛ?bō? tūy   (they-females there)   'those
   women/girls'

Adjectives of this class may also function as nouns,
and in some cases as verbs.

2.2.8.2 *Non-inflecting adjectives*

These are not as common as inflecting adjectives
Some examples are: /la?əs/ 'dirty, bad', /cɛbrɛb/
'rough-textured', /galdē̄ŋ/ 'beautiful (woman's face)'
/pərahwak/ 'bright yellow'.

Note: though these words do not inflect *as
adjectives*, many of them are morphologically complex:
/cɛbrɛb/ is in the 'continuative' form, and /la?əs/
is related to /?ɛs?əs/ 'filthy' and /?ɛsnəs/ 'dirt'.

2.2.8.3 *Restricted adjectives*

This is a small group of modifiers that never
occur as stative verbs; their only function is to
limit or qualify other words:

dēk he?   (house only)   'a simple house with no
   additions'

na-lɛglug he?   (he-laugh only)   'all he does
   is laugh'

hɔ̀y gēb   (no completely)   'absolutely no'

pərahwak gēb   'completely yellow'

mɛj həjɛ? na-doh   (good also it-this)   'this one
   is also good'

2.2.8.4 *Functioning of adjectives*

a) *In noun phrases*:

As nominal modifiers adjectives follow their
head (*cf*. section 2.1.1):

sɛn?ɔ̄y mɛj (person good) 'a good person'

səmuj pərahwak (wasp yellow) 'a yellow wasp'

In verb phrases:

i) As stative verbs adjectives precede their
ubject complement' (*cf.* section 2.2.1):

mɛj sɛn?ɔ̄y na? (good person that) 'that
person is good'

pərahwak səmuj teh (yellow wasp above) 'that
wasp up there is yellow'

te: stative constructions of this type possess a
stinctive intonational pattern in which a strong
ntence stress falls on the final syllable of the
jective.

ii) As verbal modifiers adjectives usually
llow their head (*cf.* section 2.2.1, note):

na-cT̄b gej (he-go quickly) 'he goes quickly'

?ɛm-cā? mənū? (we-m-eat big) 'we'll eat a lot'

_____

[1]I have much benefitted from discussion or
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cept full responsibility for the analysis presented
re.

[2]I am very grateful to J.L.M. Trim for first
ggesting this analysis. But as Mr. Trim had avail-
le to him only the faulty and incomplete data of
earlier material, he must be absolved of re-
onsibility for any misuse I have made of his ideas.

[3]The procedure adopted here owes much to the
proach proposed in Lyons 1968, especially in
apters 4, 7 and 8.

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