Bipartite negatives in Chamic

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background

Most of the Chamic languages of Vietnam are characterized by bipartite negatives, also sometimes called double negatives (e.g. Dahl 1979) or linked negatives (Payne 1985). Bipartite negatives were undoubtedly a feature of Proto-Chamic and provide a good test case for some of the typological hypotheses.

The description of Roglai negatives covered in Section 2 provides a fairly comprehensive coverage of the negatives of Roglai, the Chamic language with which I am most familiar. Section 3 treats the negatives of the other Chamic languages. Section 4 summarizes the bipartite negative particles of the Chamic languages treated, and discusses briefly the negative particles reconstructed for Proto-Chamic. Section 5 considers the typology of the bipartite negatives in the Chamic languages along with the origin of the negative forms of Chamic.

The stimulus for this paper came from an article by Early (1993) on a language of Vanuatu entitled "The Tripartite Negative in Lewo." Special appreciation goes to Dr. Brenda Boerger for constructive comments on an earlier version of my paper. Dr. Boerger has studied Natugu, the language of Santa Cruz Island in the Solomon Islands which also has bipartite negatives.

1.2 Orthographies

The orthographies used in this paper are the same as those in the materials cited. With the exception of Haroi, these are the standard orthographies that were in use at the time they were published. The citations from Haroi follow the phonemic symbols used by Mundhenk (1977). The values of many of the letters for the various languages are straight forward, and since the focus of this paper is not on sounds, only a few symbols with their values are mentioned here.

Like Vietnamese, Roglai c = /k/ before nonfront vowels and in word final position. Preglottalized stop consonants are written with a preceding apostrophe in some cases and with a bar through the consonant in others. Some languages symbolize the palatal sounds with ç and ã and others use ch and nh, following Vietnamese. Cham, Rade, and Jorai use a bar for both /b/ and /d/, i.e., b and d, but Chru and Roglai use the bar only with /d/. Chru uses the apostrophe with b,
hence $b$, but Roglai uses only a plain $b$ and a $v$ if it is not preglottalized. All of the languages with preglottalized nasal consonants use the apostrophe for them. Word final glottal stop in Roglai is written with $q$ and in Cham with $k$.

Vowel length is written with a grave accent (˚), shortness with a breve (‘), and nasalization with a tilde (˜). The one exception is that Roglai vowels which are both long and nasal are written with a Vietnamese hoi tone mark (‘). The breve on word final vowels symbolizes a combination of shortness and glottal stop. In Chru the grave on word final vowels symbolizes a combination of length and glottal stop. Like Vietnamese, ɛ and ɔ represent mid front and mid back vowels, respectively, and ı and ɑ represent high and mid central vowels, respectively, in all of the languages which have them.

Although phonemic in at least part of the languages and reconstructed for Proto-Chamic, syllable initial glottal stop is not written anywhere except as a hyphen between vowels where it indicates that the second vowel begins a new syllable which starts with a glottal stop.

1.3 Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in glosses for grammatical categories:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cl</td>
<td>classifier</td>
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<tr>
<td>intj</td>
<td>interjection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neg</td>
<td>negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEG1</td>
<td>preverbal negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEG2</td>
<td>postverbal negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFF</td>
<td>affirmative</td>
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<tr>
<td>ques</td>
<td>question</td>
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2. Roglai negatives

2.1 Negative particles

There are five primary negative particles in Roglai. These fall into two subclasses. Three precede the verb and are here designated as class \{NEG1\}.

The particle $buh$ ‘not’ is the standard preverbal negative and is homophonous with verb $buh$ ‘to see’ and with the affirmative particle $buh$ which has an existential sense. The existential sense of $buh$ is glossed in examples as ‘AFF’ since it carries an oppositional contrast to $buh$ as ‘NEG1’. The affirmative use of $buh$ is treated below in 2.6. In examples $buh$ ‘not’ will be glossed simply as ‘NEG1’.

The particle $ca$ ‘not yet’ is homophonous with $ca$ ‘first’ (adverbial sense) which occurs only clause finally. They are undoubtedly historically related (see 5.3). In examples, $ca$ ‘not yet’ will be glossed as ‘NEG1 (not yet)’.
The particle *dông* 'don’t' is borrowed from Vietnamese *dùng* ‘don’t’. In examples *dông* will be glossed as ‘NEG1 (don’t)’. The particle *dông* is frequently followed by the particle *di* with no apparent difference in meaning. The meaning and function of *di* here is unclear, although it is homophonous with the preposition *di* ‘toward’ and possibly historically related to E. Cham *di* ‘intensive negative’ (see 3.3 and 5.3).

The other two negative particles follow the verb and are normally clause final. They comprise the class {NEG2}.

The particle *oh* ‘not’ is the standard postverbal negative and is glossed simply as ‘NEG2’.

The particle *uroi* ‘neither’ is not common and is glossed as ‘NEG2 (neither)’.

There are additional negative related particles with restricted use: *soh* ‘delimiter’, *haloi* ‘at all’, *doi* ‘at all’ and *uthou* expressing doubtful veracity. These fall outside the scope of the primary negative particles and their usage is considered in 2.5.

### 2.2 Standard negated clauses

The normal negated clause in Roglai will have both a {NEG1} and a {NEG2}. Roglai is an SVO language and the canonical clause structure is: X S NEG1 V O X NEG2 where X represents various peripheral clause elements. The label V is used to cover both verbs and complements since the clause order is the same whether subject plus verb or subject plus complement. The typology of Roglai bipartite negatives is treated in section 5 along with the other Chamic languages.

**Intransitive clauses with NEG1 buh ‘not’**. Examples (1) and (2) contrast an affirmative and a negative intransitive clause. The normal position of {NEG2} is clause final although some exceptions are noted below in 2.3 in the section on constituents following *oh* ‘NEG2’. In example (2) the {NEG2} follows the prepositional phrase.

(1)  
\[ Amāh \text{ } nāo \text{ } paq \text{ } apu. \]  
Father go to rice field.  
Father went to the rice field.

(2)  
\[ Amāh \text{ } buh \text{ } nāo \text{ } paq \text{ } apu \text{ } oh. \]  
Father NEG1 go to rice field NEG2  
Father didn’t go to the rice field.

The {NEG1} may also precede the subject as in (3) with no difference in meaning apart from being a marked construction. There are likely discourse or stylistic constraints.
(3) \(buh\) Amā não paq apu oh.
NEG1 Father go to rice field NEG2
Father didn’t go to the rice field.

Intransitive clauses with NEG1 ca ‘not yet’. These are exemplified in (4) and (5) in presubject and postsubject positions.

(4) Amā ca não paq apu oh.
Father NEG1 (not yet) go to rice field NEG2
Father hasn’t gone to the rice field yet.

(5) Ca Amā não paq apu oh.
NEG1 (not yet) Father go to rice field NEG2
Father hasn’t gone to the rice field yet.

Intransitive clauses with NEG1 dōng ‘don’t’. This is the strong negative imperative and normally occurs without an overt subject as illustrated in (6).

(6) Dōng não jeq oh.
NEG1 (don’t) go close NEG2
Don’t go near it.

Example (7), however, illustrates NEG1 (don’t) with both optional \(dī\) (see 2.2) and optional overt subject.

(7) Dōng dī mugoq não paq hiā oh.
NEG1 (don’t) you(pl) go to there NEG2
Don’t go there.

The standard negativev \(buh\) functions as an ordinary negative imperative with or without a second person pronoun as in (8-10).

(8) Hā buh hueq dī nhū oh.
you (sg) NEG1 fear toward him NEG2
Don’t be afraid of him.

(9) buh hueq dī nhū oh.
NEG1 fear toward him NEG2
Don’t be afraid of him.

(10) Ca nāu oh.
NEG1 (not yet) go NEG2
Don’t go yet.

Transitive clauses with \{NEG1\}. Examples (11-13) illustrate each of the \{NEG1\} particles \(buh\) ‘NEG1’ and \(ca\) ‘NEG1 (not yet)’ in transitive
clauses. In each case only examples with \{NEG1\} in postsentence position are given. As in the examples, \{NEG2\} always follows the object.

(11) \text{A woi} buh tanāq vu oh.  
Mother \text{NEG1 cook} rice \text{NEG2}
Mother didn’t cook the rice.

(12) \text{A woi} ca tanāq vu oh.  
Mother \text{NEG1 (not yet) cook} rice \text{NEG2}
Mother hasn’t cooked the rice yet.

(13) \text{Đông} tanāq vu oh.  
NEG1 \text{(don’t) cook} rice \text{NEG2}
Don’t cook the rice.

\textbf{Clauses with NEG2 }uroi \textbf{‘neither’}. This particle is not common and occurs only in conjunction with a preceding clause which has \text{oh} ‘NEG2 (not)’ as in example (14). Actually, \text{uroi} can be viewed as comprising a prefix meaning ‘not’ (derived from \text{oh}) plus \text{roi}, but \text{roi} does not occur elsewhere in Roglai to my knowledge. Chru, however, has \text{roi} and Cham has \text{ray} meaning ‘also’. Thus, the derivation from ‘not’ plus ‘also’ is likely historically.

(14) \text{Lacu duah iaq, buh uq? Buh buh oh.}
Lacu search look for see ques \text{NEG1 see} \text{NEG2}
Did Lacu see it [grandfather’s pipe] when he searched for it? No, he didn’t.

\text{Lanu iaq, buh luq? Buh buh uroi.}
Lanu look for see ques \text{NEG1 see} \text{NEG2 (neither)}
Did Lanu brother of Lacu] see it when he looked for it? No, he didn’t either.

2.3 \textbf{Complex negative clauses}

\textbf{Constituents preceding verb of negative clause.} Prepositional phrases or subordinate clauses filling a peripheral role in the clause preceding the verb will also precede both \text{NEG1} and the subject as with the temporal clause in (15). Only the subject can come between \{NEG1\} and the verb, although the verb may have other particles which are part of the verb phrase such as \text{khiāng} ‘want to’.

(15) \text{Tuq leq ca truh paq lot oh mā}
When fall \text{NEG1 (not yet) arrive at ground} \text{NEG2 but}
\text{dua droi lumōng vhum cóq hiā va goq atlōng}
two cl tiger lion white that lead together throw
\text{māq chreh la khraāh lawah.}
take tear at midst air
When he [the tiger] had not yet reached the ground, the two white lions together caught him and tore him up in midair.

Example (16) illustrates an embedded clause which has been moved from its normal position following the verb to an emphatic preverbal position where it also precedes NEG1. The normal position of *boc matah* ‘eat raw’ would be following *joc* ‘be possible’.

(16) *Hayou, sa-ai, boc matah buh joc oh?*  
how, older sibling eat raw NEG1 possible NEG2  
How, brother, can’t you eat it raw?

**Constituents following NEG2 oh.** Standard clauses have the second negative in clause final position even with embedded structures as in examples (17-18).

(17) *Cou buh hueq di hā ghong hiā oh.*  
I NEG1 afraid toward you (sg) big that NEG2  
I’m not afraid of you even though you are big.

(18) *Acoi buh vroi nhū ngāq alah oh.*  
Grandfather NEG1 give him do lazy NEG2  
Grandfather didn’t allow him to be lazy.

There are, however, occasional exceptions with long or complex clauses in which *oh* may be followed by another constituent of the main clause. In (19) a locative prepositional phrase follows *oh* and in (20) an embedded clause functioning as the object of *thou* ‘know’ follows *oh*.

(19) *Buh buh nhū pīq joc tra oh paq la-o*  
NEG1 AFF he sleep able more NEG2 at crown *tiac.*  
bamboo (sp.)  
He could no longer sleep at the crown of the bamboo.

(20) *Ọ anō, Acoi buh thou oh aloi urāc mā*  
Oh boy Grandfather NEG1 know NEG2 what person but *nāu lua.*  
go hunt  
Oh, my boy, I don’t know who will go hunting.

It is also possible for an occasional sentence final particle to follow *oh* (21). As such the final particle is not part of the clause structure and is characterized by preceding juncture and its own intonation pattern.

(21) *Dong nāu jeq oh, yoḥ.*  
NEG1 (don’t) go close NEG2 intj  
Don’t go near it! Ok?
Omission of NEG2. Occasionally NEG2 oh will be omitted from the clause, especially if the clause is long or complex, but omission of oh is regarded as atypical by the native speaker. In examples (22) through (24) the omitted oh is shown in the normal expected position by including it in brackets.

(22) buh buh nhū thōu chacuai đòq la hiā [oh].
    NEG1 AFF he know lizard stay at there
    He didn’t know the lizard was there.

(23) Adoi buh thōu hayou ngāq mā joc [oh].
    Younger sibling NEG1 know how do but able
    I don’t know what I can do about it.

The NEG2 can also be omitted following the first half of compound sentences.

(24) Đōng di papō duaiq [oh], buh tla di nhū
    NEG1 (don’t) di run flee, NEG1 escape from him
    oh.
    NEG2
    Don’t run, we can’t escape from him.

2.4 Negative response constructions

Tag responses. Negative tag responses may be responses to questions or denial of a statement. The minimal negative response is one of the {NEG2} particles oh ‘NEG2’ or uROI ‘NEG2 (neither)’. The question and response of (26) assumes the question and response of (25) in preceding context.

(25) Hā nào luq? Oh.
    You (sg) go ques NEG2
    Are you going? No.

(26) Amā nào luq? UROI.
    Father go ques NEG2 (neither)
    Is Father going? Nor him either.

The minimal tag response with ca ‘NEG2 (not yet)’ is NEG1 + NEG2, that is, ca oh. Example (27) contains a response to a statement and (28) to a question.

(27) Amā nào vloh. Ca oh.
    Father go already. NEG1 (not yet) NEG2.
    Father has already gone. Not yet, he hasn’t.

(28) Amā não vloh? Ca oh.
    Father go already? NEG1 (not yet) NEG2.
    Has Father already gone? Not yet.
An extremely common tag response is the combination of NEG1 (buh) plus AFF (buh) plus {NEG2} (oh 'not' or urɔi 'neither'). See 2.6 for further discussion of the affirmative particle. The combination of NEG1 plus AFF can also occur in standard clauses as in (19) and (22) above but is much less common than in tag constructions. In the sequence buh buh the final /h/ of NEG1 buh is commonly lost in speech, hence /bu buh/, but the full form is conventionally written. Example (29) illustrates buh buh oh.

(29)  
Hā nāo luq? Buh buh oh  
you(sg) go ques NEG1 AFF NEG2  
Are you going? No.

It is also possible for two tag responses to be used together as in (30).

(30)  
Hā nāo luq? Oh, buh buh oh.  
you(sg) go ques NEG2 NEG1 AFF NEG2  
Are you going? No, I'm not.

Expanded responses. Responses are frequently expanded to include the significant part of the clause being negated. This expanded response may also be preceded by a separate minimal tag response. Example (31) begins with such a minimal tag response and the part denied by the tiger in the response is the first two words of the boy's accusation chac hā 'perhaps you'.

(31)  
Nhū tinhā làiq, "Chac hā boc kɔi  
He asked saying perhaps you(sg) ate grandfather  
mɔq cɔu." Lumong hiā nhū làiq, "Oh, buh  
grandmother my Tiger that... he said NEG2 NEG1  
djọq cɔu oh."  
correct I NEG2

He inquired, "Perhaps it was you that ate my grandparents?" That tiger...he said, "No, it wasn't I."

Note in (32) that the portion of the monkey's statement denied by the turtle is only the verb matai 'die'.

(32)  
Jacra làiq, "...apui boc hā matai biaq."  
Monkey said fire eat you die shortly  
Cura làiq, "Oh, buh buh matai oh."  
Turtle said NEG2 NEG1 AFF die NEG2

Monkey said, "...the fire will consume you and you will die shortly." Turtle replied, "No, I won't die."
2.5 Other negative or negative-like particles

There are at least four additional particles which have a negative connotation, or which have a special function in negative constructions.

The delimiting particle soh ‘only’. Verbs and nouns may be followed by soh to indicate something is restricted, limited, or lacking. The verb phrase dòq soh ‘be idle’ is composed of the verb dòq ‘stay’ plus soh. Compare this with Vietnamese ơ không ‘be idle’ composed of ơ ‘stay’ plus không ‘not’. The phrase vroi soh ‘give gratuitously (nothing expected in return)’ from vroi ‘give’ plus soh. This also is parallel to Vietnamese cho không ‘give gratuitously’ from cho ‘give’ plus không ‘not’. Example (33) illustrates vroi soh with the object fronted.

(33) Suraq hiā nhū vroi soh.
book that he gave only.
He gave that book gratuitously.

The noun phrases amā soh ‘barren man’ and awoi soh ‘barren woman’ are composed of amā ‘father’ and awoi ‘mother’, respectively, plus soh. A childless couple is often referred to as awoi amā soh ‘mother father only’. Vietnamese also has noun plus không ‘not’ constructions with a similar limiting meaning such as tay không ‘empty handed, bare handed’ composed of tay ‘hand’ plus không ‘not’.

The questioning particle uthou ‘I wonder’. This sentence final particle is composed of the prefix u- ‘not’ from NEG2 oh plus thou ‘know’ and expresses the speakers doubt or uncertainty about what he has just said.

(34) Hā nāu iaq khat cou voh cu nī Thu vloh uthou.
You(sg) go look at cloth I wash earlier dry already
I wonder

Go check the cloth I washed a while ago. I wonder if it’s dry.

A few other words have the prefix u- ‘not’ although it is currently not an active prefix. Examples are ukhōih ‘not well’ from khoih ‘be recovered’ and ukhit ‘taboo, not allowed’ possibly from khin ‘to dare, be brave’. (The final consonant of khin is not a /l/ as would be expected following the oral vowel /i/ but is possibly conditioned by the related nominal kahhin ‘bravery’ composed of khin and the nominalizing infix {-an-} where final /n/ is expected.) The particle uroi ‘NEG2 (neither)’ discussed in 2.1 and 2.2 above also has the prefix u-.

The emphatic particles haloi and doi ‘at all’. These two particles when used in negative constructions are similar in meaning but differ in distribution. Both normally occur immediately preceding {NEG2}, but haloi is
used with nominal elements as in (35) and doi is used with verbal elements as in (36). In non-negative constructions haloi means ‘what, which’ and doi means ‘period of time’.

(35)  
Nhū buh hmū caya haloi oh.
He NEG1 have thing at all NEG2
He doesn’t have anything at all.

(36)  
Nhū buh nāu doi oh.
He NEG1 go at all NEG2
He didn’t go at all.

2.6 The affirmative particle buh ‘AFF’

The affirmative particle buh ‘AFF’ has a special relationship to the negative constructions in Roglai. As already noted, it is homophonous with buh ‘to see’.

Distributionally, there is a clear difference between the two although in some contexts they are potentially ambiguous, as in the tag responses in (14) above where I have glossed it as ‘see’, because ‘see’ was the verb in the questions it answered. As an affirmative particle, buh has an existential sense very similar to Vietnamese có ‘to have, possess, exist’. It is most common in negative tag responses as in (29). In nontag negative statements it differs from buh ‘to see’ in that if buh ‘NEG1’ precedes the subject then buh ‘AFF’ must also precede the verb as in (19) repeated here as (37). (The sequence buh buh is pronounced bu buh in most normal speech.)

(37)  
Buh buh nhū pìq joc tra oh paq la-o
NEG1 AFF he sleep able more NEG2 at crown

tiac
bamboo (sp.)
He could no longer sleep at the crown of the bamboo.

This contrasts with the subject preceding the negative plus affirmative combination buh buh as in (38).

(38)  
 cô sa-ai, cou buh buh thou hā oh.
oh brother I NEG1 AFF know you NEG2.
Oh, I didn’t recognize you, brother.

With buh ‘NEG1’ plus buh ‘to see’ the subject will either precede both or will come between them as in (39) and (40), respectively.

(39)  
Cou buh buh hā oh.
I NEG1 see you NEG2
I didn’t see you.
I have no recorded instances of *buh buh...buh* ‘NEG1 AFF...see’, but it is possible.

Occasionally, the verb *hmū* ‘to have’ will also be used in a way similar to *buh* ‘AFF’ as in (41).

(41)  
\[ \begin{align*}
\text{Neg1} & \quad \text{have} & \quad \text{rain} & \quad \text{one} & \quad \text{little} & \quad \text{Neg2} \\
\text{It didn’t rain at all.} 
\end{align*} \]

The significance of this use of ‘have’ is considered further in section 5.

3. Negatives in other Chamic languages

In this section are included only Chamic languages spoken in Vietnam which are discussed in considerably less detail than the Roglai system. The languages included are Rade, Jorai, Eastern Cham, Haroi and Chru.

Of these languages Haroi alone does not have bipartite negatives. Because all of the others do have bipartite negatives, the same class names used for Roglai, that is, \{NEG1\} and \{NEG2\}, will also be used for each language to facilitate comparison even though Haroi has only \{NEG1\}. Also, for each language the standard NEG1 will be glossed simply as ‘NEG1’ and the standard NEG2 as ‘NEG2’. The nonstandard negatives will have fuller explanatory glosses. Although the negative systems of any two languages do not match entirely, there are a number of parallel constructions.

The canonical order of all the languages is SVO, and apart from Haroi which has no \{NEG2\}, the canonical order with the negatives is: X S NEG1 V O X NEG2 where X represents optional peripheral clause elements. This is the order already observed for Roglai above in 2.2.

3.1 Rade

The \{NEG1\} particles for Rade are *amāo* the standard ‘NEG1’, *ka* ‘NEG1 (not yet)’, and *dām* ‘NEG1 (don’t)’. The only \{NEG2\} particle in the data available is *ōh* ‘NEG2’.

In the texts available there are few exceptions to the canonical word order (X S NEG1 V O X NEG2), but probably because the texts were prepared for a school reader. The last few texts of the reader are slightly edited and transcribed stories and contain the only noncanonical patterns, particularly some clauses with no \{NEG2\}. All of the negative particles are illustrated in canonical constructions in (42-44).
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(42) Ama amào mão kan òh
   Father NEG1 have fish NEG2
   Father doesn’t have any fish.

(43) H’Ri ka amào hla òh
   H’Ri NEG1 (not yet) have kite NEG2.
   H’ri doesn’t have a kite yet.

(44) Đa’m bông kao òh...
   NEG1 (don’t) eat me NEG2...

   Don’t eat me...

Most of the clauses with no {NEG2} are in subordinate clauses or poetry as in examples (45) and (46), respectively. The only instance observed of {NEG1} preceding the subject is also in the poetic (46), but it can likely occur elsewhere. No instances with {NEG2} preceding an object were observed.

(45) Todah ʔong amào ràng, ʔong sor ràng djië
   if you NEG1 take-care you will die
   If you don’t beware, you’ll die...

(46) Måo bru<v>â amào ŋu mà
   have work NEG1 he do
   Has work, but doesn’t do it.

3.2 Jorai

The {NEG1} particles for Jorai are bu the standard NEG1, ka ‘NEG1 (not yet)’ and ’nàm ‘NEG1 (don’t)’). Note that the standard NEG1 bu is cognate with Roglai NEG1 buh but with regular loss of /h/, and ’nàm ‘NEG2 (don’t)’ is cognate with Rade dām ‘NEG2 (don’t)’ with preglottalized nasal instead of preglottalized voiced stop. The {NEG2} particles are òh ‘NEG2’ and tåh ‘NEG2 (contrast)’. Unlike Roglai and Rade, there is no evidence in the data available of a {NEG2} particle preceding the subject, but this may be due to the nature of the available texts, which are stories written for a school reader. The texts are reasonably natural, but noncanonical patterns are less likely to appear than would be the case from transcribed texts. There was, however, one instance of an object following {NEG2}. Examples (47-49) illustrate the three {NEG1} particles with the standard NEG2.

(47) Kåo bu homào prák òh
   I NEG1 have money NEG2
   I don’t have any money.

(48) Waih ka nāo hrām òh
   Waih NEG1 (not yet) go study NEG2
   Waih doesn’t go to school yet.
(49) 'Nām uā koni wa ðh.
NEG1 (don’t) play stringed-instrument uncle NEG2.
Don’t play uncle’s koni.

In the texts available only bu ‘NEG1’ and naṁ ‘NEG1 (don’t) occur with tah ‘NEG2 (contrast) as in (50-51)

(50) Ama Waih nao kai Wa Waih bu kai
father Waih go plow uncle Waih NEG1 plow

NEG2 (contrast)

ঙু nāo ataih.
he go far

The father of Waih went to plow. [But] Waih’s uncle didn’t go plow. [Instead] he went far away.

(51) Amôn H’Ri... buh bonga hiam. ঙু pê pioh
nephew H’Ri... see flower nice he pick put
amāng hokā
in basket

H’Ri rai rā kô ঙু, ’Nām pê bonga dông
H’Ri come say to him, NEG1 (don’t) pick flower continue
tah.” 퍒 nāo bu tû ðh
NEG2 (contrast) he NEG1 receive NEG2

H’Ri’s nephew...saw the nice flowers. He picked some and put them in a basket. H’Ri came and said to him, “Don’t pick the flowers.” But he didn’t pay any attention.

In (52) ðh ‘NEG2’ precedes the object making the object marked. Note also that although there are two negative clauses, ðh ‘NEG2’ only occurs in the second one.

(52) Todah bu homāo kô grū’ ta bu homāo
if NEG1 have for buzzard we (incl) NEG1 have

bông ðh rōsa anai...
eat NEG2 deer this

If it weren’t for the buzzard, we would have this deer to eat...
3.3 Eastern Cham

Eastern Cham also has a bipartite negative system but differs somewhat from the other Chamic languages. D. W. Blood (1977) does not describe the system as being a bipartite system, but it seems best here to consider it as such. Eastern Cham contrasts formal and informal speech, and the negatives also reflect this contrast. It would appear, however, that the bipartite system may be in the process of breaking down, although in formal speech there is evidence of a possible tripartite negative.

**Informal speech.** The \{NEG1\} particles for informal speech are *ka* ‘NEG1 (not yet)’ and *di* ‘NEG1 (intens.)’. The \{NEG2\} particle is *ō* NEG2’. Since there is no standard \{NEG1\} in informal speech, it means that many negative clauses have only the NEG2. Typologically, it is rare to have a negative only at the end of the clause following the object in an SVO language. As already noted above the canonical order of clause elements is: X S NEG1 V O X NEG2. Examples (53-54) have only the NEG2, and although both have transitive verbs, neither have an explicit object.

(53) \[ Mū kau pōch ō. \]
father my scold NEG1
My father won’t scold.

(54) \[ Chuh mūng djuh ō. \]
burn with wood NEG2
It is not burned with wood.

Informal clauses with both a \{NEG1\} and \{NEG2\} are illustrated in (55-56), and both have explicit objects.

(55) \[ Nhu ka thau khār ō. \]
He NEG1 (not yet) know script NEG2
He doesn’t know the script yet.

(56) \[ Nūk di āmek amū ō. \]
child NEG1 (intens.) listen mother father NEG2
The child doesn’t listen to his parents at all.

Mrs. Blood does not treat prohibitive forms under the category of negatives, but I include them here because they have been included in the other languages above and structure similarly. The only form of interest is *jōi*, which occurs both as a \{NEG1\} and as a \{NEG2\}. Although Mrs. Blood does not distinguish prohibitives for formal and informal speech, the very nature of prohibitives would cause one to expect them to be normally informal. In Cham this is reflected by *jōi* occurring as final particle, with or without preverbal *jōi*. The final *jōi* is preceded by a slight pause and begins on a high pitch which drops sharply.
Mrs. Blood does not give a gloss for *di* in example (58), but it would appear that it may be the intensive NEG1. If it is the intensive negative, this would further support the prohibitive form as being informal speech since *di* ‘NEG1 (intens)’ does not occur in formal speech (see below).

One further negative particle listed by Mrs. Blood deserves noting here. It would also appear to be characteristic of informal speech. This is the final particle *kè* which I gloss as ‘NEG2 (emph. denial)’. It is used as a negative response as in (59).

(59)  
Dahläk  mūk  kè.  
I take NEG2 (emph.denial)  
I didn’t take it!

**Formal speech.** For formal speech known as *dōm glong* ‘speaking high’ Mrs. Blood gives preverbal *ūh* as the usual form of the negative. This I would interpret as the standard NEG1. Her examples also include *ūh ka* ‘not yet’, which could be interpreted either as ‘NEG1 (not yet)’, or as a sequence of the standard NEG1 plus ‘NEG1 (not yet)’. As in informal speech, so in the formal there is also only one {NEG2}. The form is the same as in informal speech, but she gives it as an intensifier in formal speech. As I understand her description (1977:40), however, the occurrence of the *ū* is the norm. She says, “In formal speech...preverbal *ūh* is the usual form of negative. Most often this negative is intensified [strengthened?] by adding final particle *ū*.” This, along with the fact that final particle *ū* alone is the standard negative in informal speech, leads one to question whether the negative clause with *ū* in formal speech is actually a marked clause. Mrs. Blood (1977.63), although not focusing on negatives, glosses *ū* simply as ‘neg.’ in her examples. Nevertheless, respecting Mrs. Blood’s analysis, I gloss *ū* in formal speech as ‘NEG2 (intens)’.

I assume that historically the NEG1 *ūh* and the NEG2 *ū* are both reflexes of Proto-Chamic *ʔūh* ‘NEG2’ with loss of final */h/ in the final particle. Example (60) has only *ūh* ‘NEG1’. Example (61) has both *ūh* ‘NEG1’ and *ū* ‘NEG2 (intens).

(60)  
Hray  *dit  āh  hik  takōi  mūnūk.  
day Sunday NEG1 cut throat chicken  
Chickens are not killed on Sunday.
Only one example was given with òh ka 'not yet', and it has the final ò 'NEG2 (intens)' with it. If as suggested above, òh ka is interpreted as a sequence of òh 'NEG1' plus ka 'NEG1 (not yet)', then òh ka...ò would constitute a rare tripartite negative. For purposes here I am glossing òh and ka as though a sequence of negatives. It is also conceivable that ka not be considered as a negative at all in formal speech, but this seems counterintuitive since it is a negative in informal speech. (Mrs. Blood did not include 'yet' in her free translation.)

According to D.L. Blood (1977:63), a negative coordinate sentence joined by thông 'and' always contains both preverbal òh 'NEG1' and clause final ò 'NEG2 (intens)' as in (63), but one joined by ngân 'or' does not ordinarily contain clause final ò as in (64). He attributes the latter to ngân having the sense of 'nor' in this context.
Mrs. Blood (1977:42) lists one further final particle which could also be interpreted as a \{NEG2\} in formal speech. It is the particle *tra*, which means ‘later, more’ in temporal phrases. As a final particle, *tra* occurs only in negative constructions containing preverbal *ôh*. In these constructions she glosses *tra* as ‘anymore’. Following the system used in this paper, it could be glossed as ‘NEG2 (anymore)’. This is assuming that it does not occur with clause final *ô* and this is the case in all of her examples as in (65).

(65) \[ \text{Tapai } ôh \text{ khin munhum ia } tra. \]
    rabbit NEG1 dare drink water NEG2 (anymore)
    Rabbit would not dare drink water anymore.

3.4 Chru

The negative system of Chru appears to be undergoing simplification. Although it has a bipartite negative construction parallel to the other Chamic languages, \{NEG2\} appears to be optional rather than the norm. It is, however, very common and occurred in roughly half of the negative constructions in the texts available.

The \{NEG1\} particles are ‘*buh* ‘NEG1’ and *ka* ‘NEG1 (not yet)’. If Chru has a prohibitive form, it did not occur in the texts. The only \{NEG2\} particle observed is *ou* glossed simply as ‘NEG2’. (It is possible that *ou* also functions as a \{NEG1\}, but was unclear from the available data.) Examples (66-67) illustrate ‘*buh* ‘NEG1’, both with and without *ou* ‘NEG2’, and examples (68-69) illustrate *ka* ‘NEG1 (not yet)’ with and without *ou* ‘NEG2’. There was one example in the texts of ‘*buh* and *ka* occurring together. I assume this is an unusual but possible construction, and it is given in (70). It is parallel to the E.Cham *ôh* *ka* in 3.3.

(66) \[ \text{Ja Ka } *buh \text{ hû toloi } ko'nhang. } \]
    Ja Ka NEG1 have rope waist
    Ja Ka doesn’t have a belt.

(67) \[ \text{Ja Sa } *buh \text{ hû thong } ou. } \]
    Ja Sa NEG1 have knife NEG2
    Ja Sa doesn’t have a knife.

(68) \[ \text{Ama } *ka \text{ akã kobau. } \]
    Father NEG1 (not yet) tie buffalo.
    Father hasn’t tied the buffalo yet.

(69) \[ \text{Kou } *ka \text{ hû priã } ou. } \]
    I NEG1 (not yet) have money NEG2
    I don’t have any money yet.

(70) \[ \ldots \text{nhû* } *buh \text{ ka thou hû } sa \text{ sruh chim dò } \]
    he NEG1 NEG1 (not yet) know have one nest bird stay
jē anih nhū koh iuh.
near place he cut firewood

He didn’t yet know there was a bird’s nest near the place
where he was cutting firewood.

Example (71) illustrates both the subject preceding and following ’buh
‘NEG1’, although the subject following ’buh is a marked construction.

(71) Torpai lài, “Ô, ’buh nhū ’bong rolo hā. Iah kou
Rabbit say oh NEG1 he eat flesh you if I
nao nhū ’buh khīn ’bong ralo hā.”
go he NEG1 dare eat flesh you
Rabbit said, “Oh, he won’t eat you. If I go, he won’t dare eat you.”

Although the canonical position of σu ‘NEG2’ is clause final, it is
occasionally possible for it to be followed by the object or another particle. In the
response to the question in (72) the object follows σu and is clearly in a marked
position and is itself a clause.

(72) “...Wa tā hu gai goatih kobâu pejo?”
uncle cut have stick fight buffalo yet?
“Did you cut a stick to beat the buffalo yet, Uncle?”

“Kou tā ka hū σu gai goatih kobâu.”
I cut NEG1 (not yet) have NEG2 stick fight buffalo
“I haven’t cut a stick yet to beat the buffalo.”

3.5 Haroi

Of the Chamic languages of Vietnam for which I have access to data on the
negatives, Haroi alone does not have a bipartite negative. Unfortunately, the only
data currently available to me is from Goschnick (1977), but since the article is on
clause structure, Goschnick would have included bipartite negatives had there been
any. From the Haroi word lists available there are three negative forms: soh ‘not’,
oh ‘not’, and ka ‘not yet’. I am uncertain what the difference is between soh and
oh, but soh is apparently the standard negative since it is the one Goschnick
illuminates in her article. All of the other Chamic languages of Vietnam have a
particle similar to soh (cf. Roglai in Section 2.5) meaning ‘only’ or ‘nothing’ which
could possibly be a shortening of some other particle (e.g. sa ‘one’) plus oh ‘not’.

Goschnick (1977.108) analyses the negative as a part of the verb phrase and
calls it a verification tagmeme. Haroi is an SVO language and the negative particle
precedes the verb (73) although it can be separated from the verb by an attitude
particle as in (74).
(73) \[ Kau \text{ soh } nàu \ pə Sen-Ｈoà. \]
I NEG1 go to Sen-Hoa
I did not go to Sen-Hoa.

(74) \[ Kau \text{ soh } čēang nàu \ pə Sen-Ｈoà. \]
I NEG1 want go to Sen-Hoa
I don’t want to go to Sen-Hoa.

4. **Proto-Chamic negative particles.**

In order that the various Chamic negative particles can be more readily compared, they are summarized in two charts, one with \{NEG1\} particles and the other with \{NEG2\} particles. Particles in parentheses whether \{NEG1\} or \{NEG2\} are optional, but in each case there will be an obligatory particle in the other negative slot of the sentence. As noted in the appropriate places above, \{NEG2\} is occasionally deleted in Rade, Jorai, and Roglai but is not listed as optional since it is the norm for the \{NEG2\} to occur.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard</th>
<th>Not yet</th>
<th>Prohibition</th>
<th>Miscellaneous</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rade</td>
<td>amão</td>
<td>ka</td>
<td>đăm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jorai</td>
<td>bu</td>
<td>ka</td>
<td>’nām</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roglai</td>
<td>buh</td>
<td>ca /ka/</td>
<td>đòng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chru</td>
<td>’buh</td>
<td>ka, ’buh ka</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECham-Formal</td>
<td>ôh</td>
<td>ôh ka</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECham-Informal</td>
<td>ka</td>
<td>(jōi)</td>
<td>di ‘intensive’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haroi</td>
<td>soh</td>
<td>ka</td>
<td>oh (??)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proto-Chamic</td>
<td>*?buh</td>
<td>*ka</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Chart 1. Chamic \{NEG1\} forms (preverbal)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard</th>
<th>Prohibition</th>
<th>Miscellaneous</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rade</td>
<td>ôh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jorai</td>
<td>ôh</td>
<td>tah ‘contrast’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roglai</td>
<td>oh</td>
<td>uroï ‘neither’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chru</td>
<td>(σu)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECham-Formal</td>
<td>(ô)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECham-Informal</td>
<td>ô</td>
<td>jōi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proto-Chamic</td>
<td>*oh</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Chart 2. Chamic \{NEG2\} forms (postverbal)*

Charts 1 and 2 are undoubtedly incomplete for some of the languages since much of the information has been drawn from limited resources. It is also possible that I have interpreted a few forms as negative particles which other analysts would not, as for example, Eastern Cham *tra* (see section on formal speech in 3.3). The
focus of this paper, however, is the shared features and patterns of the negative particles whether phonological, grammatical, or semantic.

Proto-Chamic forms cited below are from Lee (1966). From the \{NEG1\} chart, it is readily apparent that the most stable form is *\textit{ka} \textit{NEG1 (not yet)} and is reconstructed for Proto-Chamic as *\textit{ka} \textit{NEG1 (not yet)}. The next most frequently occurring cognate NEG1 forms are the standard NEG1 with Roglai \textit{buh}, Chru \textit{buh}, and Jorai \textit{bu} which are phonetically and phonemically more similar than appears in the orthography since all begin with ['b]. This is reconstructed as *\textit{?buh} in Proto-Chamic. The only other clearly related forms in the NEG1 chart are the prohibition forms of Rade and Jorai which are \textit{dám} and \textit{'nám}, respectively. Since Rade and Jorai are closely related as Highland Chamic languages, no Proto-Chamic form is reconstructable. Roglai prohibition form \textit{dôn} is a Vietnamese loan, but I do not know the source of Cham \textit{jôdi}. The Chru and Haroi materials available to me did not have prohibition forms, but since the other four languages do, I rather expect that Proto-Chamic may have had one as well.

Some of the other \{NEG1\} forms will be commented on subsequently under the treatment of the origin of the forms in 5.3.

In the \{NEG2\} chart either \textit{oh}, \textit{ôh}, or \textit{ô} occurs in all of the languages except Chru which has \textit{ou}. Proto-Chamic *\textit{oh} \textit{NEG2}' is reconstructed. Chru \textit{ou} is likely from Proto-Chamic *\textit{oh} \textit{NEG2} along with loss of final /*-h/ and diphthongization of */*\textit{ol}. Although Eastern Cham has only shortened \textit{ô} as a NEG2, it does have the fuller \textit{ôh} as a \{NEG1\} with both presumably from *\textit{oh}. Haroi is not included in the \{NEG2\} chart since it does not have a bipartite negative construction, but it does have \textit{oh} as a preverbal negative in the \{NEG1\} chart.

The remaining \{NEG2\} forms appear to be localized post Proto-Chamic developments since apart from reflexes of *\textit{oh} no two languages share cognate \{NEG2\} forms.

5. Typology of Chamic negatives

5.1 Bipartite negative typology

All of the Chamic languages of Vietnam are basically isolating SVO languages. For the most part particles are used for grammatical functions. This is somewhat atypical as far as Austronesian languages are concerned, but is an areal feature shared with Vietnamese and surrounding Mon-Khmer languages. The Chamic languages all have a very small set of prefixes which are primarily derivational in nature. They also have the nominalizing infix \{-\textit{an-}\} which, to the best of my knowledge, is fossilized in all of them.

As already noted, all of the Chamic languages of Vietnam except Haroi have bipartite negative constructions. Thus, it is useful to look at the typology of such bipartite constructions. Typologically, bipartite negatives are not uncommon in languages with negative particles. Payne (1985.224) speaks of
"... the strong tendency for particle negatives to be emphasized and reinforced, sometimes by addition to the particle itself ... but more frequently by the addition of a further particle elsewhere in the sentence, forming a pair of linked negatives."

In SVO languages, the first negative of the bipartite construction will most commonly be preverbal following the subject. The second negative is postverbal, most frequently immediately following the verb, but may be elsewhere following the verb (Payne 1985.224-5, Dahl 1979.81-2). It is interesting to note that Lewo of Vanuatu (Early, 1993.1), possibly the only language attested to have a regular tripartite disjunctive negative, has the first negative immediately preceding the verb and two postverbal particles. One postverbal particle immediately follows the verb and the other is in clause final position. In the Chamic languages the \{NEG1\} is normally immediately before the verb (including Haroi which has only the one negative slot), although at least in Roglai, and occasionally in Rade and Chru, \{NEG1\} may precede the subject due to discourse or stylistic variations. There are also a few verb phrase level particles which may intervene between \{NEG1\} and the verb proper, as example (75) in Roglai, in which khiang ‘want’ separates buh ‘NEG1’ and the main verb nāu ‘go’.

(75) Amā buh khiang nāu oh.
Father NEG1 want go NEG2
Father doesn’t want to go.

The \{NEG2\} is for the most part a final particle in the Chamic languages and normally follows the object. Practically, however, it is frequently immediately following the verb simply because there is no object or other postverbal constituents in many clauses. Any exceptions to \{NEG2\} as a final particle are marked constructions as discussed for Roglai in 2.3.

In summary, the typical Chamic negative clause type is X S NEG1 V O X NEG2, again with X representing optional peripheral elements. Since this is the case for all Chamic languages having bipartite negatives, we can also reconstruct a Proto Chamic clause type with bipartite negatives: *X S NEG1 V O X NEG2. We see then that the Chamic negative clause type conforms to typological expectations of SVO languages having bipartite negatives, except that typologically \{NEG2\} is more likely to occur immediately following the verb rather than in clause final position as in Chamic.

It remains to be seen at what stage in the development of the language the bipartite negative developed in Chamic. There is no trace of a bipartite negative in closely related Aceh of Sumatra, with the possible exception of goh...lom and hana...lom both meaning ‘not yet’. Apparently goh does not occur elsewhere with any related meaning, but hana is one of the main negatives and lom means ‘another, more, again’ in non-negative contexts (Durie, personal communication, 1995). The -oh of goh looks suspect of being cognate with PC *oh ‘NEG2’. It is also conceivable that the g- of goh is related to the k- of PC *ka ‘NEG1 (not yet).
My own guess, from the limited data, is that Aceh may possibly have shared the bipartite negatives and now has only residual evidence of them.

Other languages of Southeast Asia have a type of negative that could be considered as bipartite in which a second word strengthens the negative, but I don’t know of any outside of Chamic with a clear bipartite negative. In the following examples (76) provided by David Thomas (personal communication), the postverbal particle requires the presence of the preverbal particle.

(76) Vietnamese    không  có  dâu
Northern Khmer    man    mien    tee
Chhrau             èq    gēh    uy
Thai               mây    mii    ləoy
not  have    not at all
‘not have at all’

In Vietnamese dâu means ‘where, anywhere’ in other contexts. In Northern Khmer the tee can stand alone meaning ‘no’ in the same way that the Chamic languages use the standard {NEG2} alone as a negative as in example (25) above. Thomas did not indicate whether Northern Khmer tee, Chhrau uy, and Thai ləoy have other meanings in other contexts like Vietnamese dâu, but I would assume that they probably do.

Roglai also uses doi and haloi to strengthen the negative in the sense of ‘at all’ (see above in 2.5), but oh ‘NEG2’ still follows them as in examples (35-36). If the citations above from other languages of Southeast Asia are bipartite, then the Roglai constructions could be analyzed as tripartite.

Other aspects of typology relevant to the bipartite negatives is the function of preverbal and postverbal negatives (5.2) and the origin of the negative forms (5.3).

5.2 Typology of {NEG1} in contrast with {NEG2}.

Although there is not much available to me on the function of preverbal versus postverbal negatives in bipartite constructions, in this section I want to look briefly at some of possible diachronic developments and the synchronic status in Chamic.

**Diachronic development.** Dahl (1979:88) cites Jespersen (1917) as saying,

The history of negative expressions in various languages makes us witness the following curious fluctuation: the original negative adverb is first weakened, then found insufficient and therefore strengthened, generally through some additional word, and this in its turn may be felt as the negative proper and may then in course of time be subject to the same development as the original word.
This type of development is referred to as Jespersen's Cycle. Dahl (1979:95) says,

It is thus tempting to assume that preverbal Neg placement is a natural tendency which may be disturbed by an equally natural diachronic process, viz. Jespersen's Cycle. If this is the case, one would expect the languages where this has happened to exhibit tendencies to return to preverbal placement. Some evidence for this can be found in modern Scandinavian.

In Chamic, apart from Eastern Cham, there is no evidence of the first negative, that is, {NEG1} being supplanted by the second negative {NEG2}. As noted above in the discussion of negatives in informal speech in Eastern Cham, the normal standard negative is postverbal δ 'NEG2' with no preceding {NEG1}. Optionally δi 'NEG1 (intensive)' may precede the verb. The origin of the δi is unknown although is homophous with the preposition meaning 'at'. In addition, the prohibition form for Eastern Cham is obligatory in final position, but optional in preverbal position. One would expect informal speech to reflect the most recent development in the language with formal speech reflecting older more conservative usage. Formal speech by contrast has δh 'NEG1' with an optional δ 'NEG2' to intensify it. What is a bit ironic is that of the Chamic languages with bipartite negatives, Eastern Cham alone has δh in preverbal position and that in formal speech; the others have it only in clause final position (see 2.5, however, for reflexes of δh as a prefix). Formal speech in Eastern Cham supports a preverbal position of the negative being the norm, but hardly supports the notion of a movement from postverbal to preverbal position as a recent development.

It is in the informal speech that we would expect the evidence of recent movement, but informal speech appears to reflect a beginning stage of losing the preverbal position. On the other hand, it does appear that either δh moved from final position to preverbal position at some time in Cham or that δh was a Proto-Chamic preverbal negative which the other languages, except possibly Haroi, have lost. The second alternative seems more likely and is considered in 5.3.

The preverbal position of ka 'NEG1 (not yet)' shows no change, except that in the only example available from formal speech it is preceded by the NEG1 δh. It is obligatory in both preverbal and postverbal positions in informal speech. Note that the apparently bipartite Aceh forms for 'not yet' are the only possible trace of a relationship between Aceh negatives and Chamic bipartite negatives (5.1).

Since it appears that apart from ka preverbal negatives seem to be losing ground in informal speech, it is possible that if the preverbal position continues to weaken, then the postverbal forms may follow Jesperson's Cycle and move to the preverbal position and the postverbal position be lost.

Synchonic status. Another aspect of the typology is the synchronic status of the preverbal and postverbal negatives. Dahl (1979:89) notes,
Neg would appear to be a simple, un-decomposable concept; thus it is baffling to see that it may be expressed by two separate morphemes. Following the French grammarians Damourette and Piho, Tesnière (1959) uses the terms ‘discordantiel’ and ‘forclusif’ for the two Neg markers. According to him, the ‘discordantiel’, as it were, ‘switches off’ the affirmative concept, then the ‘forclusif’ ‘switches on’ the negative concept. It is hard to evaluate this rather metaphorical explanation of the functioning of the two particles. Another remark made by Tesnière is perhaps of greater value. He points out that in French, the ne...pas, which expresses what we might call categorical Neg, is opposed to at least two kinds of restricted or qualified constructions, viz. ne...quère ‘hardly’ and ne...que ‘only’. Thus the ‘discordantiel’ might be said to mark the general negative nature of the statement, whereas the ‘forclusif’ specifies it. I have not been able to establish whether this applies also to other languages with double Neg particles.

The status of the Chamic languages provides a good case to examine the notion of whether the first negative serves as a generic negative and the second as a specific. The evidence for Chamic is that there is a generic negative in both preverbal and postverbal positions and specific negatives in both positions. If anything, the evidence indicates that the postverbal position (‘discordantiel’) in Chamic tends to be more generic than the preverbal (‘forclusif’). Thus for Chamic, the evidence gives some support to the opposite of what might have been expected. Boerger (personal communication, 1995), however, indicates that the bipartite negatives in Natugu of the Solomon Islands operate precisely as Dahl has suggested.

Looking again at Charts 1 and 2, we can see that most of the languages have three [NEG1] particles, a standard particle, a ‘not yet’ particle, and a prohibition particle. Eastern Cham has an additional intensive particle in informal speech. In postverbal position, two of the five languages with bipartite negatives (Rade and Chru) have evidence in the data for only one negative, and the others have only two. (Cham actually has three but only two in formal and two in informal speech. The standard δ occurs in both speech types and the other two apparently occur in only one speech type each). Furthermore, apart from a standard NEG2 reflecting Proto-Chamic *oh, the form and function of the [NEG2] particles in each language is different indicating that they are probably local developments. As noted above in section 4, we can reconstruct two preverbal negatives but only one postverbal negative for Proto-Chamic.

5.3 Origin of Chamic negative particles

We have considered the typology of the Chamic negative clause structure, but what about the origin of the negative particles and of their functions? From the evidence above in section 4, there were at least three Proto-Chamic negative particles, two [NEG1] particles *?buh and *ka and one [NEG2] particle *oh.
The particle *ʔbuh is too widely distributed (Roglai, Jorai, and Chru) to see it as derived from any source other than a common Proto-Chamic. The particle *ka occurs in all of them, and clear reflexes of *oh occur in all except Chru which has ou so that there is no question as to whether they were Proto-Chamic.

How do these and other forms relate to the expected typology of origin?

**Origin of Proto-Chamic *oh ‘NEG2’ and *soh ‘nothing’**. The origin of *oh is likely completely lost in antiquity. It does not appear to be related to any other known words from which it could have been derived. It could be related to *soh which has been glossed as ‘nothing’ to cover a variety of related meanings in the daughter languages, but it seems more likely that *soh may have derived from a combination of *oh with another word (perhaps *sa ‘one’) rather than *oh being derived from *soh. Haroi is the only language which utilizes *soh as a full clause level negative. This has already been mentioned above in section 3.5.

**Origin of Proto-Chamic *ka ‘NEG1 (not yet)’**. The particle *ka ‘NEG1 (not yet)’ is reflected in all of the Chamic languages of Vietnam as ka. Its origin may be lost in obscurity, but at least Roglai and Cham, and perhaps others, use it as a clause final particle in the sense of ‘first’, that is, that one event must precede another. The latter use is parallel to Vietnamese dâ ‘first’, but the Vietnamese form is homophonous with the past time particle not with a negative particle. It is clear that the meanings of the two uses of ka in Roglai and Cham are related, and since negatives tend to derive from other forms, it is very likely that the sense of ‘first’ preceded the negative use, even though the latter is obviously very old.

**Origin of Proto-Chamic *buh ‘NEG1’ and Rade amâo ‘NEG1’**. Payne (1985:222) briefly touches on the origin of negative verbs, noting that “some evidence, both direct and circumstantial, exists that in at least some cases the negative verb is simply a negative form of the verb ‘be’.” Although none of the negative particles in Chamic appear to function as verbs, they could still originate from verbs. Payne mentions (1985: 223) negative particles as sometimes being reduced forms of negative verbs.

The negative particle *ʔbuh of Proto-Chamic could well have originated from *ʔbuh ‘see’. The use of buh as an affirmative particle in Roglai has a fairly close correlation with buh ‘to see’, and in some contexts it is difficult to determine whether it is the affirmative particle or verb. Rade, Jorai, Cham, and Chru use reflexes of Proto-Chamic *hməu ‘have’ in short negative responses in much the same way Roglai uses the affirmative particle although Roglai can also use hmuʔ to have’ in the same sense. All of them use the reflexes of *hməu in an existential sense as well as for Chru in example (76).

(76) 

\[Hu \quad sa \quad σ’im...\]

there was a morning

One morning...
Vietnamese cò ‘have’ is also very much the same, so it appears likely to be an areal feature.

This use of ‘have’ in the Chamic languages as an existential verb and affirmative form probably accounts for the origin of Rade amâo ‘NEG1’. It is very likely that amâo derives from Proto-Chamic *oh ‘not’ plus Rade mão ‘have’. It is clearly a single particle in Rade having reduced in conformity with the canonical word pattern.

Proto-Chamic *oh as both ‘NEG1’ and ‘NEG2’. This possibility for the origin of Rade amâo ‘NEG1’ leads me to hypothesize that the negative *?buh was originally derived from *oh plus *?buh ‘see’ or possibly *?buh ‘AFF’ and that the *oh was subsequently lost in Jorai, Roglai, and Chru leaving only reflexes of *?buh as the standard NEG1 whereas in Eastern Cham, the reflex of *buh was lost leaving only ôh as the standard NEG1. Not only would this hypothesis account for the simple replacement of the *?buh of *oh ?buh with mão in Rade, but would also help to explain the use of u- as a negative prefix in Roglai (cf. 2.5).

If this hypothesis is valid, then it is possible that Proto-Chamic or some intervening levels had other double constructions which are only weakly attested today. It is possible that there was also an *oh ka ‘not yet’ which is attested in Eastern Cham formal speech. By substitution of buh in *oh ka for the original *oh, we can also account for the occasional Chru compound negative ‘buh ka ‘not yet’. It is further possible that there was a combination of *oh di ‘intensive negative(?)’, which accounts for the current use of di in Eastern Cham informal speech where preverbal ôh has been lost. It could also account for the unexplained occasional use of di in the Roglai prohibitive construction.

Although this hypothesis does not help us discover the origin of *oh in Chamic, it does suggest that it was first a preverbal negative which was then generalized to the postverbal position to strengthen the negative. If this is the case, then we have Proto-Chamic *oh as both ‘NEG1’ and ‘NEG2’.

Origin of other negatives in Chamic languages. Two additional negatives occurring only in specific Chamic languages have been touched on in the discussion of the respective languages above. The remaining ones may be derived from words which still exist, but which I am unaware of. The two already mentioned elsewhere are summarized here. Roglai uroi ‘NEG2 (neither)’ is probably from oh ‘NEG1’ plus *roi which although not attested in Roglai is cognate with Chru roi and Cham ray both meaning ‘also’. This meaning would provide the expected semantics for uroi. Eastern Cham tra ‘NEG2 (anymore)’ is clearly related to tra ‘later, more’ (cf. Roglai tra ‘more’ and Chru tra ‘will, shall’). Besides these two, Jorai tah ‘NEG2 (contrast)’ may possibly be cognate with Roglai tah ‘to turn’ (I have no dictionary available with me to see if Jorai also has a cognate form).
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