

SHORTER GRAMMARS

A grammar of Pacoh:
a Mon-Khmer language of the
central highlands of Vietnam



Mark J. Alves



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List of abbreviations and special glosses

The abbreviations in the table below are used primarily in the glosses for sample words and sentences throughout the grammar. Most abbreviations listed stand alone. Social pronouns (§7.3.5), however, are indicated by a combination of features. For example, *?a.ca:j* is glossed as ‘SPMY’, meaning a socially-conditioned pronoun to address or to self-address a younger male.

Abbreviation	Term
1d	first person dual
1p	first person plural
1s	first person singular
2d	second person dual
2p	second person plural
2s	second person singular
3d	third person dual
3p	third person plural
3s	third person singular
EMPH	emphatic
F	female
IMP	imperative
INT	interrogative
LINK	linking word
M	male
N	neutral
ND&P	Nguyễn, Đoàn and Phan (1986)
O	older
PROG	progressive
RECIP	reciprocal
RLTR	relator word
SOC	socially conditioned
SP	socially-conditioned pronoun
UNIT	measure word
Y	younger

1 *Introduction*

This text is a descriptive grammar of the Pacoh language spoken primarily in the central highlands of Vietnam in the provinces of Thừa Thiên/Huế and Quảng Trị. It is a reworking of my dissertation ‘A Pacoh Analytic Grammar’ (University of Hawai’i, 2000). This section introduces the purpose and suggested use of this grammar; and gives the linguistic affiliation and Mon-Khmer typological characteristics of Pacoh; a brief description of the language situation and sociolinguistic profile; and previous research, data collection, and method of analysis for the data presented in this book.

1.1 Purpose and use of this grammar

The primary goal of this text is to provide a lightly technical description of Pacoh phonology, morphology and syntax. Presentation of analyzed data is considered the primary purpose, and so much of the specialized terminology from the original dissertation has been removed, changed to more accessible terms, or at the very least, described briefly. For questions about phonological, morphological, or syntactic issues that this work assumes, see the dissertation on which this text is based (Alves 2000). Other aims of this grammar are:

- To describe the language adequately to provide data for further linguistic research on Pacoh or other Mon-Khmer languages
- To use an analytical approach to deal with the linguistic qualities (phonological and morphosyntactic) typical of a Mon-Khmer language
- To note, with a comparative-typological perspective in mind, aspects of Pacoh grammar commonly seen in other Mon-Khmer languages

A related goal of this grammar is to combine traditional notions in grammar with explorative approaches to syntactic analysis since traditional descriptions in English syntax writings often employ European language models, which may not adequately or correctly deal with the typologically distinct patterns in Southeast Asian languages.

The expected audience includes those interested in finding data for general exploration of linguistic phenomena, and those who are involved in research of languages in Southeast Asia. The data are arranged so that the book answers the kinds of questions a linguistic researcher interested in various aspects of linguistic theory or linguistic typology might

ask. However, beyond the theoretical aspects, those motivated to do so could also use parts of this text to learn key aspects of the Pacoh language.

This is not a complete grammar of the language but rather just a partial work. I hope that others will continue the work begun in this grammar to provide a less theoretical and more practical grammar of Pacoh for those dealing directly with the Pacoh people, provided the Vietnamese government allows more access to the regions in which the Pacoh and other ethnic minorities in Vietnam live.

The use of this grammar depends, naturally, on the purpose of the reader. A quick view of Chapter 2 on Pacoh phonology, the overview of Pacoh syntax in Chapter 4, and the glossary in Chapter 12 should be helpful. The glossary, which is separated by part of speech, contains not only the Pacoh form and English meaning, but also the subsection(s) for each word, so that the reader can look for explanation on the syntactic usage. For other resources on the Pacoh language, readers are encouraged to explore materials published by Richard and Sandra Watson (see especially Cubuat and Watson 1976).

To locate a specific phonological, morphological, or syntactic aspect, see the table of contents. For a general overview of Pacoh syntax, see Chapter 4. As the syntax portion of the grammar is divided by part of speech, some general grammatical aspects may be spread throughout chapters. In such instances, other such subsections containing relevant information are noted. Comparative notes and comments on borrowed vocabulary are spread throughout the grammar and in footnotes.

Some general linguistic features of note are *vowel register* (§2.3), *reduplication* (§2.5, §3.3, §7.1.6, and §10.1.4), Mon-Khmer-style *causative affixes* (§3.2.1), *sentence particles* expressing the interrogative, imperative, and various moods (§9), *serial verb constructions* (§4.2 and §11), and *referential terms* (§3.1.3 and §7.3). As much as possible, terminology has been made as transparent as possible; more commonly known terms are put next to the selected terminology (e.g. VCT verbs in this grammar also mentioned as SVCs).

1.2 Linguistic affiliation and Mon-Khmer typological characteristics

Pacoh belongs to the Katuic subbranch (in central Vietnam, southern Laos, and parts of northeastern Thailand) of the Mon-Khmer language group, which is in turn part of the Austroasiatic language family spread throughout Southeast Asia and parts of eastern India. As for its position within Katuic, there is considerable variation of opinion among researchers. Ferlus (1974) and Diffloth (1982) claimed it to be part of a major Eastern Katuic subgroup; Miller and Miller (1996) put it in a somewhat smaller Western Katuic subbranch; L-Thongkum (2001) grouped it with Bru and So in a North East Katuic subbranch; and Sidwell (2005) considers Pacoh a language isolate within Katuic.

Pacoh is clearly a Mon-Khmer language, as seen by its basic Mon-Khmer vocabulary as well as its linguistic structure. It shares 23%–30% of its core vocabulary with various Mon-Khmer subbranches, which is roughly the same range among the other subbranches (Thomas & Headley 1970). The Mon-Khmer typological characteristics (some of which apply to other Southeast Asian languages too) of Pacoh include the following.

- **Sentence structure:** topic-comment type, a basic subject-verb-object order
- **Noun phrase structure:** classifier language, noun-modifier word order, lexically-indicated plurality (not affixes)
- **Modal aspects:** time aspect and the interrogative are indicated by adverbs and sentence particles (not conjugated verbs or affixes)
- **Word-formation:** presyllables (e.g. deriving causative verbs) and infixes (e.g. nouns derived from verbs), partial/alternating reduplication
- **Phonological word shape:** sesquisyllabic word structure in which presyllables are unstressed and somewhat reduced in form, consonant clusters on main syllables
- **Phonology:** vocalic/register differences on vowels, four-way place of distinction of consonants (labial, dental, palatal, and velar)

1.3 Pacoh linguistic situation and sociolinguistic matters

Pacoh is the language spoken by an ethnic minority of part of the central highlands of Vietnam. The Pacoh number over 10,000, though this number is difficult to verify; indeed, the Vietnamese official listing of ethnic minorities does not even include the Pacoh.¹ The central district in A-Luói valley is a kind of cultural center for the Pacoh, though the Pacoh language is spoken in other districts in the same Thừa Thiên province and by smaller populations of Pacoh in areas in Quảng Trị province to the north.

As the infrastructure in Vietnam improves and the Vietnamese continue to move into highlands where there exists substantial available land, the traditional Pacoh lifestyle is changing, with parallel linguistic changes. The Pacoh have traditionally been swidden agricultural farmers as well as hunters using both weapons and traps (see Watson 1970 for more on the Pacoh culture). Today, that lifestyle is being replaced with low-paid manual labor and vending jobs. Many younger Pacoh have lost, and are continuing to lose, knowledge of Pacoh traditions and agricultural and hunting practices. The consequences are that the associated vocabulary and patterns of phonology, morphology, and syntax are also being lost. Moreover, with increased usage of Vietnamese by Pacoh in schools and with increased Vietnamese migration to the highlands, Vietnamese grammar (e.g. increased use of words meaning ‘give’ and ‘make’ to indicate causation rather than verbs with causative morphology) and related vocabulary (e.g. Vietnamese *là* ‘to be’ and *bằng* ‘by means of’) that have entered Pacoh will likely become increasingly common. Finally, there is substantial pressure—social, economic, and political—towards the use of Vietnamese instead of Pacoh.

1.4 Previous research and data collection

Research on the Pacoh language began in the middle 1960s when Richard and Sandra Watson, both researchers for the Summer Institute of Linguistics, spent years living with

¹ Instead, the Taoih, who are a different but closely related group and who primarily reside within bordering Laos territory, are officially listed. Taoih and Pacoh are distinct languages both lexically and phonologically, as shown in a 1984 Vietnamese-Pacoh-Taoih dictionary (ND&P).

the Pacoh and studying their language. Their work resulted in numerous linguistic publications in the 1960s and 1970s, as listed in the bibliography. These works—primarily published as articles in the *Mon-Khmer Studies* journal—described the phonology, morphology, syntactic and discourse properties of Pacoh, and a Pacoh language-learning text was created as well. In the early 1980s, Vietnamese linguists did research on Pacoh as well as Taoih, which resulted in a Vietnamese–Pacoh–Taoih/Pacoh–Taoih–Vietnamese dictionary which included a brief grammatical description and some language practice texts.

The writing of the present grammar takes into account the descriptions and data from those sources. However, the primary resource for examples and the theoretical testing comes from my own data collection (with the assistance of two researchers from the Institute of Linguistics in Hanoi) over three main data-collecting sessions with native speakers of Pacoh in 1997 and 1998. Before researching Pacoh as a dissertation topic, I spent some time working with data on Pacoh during my graduate studies. At that time, Richard Watson generously provided me with unpublished materials of his own, including cassette tapes and transcripts. Those tapes combined with the Vietnamese dictionary provided me with a modest amount of useable linguistic knowledge to aid in the data collection in Vietnam. The first trip in 1997 resulted in data collected over a week's time from several Pacoh students at a high school just outside of Hue city. In 1998, I worked with three Pacoh gentlemen over the age of 50 over a period of about two weeks. It must be made clear here that I do not consider my limited amount of fieldwork time spent anywhere near sufficient to truly do justice to the language of the Pacoh people. In fact, Richard and Sandra Watson would be the best people to create a grammar. Still, considering the small size of the Pacoh population and the rapid increase of Vietnamese influence in the area in which the Pacoh reside, it is best to publish this somewhat raw and incomplete information now rather than to wait until the political situation in Vietnamese allows for ready access to field data collection.²

1.5 Data analysis and concepts

After the available literature was reviewed and data was collected from native-speaking Pacoh, the phonology, morphology, and syntax were formally analyzed. Regarding phonology, the analysis, with a few exceptions, follows that of Richard Watson (1996), with additional reference to recorded data and some modest acoustic phonetic analysis. Similarly, the description of word-formation patterns partially follows the work of Sandra Watson (1966) on verbal morphology, though with a reorganization of presentation of the patterns and some additional analysis of the patterns. This was in part due to the view of morphology as a system of analogical word-formation based on phonological material that may consist of anything from intonation to phonemes, affixes to words, and from phrases to clauses. As for the syntax, more substantial reorganization of the facts was made. Using the Lexicase syntactic theory, a monstratal dependency grammar with a focus on the

² In addition to other words cited in this grammar, during the original writing of the dissertation, I made use of ideas and data presented in works by Banker and Bahnar (1964a, b), Nguyễn, X.H. on familial systems in Katic languages (1998), and Starosta on the Lexicase syntactic framework (1988, 1998 and 2003).

lexicon and case, I determined the seven parts of speech and their various subtypes according to their semantico-syntactic distributional properties. This stage was completed with the use of the available data from all sources, but I relied most heavily on the data I personally collected from native speakers. Some of the recurring and hence characteristic relevant semantico-syntactic issues include topic-comment constructions (topic focus, informational interrogative questions, non-contrastive flexible word order), location as a verb/preposition to noun, and human semantic properties (certain subclasses of common nouns, classifiers, pronouns, and conjunctions).

Within the morphosyntactic description, some of my own more particular views are shown. The purpose of this grammar is not to promote any particular theoretical framework, but it still is appropriate and necessary to discuss briefly what some of the theoretical assumptions are herein.³ The three main assumptions are that (1) syntax is explained at one level of representation (though semantic and semantically-related factors are important), (2) the spoken word is the syntactic centre of syntactic constructions, and (3) homophony accounts for a great deal of seeming distributional variation. First of all, the morphosyntactic descriptions in this grammar do not assume underlying representations or transformations. Varying lexical distributions or apparent ‘movements’ are simply acceptable or common syntactic patterns for the language and may be related to information structure and semantic and/or pragmatic focusing. The next assumption is that the lexicon and words are the central elements in syntactic constructions, and words (instead of abstract, unspoken grammatical categories) are the heads of their own phrases. While the dissertation on which this grammar is based made extensive use of Lexicase lexical features for analyzing lexical categories and subcategories, those have been removed without significant effect on the linguistic description contained here. Finally, the acknowledgment of homophony frees the linguist to see otherwise aberrant or non-categorizeable forms as distinct lexical entries in a speaker’s mental lexicon. This also fits in with the two previous assumptions in the focus on the spoken word and the lack of a need for transformations to account for data.

As a descriptive work, the terms and concepts used for the most part are typical and kept as non-theoretical as possible. However, as there can be no truly objective description of language, some linguistic notions that consider palatable are thus used. When certain terms and/or concepts are considered more specialized, idiosyncratic, or in other ways less accessible, they are described.

A final warning is due regarding the issue of local/regional variation and issues of contact-induced language change. Pacoh speakers are in contact with speakers of Vietnamese and various minority ethnic groups, most typically other Katuic-language-speaking groups such as Taoih, Katu and Bru. Thus, the data will certainly not cover every aspect of every variety of Pacoh, and indeed, the language is likely experiencing changes of various types.

³ The original dissertation employed the Lexicase framework, developed primarily by Stanley Starosta (1939–2002) and his students at the University of Hawaii from the early 1970s until his passing. It is a lexically-focused, monostratal grammar that made substantial use of case and lexical features. Many of the assumptions of morphology and syntax in this grammar are based on that framework although an attempt has been made in this grammar to keep Lexicase-specific terminology to a minimum.

2 *Phonology*

To those familiar with sound systems of Mon-Khmer languages, Pacoh phonology clearly shares many traits with those languages, including a large vowel inventory enriched by a vocalic register difference and vowel length, consonant categories with a five-way place distinction (labial, alveolar, palatal, velar, and glottal), ‘sesquisyllabic’ word structure and intonation, and reduplicative morphophonology having patterns of both copying and alternations. This chapter discusses the overall phonemic system of Pacoh—consonants, vowels, word and phrasal prosody, reduplication, among other special issues.

2.1 The system of transcription

While Pacoh has no official script, it has been transcribed in a handful of works, each differing as to the base script, either IPA-based orthographies (Alves 2000 and Pejros 1996) or Quốc-Ngữ-based orthographies (ND&P 1984 and various works by Richard and Sandra Watson). The system used in this grammar is a phonetically-oriented IPA-based system. In general, transcriptions of the consonants are transparent, while the transcriptions for vowels require special attention, as attended to in later sections.

2.2 Consonants

Pacoh has twenty-three consonant phonemes, as listed in Table 1. R. Watson (1964) provided examples of and evidence for eighteen consonant phonemes through examples of minimal distinctions. The additional five are accounted for here by the inclusion of three aspirated stops and two post-glottalized glides.⁴ Phonemes in loanwords from Vietnamese (see §2.7) are not included in Table 1 since they are limited to a small set of lexical items. In subsequent sections, some additional statements are made regarding general feature-based categories as well as specific phonemes that are phonetically complex or show phonetic variation, such as the palatal fricative and the post-glottalized glides.

⁴ For a discussion on the differences of phonological analysis between this work and previous work by the Watsons, see Alves (2000).

Table 1: Pacoh consonants

	Bilabial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop, unvoiced	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>k</i>	<i>ʔ</i>
Stop, aspirated	<i>p^h</i>	<i>t^h</i>		<i>k^h</i>	
Stop, voiced	<i>b</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>j</i>		
Nasal	<i>m</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>ɲ</i>	<i>ŋ</i>	
Fricative			<i>ʃ</i>		<i>h</i>
Liquid, non-lateral		<i>r</i>			
Liquid, lateral		<i>l</i>			
Glide	<i>w</i>		<i>j</i>		
Post-glottalized	<i>wʔ</i>		<i>jʔ</i>		

2.2.1 Consonant classes

The distribution of Pacoh **voiceless stops** is as follows: (1) they occur in both syllable-initial and syllable-final positions, (2) they are onsets in presyllables, and (3) in word-final position, they are unreleased. The sounds /p/, /t/, and /k/ occur in all positions with the highest frequency of all consonants,⁵ which is primarily due to their use in word-initial affixes (many of which have those sounds) in bisyllabic words. In monosyllabic words, the overall distribution of those sounds is generally comparable to that of other categories of phonemes.

Table 2: Distribution of Pacoh voiceless stops

	Initial	Final	Presyllable
/p/	<i>peʔ</i> ‘banana’	<i>ki:p</i> ‘each’	<i>pa.kəh</i> ‘Pacoh’
/t/	<i>toʔ</i> ‘arrive’	<i>pi:t</i> ‘big’	<i>tə.r.piən</i> ‘exchange’
/c/	<i>co:</i> ‘return’	<i>ʃe:c</i> ‘meat’	<i>ci.ca:</i> ‘to eat (general)’
/k/	<i>ket</i> ‘small’	<i>da:k</i> ‘water’	<i>kəm.maŋ</i> ‘listen’
/ʔ/	<i>ʔe:</i> ‘many’	<i>taʔ</i> ‘do’	<i>ʔa.ʔij</i> ‘hate’

Voiced stops occur only as syllable onsets (never as codas) in both main syllables and presyllables. These sounds often occur in reduplicant forms as presyllable onsets.

Table 3: Distribution of Pacoh voiced stops

	Initial	Presyllable-initial
/b/	<i>bul</i> ‘stone’	<i>ba.be:t</i> ‘a swift (bird)’
/d/	<i>da:k</i> ‘water’	<i>dən.do:ŋ</i> ‘pregnant’
/j/	<i>ja:ŋ</i> ‘to pass over’	<i>jəŋ.jəl</i> ‘in a flash’

⁵ Of the approximately 2,200 entries in ND&P (1986), [p], [t], and [k] constituted about half of the initials. This number is inflated by their usage in word-formation primarily of bisyllabic verbs but also nouns.

Aspirated stops occur strictly as onsets in main syllables. They are less common in available data than other phonemes.⁶

Table 4: Distribution of Pacoh aspirated stops

	Initial
/p ^h /	<i>p^ho:ʔ</i> ‘mud’
/t ^h /	<i>t^het</i> ‘wrong’
/k ^h /	<i>k^hir</i> ‘jump over’

Pacoh has two **fricatives**, both of which may appear in onset and coda positions in main syllables. In available data, only /ʃ/ occurs as the onset of a presyllable in a few words, and then, only as part of a reduplicant. When /ʃ/ is a coda, an epenthetic palatal glide occurs after the main vowel, resulting in what sounds variously like a complex affricated palatal glide [j^h] or a single unvoiced palatal glide [j]. The fricative /ʃ/ shows significant variation in its phonetic realization (see §2.2.1.2).

Table 5: Distribution of Pacoh fricatives

	Initial	Final	Presyllable
/ʃ/	<i>ʃər</i> ‘to ascend’	<i>ɽjəʃ</i> ‘root’	<i>ʃa.ʃuə</i> ‘rummage’
/h/	<i>həj</i> ‘time’	<i>dah</i> ‘to dare’	--

Pacoh **nasals** have a complete range of distribution throughout syllables; all Pacoh nasals can occur both syllable-initially and syllable-finally in both main syllables and presyllables (though Pacoh nasals rarely occur as presyllable onsets in available data except, again, as reduplicants). Moreover, nasals, in addition to vowels, can be syllable peaks in presyllables, in which case they always have epenthetic glottal-stop onsets. As presyllable finals or syllabic peaks, they match the place of articulation of the main syllable’s onset.

Table 6: Distribution of Pacoh nasals

	Initial	Final	Presyllable-initial	Presyllable-final	Presyllable-peak
/m/	<i>mə:h</i> ‘nose’	<i>nam</i> ‘if’	<i>ma.məjʔ</i> ‘to hunt’	<i>təm.mɛ:</i> ‘new’	<i>ʔm.piən</i> ‘top’
/n/	<i>nim</i> ‘only’	<i>ʔiən</i> ‘easy’	<i>na.naʔ</i> ‘oneself’	<i>kən.tiʔ</i> ‘time/trip’	<i>ʔn.tih</i> ‘that (far)’
/ɲ/	<i>ɲəŋ</i> ‘watch’	<i>pɛ:ɲ</i> ‘shoot’	<i>ɲəɲ.ɲɛ:l</i> ‘prompt’	<i>kəɲ.co:l</i> ‘to dance’	<i>ʔɲ.ɛ:</i> ‘louse’
/ŋ/	<i>ŋɛʔ</i> ‘all’	<i>kliŋ</i> ‘many’	<i>ŋəl.ŋah</i> ‘show off’	<i>pəŋ.kra:</i> ‘repair’	<i>ʔŋ.koh</i> ‘that’

Pure consonant **liquids** in Pacoh include /r/ and /l/. Like nasals, Pacoh liquids may occur in both syllable initial and final positions in both main and presyllables. The alveolar liquid /r/ is often trilled in careful speech in all positions and even as the second consonant in clusters (see §2.4.5).

⁶ That these are single consonants and not consonant clusters is supported by two facts. First, the original prefixes some of these sounds developed from are no longer productive. Second, while a small number of forms exist with infixes that show an earlier distinction, this author considers those examples insufficient for inclusion in a synchronic description.

Table 7: Distribution of Pacoh liquids

	Initial	Final	Presyllable-initial	Presyllable-final	Presyllable-peak
/l/	<i>lɔ:m</i> ‘liver’	<i>vɛ:l</i> ‘village’	<i>la.luh</i> ‘to run’	<i>pəl.lo:</i> ‘tube’	<i>?l.lam</i> ‘one unit’
/r/	<i>ra:w</i> ‘to clean’	<i>bar</i> ‘two’	<i>ri.rɔj</i> ‘a fly’	<i>pər.ran</i> ‘bait’	<i>?r.ba:ŋ</i> ‘sky’

Pacoh has two types of **glides**, plain and post-glottalized. They are distinguished from the offglides of diphthongs since they all can follow any vowel or diphthong without restrictions. Only /w/ is found to occur in existing data as a presyllabic onset (a reduplicant of the onset of a main syllable). In fact, /w/ initially is often realized as [v] in onset positions. Plain glides occur in both initial and final positions in main syllables, while post-glottalized glides occur only in syllable-final positions.

Table 8: Distribution of Pacoh glides

	Initial	Final
/w/	<i>wi: (vi:)</i> ‘to have’	<i>?n.naw</i> ‘who’
/j/	<i>jəw</i> ‘friend’	<i>kəm.paj</i> ‘wife’
/wʔ/	--	<i>?iəwʔ</i> ‘old’
/jʔ/	--	<i>ləjʔ</i> ‘no’

2.2.1.1 The glottal stop

In Pacoh, glottal stops are distinctive and deserve status as phonemes since, in word-final position, there are minimal pairs that show glottal stop cannot be predicted (e.g. *dɔ:* ‘he’ versus *dɔ:ʔ* ‘put’). This is most significant in the transcription used here, since no syllable peaks (including both vowels and nasals) are shown without some kind of consonant initial. Glottal stops in Pacoh are clearly distinctive within words in intersyllabic positions. In addition, glottal stops serve to satisfy the overall requirement of Pacoh syllables to have initial consonants.

Glottal stop	Other phoneme
<i>?a.?aj</i> ‘ill’	<i>?a.kaj</i> ‘child’
<i>pa.?oh</i> ‘to scold’	<i>pa.ŋoh</i> ‘to put in’

In word onset position, however, the distinctiveness of the glottal stop is not always apparent although, without glottal stops, we might expect certain natural intersyllabic assimilatory phenomena. Some evidence from Pacoh reduplication demonstrates the distinctiveness of glottal stops in both word-initial and syllable-initial position. In these samples, both base forms reduplicate entirely with an additional syllable [ʔi]. Without glottal stops, we might expect to see the incorrect form *[ɛk.ʔi.jɛk], with an epenthesized palatal glide or the final [k] or [h] of the first syllables to resyllabify with the following syllable, creating the incorrect forms *[ʔɛ.ki.ʔɛk] and *[ha:hi.ha:h]. The Vietnamese Quốc-Ngữ-based scripts do not clearly show this detail.

Pacoh	Gloss	Quốc-Ngữ
<i>?ɛk.ʔi.?ɛk</i>	‘peals (of laughter)’	<i>ék-í-ék</i>
<i>ha:h.ʔi.ha:h</i>	‘gape (while smiling)’	<i>háh-i-háh</i>

Glottal stops are also clearly phonetically distinctive in phrases consisting of more than one syntactic word. In speech sequences, consonant finals do not resyllabify with the vowel of the next word. This suggests that glottal stops are present in phonological representation before syllabification. Thus, both phonetically and phonemically, all Pacoh syllables require initial consonants, which can include glottal stops. Similarly in sentences, the glottal stops typically prevent phonetic changes.

2.2.1.2 *The palatal fricative*

This section discusses allophonic variations of the palatal phoneme /ʃ/. R. Watson (1964) considered ‘s’ to be a voiceless alveo-palatal fricative, though noting that it alternated freely with [ç]. In my own recordings of several speakers, the sound ranged from an alveolar to a palatal fricative. Assimilatory processes between nasal presyllables and the ‘s’ onset of main syllables suggest that this phoneme is indeed a palatal. All presyllabic nasal peaks assimilate to place of articulation of the main syllable onset. Thus, the presyllabic nasal is a palatal nasal before all three palatals /c/, /ɲ/ and /ʃ/.

Pacoh	Gloss
ʔn.fyər	‘to tell old stories’
ʔn.cɛː	‘louse’
ʔn.nɔːp	‘ugly’

2.2.1.3 *The post-glottalized glides*

The word-final transcribed sounds ‘iq’ and ‘uq’ used by the Watsons and ND&P are here considered to be single complex segments, post-glottalized glides, /jʔ/ and /wʔ/. Since the proposed maximal syllable shape in Pacoh is CCV:C (see §2.4), those sounds may not be sequences of diphthong off-glides and separate final glottal stops as they appear as the codas of words that already have diphthongs (e.g. ʔiəwʔ versus *ʔiəuʔ ‘old’). Moreover, final clusters go against general typological tendencies in the phonological systems of neighboring Mon-Khmer and Tai languages, whereas glottalized finals are entirely typologically sound there.

Another question is where these sounds fit in the overall phonemic system. Questions of the overall phonemic system, as well as historical and typological details, suggest that these sounds are distinct from voiced phonemes. Watson (1964) suggested that ‘uq’ and ‘iq’ are allophones of /b/ and /ʃ/ in an attempt to balance the overall phonemic system of Pacoh. However, having only two finals corresponding to voiced consonants while excluding /d/ still creates a somewhat uneven and less likely system.

Another problem with positing these as correspondences with voiced stops is typological in nature. Most neighboring Mon-Khmer and Tai languages do not have syllable-final voiced stops, a statement that can be made of other closely related Katuic languages, such as Taoih (ND&P 1986), Bru (Hoàng & Tạ 1998), and Katu (H.H. Nguyễn & V.L. Nguyễn 1998).⁷ Furthermore, postglottalized continuants do exist in neighbouring Mon-Khmer languages, such as the Viet-Chut language Ruc and the Katuic languages Ong

⁷ Some exceptions include some Aslian languages in Malaysia (cf. Benjamin 1976 (Temiar), Diffloth 1975 (Jah-Hut), and my own field notes (Semai) taken in 1998).

and Talan. Also, historically, Pacoh /jʔ/ usually corresponds to Taoih /c/⁸ and probably comes from Proto-Katuic */c/ (cf. Pejros 1996). Pacoh /wʔ/ is the same as in cognates in Taoih and is of uncertain historical origins. Positing that both glides have post-glottalized counterparts is a slightly more balanced picture and matches the typological and historical picture as well.

2.2.2 Conditioned changes

This section discusses conditioned changes of consonants, including palatal epenthesis, fortition, and rounding. First, there is a noticeable **palatalization** of vowel off-glides before the voiceless palatal fricative /ʃ/ in coda position, resulting in a phonetically complex segment. In the Viet and Watson scripts, this sound is represented as ‘ih’. The phonetic realizations of /ʃ/ include [ʃ], [jʰ] and [j]. The latter two result from a weakening of the /ʃ/ closure.

Gloss	Alves	Phonetic	Watson
‘monkey’	<i>ʔa.djəʃ</i>	<i>ʔa.dyajʃ</i>	<i>adɔaih</i>
‘root’	<i>rjəʃ</i>	<i>rɛajʃ</i>	<i>reaih</i>
‘firewood’	<i>ʔu:ʃ</i>	<i>ʔu:jʃ</i>	<i>uih</i>

Pacoh has two instances of **word-initial fortition**: spirantization and epenthesis. The first case is the fricativization of /w/ to [v] word-initially, and the other case is the insertion of phonemically non-distinctive glottal stops before nasal presyllables. In Pacoh, [w] and [v] occur in complementary distribution, [w] in word-final position (never [v]), and [v], word-initially (rarely [w]).

Form	Gloss
<i>vi:/wi:</i>	‘to have’
<i>vit/wit</i>	‘to toss away’
<i>tjəw</i>	‘spice’
<i>ʔa.ciəw</i>	‘knife’

In the initial position, [v] is the dominant form in Pacoh speech, and is the symbol used to represent the sound in Watson and Viet scripts. However, phonetic variation of the initial /v/ and /w/ did occur, suggesting that these are allophones of the same phoneme. The view taken here is that /w/ is the base phoneme, and is realized as [w] word-finally, though with alternation with [v] initially. The phonetic realization of /w/ as [v] in most cases is the result of a process of word-initial labial fortition. In the sonority hierarchy, [w] is more sonorant than [v]. Syllables tend to be less sonorant at the edges, particularly word-initially.

The other case of fortition is the requirement of a non-distinctive glottal stop before sonorant (nasal or liquid) presyllables. When nasals and liquids occur as presyllables, they always have a glottal stop, which can serve to prevent incorrect syllabification (see §2.2.1.1 on glottal stops). Nasals are consonants, but they are sonorants like vowels, and thus the non-sonorant glottal stop maximizes the syllable shape. The insertion of a phonemically non-distinctive glottal stop, as opposed to any other non-sonorant stop, is natural since it is a minimally distinctive and minimally sonorant consonant.

⁸ All data on Taoih come from ND&P (1986).

Finally, in Pacoh, there are instances of **syllable-final rounding**, in which /ŋ/ and /k/ become [ŋ^w] and [k^w] after [-RTR] back round vowels /o/ and /u/.⁹ Thus, for example, Pacoh [duŋ] ‘house’ can be realized phonetically as [duŋ^w]. The roundness of the vowels tends to induce labialization of the consonants although the process is not consistent and varies according to rate and clarity of speech. A complete shift to [m] is not acceptable. This tendency patterns with the regular rounding in the same phonetic environment in Vietnamese and may be an areal tendency.

2.2.3 Nasal assimilation in presyllables

Pacoh shows a consistent pattern of matching place of articulation between the nasals of presyllables (either presyllable coda nasals or presyllable nasal nuclei) and the onsets of following main syllables.

Gloss	Form	Gloss	Form
‘which’	<i>ʔm.mɔː</i>	‘new’	<i>təm.mɛː</i>
‘this’	<i>ʔn.tih</i>	‘star’	<i>pən.tɔːr</i>
‘louse’	<i>ʔp.cɛː</i>	‘to dance’	<i>kəp.cɔːl</i>
‘that’	<i>ʔŋ.koh</i>	‘to change’	<i>pəŋ.kɔːŋ</i>

It can also be posited that nasals in this position are unable to maintain their own point of articulation.¹⁰ In all other positions, Pacoh nasals permit distinctive points of articulation phonologically unrelated to other segments, as shown in Table 9. The initials of presyllables are copied from initials of the main syllables as a result of word-formation processes. No constraints have been shown, and any reduplicated consonants can occur in this position without phonological constraints.

Table 9: Unconditioned Pacoh nasals

Position	Form	Gloss
<i>main syllable, initial</i>	<i>mat</i> <i>nam</i> <i>ŋoŋ</i> <i>ŋɛʔ</i>	‘eye’ ‘if’ ‘to look’ ‘all’
<i>main syllable, final</i>	<i>cɔːm</i> <i>ʃɔːn</i> <i>diːŋ</i> <i>joːŋ</i>	‘to know’ ‘to give’ ‘long time’ ‘far’
<i>presyllable, initial</i>	<i>ma.mɔːjʔ</i> <i>ŋa.ŋɛʔ-ŋɛʔ</i> <i>ŋa.ŋɛːl</i>	‘to hunt’ ‘to contort one’s neck’ ‘prompt’

⁹ The [+RTR] vowels do not cause the same change. The reason for this is not clear.

¹⁰ Padgett (1995) posits that the primary factor in similar cases of nasal assimilation is whether or not the nasal is in a position of phonetic release. In Pacoh, the coda position of unstressed presyllables is a very weak position and is thus more liable to be affected by constraints than positions in the main syllable or the onset of the presyllable.

2.3 Vowels

The Pacoh vowels are here phonemically categorized by four primary features: height, backness, length and tongue root position. This section summarizes the overall system, while subsequent subsections deal with vowel classes, diphthongs, and the issue of retracted tongue position (the register system).

2.3.1 Summary of the vowel system

The Pacoh vowels have been analyzed in two ways, with a three-way height distinction with a split of the mid-vowels of clear versus pharyngealized and with a two-way height distinction with all vowels subcategorized into retracted and nonretracted tongue-root position. Alves (2000), ND&P (1986), and Watson (1964, 1966b) followed the three-way height distinction, while R. Watson has used the registers-system analysis in publications since 1980.

Table 10: Early analysis and current transcription of Pacoh vowels and diphthongs.

RTR = retracted tongue root

	Short				Long		
	Front	Central	Back		Front	Central	Back
High	<i>i</i>	<i>ɨ</i>	<i>u</i>		<i>iː</i>	<i>ɨː</i>	<i>uː</i>
Mid [-RTR]	<i>e</i>	<i>ə</i>	<i>o</i>		<i>eː</i>	<i>əː</i>	<i>oː</i>
Mid [+RTR]	<i>ɛ</i>	<i>ɘ</i>	<i>ɔ</i>		<i>ɛː</i>	<i>ɘː</i>	<i>ɔː</i>
Low	<i>ɛ</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>ɔ</i>		<i>ɛː</i>	<i>aː</i>	<i>ɔː</i>
+RTR					<i>iɔ</i>	<i>ɨɔ</i>	<i>uɔ</i>
-RTR					<i>ɨɔː</i>	<i>ɨɔː</i>	<i>uɔː</i>

While Alves (2000) considers the two-way height distinction marked and the phoneme-phonetic disparity too severe for several of the phonemes, this work accepts Watson's later position as reasonable from the theoretical perspective of overall phonemic balance and typological accordance with the register systems of a Mon-Khmer language. The number of phonemes, however, remains the same; Pacoh has twenty-four monophthongs and six diphthongs. In Table 11, the lower two rows are both +RTR in the current phonological analysis. While Table 11 shows the preferred phonological analysis, the system of transcription used in this work (and Alves (2000)) is used to accord with phonetic realizations of these vowels in Table 10, as discussed in §2.3.3.

Table 11: Theoretical analysis of Pacoh vowel phonemes

		-RTR			+RTR		
		Front	Central	Back	Front	Central	Back
Short	High	<i>i</i>	<i>ɨ</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>ɨ</i>	<i>ɨ</i>	<i>ɯ</i>
	Low	<i>e</i>	<i>ɣ</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>ɛ</i>	<i>ɣ</i>	<i>ɔ</i>
Long	High	<i>iː</i>	<i>ɨː</i>	<i>uː</i>	<i>ɨː</i>	<i>ɨː</i>	<i>ɯː</i>
	Low	<i>eː</i>	<i>ɣː</i>	<i>oː</i>	<i>ɛː</i>	<i>ɣː</i>	<i>ɔː</i>
Diphthongs		<i>iɔ</i>	<i>ɨɔ</i>	<i>uɔ</i>	<i>ɨɔ</i>	<i>ɨɔ</i>	<i>ɯɔ</i>

2.3.2 Vowel length

While vowel length has no observable effect on vowel quality (e. g. diphthongization on long vowels doesn't occur), it is a phonemically significant feature, as shown in the list of minimal pairs in Table 12. Long vowels can occur in both open (having no final consonant) and closed (having final consonants) syllables, while short vowels occur only in closed syllables. The phonetic duration ratio of long versus short vowels is sometimes as high as 1.5 to 1 (150 versus 100 milliseconds).

Table 12: Minimal pairs of Pacoh long and short vowels

Vowel	Example	Gloss
ɔ:	<i>pa.lɔ:ŋ</i>	'to set adrift'
ɔ	<i>pa.lɔŋ</i>	'to spit out'
i:	<i>pi:h</i>	'a kind of poison'
i	<i>pih</i>	'to fill holes'
a:	<i>pa:h</i>	'spacious'
a	<i>pah</i>	'to slap'
o:	<i>?a.tɔ:h</i>	'to fall'
o	<i>?a.tɔh</i>	'weevil'
ɛ:	<i>hɛ:ŋ</i>	'yellow bee'
ɛ	<i>hɛŋ</i>	'sharp'

2.3.3 The 'altered' register: [+RTR] vowels

The term 'register' in Mon-Khmer phonology refers to a vocalic distinction that doubles vowel inventories by having 'clear' vowels, phonemically and phonetically unmarked sounds, and the 'altered' vowels, which manifest themselves in a variety of ways among Mon-Khmer languages, but generally have some kind of phonation effects, such as breathiness, creakiness, or raspiness (Matisoff 1973; Gregerson 1976). Moreover, these vowels tend to mutate in terms of vowel quality, which, historically, causes continual reanalysis of the phonemes and reemerging phonemic vowel systems (as in Thurgood 1999). R. Watson (1996) notes that these shifts have caused 'clear' vowels to correspond with 'altered' vowels in other Mon-Khmer languages.

In Pacoh, the phonetic feature RTR ('retracted tongue root') is used to describe this series of altered vowels. When the tongue root is retracted, the phonetic consequence in Pacoh is a raspy sound in those vowels. There are distributional constraints on these sounds in Pacoh words; the [+RTR] vowels appear only in main syllables, never presyllables.¹¹ However, most notable is the fact that the +RTR vowels, having a higher F1, are phonetically lower than their -RTR counterparts.

¹¹ Mon-Khmer presyllables typically permit few vowels, some even having only schwa. Pacoh and some other Katuic languages allow three, [i], [a] and [u].

Table 13: Former and current phonological analyses of the RTR vowels of Pacoh

Former analysis			Current analysis				
+RTR	<i>ɛ̤</i>	<i>ɛ̨</i>	<i>ɔ̤</i>	+RTR	<i>ɨ̤</i>	<i>ɨ̨</i>	<i>ʉ</i>
-RTR	<i>ɛ</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>ɔ</i>	+RTR	<i>ɛ̣</i>	<i>ɤ</i>	<i>ɔ̣</i>

Each of the basic six [+RTR] vowels differ somewhat from their clear counterparts (see Table 13). They are realized in rough phonetic terms as follows: /i/ is realized as a glottalic [ɛ̤]; /ɤ/ is lowered to [a]; /u/ is realized as a glottalic [ɔ̤]; /ɛ/ is lowered to [ɛ̣]; /i/ sounds like a glottalic schwa [ɨ̤]; /ɔ/ is lowered to [ɔ̣].

2.3.4 Diphthongs

Diphthongs are all inherently long vowels in Pacoh that can occur in both open single and main syllables (Table 14). Phonetically, they are pronounced about as long as long vowels, lasting about 15 milliseconds more than other long vowels. The final off-glides are transcribed as schwa, though the phonetic realization of these off-glides depends on the position of the diphthong peak. The three basic diphthongs are split into two classes by the feature [±RTR].

Table 14: Distribution of Pacoh diphthongs

Diphthong	Example	Gloss
<i>iə</i>	<i>viək</i>	‘matters’
	<i>ʔm.piən</i>	‘top’
<i>iə</i>	<i>kiə</i>	‘to saw’
	<i>triəŋ</i>	‘school’
	<i>ka.niə</i>	‘a saw’
<i>uə</i>	<i>ʃuə</i>	‘to search’
	<i>kruəŋ</i>	‘earth’
	<i>kər.nuət</i>	‘necklace’
<i>ɨə</i>	<i>ʔiə</i>	‘invite village to feast’
	<i>ʃiəŋ</i>	‘wind’
	<i>ku.tiək</i>	‘earth’
<i>ɨə</i>	<i>bɨəjʔ</i>	‘fish’
	<i>ʔa.dɨəʃ</i>	‘monkey’
<i>ʉə</i>	<i>juə</i>	‘to call’
	<i>pyən</i>	‘four’

2.4 Phonological word and syllable structure

Pacoh syllable and word structure are characterized in terms of prosody and segmental phonotactic constraints. In Pacoh, phonological words have a minimum segmental sequence of CV: or CVC and a maximum of CVC.CCV:C.

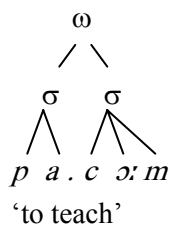
The **phonological word** in Pacoh consists of at most two syllables, while the **syntactic word** has no phonological limit, thereby allowing for longer sequences representing single semantic concepts. While the phonological word in Pacoh has only one main stress, a syntactic word may have more than one. Reduplicants and a variety of lexical compounds that are derived from monosyllabic forms in Pacoh consist of two phonological words, since they consist of single syllables, but two equal degrees of stress. A hyphen is used in transcription to separate phonological words¹² in a single syntactic word, while periods separate syllables within a phonological word. Examples of different combinations of phonological and syntactic words are shown in Table 15.

Table 15: Examples of the marking of syllables and phonological compounds

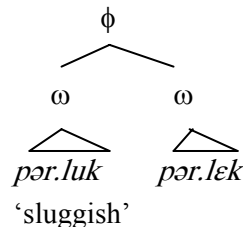
	Form	Interlinear	Gloss
1.	<i>ʔi.ŋáj-ʔi.nó:</i>	‘day-previous’	‘yesterday’
2.	<i>jəw-báj</i>	‘friend-friend’	‘friends (in general)’
3.	<i>ʔu.ráʔ</i>	‘paper’	‘paper’
4.	<i>ʔu.rá:ʔ-ʔu.ʔá:r</i>	‘paper-REDUP’	‘writing (in general)’
5.	<i>jé:l-jó:l</i>	‘drift-REDUP’	‘to drift’

The first two examples show single syntactic words formed through word-formation based on other free forms.¹³ The fourth and fifth examples are formed through reduplicative word-formation. Stress is indicated here on each phonological word that bears it, though throughout this grammar, stress is not marked, being predictable. Every phonological word has a single stress on final syllables.

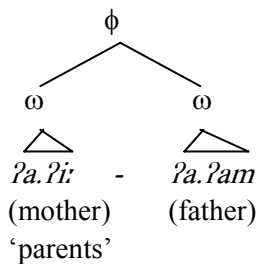
(a) Word-dominated



(b) Phrase-dominated reduplication



(c) Phrase-dominated compound



(d) Phrase-dominated sentence

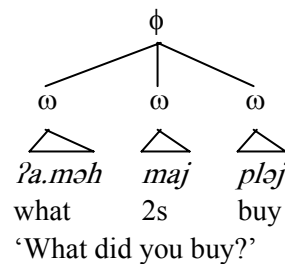


Figure 1: Word-dominated and phrase-dominated substrings

¹² These are not meant to separate morphemes, but rather to highlight connected phonological words.

¹³ Evidence for these forms as single lexical items rather than phrases composed of multiple lexical items comes from the fact that the form /ʔi.no:/ does not occur as a separate lexical item and that the two syllables in /jaw-ba:j/ cannot be reversed.

Above the level of phonological word is the **phonological phrase**, which bears a single primary stress and may consist of one or more phonological words. A phonological word in Pacoh, being no more than two syllables, is always equivalent to a prosodic foot, and so words and feet are coextensive. Pacoh has trochaic mora feet, and a single unfooted mora is allowed on the left. A phonological word in Pacoh may have one or two syllables. A syllable in Pacoh consists of one or two moras, depending on the stress; stressed syllables are bimoraic, and unstressed syllables are monomoraic. Though vowels generally satisfy moraic weight requirements, consonants can too.

2.4.1 Overall syllable and word structure

The Pacoh phonological word consists of an obligatory main syllable and an optional presyllable. All syllables must have sonorant nuclei (including a vowel, nasal, or liquid) and must have initial consonants (which can also be glottal stops¹⁴). Main syllables and presyllables differ in several ways, as discussed below.

Pacoh main syllables can have both single consonants and consonant clusters syllable-initially. The second segment of a cluster is either [l] or [r] in native Pacoh vocabulary, but some glides ([j] and [w]) occur in that position in some Vietnamese loans (see § 2.7). These main syllables must bear stress and must have two moras. The mora weight requirement can be met either by long vowels or by a vowel with a final consonant. The full range of main syllable shapes is shown in Table 16. ‘C’ represents consonants, ‘L’ refers to liquids, and the colon ‘:’ marks long vowels ‘V’. Main syllables can be pronounced (1) alone, (2) with a secondary presyllable, or (3) (in reduplicant words) with other main syllables.

Table 16: Main syllable shapes in Pacoh

Gloss	Form	Sequence
‘to eat’	<i>ca:</i>	CV:
‘eye’	<i>mat</i>	CVC
‘time of day’	<i>pe:l</i>	CV:C
‘head’	<i>plɔ:</i>	CLV:
‘silver’	<i>praʔ</i>	CLVC
‘mynah bird’	<i>tra:w</i>	CLV:C

Pacoh presyllables differ in shape, weight, stress and distribution. All Pacoh presyllables have at least an initial consonant and sonorant peak. However, consonant clusters are not allowed and the vowels are always short. These syllables are never stressed and have only one mora. One notable aspect of Pacoh presyllables is that nasals or liquids can satisfy the requirement for a sonorant peak. Vowels in Pacoh presyllables are restricted to /i/, /a/ and /u/ in open syllables, but /ə/ in presyllables with codas, which are always liquids or nasals. Table 17 shows examples of the three possible presyllable shapes in Pacoh. ‘S’ refers to sonorant consonant nuclei (including nasals and liquids) which, in

¹⁴ In previously published orthographies, glottal stops were not used in word-initial position, suggesting that those words were vowel-initial words, whereas it is posited here that these words have initial glottal stops (see §2.2.1.1).

Pacoh, are always preceded by a phonemically non-distinctive glottal stop. In Table 17, V is /i/, /a/ or /u/, C₁ may be any consonant, C₂ is /ə/, and S is any nasal or liquid. All recorded possible combinations of main and presyllables are shown in Table 18.¹⁵

Table 17: Presyllable shapes in Pacoh

Gloss	Form	Sequence
‘to smile’	<i>ka.caŋ</i>	CV-
‘to exchange’	<i>tər.piən</i>	C ₁ əC ₂ -
‘one unit’	<i>?l.lam</i>	?S-

Table 18: Bisyllabic range in Pacoh

Gloss	Form	Sequence
‘where’	<i>tu.mə:</i>	CV.CV:
‘field’	<i>pi.daj</i>	CV.CVC
‘many (plural)’	<i>pa.pi:t</i>	CV.CV:C
‘owl’	<i>ka.tru:</i>	CV.CLV:
‘to spill accidentally’	<i>ta.trəh</i>	CV.CLVC
‘dry (plural)’	<i>pa.prɛ:ŋ</i>	CV.CLV:C
‘to search for each other’	<i>tər.fuə</i>	CəS.CV:
‘wife’	<i>kəm.paj</i>	CəS.CVC
‘to dance’	<i>kəŋ.co:l</i>	CəS.CV:C
‘to keep’	<i>təm.pruh</i>	CəS.CLVC
‘a bought (of rain)’	<i>kən.trə:ʔ</i>	CəS.CLV:C
‘of his’	<i>?n.də:</i>	?S.CV:
‘that’	<i>?ŋ.koh</i>	?S.CVC
‘materials’	<i>?m.ma:r</i>	?S.CV:C
‘string’	<i>?n.traf</i>	?S.CLVC
‘chicken’	<i>?n.truəj</i>	?S.CLV:C

2.4.2 Prosodic constraints

This section discusses the constraints on syllables, words, and larger phonological units. Every syllable in Pacoh requires a consonant onset and a sonorant peak. The sonorant peak can be a vowel in any syllable, but it can be nasal or liquid in presyllables. Pacoh presyllables may have combinations of CV, CVS or CS, while main syllables may be CV:, CVC or CV:C (C = consonant, V = vowel, S = nasals or liquids, : = indicates long vowels). Sonorants as peaks in presyllables are always preceded by a glottal stop and no other consonant. The vowels /i/, /a/ or /u/ appear in open presyllables, but only schwa appears in presyllables with final consonants (i.e. checked syllables).

¹⁵ The only possible shape for which no example was found is CəS.CLV:.

2.4.3 Phonotactic constraints

This section deals with the attested distribution of consonants and vowels. R. Watson (1964) characterized Pacoh phonotactics in terms of the presyllable and main syllable. The basic templates that Pacoh words can have were discussed in §2.4.2. Briefly, the syllables of Pacoh words consist of a CV(C) structure, with some variants. However, main syllables and presyllables differ in a few respects.

Presyllable	Main syllable
$C_1V_1C_2$	$C_3C_4V_2C_5$

C_1 can consist of any Pacoh consonants except for post-glottalized glides and aspirated stops. C_2 consists only of sonorants, including the nasals and liquids (but not the glides). C_3 can be any consonant from the Pacoh vowel inventory except for post-glottalized glides. However, the main syllable onset position is restricted to the voiceless stops /p/, /t/ and /k/ when preceding the liquids /r/ or /l/. C_4 consists of the liquids /r/ and /l/ in consonant clusters. C_5 consists of all consonants except for voiced or aspirated stops. Consonants in this position are optional after long vowels, but obligatory after short vowels. V_1 includes only the vowels /i/, /a/ or /u/ in open presyllables, and only schwa in closed syllables. All vowels in this position are short, and there is no [±RTR] distinction here. V_2 can be any vowel from the Pacoh vowel inventory.

Clusters in Pacoh increase in sonority towards the peak of syllables, generally moving towards liquids. Though there are no glides in the second consonant position in clusters in native vocabulary, there are such forms in Vietnamese loans (§2.7), which still follows the sonority constraint (in Pacoh, from least to most sonorant: obstruents, nasals, liquids, glides, and vowels). This demonstrates that Pacoh does not have a constraint against glides in that position.

The occurrence of post-glottalized stops makes sense considering the sonority hierarchy constraint. These complex segments move from more to less sonorant, which is acceptable at syllable codas but not syllable onsets.

The Pacoh presyllable, which is always unstressed, shows fewer feature distinctions. There are no [+RTR] vowels in this position, and the vowels in that position have only a three-way contrast—/i/, /a/ and /u/—being at the extremes of the phonetic range of the Pacoh vowel phoneme inventory. In closed presyllables, there are no vowel contrasts; only schwa occurs. In addition, the presyllable shows a general tendency to rely on the main syllable in both segmental and prosodic features. The final nasals of presyllables are homorganic, matching the place of articulation of initial consonant of the main syllable (§2.4.4). Also, in initial-C reduplication processes (§2.5.2), the presyllable relies on segmental material from the main syllable, copying the initial consonant.

2.4.4 Sonorant presyllables: nasals and liquids

Pacoh nasals (/m/, /n/, /ŋ/, and /ɲ/) and liquids (/l/ and /r/) may serve as sonorant presyllables lacking vowel nuclei. All such syllables have epenthetic glottal stop onsets to satisfy syllable structure constraints (§2.4). The presyllabic nasals consistently match the place of articulation of the initial consonants of main syllables. Phonetic evidence supports the claim that these nasal syllables entirely lack vowels. Spectrographs show that they do

not have second formant frequencies as would be expected of vowels, and they have a relatively lower intensity than presyllables with vowel peaks.

Table 19: Pacoh sonorant presyllables

Form	Gloss	Form	Gloss
<i>ʔm.mə:</i>	‘which’	<i>ʔl.pa:ʔ</i>	‘armpit’
<i>ʔn.tih</i>	‘this’	<i>ʔr.ba:ŋ</i>	‘sky’
<i>ʔp.cɛ:</i>	‘louse’	<i>ʔl.lɔj</i>	‘forget’
<i>ʔŋ.koh</i>	‘that’	<i>ʔr.na:m</i>	‘vegetable’

2.4.5 Consonant clusters

Pacoh has five consonant clusters involving sequences of voiceless stops and liquids, including [kl], [kr], [pl], [pr], and [tr]. Both the Watsons and ND&P considered the phonetic sounds [p^h], [t^h], and [k^h] to be consonant cluster phonemes. This view does have merit, in that it parallels the shape of other Pacoh clusters (e.g. /pr/, /kl/ etc.). R. Watson’s (1964) primary argument is a morphophonological test, one of infix insertion. Presently, such insertion appears only in a few fossilized remnants but is no longer active (e.g. *k^hiər* ‘to sweep yard’ becomes *ka.niər* ‘a yard broom’, in which the [h] is lost). A consideration of these single segments acknowledges the typological tendency in Southeast Asia toward onset cluster reduction. The reduction from word-initial consonant clusters to single phonemes is a natural phonological process that has occurred and is taking place in languages in this region.¹⁷

Table 20: Consonant clusters

Cluster	Example	Gloss
[kl]	<i>kliŋ</i>	‘many’
[kr]	<i>krum</i>	‘thunder’
[pl]	<i>ploh</i>	‘to ask’
[pr]	<i>pre:ŋ</i>	‘dry’
[tr]	<i>tru:</i>	‘deep’

2.5 Reduplication

This section deals with phonological changes in bisyllabic and reduplicant polysyllabic words (see §3.3 for morphological and semantic details of Pacoh reduplication). There are several types of reduplication in Pacoh, generally involving copying and alternating segmental material within the same reduplicant. Pacoh presyllables exhibit phonological reduction, such as nasal assimilation and vowel reduction in closed syllables.

¹⁷ For example, the Chamic languages of the Vietnamese have shown this kind of loss (Lee 1974; Đoàn 1988; Thurgood 1999).

Reduplication is a prosodically-oriented word-formation strategy, which in Pacoh consists of four types: template (full and alternating), presyllabic, partial, and template-plus-affix reduplication. In Pacoh, the two most commonly occurring types are template reduplication and initial-consonant reduplication. In template reduplication, the prosodic template of an entire phonological word is copied. Some segmental material is copied as well, but a vowel, consonant, or the syllable rhyme (essentially the mora portion of a syllable, including the vowel and any final consonants) may be altered. In template-plus-affix reduplication, a full syllable is copied, separated by syllables such as [ʔi] or [ʔm], or an onset may be copied to the onset of an added presyllable. In both cases, either mono- or bisyllabic words provide a base for the reduplication.

Table 21: Examples of Pacoh reduplication

Category	Form	Gloss
<i>Template</i>	<i>vaŋ-vəŋ</i> <i>tuəp-juəp</i> <i>ʃe:l-ʃo:l</i> <i>tə:p-hə:p</i> <i>ʃi:l-ʃuəʔ</i> <i>ki:l-ku:l</i> <i>ʃeŋ-ʃeŋ</i>	‘clumsy’ ‘ruffled (of hair)’ ‘to drift (of leaves)’ ‘a big empty place’ ‘to imitate’ ‘fragrant (of tree sap)’ ‘to cackle’
<i>Template-plus-affix</i>	<i>pa.pɨt</i> <i>vjəʔ-ʔi.vjəʔ</i> <i>taʔ-ʔm.biʔ-ʔi.biʔ</i>	‘big (of a group of things)’ ‘full of twists and bends’ ‘to pretend to sleep’
<i>Clause-incorporation</i>	<i>ŋa:j-taʔ-pruəʔ-taʔ-təm.paʔ</i> they do work do work	‘They’re working.’

Figure 4 provides examples of reduplication. From the base, the initial consonant is copied for the presyllabic reduplicant (with /a/ inserted for that particular kind of prefix), or for template reduplication, the entire syllable template is copied, but with some phonological material alternated (in this case, the vowel). In addition to those two types, there is a combination of both presyllable and template reduplication, as discussed in §3.3.

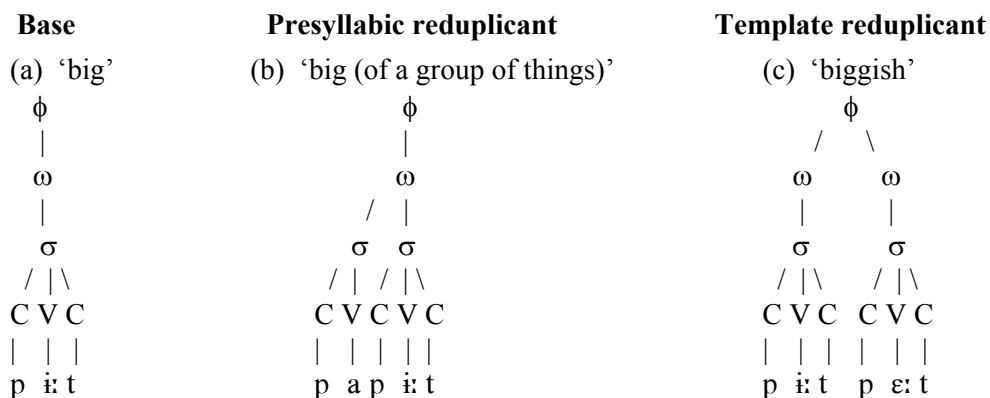


Figure 4: Examples of base and reduplicants in Pacoh

2.5.1 Template reduplication

In prosodic template reduplication, the reduplicant is a segmentally unspecified syllable filled in by segmental material from the base, as listed in Table 22 and demonstrated with examples.¹⁸ All of the consonants and vowels have subscript numerals to differentiate between changed and unchanged segments.

Table 22: Types of reduplication

Category	Template	Examples
<i>Repetitive</i> (No alternation)	$C_1V_1C_2-C_1V_1C_2$	<i>fəːfəː</i> ‘pleasant’
<i>Rhyming</i> (Onset alternation)	$C_1V_1C_2-C_3V_1C_2$	<i>tək-vək</i> ‘endless amount’
<i>Ablauted</i> (Vowel alternation)	$C_1V_1C_2-C_1V_2C_2$	<i>puːc-paːc</i> ‘flutter’
<i>Alliterative</i> (rhyme alternation)	$C_1V_1C_2-C_1V_2C_3$	<i>kʰaŋ-kʰer</i> ‘push rice into mouth continuously’
<i>Onset-Vowel</i> (coda alternation)	$C_1V_1C_2-C_1V_1C_3$	<i>krəːŋ-krəːw</i> ‘property’

The subscripts of changed/alternating segments are underlined. This first pattern shows non-alternating/total segmental reduplication, the least common type of reduplication in Pacoh. The other patterns, all of which are instances of ‘alternating reduplication’, show segmental differences between the base and the reduplicant portion. Any of the single segments or the rhyme of the template may alternate. Thus, template reduplication may result in full reduplication with no changes to the segments; however, in general, template reduplication in Pacoh alternates, with some segments being copied and others alternated, hence the term ‘alternating reduplication’. Alternating segments correspond in prosodic function to the segments of reduplicant bases (i.e. a consonant in the base corresponds to a consonant in the reduplicant portion, and likewise for vowels). There are currently no identifiable patterns of alternations involving phonological category, such as voicing or place of articulation (e.g. a nasal in the base can have a corresponding non-nasal voiceless stop in the reduplicant).

S1 shows examples of each type of reduplication, in which the consonant, vowel, or combination that alternates is in bold print. There are no documented alternations of a combination of vowel and initial consonant, nor do both consonants alternate while the vowel is copied.

¹⁸ Huffman (1970:298) described the same types of alternations in Khmer reduplication. Huffman used the terms ‘ablauted’, referring to alternations of vowels, ‘rhyming’, referring to alternations of initial consonants, ‘alliterative’, referring to alternations of rhymes, and ‘repetitive’, referring to the copying of all segmental material. All of those reduplication patterns are listed in the table. In addition to those types in Khmer, Pacoh also has reduplicants that copy the first CV of a syllable and alternate the coda, called simply onset-vowel reduplication.

S1: Four types of segmental alternation*tɔk.vɔk*

(a) ‘endless amount’

k^haŋ.k^her

(b) ‘push rice into mouth continuously’

pur.paɾc

(c) ‘flutter’

ʃɛp.ʃɛl

(d) ‘to cackle’

2.5.2 Initial-C reduplication

Initial-C reduplication involves the copying of the initial consonant of the base and the insertion of [a]. The only examples of these presyllables have monosyllabic bases, not polysyllabic forms. For example, Pacoh [pi:t] ‘big’ is the phonological base for [pa.pi:t] ‘big (in regard to plural ‘subjects’)', while [kɛt] ‘small’ is the base for [ka.kɛt] ‘small (in regard to plural ‘subjects’)''. The basic prosodic template for these presyllabic reduplicants is shown in Figure 4. The presyllable has an unspecified onset, which is filled in by material from the base, and the vowel [a].

2.5.3 Partial reduplication

Partial reduplication is reduplication in which only part of the base is copied, in this case, the main syllable of a bisyllabic word, resulting in an additional syllable following the base. The reduplicated syllable copies the main syllable of the base exactly with no segmental alternations. In the examples in S2, the base is the first phonological word. In each case, the main syllable of the bisyllabic words is copied completely with no alternating segments.

S2: Partial reduplication in Pacoh*kən.tiʔ.tiʔ*

(a) ‘sometimes’

tər.kit.kit

(b) ‘be close to’

2.5.4 Infix and template reduplication

Pacoh has a type of full template reduplication with an additional non-reduplicative /-i-/ infix.

S3: Presyllabic and template reduplication*ʔɛk.ʔi.ʔɛk*

‘raucous laughter’

2.6 Intonation

An intonational unit is characterized by having one primary phrasal stress, beyond the lexical stress of individual words. Attributes of intonation include pitch, contour, loudness, and pauses, among other related phenomena.

Pacoh is primarily a mora-timed language. The second syllables of bisyllabic words always have two moras and tend to be more phonetically prominent. As a result, bisyllabic words can in part condition phrasal intonation since stressed syllables tend to create intonational peaks in phonological phrases. However, the phonological shape of words

may not contribute as much to the intonation as the difference between content and function words. Content words tend to have more intonational prominence than grammatically functional words. Consider S4, which contains two intonational phrases to form a sentence. In each phrase, the intonation peak falls on a verb (content words), while the grammatical vocabulary (function words) tends to be low.

S4: Sample Pacoh intonational unit

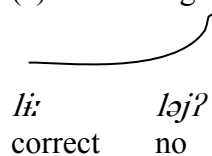
‘When it reaches here, it falls down here.’

	<i>toʔ</i> arrive	<i>ʔnnoh</i> there	<i>ki:</i> so	<i>de:ʔ</i> fall	<i>ʔnnoh</i> there
3	•			•	
2			•		
1		•			•

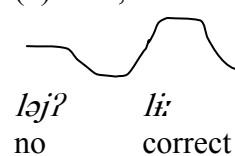
In general, non-interrogative statements have falling pitches at the ends of sentences, as in S5 and S5b, while interrogative statements rise, as in S5a. Despite the grammatical function of the interrogative sentence particle, the question intonation requires a rise in pitch, though the loudness of both words in the sentences is about equal.

S5: Interrogative versus statement intonation

(a) ‘Is that right?’



(b) ‘No, it’s not.’



2.7 Loanword phonology

Pacoh has experienced prolonged and increasingly intense language contact with Vietnamese. The most immediate effect of this is the borrowing of Vietnamese vocabulary. The phonologies of Pacoh and Vietnamese differ in a number of ways, and in borrowing from Vietnamese, Pacoh has either adopted the Vietnamese words without phonological changes or it has changed Vietnamese loans to fit Pacoh phonological constraints. In both cases, the loanword phonology reveals something about the range of phonological constraints in Pacoh, including some that are not otherwise attested in native Pacoh vocabulary.

Vietnamese is a tonal language, meaning it has lexically distinctive prosodic pitch and contour. Pacoh is not tonal and has not developed tones as a result of borrowing Vietnamese vocabulary. Still, glottalization of Vietnamese tones, which lasts the duration of the sonorant parts of Vietnamese syllables, is reflected in Pacoh phonology. In Table 23, the Vietnamese and Pacoh forms are compared. Vietnamese tones,¹⁹ based on Central Vietnamese around the city of Hue, are indicated using the 5-point (5 being high and 1 low). Glottalized tones are marked with a following small ‘g’. The name of the city of Hue reveals the possibility of a sonorant in a consonant cluster in contrast with native vocabulary (§2.4.3).

¹⁹ For a modern description of these tones, see Alves (forthcoming, SEALS XII) on Vietnamese dialects.

Open and checked (i.e. having non-sonorant finals) syllables are, except for tones, unchanged. The borrowing of glottalized forms from Vietnamese, however, has led to the creation of a post-glottalized nasal in Pacoh. Although native Pacoh words contain only post-glottalized glides, apparently no phonological constraints exist to prevent them.

Table 23: Vietnamese loanwords in Pacoh

Gloss	Vietnamese	Pacoh
‘hour’	<i>jəː</i> ³³	<i>jəː</i>
‘often’	<i>tʰiəŋ</i> ³³ - <i>tʰiəŋ</i> ³³	<i>tʰiəŋ-tʰiəŋ</i>
‘also’	<i>ku:ŋ</i> ^{m31g}	<i>ku:ŋ</i> [?]
‘punish’	<i>fə:t</i> ⁴⁵	<i>fə:t</i>
‘study’	<i>hɔ:k</i> ^{l3g}	<i>hɔ:k</i>
‘artisan’	<i>tʰəː</i> ^{l3g}	<i>tʰəː?</i>
‘Huế city’	<i>hweː</i> ⁴⁵	<i>hweː?</i>

3 *Morphology*

The word-formation patterns²⁰ dealt with in this chapter are grouped by syntactic category (i.e. nouns, verbs, or adverbs) and phonological type (i.e. reduplicatives or clause-incorporative forms).²¹ Affixes and reduplicants are discussed in this grammar in terms of analogical patterns. Analogical sets are provided showing bases and derived forms. Table 24 lists the affixes associated with classes of verbs and nouns, including the affixes, the syntactic categories of both source and derived word forms, associated meanings shared by the derived forms in each affix category, and comments on the phonological constraints. /C/ indicates a consonant copied from the initial of the root, and /V/ a vowel copied from the root. Throughout this section, affixes are marked off with brackets to indicate their abstract phonological forms as opposed to their actual allomorphic variation.

Table 24: Pacoh verbal affixes²²

Affix	Source form	Derived form	Derived form meaning	Constraints on base form
[pa-]	verb	trans. verb	‘to cause to X’	1 or 2 syllables
[ta-]	verb	verb	‘to X involuntarily’	1 syllable only
[pi-]	stative verb	causative verb	‘to cause to be X’	1 syllable only
[par ₂ -]	transitive verb	causative verb	‘to cause each other to X’	1 syllable only
[ti-]	transitive verb	stative verb	‘to be X-ed’	1 syllable only
[Ca-]	transitive verb	intrans. verb	‘to do X completely’	1 syllable only
[tar-]	transitive verb	intrans. verb	‘to X each other’	1 or 2 syllables

Continued over

²⁰ The primary sources on Pacoh word-formation patterns include articles by R. Watson (1966), S. Watson (1964, 1966), by Nguyễn Văn Lợi, Đoàn Văn Phúc, and Phan Xuân Thành (1986, hereafter ND&P). S. Watson described Pacoh pronoun paradigms and a variety of noun and verb word forms.

²¹ The data accounted for are not complete. S. Watson (1966) deals with a few other types of verb-related word-formation patterns. The data I collected included some, but not all, of the categories S. Watson described. Regional variation, language contact with Vietnamese or neighbouring, non-Vietnamese languages, and general language change over time (since the 1960s) may have contributed to apparent differences in data.

²² Most of the affixes listed in Table 24 exhibit some phonological variation with no apparent phonological justification, suggesting fossilized changes in progress.

Affix	Source form	Derived form	Derived form meaning	Constraints on base form
[CV-]	intrans. verb	intrans. verb	‘to X in general’	1 syllable only
Reduplicant	intrans. verb	intrans. verb	‘to pretend to X’	1 or 2 syllables
[par ₁ -]	verb	noun	‘the action of X’	mostly 1 syllable some bisyllabic
[Can-]	verb	noun	‘the result of X’ ‘the instrument for X’ ‘the location of X’	1 or 2 syllables

Though the degree of productivity of Pacoh affixes is difficult to posit precisely (and indeed, this productivity may be changing), the affixes can be put into three general categories—high, medium, and low—based on the number of occurrences of those substrings with over 1,000 Pacoh words²³ (taken from S. Watson (1966)). Only those in the high range can still freely form new words, while those in the medium range have minimal productivity, and those in the low range are essentially fossilized remnants. Reduplication has not been tested for productivity, but with such a substantial number of reduplicative forms, it appears to be at least somewhat productive.

Table 25: Degree of derivational productivity in Pacoh²⁴

Range	Form	Monosyllabic	Bisyllabic	Total
High	[par ₁ -]	631	15	646
	[tar-]	467	151	618
Medium	[ta-]	346	0	346
	[pa-]	299	20	319
	[CV-]	203	0	203
Low	[-an-]	106	42	148
	[pi-]	74	0	74
	[par ₂ -]	42	0	42
	[ti-]	14	0	14
	[Ca-]	13	0	13

3.1 Noun morphology

Nouns created with affixes in Pacoh include common nouns, lexical compounds of semantically specialized and generalized nouns, pronominal nouns, time word nouns, and kinship and animal nouns.

²³ Some of these phonological words could actually represent more than one syntactic word in the mental lexicon, each belonging to a different subcategory of the same part of speech.

²⁴ These statistics are based on data in the late 1960s, three decades before the writing of this grammar. Many of the speakers with whom I came into contact in 1997 and 1998 still recognized some of those forms, but others did not, suggesting that some of those forms are being lost.

3.1.1 Common nouns

Pacoh has a class of bisyllabic nouns derived from verbs and containing the infix [-an-], or various allomorphs, at their syllable junctures.²⁵ The consonants in these substrings assimilate partially to place of articulation of following consonants or completely into following /l/ or /r/ segments; however, these are tendencies rather than absolutes, and exceptions exist. The vowel in the infix is always realized phonetically as schwa in closed presyllables.

Table 26: Common noun word-formation

Verb	Noun
<i>ka.tip</i> ‘to cork’	<i>kən.tip</i> ‘cork’
<i>ta.paʔ</i> ‘to make fish sauce’	<i>təm.paʔ</i> ‘fish sauce’
<i>ta.ŋih</i> ‘to breathe’	<i>tər.ŋih</i> ‘breath’
<i>kar</i> ‘to drill a hole’	<i>ka.na:r</i> ‘hole-driller’
<i>kaj</i> ‘to plow’	<i>ka.naj</i> ‘plow’
<i>klaʔ</i> ‘to prop’	<i>kəl.laʔ</i> ‘prop’
<i>kuəjʔ</i> ‘to scoop up with one’s hands’	<i>ka.nuəjʔ</i> ‘two handfuls’

These words have expected syntactic distributional properties according to their semantic features (e.g. being count or non-count nouns and what kinds of measure words semantically match them). S6 contains a sentence with two words derivationally related by this infix, *kəh* ‘to cut’ and *kən.nəh* ‘a cutting tool’. Some additional analogical pairs are given in S7.

S6: Derivationally related verb and noun

pɛ:h kən.nəh kəh fɛ:c buəjʔ
 take cutter cut meat fish
 ‘Take the cutter and cut the fish meat.’

S7: Analogical set for [-an-] nouns

ta:f ‘to hammer’ : *tər.na:f* ‘a hammer’ ::
klaʔ ‘to prop’ : *kəl.laʔ* ‘something that props’

3.1.2 Kinship and animal noun word-formation

Most Pacoh kinship terms share the presyllable [ʔa-].²⁶ The process of developing these kinship terms apparently has been fossilized, for no analogical paradigm exists without [ʔa-]. Table 27, which contains a list of Pacoh kinship terms, is representative, not exhaustive.

²⁵ While historically this represents the Proto Mon-Khmer instrumental infix [-rn-], and Pacoh shows some fossilized remnants of it, this grammar lists only the one infix for the synchronic description.

²⁶ This is also the case for other Katuic languages, such as Bru, Katu, and Taoih, as described in X.H. Nguyễn (1998).

Table 27: Pacoh kinship terms

Form	Gloss
<i>ʔa.miəŋ</i>	‘brother, older’
<i>ʔa.kaj</i>	‘child’
<i>ʔa.kaj-ʔa.kan</i>	‘daughter’
<i>ʔa.ʔam</i>	‘father’
<i>ʔa.ka:ʔ</i>	‘grandmother’
<i>ʔa.ʔi:</i>	‘mother’
<i>ʔa.ʔε:m</i>	‘sibling, younger’
<i>ʔa.mə:ʔ</i>	‘sister, older’
<i>ʔa.kaj-kə:ŋ</i>	‘son’
<i>ʔm.pɪ:t</i>	‘uncle, older’
<i>ʔa.ɲi:</i>	‘uncle, younger’

A noticeable number of Pacoh words for animals also have the word-initial [ʔa-] form, including a large number of terms for animals common in the Pacoh environment. Table 28 with examples is not exhaustive since about four dozen lexical entries for animals with [ʔa-] are found in ND&P’s Pacoh–Taoih–Vietnamese dictionary.²⁷

Table 28: Pacoh terms for animals²⁸

Form	Gloss
<i>ʔa.ʔət</i>	‘animal’
<i>ʔa.ɲi:t-ɲət</i>	‘bee (mason)’
<i>ʔa.cə:ʔ</i>	‘bird’
<i>ʔa.məʔ</i>	‘cat’
<i>ʔa.cə:</i>	‘dog’
<i>ʔa.ta:</i>	‘duck’
<i>ʔa.ciəŋ</i>	‘elephant’
<i>ʔa.kuət</i>	‘frog’
<i>ʔa.djəʃ</i>	‘monkey’
<i>ʔa.bil</i>	‘mouse’
<i>ʔa.li:k</i>	‘pig’
<i>ʔa.piəŋ</i>	‘spider’

3.1.3 Pronoun morphology

Pacoh pronominal nouns related by affixes include pronouns and demonstratives. The Pacoh pronoun system (§7.3.3) is systematic, having a three-way distinction of both person and number, thereby creating a basic nine-pronoun set. This basic set of nine pronouns is tripled by the addition of the dative and possessive sets.

²⁷ This form, seen in both cognate and non-cognate roots in other Katic languages, and indeed, other Mon-Khmer branches, is most likely a Proto Mon-Khmer velar as posited by Smith (1975).

²⁸ The Pacoh forms for ‘dog’ and ‘bird’ are Mon-Khmer cognates, as is most likely the Pacoh word for ‘elephant’, sometimes thought to be a Tai-Kadai loanword.

Table 29: Pacoh pronouns

Number	Person	General	Dative	Possessive
Singular	first	<i>ki:</i>	<i>?a.ki:</i>	<i>?ŋ.ki:</i>
	second	<i>maj</i>	<i>?a.maj</i>	<i>?m.maj</i>
	third	<i>dɔ:</i>	<i>?a.dɔ:</i>	<i>?n.dɔ:</i>
Dual-Plural	first	<i>naŋ</i>	<i>?a.naŋ</i>	<i>?n.naŋ</i>
	second	<i>?i.na:</i>	<i>?a.dɔ:-?i.na:</i>	<i>?n.dɔ:-?i.na:</i>
	third	<i>?ana:</i>	<i>?a.dɔ:-?a.na:</i>	<i>?n.dɔ:-?a.na:</i>
Plural	first	<i>he:</i>	<i>?a.he:</i>	<i>?ŋ.he:</i>
	second	<i>?i.pe:</i>	<i>?a.dɔ:-?i.pe:</i>	<i>?n.dɔ:-?i.pe:</i>
	third	<i>?a.pe:/ ŋa:j</i>	<i>?a.dɔ:-?a.pe:/ ?a.ŋa:j</i>	<i>?n.dɔ:-?a.pe:/ ?ŋ.ŋa:j</i>

Among non-singular pronouns, second person pronouns have [ʔi-] presyllables, and third person pronouns have [ʔa-]. Dative pronouns share the prefix [ʔa-]. Possessive pronouns have homorganic nasal prefixes, matching place of articulation. Bisyllabic pronouns take third person pronouns as special affixes.

Pacoh demonstrative pronominal nouns (§7.3.1) have similar overall prosodic and phonological shapes, being bisyllabic and having homorganic nasal presyllables and final [h] consonants. Medial and distal demonstratives differ in vowel length, having short and long vowels respectively.²⁹

Table 30: Pacoh demonstrative pronominal nouns

Distance	Fore/Higher	Aft/Lower	Beside
Proximal	<i>?n.nɛh / nɛh</i>		
Medial	<i>?ŋ.koh / koh</i>		
	<i>?n.tih</i>	<i>?n.tɔh</i>	<i>?n.trah</i>
Distal	<i>?n.ti:h</i>	<i>?n.tɔ:h</i>	<i>?n.trah</i>

3.1.4 Lexical compounds

Considering all noun-noun sequences to be syntactic constructions rather than single lexical items causes difficulties in analyzing semantic compositionality and case analysis, and misses cross-linguistic generalizations about the way languages form single lexical items with phonetic material from two nouns.³⁰ Hence, such forms are treated here as single words rather than syntactic constructions with two nouns. For example, in S8, the resulting forms with the word /jʊən/ ‘Vietnamese’ cannot be separated by other words; additional modifiers can only be added outside the forms.

S8: Analogical set for semantically specified nouns

tər.haw ‘medicine’ : *tər.haw-jʊən* ‘Vietnamese medicine’ ::
duŋ ‘house’ : *duŋ-jʊən* ‘Vietnamese house’

²⁹ The correspondence between length and distance in demonstratives is even more complex in the closely related language, Bru (cf. Hoàng V.M. (1997)).

³⁰ As discussed in Ng and Starosta (1996) on this matter in discussing Chinese word formation.

Taking this approach is crucial for Pacoh semantically generalized nouns, formed with phonological material from two or more nouns that have overlapping semantic fields, as exemplified in S9. This word-forming strategy works with more than two words for the analogical input, as in S10. Such nouns also provide phonological material used in clause-incorporation, as discussed in §3.3.1.

S9: Analogical set for semantically generalized nouns

<i>duŋ</i>	<i>ve:l</i>	:	<i>duŋ-ve:l</i>	::
‘house’	‘village’		‘society’	
<i>ʔa.ʔi:</i>	<i>ʔa.ʔam</i>	:	<i>ʔa.ʔi-ʔa.ʔam</i>	
‘mother’	‘father’		‘parents’	

S10: Analogical set for generalized nouns

<i>ʔn.truəj</i>	<i>ʔa.cə:</i>	<i>ʔa.lik</i>	:	<i>ʔn.truəj-ʔa.cə:-ʔa.lik::</i>
‘chicken’	‘dog’	‘pig’		‘domestic animals’
<i>praʔ</i>	<i>ti.riəʔ</i>	<i>ʔa.kaj</i>	:	<i>praʔ-ti.riəʔ-ʔa.kaj</i>
‘money’	‘buffalo’	‘child’		‘wealth’

3.1.5 Time-word morphology

Pacoh has a highly explicit system of referring to the past or future by number of days or years, from one up through ten, as listed in Table 31.³¹ These words show analogical sets for four affix types: (a) previous day, (b) previous year, (c) coming day, and (d) coming year. These affixes apply with complete regularity to those time nouns referring to three or more, but vary phonologically somewhat for reference to two years or days. All contain words for ‘day’ or ‘year’, and most have rhymes of numerals from 3 to 10 matching the number of days or years indicated. Past forms for both days and years have the segment [-ʔn.tr-], while future days [pər] differ from future years [-ku.m-].

Table 31: Pacoh time reference paradigm

Gloss	Form	Gloss	Form
day	<i>ʔi.ŋaj</i>	year	<i>ku.mə:ŋ</i>
today	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-ki:/ ʔi.ŋaj-ʔŋ.koh</i>	this year	<i>ku.mə:-ʔn.nəh</i>
yesterday	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-ʔi.no:</i>	last year	<i>ku.mə:-ʔi.no:</i>
2 days ago	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-ʔn.tro:</i>	2 years ago	<i>ku.mə:-ʔn.tra:</i>
3 days ago	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-ʔn.tre:</i>	3 years ago	<i>ku.mə:-ʔn.tre:</i>
4 days ago	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-ʔn.truən</i>	4 years ago	<i>ku.mə:-ʔn.truən</i>
5 days ago	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-ʔn.tro:ŋ</i>	5 years ago	<i>ku.mə:-ʔn.tro:ŋ</i>
6 days ago	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-ʔn.trat</i>	6 years ago	<i>ku.mə:-ʔn.trat</i>
7 days ago	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-ʔn.tro:l</i>	7 years ago	<i>ku.mə:-ʔn.tro:l</i>
8 days ago	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-ʔn.tro:l</i>	8 years ago	<i>ku.mə:-ʔn.tro:l</i>
9 days ago	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-ʔn.triəʃ</i>	9 years ago	<i>ku.mə:-ʔn.triəʃ</i>
10 days ago	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-ʔn.trit</i>	10 years ago	<i>ku.mə:-ʔn.trit</i>

³¹ Similar patterns are seen throughout Katuic, West Bahnaric, Kasseng and Alak (Paul Sidwell, pers. comm.).

Gloss	Form	Gloss	Form
tomorrow	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-pəx.no:</i>	next year	<i>ku.mə:-ʔn.nəh</i>
2 days later	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-pəx.ra</i>	2 years later	<i>ku.mə:-ku.mə:</i>
3 days later	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-pəx.re:</i>	3 years later	<i>ku.mə:-ku.mə:</i>
4 days later	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-pəx.rɔ̀n</i>	4 years later	<i>ku.mə:-ku.mɔ̀n</i>
5 days later	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-pəx.ro:ŋ</i>	5 years later	<i>ku.mə:-ku.mo:ŋ</i>
6 days later	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-pəx.rat</i>	6 years later	<i>ku.mə:-ku.mat</i>
7 days later	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-pəx.rə:l</i>	7 years later	<i>ku.mə:-ku.mə:l</i>
8 days later	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-pəx.rə:l</i>	8 years later	<i>ku.mə:-ku.mə:l</i>
9 days later	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-pəx.rjəf</i>	9 years later	<i>ku.mə:-ku.mjəf</i>
10 days later	<i>ʔi.ŋaj-pəx.rit</i>	10 years later	<i>ku.mə:-ku.mit</i>

3.2 Verb morphology

Pacoh verb morphology shows several semantic functions, some with more significant syntactic effects regarding the distribution of subjects and objects.³²

3.2.1 Causative verbs

What S. Watson (1966) called ‘causative verbs’ constitutes a verb category also seen in many other Mon-Khmer languages.³³ Such verbs share a presyllable with the general shape [pa-] and the semantic function of causing their objects to perform an action. Table 32 is a partial list.

Table 32: Pacoh causative verbs

Form	Gloss
<i>pa.kləw</i>	‘to cause to answer’
<i>ta.hə:m</i>	‘to cause to bathe’
<i>pa.ŋəjʔ</i>	‘to cause to drink’
<i>pa.ca:</i>	‘to cause to eat’
<i>pa.cə:m</i>	‘to cause to know’
<i>pa.hə:k</i>	‘to cause to learn’
<i>pa.klən</i>	‘to cause to play’
<i>pa.ʔa:k</i>	‘to cause to play’
<i>ʔa.fəx</i>	‘to cause to rise’
<i>pa.hət</i>	‘to cause to sniff’

³² S. Watson (1966) described nine verb morphemes and their assorted allomorphs. The primary affixes tested during my own fieldwork included those that form causative verbs, reciprocal verbs, and continuative verbs. Watson also described what she called resultant-state, involuntary, and completive verbs, forms that did not occur in my data and have not been included in this grammar.

³³ For descriptions of causative verbs and related word forms in other Mon-Khmer languages, see Costello (1966) on Katu, Jenner and Pou (1982) on Khmer, Hoàng and Tà (1998) on Bru, V.L. Nguyễn (1993) on Ruc, and H.H. Nguyễn and V.L. Nguyễn (1998) on Katu.

Each of these verbs has a derivationally related non-causative verb, as in S11. While the source may be from any syntactic verb class, most are monosyllabic. The phonological base, whether phonologically conditioned or not, does have a number of phonological variants. In addition to the initial [p], some have initial [t] and [ʔ], demonstrating the irregularity of lexical derivations as well as the likelihood that these forms have a long existence in Pacoh, which accounts for such variation.

S11: Analogical set for verbs with causative presyllables

kap ‘to bite’ : *pa.kap* ‘to cause to bite’ ::
biʔ ‘to sleep’ : *pa.biʔ* ‘to cause to sleep’

Pacoh causative verbs cross over several verb subcategories, as listed in Table 32, taking various arguments and complements.³⁴ Some take merely subjects and objects, as in S12, while others require locational or verbal complements, such as in S13 with a dative complement and S14 with an additional lower verb complement.

S12: Causative simple transitive verb

ki: pa.ŋə:jʔ jəw
 1s make-drink friend
 ‘I had my friend drink.’

S13: Causative transitive oblique-object verb

ki: pa.cə:m ba:j ʔa.də:
 1s teach lesson to-3s
 ‘I taught the lesson to him.’

S14: Causative predicate-taking dative verb

ki: pa.ca: ʔa.də: ca: də:j
 1s feed to-3s eat rice
 ‘I made him eat the rice.’

3.2.2 Verbs with [ʔu-] and [ʔi-] pronominal prefixes

Verbs in Pacoh that have prefixes³⁵ [ʔu-] or [ʔi-] may not take overt subject nouns. The entire range of linguistic functions (i.e. semantico-syntactic and pragmatic) and degree of productivity of these affixes has not been entirely determined.

S. Watson (1964:88) noted the occurrence of [ʔu-] verbs, which, she stated, substitutes for the third person pronoun, as in S15. The resulting forms take only human-subject interpretations, as some examples show in S16.

S15: [ʔu-] verb

ʔu.to:ŋ ni:m məh naʔ ʔa.ca:j
 3s-say only one UNIT brother
 ‘He said he has only one brother.’

³⁴ See Alves (2001) for a discussion of the subcategories of Pacoh causative verbs as well as those in other Mon-Khmer languages.

³⁵ Another hypothesis is that these are clitics, that is, phonologically bound but syntactically free forms. There is insufficient data at present to deal with this question.

S16: Analogical set for [ʔu-] verb

po:k ‘go’ : *ʔu.po:k* ‘He/she goes’ ::
dɔ:k ‘read’ : *ʔu.dɔ:k* ‘He/she reads’

The presyllable [ʔi-] is used with verbs to indicate indefinite person (see §10.2.3). R. Watson (1966a:168) termed these presyllables ‘subject fillers’. It may have an impersonal reference to refer to an action in a general sense, as in S17(a), but it often follows a stative verb, as in S17(b). It is also seen in topic-comment constructions in lieu of passive marking (see §4.1),³⁶ as in S18.

S17: [ʔi-] verb as impersonal

ʔi.taʔ *pəl.lo:* *ʔa.lɔ:ŋ*
 one-make tube wood
 (a) ‘One makes a wooden tube.’

ʔn.nɛh *ʔɔ:* *ʔi.ca:*
 this good one-eat
 (b) ‘This is good for one to eat.’

S18: [ʔi-] verb

ʔn.kar *ʔa.pən* *ho:j* *ʔi.sip*
 skin bear able one-wear
 ‘As for bearskin, one can wear it.’

3.2.3 Plural stative verbs

The presyllable [Ca-] (‘C’ is a consonant copied from the initial of the base form) combines with monosyllabic stative verbs to indicate that the semantic properties refer to plural subjects (overtly marked plural or not) which generally are inanimate nouns.

S19: Plural stative verb

duŋ *ka.kət*
 house small (plural)
 ‘The houses were small.’

S20: Plural stative verbs

bɛ:ŋ ‘healthy’ : *ba.bɛ:ŋ* ‘healthy (plural)’ ::
prɛ:ŋ ‘dry’ : *pa.prɛ:ŋ* ‘dry (plural)’

3.2.4 Reciprocal verbs

Certain Pacoh verbs with the presyllable [tər-] (and similar phonological forms, such as [ʔr-] and [kər-]) mark reciprocity, and reciprocal Pacoh verbs thus require plural or coordinative subjects. A related form is the word-initial [pər-], seen in verbs that are both causative and reciprocal.

³⁶ The notion of a language without passive (at least in the traditional European sense) is controversial. Arguments for such are seen for Vietnamese (Alves (1998) with various citations).

S21: Analogical set for reciprocal verbs

ta? ‘to fight’ : *tər.ta?* ‘to fight each other’ ::
fuə ‘to search’ : *tər.fuə* ‘to search for each other’

3.2.5 Resultative adverbs

The prefix [ʔa-], always seen in combination with monosyllabic verb roots, marks adverbs with resultative meanings (see §5.4). Few examples exist in available data.

S22: Analogical set for resultative adverbs

faj ‘full’ : *ʔa.faj* ‘fully’ ::
preŋ ‘dry’ : *ʔa.preŋ* ‘to a degree of dryness’

3.3 Reduplication

Reduplicative patterns in Mon-Khmer languages exhibit a wide range of semantically complex and explicit words (typically active and stative verbs, but also nouns and adverbs), for example, words expressing a very specific kind of body shape or the specific kinds of movements made by animals or other natural phenomena.³⁷

Some common semantic fields expressed by Pacoh reduplicants include some that are, being semantically highly specific, difficult to translate precisely, such as physical sensations, odours, confused/disordered situations, and semantically specialized actions. Pacoh reduplicants include verbs (both stative and non-stative), nouns and adverbs. Of the ninety-eight reduplicants in available data, nine are adverbs, twenty are nouns, twenty-five are non-stative verbs, and forty-two are stative verbs.

Reduplication in Pacoh, as in many Mon-Khmer languages, often involves both the copying of prosodic templates and the simultaneous alternation of segmental material, such as a consonant or the rhyme of a syllable. This subsection describes three types of reduplicative patterns in Pacoh: template reduplication, template-plus-presyllable reduplication, and clause-incorporation, as shown in Table 21 in §2.5.

3.3.1 Clause-incorporative word-formation

This reduplicative word-formation process involves phonological material from sentences or parts of sentences in reduplication.³⁸ They generally involve reduplicant words and generalized nouns, as in S23(a) and (b) respectively, in which the reduplicant

³⁷ See V.H. Hoàng (1979, 1985, 1987, 1993, all in Vietnamese) for discussion on reduplication in Vietnamese, the Katuic languages, and other Mon-Khmer languages. Bahnar reduplication (Banker 1964b) expresses contrariness of notions of expectation, disgust, actions to be followed by other actions, and intensification. To give an indication of the productivity of this word-forming process, an entire dictionary (Viện Ngôn Ngữ Học 1995), containing about 5,000 entries, has been devoted to reduplicant forms in Vietnamese.

³⁸ The primary source on this clause-incorporation process comes from R. Watson (1966b) where these constructions are called ‘post-predicate predicate-takings.’ Vu (1998) dealt with the same issue in Vietnamese. Both recognized that these ‘splittable compounds’ involved either reduplicants or lexical compounds that have generic meanings.

for ‘sad’ *rəw-ʔi.ri:* and the generalized noun ‘to work (non-specific)’ *pruəʔ-təm.paʔ* are split, while the non-reduplicants are copied.

S23: Regular and clause-incorporative verb

ʔa.kəp-rəw-ʔa.kəp-ʔi.ri:

don’t-sad-don’t-sad³⁹

(a) ‘Don’t be sad.’

ɲa:j taʔ-pruəʔ-taʔ-təm.paʔ

3p do-work-do-work

(b) ‘They’re working.’

The starting point for the reduplication can be either the verb or subject of a sentence (R. Watson 1976), the latter instance resulting in complete sentential reduplication. The word-formation strategy uses prosodic feet as the basis for the analogical pattern. An analogical set is given in S24, in which there are sequences of three prosodic feet for the nouns in the input.

S24: Analogical set for clause-incorporation reduplication

jo:l praʔ-ti.riəʔ-ʔa.kaj : *jo:l-praʔ-jo:l-ti.riəʔ-jo:l-ʔa.kaj* ::

‘still have’ ‘wealth’ : ‘still have wealth’

taʔ kəx.riəŋ-kəx.rə:ŋ : *taʔ-kəx.riəŋ-taʔ-kəx.rə:ŋ*

‘make’ ‘fences’ ‘make fences’

3.3.2 Presyllable plus template reduplication

In template-plus-presyllable reduplication, monosyllabic verbs are copied and the syllable [ʔi] is added between the two identical forms. The resulting intransitive verbs focus on the semantic generality of the actions. The fact that these verbs are always intransitive is part of the semantic generalizing.

S25: Analogical set for generalized verbs

ca: ‘to eat’ : *ca:-ʔi.ca:* ‘to eat in general’ ::

taʔ ‘to work’ : *taʔ-ʔi.taʔ* ‘to work in general’

One pattern of reduplication that Watson (1976) described as having the semantic properties of pretence involves the use of the verb *taʔ* ‘to do’ and a reduplicant verb, the first verb having a homorganic nasal, and the second, a [ʔi-] word-initial presyllable. In S26, periods link syllables while the hyphen links feet/phonological words.

S26: Analogical set for pretence verbs

biʔ ‘to sleep’ : *taʔ-ʔm.biʔ-ʔi.biʔ* ‘to pretend to sleep’ ::

cəʔ ‘to die’ : *taʔ-ɲ.cəʔ-ʔi.cəʔ* ‘to pretend to be dead’

³⁹ Hyphens, as used in transcriptions in this grammar, indicate phonological words, not morphs. However, to clarify the portions of the incorporated forms, in this subsection, the ‘morphs’ of transcriptions and interlinear glosses do correspond as indicated by hyphens.

3.3.3 Template reduplication

Template reduplication involves entire phonological words—either one or two syllables. The phonological patterns are consistent in number of syllables (one to two or two to four) and the overall syllable shape (CV to CVCV or CVC to CVCCVC), though there are several patterns of segmental alternations (§2.5.3).

The difference between verbs and derivationally related reduplicant forms often involves some kind of semantic specialization, as in S27, though the exact result is not predictable.

S27: Analogical set for reduplication with semantic specialization

kəl.la:ʔ ‘timid/shy’ : *kəl.la:ʔ-kəl.liər* ‘cowardly’ ::
ka.caŋ ‘to smile’ : *ka.caŋ-ka.bi:p* ‘to smile faintly’

For noun reduplicants in particular, there is often a generalized meaning that refers to a whole class of nouns rather than to one member of the set, as in S28. The phonological material from these generalized nouns can take part in the clause-incorporation discussed in § 3.3.1.

S28: Analogical set for reduplicant nouns

ʔa.lɔ:ŋ ‘tree’ : *ʔa.lɔ:ŋ-ʔa.lɛ:* ‘vegetation’ ::
ʃɛ:c ‘meat’ : *ʃɛ:c-ʃɛ:ŋ* ‘meat in general’

4 *Overview of basic phrase structure*

While the remaining sections on lexical subcategories contain substantial discussion on more specific aspects of distributional properties of Pacoh word classes, this section summarizes briefly what the overall structure is for basic and complex sentences as well as noun phrase structure and relationships between noun phrases.

4.1 Basic sentence structure

In Pacoh, subjects precede verbs, and objects often follow verbs. Notable issues include subjectless sentences, topic prominence (fronting) of objects (what in some cases can be considered middle voice), and the varying positions of location and time phrases and question words/phrases. In general, Pacoh should be viewed as a language with topic-comment structure and the likely order of elements that obtain from such syntactic typology, such as the apparent use of the middle voice.

- Pacoh is generally an SVO language. Note in S29 that while the imperative does have a subject pronoun, the lower clause does not.

S29: SVO order in Pacoh

ʔa.ʔem *ʔaj* *biʔ* *pat* *den*
you (lower) remember sleep extinguish lamp

‘Remember when you (younger than speaker) sleep to put out the light.’

- While subjects are often used in Pacoh sentences, they may be omitted in appropriate discourse contexts and with certain kinds of verbs (e.g. impersonal verbs §10.5).

S30: Subject dropped in discourse

ʔa.le:ʔ *ʔi.jo:h*
tired yet

(a) ‘(Are you) tired yet?’

jo:h *ʔa.le:ʔ*
not yet tired

(b) ‘(I’m) not yet (tired)?’

S31: Subjectless verbs of existence or state

yo:l dɔj ləj?
 remain rice not

(a) ‘Is there still some rice left?’

?a.tɔ? ləj? ?iŋ ɲɔj? si:w
 hot no want drink liquor

(b) ‘When it (the weather) is hot, you shouldn’t drink liquor.’

- As a topic-comment language, Pacoh does have objects that occur sentence-initially in topicalized constructions. Generally, these are objects of verbs with more transitive-like meanings. However, subjects, locations, and other argument complements may also be focused at the fronts of sentences. Topicalization can occur with a lexical marker (such as *?n.nɛh* ‘this’ or *ki:* ‘that’) or without one. See §9.4 for further details.⁴⁰

S32: Topic-comment sentences in Pacoh

?m.bar ?ən dɔ: pləj ki: li: ?iŋ
 thing that 1s buy 1s really want

(a) ‘It’s the one that he bought that I really want.’

ki? ?n.naw ?ən ləj? hoj ta? tu.miəŋ ki: pləj
 thus who that no able make crossbow LINK buy

(b) ‘So whoever can’t make crossbows buys them.’

- Equational constructions can occur with or without a linking word. The linking word (comment sentence particles §9.4) is more of a link between topic and comment than it is between subject and predicate.

S33: Contrasting Pacoh and English equational constructions

?n.nɛh la:⁴¹ kɾip
 this LINK mousetrap

(a) ‘As for this, it’s a mousetrap.’

?n.nɛh kɾip
 this mousetrap

(b) ‘This is a mousetrap.’

- There are instances in which there appears to be a kind of middle voice (see §10.1.2); there is no genuine passive marking in Pacoh.

S34: Middle voice

?a.bil cut siŋ
 mouse trap mousetrap

(a) ‘The mouse was trapped by the mousetrap.’

⁴⁰ Two useful works on topic-comment constructions in Vietnamese are those of Cáo (1992) and Clark (1996).

⁴¹ This word is a Vietnamese loanword *là* meaning ‘to be’ in equational sentences, though it is also used in similar topic-comment constructions in Vietnamese.

kɪp taʔ baŋ bul
 trap make by stock
 (b) ‘The *kup* trap is made of rock.’

- Negation in Pacoh is of two types: verbal negation and nominal negation. The general verbal negator is *ləjʔ* (§11.6), while nouns are negated by the word *ʔih* (§11.6).

S35: Negation in Pacoh

kɪ: ləjʔ cə:m taʔ tu.miəŋ
 1s no know make crossbow
 (a) ‘I don’t know how to make a crossbow.’

kɪ: ʔih ti.kuəj juən
 1s not person Vietnamese
 (b) ‘I am not a Vietnamese.’

- Comparison generally occurs with comparative prepositions (see §8.2), as in S36(a), though they are not absolutely necessary, as in S36(b). There is no distinct word to indicate the superlative.

S36: Comparison in Pacoh

praʔ kɪ: pɪt ti.lət ʔm.maj
 money 1s more than yours
 (a) ‘I have more money than you do.’

həmɔ:ŋ ki.dit li: juən
 Hmong poor very Vietnamese
 (b) ‘The Hmong are poorer than the Vietnamese.’

- Intensification is generally indicated by the word *li:* ‘very’ (homophonous with the word meaning ‘true’), which occurs typically before or after (more typically, after) certain stative verbs, as in S37(a) and (b), though active verbs may also be intensified, as in S37(c).

S37: Intensification in Pacoh

hɔ:k ka:ŋ pa.cəh li: ʔiən
 study speech Pacoh truly easy
 (a) ‘Learning Pacoh is very easy.’

dɔ: ho:j li: taʔ tu.miəŋ
 3s able very make crossbow
 (b) ‘He is very capable at making crossbows.’

dɔ: mɔ:t toʔ duŋ ʔa.cɔ: kap li:
 3s enter to house dog bite very
 (c) ‘He went into the house, and the dog gave him a really bad bite.’

- Location and time phrases may be flexibly placed at either ends of phrases.

S38: Location and time phrases in Pacoh

kɪ: po:k toʔ duŋ ʔn.tih
 1s go to house that
 (a) ‘I went to that house.’

to? duŋ ʔn.tih ki: po:k
to house that 1s went

(b) ‘It was to that house that I went.’

- The distribution of question words is complicated by Pacoh’s proximity with and influence from Vietnamese, a language which typically keeps its question words in their case-marked positions instead of sentence-initially. Information question words tend to be fronted in Pacoh, but fronting is not a requirement and exceptions occur (see §7.3.2 on interrogative pronouns).

S39: Question word positions

ʔa.məh maj pa.pi:
what 2s discuss

(a) ‘What are you talking about?’

maj pok tu.mə:
2s go to where

(b) ‘Where are you going?’

- Affirmative-negative questions, mood, and imperative tones may be indicated by the use of sentence-final particles (see §9).

S40: Sentence particles

ki: pa.pi: ʔo:n ʔa.maj kam.maŋ ʔaw
1s speak for to-2s listen IMP

(a) ‘When I talk to you, listen.’

ʔa.pe: ʔa.ʔe:m cə:m ləjʔ
plural SPNY know INT

(b) ‘Do you youngsters understand?’

4.2 Complex sentence structure

Independent clauses combine into multi-clause phrases in two ways in Pacoh, either with or without overt marking by words, such as conjunctions or clause-linking adverbs. While complex sentences with overt lexical markers are clearly identified, those without are identified by intonation and semantic context. Such multi-clause phrases have single intonational units and are, without one of the clauses, semantically incomplete within a discourse context.

- Condition is expressed with or without the lexical form *nam* ‘if’ or with a sentence particle clause connector (see §9.3 and §9.4) such as *la:* in S41(b).

S41: Conditional sentence

ʔa.toʔ ləjʔ ʔiŋ ʔɔjʔ si:w
hot no want drink liquor

(a) ‘When it (the weather) is hot, you shouldn’t drink liquor.’

nam ʔa.ca:j ta? viək ʔa.rəʔ ʔŋ.koh la: ʔa.le:ʔ li:
If SPMY do matters like that LINK tired very

(b) ‘If you work like that, you’ll be very tired.’

- Contrast can be implied but is generally indicated with the conjunction *ma:* ‘but’.⁴²

S42: Contrasting sentences

ho:m ηa:j ta? ma: ki: ləj? cə:m ta?
see they make but 1s no know make

‘I’ve seen people make them, but I don’t know how to make them.’

- Time sequence in multi-clause constructions is often not lexically marked, as in S43(a), although additional clause-linking words can be used, as in S43(b).

S43: Sequence of events

ki: khir ?n.noh la:j^h
it jump over this fall

(a) ‘Then it jumps over this and falls.’

jə: he: si.sət ηe? ve:l he: li: bu:j-?e:m
after 3p harvest all village 3p very pleased

(b) ‘After harvesting, the whole village was pleased.’ (R. Watson 1976)

- Purpose is typically expressed linearly, with the goal first and the purpose second. The second verb is generally unmarked, though *jə:n* ‘in order to’ can be used.

S44: Purpose sentence

ta? siŋ ?a.cuət ?a.bil
make trap catch mice

(a) ‘Make a trap to trap mice.’

ki: ta? jə:n bo:m ca:
1s work in order able eat

(b) ‘I work in order to be able to eat.’

4.3 Noun-phrase structure

Pacoh noun-phrase structure is strictly right-branching, descriptive modifying elements that follow the words they modify. However, beyond this general statement, the order of categories of elements follows some other more arbitrary rules. S45 demonstrates the order of elements in a Pacoh noun phrase.

S45: The Pacoh noun phrase

bar lam ?a.liŋ ?ən ?ɔ: ki: ?n.nəh
two UNIT pig RLTR good 1s this

‘these two good pigs of mine’

- Scope nouns (such as *məj* ‘each’ or *ηe?* ‘all’) may precede any noun subclass in accordance with expected semantic restrictions.

S46: Non-distributive scope noun

ηe? pɛ: na? cə:m jə:
all three UNIT know already

(a) ‘All three of those people know already.’

⁴² This is likely a Vietnamese loanword (*mà* ‘but’) also seen in languages of other ethnic minorities, such as the Bru (Katuić) and the Chrau (Bahnaric).

mɔːj naʔ ti.kuəj viː baːr lam mat
 each UNIT person have two UNIT eyes
 (b) ‘Every person has two eyes.’

- Numbers precede count nouns, and in the majority of instances, require count nouns, whether classifiers or measure words, to be grammatical. Without semantic context, S47(b) is not grammatical without *lam*, a commonly used unit noun for various categories of non-count nouns.⁴³

S47: Numbers in quantified noun phrases

mɔːj ti.ŋaːn cɛː
 one cup tea
 (a) ‘a cup of tea’

pɯən lam ti.kuəj
 four UNIT human
 (b) ‘four people’

- Count nouns precede non-count common nouns of corresponding semantic categories. In S48(a), the unit noun can only be followed by nouns having human semantic properties, while in S48(b), the unit noun requires noun dependents having the semantic property of roundness.

S48: Count nouns and required co-occurring non-count nouns

sɔːŋ naʔ ti.kuəj təm.mɔːj
 five UNIT person visit
 (a) ‘five visitors’

mu.ciːt kəl.ləŋ pɛːʔ
 ten UNIT banana
 (b) ‘ten bananas’

- After common nouns come descriptive stative verbs, adjective clauses, possessive pronouns, and demonstratives.

S49: Common nouns and their modifiers

ʔa.cɔː ket ʔn.dɔː
 dog small that
 (a) ‘that small dog’

ʔa.bɔːʔ məj
 family 2s
 (b) ‘your family’

ti.kuəj ʔən tər.doːk
 person that lazy
 (c) ‘a person who is lazy’

⁴³ See Jones (1970) and T’sou (1976) for further discussion of classifier constructions in Southeast Asian languages.

- Count nouns themselves can take this syntactic slot and be modified similarly.

S50: Count nouns with modifiers

lam ?ən pi:t li:
unit that big very
'a very big one'

4.4 Expressing relationships between nouns: prepositions and relator nouns

Location and direction in time and place are indicated in Pacoh through both prepositions (see Chapter 8) and what are called relator nouns (see §7.5 for a list of relator nouns). Though there is distributional overlap (both classes of words precede their noun complements) and some functional overlap between these two lexical categories, there are some reasons to keep them separate.

The primary reason is the ability of relator nouns to function as sentence subjects/topics and predicates/complements, in contrast with prepositions, which are non-predicational adjuncts. While both categories express location in a general sense, the locational prepositions are allative, indicating direction (as in S51(a)), while relator nouns are static, expressing essentially inalienably possessed location (as in S52(a)). Prepositions tend to be more grammaticalized and semantically abstract, for example, expressing comparison (as in S51(b)), while relator nouns express possession (as in S52(b)), in parallel with the possession location function.

While not a syntactic criterion, the historical derivation of these categories differs; Pacoh relator nouns are historically derived from nouns, while Pacoh prepositions tend to be derived from verbs. For example, while the dative preposition *ʃə:n* is most likely derived from a homophonous verb meaning 'to give' (an extremely common grammaticalization cline in East and Southeast Asia), the dative relator noun *?a.də:* is related to the homophonous dative pronoun meaning 'of him/her/it'..

S51: Prepositional phrases of direction and comparison

də: luh tɛ: kəl.luŋ duŋ
3s run from inside house
(a) 'He ran from inside the house.'

lam ?n.nɛh ?ə: ti.lət də: ?n.tih
UNIT this good more-than 3s that
(b) 'This one is better than that one.'

S52: Relator noun phrases

daŋ duŋ bar na? ?a.ʔi: ?a.kaj
place house two UNIT mother child
(a) 'At home, there is a mother and child.'

?n.nɛh ?n.də: t^həj
this of teacher
(b) 'This is the teacher's.'

5 *Adverbs*

Pacoh adverbs are postverbal elements that take their preceding verbs (or nominal or prepositional predicates) as their semantic scope. Pacoh adverbs consist of five categories, expressing or modifying in some way manner (including the interrogative), intensity, result, or simultaneous action or states. While general manner and result adverbs form hypothetically open classes, intensity, interrogative, and simultaneous adverbs are limited to small sets of words. Time nouns (§7.2.2) and prepositional phrases (§8.6.1) expressing time are dealt with in their respective sections.

Some adverbs in Pacoh have corresponding homophonous verbal forms. In S53(a), *ho:j₁* is a stative verb and the predicate centre of its clause, while in S53(b), *ho:j₂* is an intensifying adverb. The adverb *ho:j₂* cannot be preposed in S53(b), and interpreting *ho:j₂* as a separate verb would cause a somewhat different interpretation (i.e. it does not mean ‘He tells stories, and he is very capable.’).

S53: Comparing homophonous verbs and adverbs

dɔ: *ho:j₁* *li:*

3s capable very

(a) ‘He’s very capable.’

dɔ: *ʔn.fuər* *ho:j₂* *li:*

3s tell stories capably very

(b) ‘He tells stories very capably.’

The defining characteristic of adverbs precludes verb-complement-taking verbs such as *liəh* ‘again’, with similar semantic functions, from being categorized as adverbs as seen by their ability to take the subject-replacing presyllable [ʔu-] (§3.2.2).

S54: Repetition predicate-taking verb with subject prefix

ʔu.liəh *bu:j-ʔem*

3s-again happy

‘He was happy again.’

5.1 General adverbs

Pacoh manner adverbs constitute the largest subclass of adverbs, covering a wide range of semantic fields, as listed in §12.1. Most adverbs in §12.1 are manner adverbs, though

there are also adverbs of extent, repetition, sequence, and singularity. S55 demonstrates some intensified adverbs. Notice in S55(c) that the manner adverb is kept before the object, ‘the Pacoh language’.

S55: Manner adverbs

dɔː la.luh ɲaʔ liː

3s run fast very

(a) ‘He ran very fast.’

ʔa.kəp toːŋ ɲən liː

don’t speak loud very

(b) ‘Don’t speak loudly.’

maj hɔːk ʔɔː kaːŋ-pa.koh

2s learn well Pacoh language

(c) ‘You’ve learned Pacoh well.’

Manner adverbs are the adverbial complements (i.e., they are required) of inanimate-subject intransitive verbs (§10.1.2), which require inanimate subjects where the verb semantically ‘affects’ the verb, as in S56.

S56: Adverb after inanimate-subject verb

ʔaːw ʔŋ.koh ʃiːp ɲjəjʔ

shirt that wear suitable

‘That shirt fits well.’

There is one repetition adverb, *lɔːj*, meaning ‘again’ or ‘more’. S57(a) and (b) show the position of the adverb both before and after objects.

S57 Repetition adverb

toːm lɔːj mɔːj kən.tiːʔ

say again one time

(a) ‘Say that again one time.’

caː dɔːj lɔːj

eat rice more

(b) ‘Eat more rice/eat rice more.’

The forms *boːm* and *ʔn.daj* are emphatic self adverbs, expressing ‘oneself’ or ‘one’s own’. In S58a, the adverb precedes the object.

S58: Emphatic self adverbs

kiː taʔ boːm pi.daj

1s work self field

(a) ‘I worked on the field myself.’

baːr naʔ ʔa.ɲaː ʔat ʔn.daj

two people they live self

(b) ‘Those two live by themselves.’

The two sequential adverbs refer to the actor performing the action either before or after another external actor.

S59: Sequential adverbs

ʔa.na: to? triəŋ ʔa.fuəj t^həj-jaw? to? ta.tun
 3d arrive school before teacher arrive after
 ‘They came first, and the teacher came after.’

5.2 Intensifying adverb

The only word in this class, *li:₃* ‘very/really’, is clearly related to the stative verb *li:₁* ‘true/correct’, as well as the VCT verb *li:₂* (§11.2), which also acts to intensify. The differences between these three homophonous forms are shown in S60(a) to S60(c). Both the adverb and the predicate-taking verb share the semantic function of intensification. The adverb, in its postverbal position, is considered by some speakers to be more natural than the predicate-taking verb, though both are nonetheless considered grammatical.

S60: *li:₁*, *li:₂*, and *li:₃*

li:₁ ləjʔ
 true no
 (a) ‘Is that right?’

kɪ li:₂ ʔa.lɛʔ
 1s truly tired
 (b) ‘I’m really tired.’

ʔŋ.koh pit li:₃
 that big very
 (c) ‘That’s very big.’

The word *li:₃* also appears with other adverbs as well as indefinite numeral nouns, such as *ʔe:* and *kli:ŋ* ‘many’ and *biəʔ* ‘few’.

S61: Intensifying adverb with degree numeral noun

dɔ: cɔ:m ʔe: li: ka:ŋ pər.na:j hɛ: pa.kəh
 3s know many very UNIT story 1p Pacoh
 ‘He knows very many stories about us Pacoh.’

This adverb has semantic features beyond the meaning ‘very’, as demonstrated by its ability to occur as the dependent of non-degree verbs. What semantic restrictions there may be on this usage is not yet clear.

S62: *li:* with non-degree verbs

maj bo:n li: praq
 2s have really money
 (a) ‘You really have money.’

mət to? duŋ ʔa.cɔ: kap li:
 enter to house dog bite really
 (b) ‘If you go into the house, the dog will really bite you.’

5.3 Interrogative adverbs ('how' and 'why')

The interrogative adverbs *ʔi.mɔː* 'how' and *vi: ʔi.mɔː* 'why', while phonologically related, have some distributional differences. *ʔi.mɔː* 'how' appears somewhat flexible in its position, as in S63(a) and (b), while *vi: ʔi.mɔː* 'why' generally appears sentence initially, as in S64.

S63: 'How' sentence-initially and post-verbally

hɔːj ʔn.nɛh ʔi.pɛː tu.mɔŋ ʔi.mɔː
 time this 2p live how
 (a) 'How are you living now?'

ʔi.mɔː ʔi.sər kəm.pɔːŋ ʔn.nɛh
 how one-climb ladder this
 (b) 'How does one climb this ladder?'

S64: 'Why' sentence-initially

vi: ʔi.mɔː ʔa.caːj pən hik liː
 why SPMY wait much very
 'Why are you waiting so long?'

5.4 Result adverbs

Result adverbs share the semantic property of extent of completion but differ according to the presence or absence of the presyllable [ʔa-] (§3.2.5). Result adverbs that do not have the suffix are homophonous with their stative verb counterparts, as in S65.

S65: Homophonous verb and result adverb

ti.ŋaːn dɔː truː
 dig that deep
 (a) 'That cup's deep.'

piʔ truː
 dig deep
 (b) 'Dig deep.'

Result adverbs marked phonologically by [ʔa-] are more easily differentiated from verbs. The use of the preposition *ʃɔːn* 'in order to' can be used with semantically similar results (see §8.6.2 for examples).

S66: Result adverb word forms

təŋ ʔa.kjər
 weave to thickness
 (a) 'Weave (it) thick.'

caː ʔa.ʃaj
 eat fullness
 (b) 'Eat till you're full.'

To refer to the completeness of stative verbs (§10.1.4), the form *ŋɛʔ₂* 'completely', which is homophonous with the noun *ŋɛʔ₁* 'all', is often used, as in S67.

S67: Completed resultative adverb

mɔ:h ki: du:t ɲɛ?
 nose 1s congested completely
 ‘My nose is completely stuffed up.’

5.5 Simultaneous adverb

The single simultaneous adverb in Pacoh, *ʔm.bɔ?*, co-occurs strictly with verbs having plural or coordinated subjects. This adverb can express simultaneous action, as in S68(a), or actions suggesting reciprocity, as in S68(b).

S68: Mutual verb expressing simultaneous action or reciprocity

pɯən na? suə ʔm.bɔ?
 four person searching together
 (a) ‘The four are all looking at the same time.’

ʔa.ɲa: viə la.luh viə pa.pi ʔm.bɔ?
 they both run both speak together
 (b) ‘They walked and talked together.’⁴⁴

⁴⁴ The pattern *viə* + VERB + *viə* + VERB, a borrowing from Vietnamese, indicates that two actions occur simultaneously.

6 Conjunctions

While juxtaposition without lexical marking is common in Pacoh, a handful of conjunctions are sometimes used to express addition, alternation, or contrast. In addition to the semantic roles of these conjunctions, their co-occurrence restrictions (in addition to their general conjunctive semantic roles) follow the material connected, whether non-predicate nouns or predicates, and in the case of nouns, human versus non-human nouns. Table 33 contains a list of the conjunctions, their meanings, and whether they take (1) nouns or predicates, (2) only human nouns, or (3) only predicates.

Table 33: Pacoh conjunctions

Sample from category	Gloss	Complements
<i>mɔj</i> ₂ , <i>ʔa.liŋ</i> ₇ , <i>ʔa.na</i> ₂	‘and’	nouns or predicates
<i>ʔi.na</i> ₂ , <i>ʔa.na</i> ₂ , <i>ʔi.pɛ</i> ₂ , <i>ʔa.pɛ</i> ₂	‘and’	human nouns
<i>mɔj</i> ₃	‘and’	predicates
<i>ʔa.liŋ</i> ₅	‘or’	predicates
<i>ma:</i>	‘but’	predicates

6.1 Additive conjunction (‘and’)

Additive conjunctions (*mɔj*₂, *ʔa.liŋ*₇ and *ʔa.na*₂ all meaning ‘and’) connect nouns as subjects or objects (as opposed to noun predicates). In S69, the form *ʔa.liŋ*₇ is homophonous with the comitative preposition *ʔa.liŋ*₁ ‘with’. The comitative preposition generally co-occurs only with subjects, while the conjunction can appear more freely with subjects or objects.

S69: General conjunction *ʔa.liŋ*

kɪ: vi: mɔj naʔ ʔa.ca:j ʔa.liŋ bar ti.kuə:j ʔa.ʔɛ:m-kɔ:n
 1s have one UNIT brother and two UNIT sibling-male
 ‘I have one elder brother and three younger brothers.’

S70: General conjunction *mɔj*

vi: li.mə: lam duŋ mɔj mu.lam triəŋ
 exist several UNIT house and one-UNIT school
 ‘There are several houses and a school.’

S71: General conjunction *ʔa.na*

mɔj ti.kuəj vi: bar lam ʔa.ti: ʔa.na, bar lam ʔa.ɸiŋ
 one person has two UNIT hand and two UNIT leg
 ‘A person has two arms and two legs.’

6.2 Person conjunctions (‘and’)

Person conjunctions in Pacoh co-occur only with human nouns as their coordinated complements. All of these conjunctions are homophonous with bisyllabic pronouns in Pacoh, and all share semantic features with those related forms. These conjunctions require their complements to be human, second or third person, and consist of either two or more than two nouns. Table 34 lists the words and the types of complements they take, as discussed in S. Watson (1964).

Table 34: Co-occurring nouns with general person conjunctions

Form	No.	Person
<i>ʔi.na:₂</i>	2	second dual
<i>ʔa.na:₂</i>	2	third dual
<i>ʔi.pɛ:₂</i>	3+	second plural
<i>ʔa.pɛ:₂</i>	3+	third plural

S. Watson (1964) also noted that the forms *ʔa.na:₂* and *ʔa.pɛ:₂* can take a combination of a singular noun and a semantically plural noun. There is apparently semantic agreement between the factors of number and person. In each case, the required features of the complements of the conjunctions match the features of the homophonous pronoun forms.

S72: Person non-predicate conjunctions

ʔa.ʔi: ʔa.na: ʔa.ʔam
 mother and father
 (a) ‘mother and father’

maj ʔi.na: ku.buət
 2s and NAME
 (b) ‘you and Cubuat’

In data collected in 1997 from Pacoh speakers who were sixteen to twenty years old, the form *ʔa.na:* ‘and’ was used without regard either to the quality of the noun (human or non-human) or the number of complements involved. In S73, the conjunction has non-human complements, and in S74, it has two plural complements. The conjunction *ʔa.na:* is considered, at this point, to be a non-person non-predicate-taking conjunction. Unless this turns out to be a regional variant, the conjunction paradigm described by Watson may be in the process of being lost, and the conjunction *ʔa.na:* is becoming the standard default conjunction.

S73: *ʔa.na:* with non-human nouns

ki: ʔij̃ pləj̃ ba:r lam ʔa.ci:w ʔa.na: mɔj̃ lam kuək
 1s want buy two UNIT knife and one UNIT hoe
 ‘I want to buy two knives and a hoe.’

S74: *ʔa.na:* with plural nouns

he: ʔa.na: ɲaj̃ tər.pən
 1p and 3p RECIP-wait
 ‘We and they are waiting for each other.’

6.3 Predicate-taking additive conjunction (‘and’)

While juxtaposition is common when connecting verbs in Pacoh, the conjunction *mɔj̃*₃ is sometimes used, specifically when the two verbs are simultaneous rather than sequential.

S75: Predicate-taking additive conjunction

dɔ: cɔ:m ʔa.mɔ:f ɲaj̃ mɔj̃₃ li: ʔɔ:lɔ:m
 3s know pity 3p and really good-hearted
 ‘He knows how to pity others and has a good heart.’ (S. Watson 1976)

6.4 Alternative conjunction (‘or’)

There are no semantic co-occurrence restrictions on the single alternative conjunction *ʔa.liŋ* ‘or’, which can be used to connect nouns or complete predicates.

S76: Alternative conjunction

dɔ: pləj̃ ʔa.liŋ ʔa.liŋ ʔn.truəj̃
 3s buy pig or chicken
 (a) ‘Did he buy a pig or a chicken?’
li: ʔa.liŋ ləj̃?
 correct or not
 (b) ‘Is that right or not?’

6.5 Contrast conjunction (‘but’)

The single contrary extension conjunction in Pacoh is *ma:* ‘but’. It typically occurs with two verbs as complements, as in S77(a), though it can even take noun predicates as complements, as in S77(b).

S77: Contrast conjunction

ho:m ɲaj̃ ta? ma: ki: ləj̃? cɔ:m ta?
 see 3p make but 1s no know make
 (a) ‘(I’ve) seen them make them, but I don’t know how to.’
ɲaj̃ to? ʔn.nəh ʔih ti.kuəj̃-viət ma: ti.kuəj̃-pa.kəh
 3s come here be not Vietnamese but Pacoh
 (b) ‘Those people who came weren’t Vietnamese, but rather were Pacoh.’

7 *Nouns*

Pacoh has several subcategories of nouns, including common nouns, count/unit nouns, pronominal nouns (including pronouns, demonstratives, and words with specific anaphoric reference), numerals and other quantity nouns, relator nouns (which indicate a variety of grammatical relations), and scope nouns (which indicate totality or individual reference). All of these subcategories and their various additional subcategories are described in the following sections. See §4.3 for a discussion of noun phrase structure.

7.1 Common nouns

There are five primary subcategories of Pacoh common nouns: general, human, mass, proper, semantically-generalized, and speech clause common nouns. The rest of this subsection discusses general properties of common nouns while the additional subcategories are dealt with in various subsections.

As in other classifier languages in Southeast Asian languages, common nouns are, for the most part, non-count nouns in that they can only appear in quantified noun phrases when they have an accompanying classifier or measure word (§7.2) with which they have semantico-syntactic agreement. Pacoh common nouns are unspecified for plurality and definiteness, and so co-occur with words that provide such features, such as quantity nouns or demonstratives, as in S78(a), or those features may be gained from discourse context. Common nouns without other marking may be interpreted as plural by plural stative verbs (§3.2.3 and §10.1.4) or reciprocal verbs (§10.1.3).

S78: Plurality and definiteness in Pacoh common nouns

bar-pe: lam duŋ dɔ:
a few UNIT house that
(a) ‘those few houses’

ʔa.cɔ: tɔr.kle:ŋ
dog follow (recip.)
(b) ‘The dogs followed each other.’

Outside of an established discourse context or without the use of demonstratives or genitive nouns, common nouns may refer to all the members of that set as an indefinite mass noun rather than as definite countable units. Thus, in S79(a), in an example without a

demonstrative, both glosses—definite and indefinite—are possible depending on the discourse context; however, with the demonstrative as in S79(b), only one interpretation is possible.

S79: Common nouns with demonstratives

ʔa.cɔ: ʔɔ: li:
dog good very

(a) ‘This dog is good.’/‘A dog is good.’

ʔa.cɔ: ʔn.nɛh ʔɔ: li:
dog this good very

(b) ‘This dog is good.’ (*A dog is good.’)

7.1.1 General common nouns

General common nouns have the fewest syntactic distributional restrictions although other semantic restrictions apply to individual words and semantic word classes. Table 37 in §7.2.3 contains a list of classifier unit nouns and their selectional restrictions for the common nouns with which they co-occur. General common nouns have semantic features that allow them to co-occur with certain classifier nouns, as demonstrated in Table 35.

Table 35: List of common nouns and associated features

Classifier	Category	Gloss	Noun
<i>kəl.lɔ:ŋ</i>	small and round	‘bananas’	<i>peʔ</i>
		‘coconut’	<i>tuəŋ</i>
		‘rice, unhusked’	<i>trɔ:</i>
		‘star’	<i>pən.tɔ:r</i>
<i>la:ŋ</i>	sheet	‘washcloth’	<i>k^han</i>
<i>ʔn.traf</i>	thin and long	‘string’	<i>ʔn.tar</i>
		‘writing utensil’	<i>ʔr.viət</i>
<i>lam</i>	general	‘bird’	<i>ʔa.cɛʔ</i>
		‘dog’	<i>ʔa.cɔ:</i>
		‘house’	<i>duŋ</i>

Common nouns also include an additional group, namely, time nouns that cannot be the dependents of numeral nouns, though there are time unit nouns (§7.2.2). Already having semantic features marking number, they cannot occur in quantified noun phrases. These nouns refer to the past or future by number of days or years (see §3.1.5).

S80: Non-unit time nouns

ʔi.ŋaj-ʔn.tro:ŋ dɔ: toʔ ʔn.nɛh
five days ago 3s arrive here
‘He arrived five days ago.’

7.1.2 Human common nouns

Human common nouns co-occur with person classifier unit nouns (§7.2.3), as in S81(a), and person conjunctions (§6.2), as in S81(b). Nouns in this category include words within various semantic fields having to do with humans, such as family relations, age groups, professions, and ethnic groups. See §12.3 for additional nouns in this category.

S81: Human common nouns

li.mə: na? ?a.kaj
 how many UNIT child
 (a) ‘How many children?’

?ŋ.koŋ ?a.ŋa: ?ŋ.kan
 man and (pers.) woman
 (b) ‘men and women’

7.1.3 Mass common nouns

Pacoh common nouns, without marking for number or definiteness, have semantic and syntactic properties of mass nouns. Still, certain nouns can be placed specifically in this category and not merely for their general semantic properties. Mass common nouns co-occur with non-classifier countable measure words, such as *ti.ŋa:n* ‘bowl’, *ba:w* ‘bag’, or *?a.tɛ:h* ‘basket’, but never with classifier unit nouns, the latter of which select for certain properties (§7.2.3).

S82: Mass common noun

də: do:ŋ ba:r bɛ: da:?
 2s bring two bottle water
 ‘He brought two bottles of water.’

Some non-mass nouns may function as mass nouns subcategory, words that are typically contained in such measure units. In S83(a), ‘banana’ is a single unit, while in S83(b), ‘banana’ refers to the content of the basket.

S83: Mass versus non-mass common nouns

mɔ:j lam pe:?
 one UNIT banana
 (a) ‘a banana’

mɔ:j ?a.tɛ:h pe:?
 one basket banana
 (b) ‘a basket of bananas’

7.1.4 Speech noun clauses

Speech noun clauses (viewed here as single syntactic constituents) are nominal complements of speech verbs (§10.4.2), as in S84.

S84: Quote simple oblique-object verb

dɔː pa.ʃoːl ba-ʔəj-poːk-hɔːk

3s call Hey, Ba! Let's go study.

'He called, "Hey, Ba! Let's go study".' (ND&P)

7.1.5 Proper common nouns

Proper common nouns in Pacoh primarily include the given names of places, names of ethnic groups, and other non-human names. Some examples in available data are names of local areas, such as the district *ʔa.liəj* 'Aluoi', where many Pacoh live, or *miːʔ* 'the United States'. As unique entities, such nouns do not occur after unit nouns in quantified noun phrases. Proper pronominal nouns (§7.3.4), unlike proper common nouns, generally have human reference (or at least animate nouns with human-like attributes) and carry pronominal features related to humans.

7.1.6 Semantically-generalized compound nouns

Semantically-generalized compound nouns constitute a class of polysyllabic words that can participate in clause-incorporation (§3.3.1). These nouns contain phonological material that resembles two or more words overlapping in semantic scope and refers to a shared general semantic scope. For example, *jəw-baj* 'friends (in general)' shares phonological material with two distinct words that each mean 'friend', and *duŋ-veːl* 'society' consists of phonetic forms for 'house' and 'village' respectively. Data on clausal reduplication in Pacoh is provided in the works of R. Watson (1966b and 1980). In S85, the compound meaning 'literate' contains the verb *cɔːm* 'to know' and the generalized reduplicant noun *ʔu.raʔ-ʔu.ʔar* 'writing'.

S85: Separable common noun

dɔː cɔːm-ʔu.raʔ-cɔːm-ʔu.ʔar

3s literate

'He's literate.'

Such nouns do not occur as dependents of numeral nouns or unit nouns nor do they take other words as dependents. This lack of number and definiteness emphasizes the generic semantic nature of these words.

7.2 Count/unit nouns

The primary characteristic of unit nouns is that they are the only words that can be within the direct semantic scope of numerals and quantity nouns. As such, unit nouns have the syntactic function of relating numerals to other nouns, typically common nouns, which are not inherently quantifiable.⁴⁵

⁴⁵ Common nouns in Pacoh and other Southeast Asian languages are essentially non-count nouns since they cannot be directly quantified with numbers. A kind of correlate of this fact is that 'classifiers'—words that follow numerals and co-occur with these otherwise uncountable common nouns (either before or after them, depending on the language) of specific semantic classes—are often seen in assisting with quantification of common nouns. See Jones (1970) for discussion of geographic distribution of noun quantification in Southeast Asia.

S86: Quantified noun phrase

ba:r lam ka.di:
 two UNIT creel basket
 ‘two creel baskets’

Pacoh unit nouns include classifiers, countable measure words, and certain time words (see §12.7). As the human/non-human distinction is seen elsewhere in Pacoh syntax,⁴⁶ the classifiers are here further separated into those that take human versus non-human nouns as their grammatically selected common noun correlates.

Table 36: Unit noun subcategories and samples

General	Time	General classifier	Person classifier
<i>bɛ:</i> ‘bottle’	<i>ku.mɔ:</i> ‘year’	<i>lam</i> (general)	<i>ti.kuəj</i> (people)
<i>ti.ŋa:n</i> ‘cup’	<i>ki.faj</i> ‘month’	<i>ʔa.lɔ:ŋ</i> (trees)	<i>naʔ</i> (people)
<i>ʔa.tɛh</i> ‘basket’	<i>kən.tiʔ</i> ‘time’	<i>kəl.lɔ:ŋ</i> (small round)	

Classifiers and other countable nouns in Pacoh are indeed nouns, as they can serve as the syntactic heads/syntactically essential elements of noun phrases (S87) that can occur in subject or object positions (S88 and S89).

S87: Unit nouns in three positions in a noun phrase

- (a) *ba:r lam* ‘two things’
 (b) *lam ʔn.nɛh* ‘this thing’
 (c) *ba:r lam ʔn.nɛh* ‘these two things’
 ‘two’ ‘unit’ ‘this’

S88: Classifier unit noun as head of subject noun phrase

lam ka.di: ka.cat pe:ʔ tɔ.lih daŋ ʔn.lɔŋ
 UNIT creel contain banana put side door
 ‘Put the creel basket containing bananas at the door.’

S89: Classifier noun as head in object of a preposition

ɸəl təŋ.hɔ:k pɔk dɔ:j toʔ lam ti.ŋa:n ʔn.nɛh
 take spoon scoop rice to UNIT bowl this
 ‘I took a spoon and scooped rice into this bowl.’

Classifiers and countable measure words both take noun dependents, but they differ in that classifiers take only non-mass nouns and general nouns may take both mass and non-mass nouns, as in S90. S90(a) and S90(b) clearly show the restriction of the classifier, while c and d show the lack of a syntactic restriction, though something of a semantic one.

S90: Classifiers versus measure words

- (a) *ba:r to:m ʔa.lɔ:ŋ* (two-unit-tree) ‘two trees’
 (b) **ba:r to:m ʔa.riəw* (two-unit-liquor) ‘*two liquors’
 (c) *ʔba:r bɛ: peʔ* (two-bottle-banana) ‘two bottles of bananas’
 (d) *ba:r bɛ: ʔa.riəw* (two-bottle-liquor) ‘two bottles of liquor’

⁴⁶ Pacoh has a class of human conjunctions (§6.2) and human numerals (§7.4.3).

7.2.1 General measure words

General measure words, including containers (i.e. ‘a basketful of’) and units of weight, require mass nouns (§7.1.3) as their selected measured nouns.

S91: General measure word

maj pləj ʔa.li.mə: kən trə:

2s buy how many kilo rice

(a) ‘How many kilograms of rice did you buy?’

bar bɛ: ʔa.rjəw

two bottle liquor

(b) ‘two bottles of liquor’

7.2.2 Countable time nouns

Certain time words (see §12.7 for various Pacoh time words) in Pacoh may directly follow numeral and quantity nouns. Many time words themselves need not take additional following nouns or modifiers.

These nouns do not include semantically uncountable locus time words, such as *ʔi.ŋaj-ʔi.no:* ‘yesterday’ or *ku.mə:-ʔn.trɛ:* ‘three years ago’. See §3.1.5 for the morphological aspects of such Pacoh time words.

7.2.3 Classifiers

Classifiers semantically select common nouns with appropriate features. In Pacoh, the three general subcategories of classifiers are the general ‘default’ classifier *lam*, which takes many more nouns than the other classifiers, the human classifier *naʔ* (and the less commonly used *ti.kuəʔ*), which takes only human nouns, and the various non-human classifiers, all of which select nouns based on semantic properties of shape and size. The person classifier is of particular note since the distinction between human and non-human nouns is seen in other lexical subclasses, such as person conjunctions and person numerals, all of which only take human noun complements.

Table 37: Pacoh classifiers (not exhaustive)

Forms	Semantic category
<i>pəl.luk</i>	book
<i>ʔm.pət, ʔn.nət</i>	bunch
<i>tjəh</i>	flat expanse
<i>plə:h</i>	flat objects/garments
<i>lam</i>	general
<i>kən.təh</i>	group/flock/herd
<i>la:ŋ</i>	leaf/sheet
<i>naʔ</i>	persons
<i>kəl.lə:ŋ</i>	round objects
<i>ʔn.trəʃ</i>	small, long objects
<i>ʔn.no:m</i>	stalk
<i>to:m</i>	tree

It would be misleading to claim that classifiers are always used without exception in Pacoh; exceptions indeed do exist in available data and this may reflect the fact that the proliferation of classifiers in Pacoh is still in the process of spreading. To provide a point of comparison, Pacoh classifiers are used with somewhat less regularity than in Vietnamese, in which classifiers have reached an extreme of syntactic and pragmatic prominence.

7.3 Pronouns and other pronominal nouns

Pacoh pronominal nouns all have anaphoric reference within a discourse context. In addition to definiteness, number, person, location, and gender, age and social status are also important factors in pronoun usage (as is the case in many languages in Southeast Asia⁴⁷). This combination of grammatical, semantic, and pragmatic features is what determines the usage of Pacoh pronominal nouns.

7.3.1 Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstratives have anaphoric reference to things based on their physical and temporal position in relation to the speaker. Pacoh demonstratives often appear near the ends of noun phrases, as in S92(a), though they can stand alone as bare noun phrases as well, as in S92(b).

S92: Demonstrative as modifier and as single noun

ŋɛ? ʔu.ra? ʔŋ.koh

all pen that

(a) ‘all those pens’

ʔn.nɛh yo:h ʔŋ.ŋa:m

this not yet ripe

(b) ‘This isn’t ripe yet.’

Though demonstratives typically occur at the ends of noun phrases, locational adjuncts follow them, as shown in S93.

S93: Demonstrative and locational adjunct

ti.kuəj ʔŋ.koh kəl.luŋ duŋ

person that inside house

‘that person in the house’

Pacoh demonstratives differ semantically according to proximity (proximal, medial, and distal (following Fillmore 1982:48)) and position (fore and aft, above and below, and beside). Table 38 follows the analysis of ND&P (1986:45–46), with English translations and the medials *ʔŋ.koh* and *koh* added. The demonstratives *ʔn.nɛh/nɛh* ‘something here’ and *ʔŋ.koh/koh* ‘something there’ do not specify height and direction, while all the other

⁴⁷ Southeast Asian languages that use similar systems of personal reference include Cambodian (Huffman 1970:356–357), Hokkien Chinese (Chang 1979:233–234), Vietnamese (Thompson 1984–85:299–306), Indonesian (Wolff et al. 1992:17–18) and Laotian (Hoshino & Russell 1997:144–147). Cooke (1968) deals with the Thai, Vietnamese and Burmese pronominal systems.

demonstratives do. One aspect of word shape worth noting is that all Pacoh demonstratives have word-initial nasal presyllables and word-final /-h/. The difference between the medial and distal category is vowel length (see §3.1.3). The most commonly occurring forms in existing data are the two semantically least marked forms, *?n.nɛh* and *?ŋ.koh*, occurring variously with common nouns, time nouns, and social pronouns, while the remaining demonstratives are less commonly used.

Table 38: Pacoh demonstrative pronominal nouns

Distance	Fore/Higher	Aft/Lower	Beside
Proximal	<i>?n.nɛh / nɛh</i>		
Medial	<i>?ŋ.koh / koh</i>		
	<i>?n.tih</i>	<i>?n.tɔh</i>	<i>?n.trah</i>
Distal	<i>?n.ti:h</i>	<i>?n.tɔ:h</i>	<i>?n.tra:h</i>

Demonstrative nouns, when occurring as dependents of time unit nouns that are not already marked for definiteness, provide temporal definiteness.

S94: Pacoh demonstrative dependent of time noun

?i.laf ?n.nɛh ki: po:k ta? pi.daj
 morning this 1s go work field
 ‘In the morning, I work in the field.’

However, demonstratives are not locational nouns, as they are in other languages (e.g. Vietnamese and English) since they cannot be the direct complements of locative verbs or prepositions but instead require intervening locational relator nouns, such as *daŋ*, as shown in S95(a) and (b).

S95: Demonstrative with and without locational relator noun regent

ki: ?at daŋ ?n.nɛh
 1s live at here
 (a) ‘I live here.’

**ki: ?at ?n.nɛh*
 1s live here
 (b) ‘I live here.’

7.3.2 Indefinite and interrogative pronominal nouns

Indefinite pronominal nouns serve either as interrogative pronouns or general indefinite pronouns, as listed in Table 39. Indefinite pronominal nouns cannot take definite demonstrative nouns as dependents, as in S96. These words appear in subject or object positions, a criterion that excludes interrogative adverbs *?i.mɔ:ɿ* ‘how’ and *vi-?i.mɔ:* ‘why’ (§5.3).

Table 39: Homophonous interrogative and indefinite pronouns

Interrogative	Indefinite
<i>?n.naw₁</i> ‘who’	<i>?n.naw₂</i> ‘whoever’
<i>?ə.məh₁</i> ‘what’	<i>?ə.məh₂</i> ‘whatever’
<i>tu.mə:’₁</i> ‘where’	<i>tu.mə:’₂</i> ‘wherever’
<i>mə:’₁</i> ‘which’	<i>mə:’₂</i> ‘whichever’

S96: Indefinite versus other pronouns

**?n.naw* *?n.nəh*

who this

(a) ‘this whoever’

?a.?ε:m *?n.nəh*

SPNY this

(b) ‘this young person’

The status of indefinite pronouns as interrogative is determined by syntactic distribution, discourse context, and intonation. A specific distinguishing property is that, whereas the indefinite form may occur within an affirmative-negative question, the interrogative cannot, since only one word in the sentence can carry the interrogative property as a semantico-syntactic feature. Thus, as in S97, the sentence can only be interpreted as ‘Do you know where he is?’, and the form *tu.mə:’* must be indefinite and not interrogative.

S97: Double-interrogative constraint

maj *cə:m* *də: ?at* *tu.mə:’* *ləj?*

2s know 3s located where no

‘Do you know where he is?’

Another characteristic that distinguishes interrogative from non-interrogative pronominal nouns is that interrogative words often occur in the clause-initial position, as in S98(a), while non-interrogative words tend to stay in their case-marked positions, as in S98(c). While fronting of the interrogative forms is the dominant pattern, variation of this in available data, as in S98(c), suggests possible influence from Vietnamese, in which interrogative words are never fronted but stay in their original case-marked positions.

S98: Distributional differences of interrogative and indefinite pronouns

?a.məh *?i.pε:’* *ca:’*

what 3p do

(a) ‘What did you all do?’

?i.pε:’ *ca:’* *?a.məh*

3p do what

(b) ‘What did you all do?’

he:’ *ləj?* *ca:’* *?a.məh*

1p no do whatever

(c) ‘We didn’t eat anything.’

7.3.2.1 ‘Where’ and ‘wherever’

The Pacoh locational indefinite interrogative pronoun *tu.mɔ:* ‘where’ can co-occur with the locative verb *?at* ‘to be situated’, a verb that requires locational complements, which in Pacoh are typically locational relator nouns (§7.5.4). In S99(a) and (b), the locational words may follow *?at* while the non-locational nouns in S99(c) and (d) may not.

S99: Locational nouns

dɔ: ?at tu.mɔ:
3s located where
(a) ‘Where is he?’

dɔ: ?at daŋ duŋ
3s at place home
(b) ‘He’s at home.’

**dɔ: ?at ?m.mɔ:*
3s located which
(c) ‘Where is he?’

**dɔ: ?at duŋ*
3s located home
(d) ‘He’s at home.’

The distribution of location pronouns is somewhat flexible; they can appear at the beginnings or the ends of clauses, as in S100(a) and (b), though not between subjects and verbs. S101 shows that the locational interrogative can also occur with stationary verbs, in contrast with the directional verbs of S101 (see §10.6 on locative verbs).

S100: Two positions of locational pronouns

maj po:k tu.mɔ:
2s go where
(a) ‘Where are you going?’

tu.mɔ: maj po:k
where 2s go
(b) ‘Where are you going?’

S101: Non-direction location interrogative pronoun

tu.mɔ: t^həj bi?
where teacher sleep
‘Where are you staying, teacher?’

7.3.2.2 ‘Who’ and ‘whoever’

The human indefinite and interrogative *?n.naw₂* ‘who’ and ‘whoever’ carries the semantic features of humans and so can occur as the complement of person possessional relator nouns (§7.5.5). In S102, the word for ‘what’ is not grammatical.

With certain verb types, such as stative verbs of sickness or pain, the question word cannot be preposed but must stay in its expected complement position.

S106: Interrogative pronoun and verb of illness

ʔa.ʔem ʔŋ.koh ʔa.ʔaj ʔa.məh

3s-SOC that sick what

‘Where does it hurt?’/‘What’s her sickness?’

7.3.3 Personal pronouns

The basic set of personal pronouns in Pacoh is divided by number (singular, dual, and plural) and reference (first, second, and third person). This basic set is then divided into general, dative, and possessive sets by various morphological features (§3.1.3). Those three main categories are dealt with in the following subsections.

Table 40: Pacoh pronominal nouns

Number	Person	General	Dative	Possessive
Singular	first	<i>ki:</i>	<i>ʔa.ki:</i>	<i>ʔŋ.ki:</i>
	second	<i>maj</i>	<i>ʔa.maj</i>	<i>ʔm.maj</i>
	third	<i>dɔ:</i>	<i>ʔa.dɔ:</i>	<i>ʔn.dɔ:</i>
Dual-Plural	first	<i>ɲaŋ</i>	<i>ʔa.ɲaŋ</i>	<i>ʔŋ.ɲaŋ</i>
	second	<i>ʔi.ɲa:</i>	<i>ʔa.dɔ:- ʔi.ɲa:</i>	<i>ʔn.dɔ:- ʔi.ɲa:</i>
	third	<i>ʔa.ɲa:</i>	<i>ʔa.dɔ:- ʔa.ɲa:</i>	<i>ʔn.dɔ:- ʔa.ɲa:</i>
Plural	first	<i>hɛ:</i>	<i>ʔa.hɛ:</i>	<i>ʔŋ.hɛ:</i>
	second	<i>ʔi.pɛ:</i>	<i>ʔa.dɔ:- ʔi.pɛ:</i>	<i>ʔn.dɔ:- ʔi.pɛ:</i>
	third	<i>ʔa.pɛ:/ŋa:j</i>	<i>ʔa.dɔ:- ʔa.pɛ:/ŋa:j</i>	<i>ʔn.dɔ:- ʔa.pɛ:/ŋa:j</i>

7.3.3.1 General pronouns

General pronouns have the least restricted usage of pronouns, occurring in most case-marked positions as subjects, direct objects, oblique objects, and possessors, as in S107 to S109.

S107: Personal pronouns as subject and prepositional complements

ki: po:k to? dɔ: je:

1s go with 3s already

‘I went toward him.’

S108: Personal pronouns as subject and object

ʔi.ŋaj-koh ki: tu.mɔ:ŋ maj

tomorrow 1s meet you

‘I will meet you tomorrow.’

S1091: Personal pronouns as a possessor

ʔn.nɛh vɛ:l ki:

this village 1s

‘This is my village.’

Pacoh pronouns do not take dependent demonstratives, though it might appear so in S110. However, the demonstrative is likely a discourse-related word that marks the pronoun as a topic in a topic-comment construction.⁴⁸

S110: Topic-marking word

dɔː ʔn.nɛh ləjʔ ʔi.caː pɛː ʔi.ŋaj
 3s here? no to eat three day
 ‘As for that guy, he didn’t eat for three days.’

Personal pronouns can take descriptive modifiers but typically in more formal registers.

S111: Pronominal noun with relator noun dependent

dɔː ʔən fuk-pər.ŋaː
 3s that prosperous
 ‘He who is prosperous.’ (R. Watson 1980)

7.3.3.2 Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronoun pronominal nouns are possessive absolutes, meaning they occur as bare noun phrases and anaphorically refer to someone’s possession, like English ‘mine’, ‘hers’, etc. In Pacoh, these pronouns may also indicate the location of existential impersonal verbs, as discussed towards the end of this subsection. These possessive forms, all of which have nasal-initial word shapes, are not simply combinations of the extension relator noun *ʔən* and general pronouns, though that is most likely the historical origin. They are single words, as can be seen from the phonological reduction of these presyllables as opposed to the extension relator noun, which shows phonological distinctiveness that suggests its syntactic separateness. The presyllables of the possessive pronouns are homorganic nasal syllables. Despite their possessive meanings, they cannot be modifying possessors of nouns, the task of general personal pronouns, as in S112.

S112: General versus possessive pronouns

fɔc kiː
 book 1s
 (a) ‘my book’

**fɔc ʔŋ.kiː*
 book of-1s
 (b) ‘*the mine book’

fɔc ʔən kiː
 book of 1s
 (c) ‘the book of mine’

In available data, Pacoh possessive pronouns most commonly occur in the predicate position, as in S113.

⁴⁸ Indonesian similarly shows the use of the word for ‘that’ *itu* in noun-noun equational sentences.

S113: Possessive pronoun as predicate

?r.viət ?n.nəh ?ih ?m.maj
 pen this be-not yours
 ‘This pen is not yours.’

These pronouns can occur in case-marked positions as well, though there are limited examples in the dataset. The only way these were used in the data provided by S. Watson (1966) and ND&P (1986) was with an indirect possessive meaning. They are viewed here as dependent theme nouns of impersonal verbs.

S114: General versus possessive pronoun

kɪ: vi: pra?
 1s have money
 (a) ‘I have money.’

?ŋ.kɪ: vi: pra?
 of-1s exists money
 (b) ‘Of that which is mine, there is money.’

7.3.3.3 Dative pronouns

Dative pronouns always follow verbs (i.e. they do not follow prepositions, and they are not fronted), though when they co-occur with direct objects, there is no specified order, as in S115(a) and (b). They are not locational and so cannot be the complements of locative verbs but only of ditransitive verbs (and various non-transitive oblique-object verbs, as discussed in various verb subsections), as in S116.

S115: Dative pronoun before and after the indirect object

jɔ:n ?a.kɪ: fa:c ?ŋ.koh
 give to 1s book that
 (a) ‘Give me that book.’

jɔ:n fa:c ?ŋ.koh ?a.kɪ:
 give book that to 1s
 (b) ‘Give that book to me.’

S116: Dative pronoun versus locational preposition

**kɪ: vit pe:ʔ toʔ ?a.dɔ:*
 3s

kɪ: vit pe:ʔ toʔ dɔ:
 1s toss banana to 3s
 (a) ‘I threw the banana at him.’

**kɪ: jɔ:n pe:ʔ dɔ:*
 to-3s

kɪ: jɔ:n pe:ʔ ?a.dɔ:
 1s give banana to-3s
 (b) ‘I gave him the banana.’

As dependents of non-fact VCT verbs (verbs that require subjectless lower clauses, as discussed in §11), dative pronouns appear only before the lower verb complement, as in S117. Linear precedence is strict here; the dative pronoun dependent of these VCT verbs cannot occur after the lower verb.

S117: Causative verb and dative pronoun

ki: pa.ŋɔ:jʔ ʔa.dɔ: ɲɔ:jʔ
 (**ki: pa.ŋɔ:jʔ ɲɔ:jʔ ʔa.dɔ:*)
 1s make-drink for-3s drink
 ‘I make him drink water.’ (lit. ‘I made for him to drink water’)

The third person singular pronoun *ʔa.dɔ:₁* has a homophonous dative relator noun *ʔa.dɔ:₂* (§7.5.1), as shown in S118.

S118: Ditransitive verb and dative relator noun

ʔa.ʔi: pləj ʔa.dɔ:₁ mu.to:j tət
 mother buy for-3s a-pair sock
 (a) ‘The mother bought her a pair of socks.’

ʔa.ʔi: pləj ʔa.dɔ:₂ ʔa.kaj kan mu.to:j tət
 mother buy for-3s UNIT daughter a pair sock
 (b) ‘The mother bought her daughter a pair of socks.’

7.3.4 Proper nouns: human pronouns

While human names are typically used in the third person in Pacoh,⁴⁹ they may be used with second person reference, particularly among Pacoh youth.⁵⁰ These words can be used in various contexts in which nouns with human semantic features are required, such as person conjunctions or person relator nouns (see §6.2). Proper pronominal nouns can be the modifiers of social pronouns, the latter of which provide socially conditioned respect, as in S119.

S119: Proper pronominal nouns with social pronominal nouns

na:m ʔa.kaj kɔ:n ʔm.pɪ:t pɔ:n
 NAME child boy SPMO NAME
 ‘Nam is the son of Mr Pɔn.’

7.3.5 Social pronouns

Pacoh has a class of social pronouns that are homophonous with (and hence semantically and syntactically distinct from) certain kinship and professional terms, the latter of which are common nouns.

⁴⁹ In my original dissertation, I described Pacoh names as having variously first, second, and third person reference, as is the case in Vietnamese. In fact, while some of my personal fieldnotes contain such suggestions, Pacoh in fact uses pronouns and kin terms for such purposes. The exceptions are likely the result of language contact with Vietnamese.

⁵⁰ Richard Watson (pers. comm.)

Table 41: Pacoh term of address pronouns

Form	Social pronouns	Homophonous nouns
<i>ʔa.ca:j</i>	‘somewhat older male’	‘older brother’
<i>ʔa.ʔɛ:m</i>	‘somewhat younger person’	‘younger sibling’
<i>ʔm.pi:t</i>	‘much older male’	‘uncle’
<i>t^hɔj-jaw</i>	‘teacher’	‘teacher’
<i>ʔi.taʔ</i>	‘nurse’	‘nurse’
<i>ʔa.ʔi:</i>	‘mother’	‘mother’

Pacoh social pronouns differ from personal pronouns in that they express politeness by referring to the speaker, listener, and others based on gender and age. In addition, these pronouns can express second or third person. For example, a female speaking to a somewhat older male addresses herself as *ʔa.ʔɛ:m* ‘somewhat younger person’ while addressing him as *ʔa.ca:j* ‘somewhat older male’. Likewise, he addresses her and refers to himself using the same terms, namely, *ʔa.ʔɛ:m* for her and *ʔa.ca:j* for himself. The glosses for these words are indicated by the following abbreviations: SP (social pronoun), M (male), F (female), N (neutral, either male or female), Y (younger), or O (older).

As these words are derived from nouns with human reference, such as kinship terms and professions, they still carry human attributes and distribution.⁵¹ In S120, the social pronoun is the complement of the person dative relator noun.

S120: Social pronominal noun as human

kɪ: ʔɔ:n ʔn.nɛh ʔa.dɔ: ʔa.ca:j
 1s give this to SPMY
 ‘I’m giving this to you, sir.’

Social pronominal nouns are the only pronominal nouns that can take demonstratives,⁵² specifically marking third person, though it is not entirely necessary since features for person can be determined in the discourse context. Social pronominal nouns are the only pronominal nouns that are underspecified for definiteness (S121) and plurality (S122), like their kinship common noun derivational correlates. These social pronouns can serve as titles for human proper nouns.

S121: Plurality and definiteness with social pronouns

ʔa.ca:j ʔŋ.koh
 SPMY that
 (a) ‘he (respectful)’

pe: ʔa.ʔɛ:m
 three SPNY
 (b) ‘you three young people’

⁵¹ There are some occasional noted variants in story-telling where animals are personified.

⁵² Another possibility is that these are lexicalized forms formed through ordinary word-formation strategies.

ʔa.pɛ: ʔa.ca:j ʔŋ.koh
 few SPMY that
 (c) ‘those gentlemen.’

S122: Social pronominal as a title

ʔa.ca:j no:
 SPMY NAME
 ‘Mr Nô’

As for plurality, social pronouns may be marked by person indefinite numeral nouns (§7.4.4), as in S123(a) and (b). Thus, in fact, they constitute a special subclass of unit nouns.

S123: Social pronoun with person numeral noun

bjəʔ ʔa.ʔɛ:m ʔŋ.koh
 few SPNY that
 (a) ‘those few young people’

pɛ: ʔm.pit ʔa.ki:
 three SPMO there
 (b) ‘those three gentlemen’

They can serve as possessors and as complements of directional relator nouns, as in S124.

S124: Social pronouns

ki: pa.cɔ:m ka:ŋ pa.koh ʔa.dɔ: ʔa.ca:j
 1s teach language Pacoh to SPMY
 ‘I’m teaching the Pacoh language to you.’

The pragmatic usage of social pronominal nouns is complex and beyond the scope of this work. The system shares some similarities with that of Vietnamese in expressing politeness and familiarity. However, pronouns are used perhaps as much as social pronominal nouns in Pacoh, while in Vietnamese, pure pronouns are used in very restricted social circumstances.⁵³

7.4 Numerals and quantity nouns

Numerals and other quantity expressions are nouns as they can serve as the heads (i.e. highest syntactic element) of noun phrases, requiring count nouns in almost all cases (§7.2). In S125, ‘three’ is the head of a predicate noun phrase of existence.

S125: Definite numeral noun as predicate head

ʔat daŋ duŋ pɛ: naʔ ʔa.ʔi: ʔa.kaj
 at/in/on side home three UNIT mother children
 ‘There are three people at home, a mother and children.’

⁵³ For a description of the Vietnamese system, see Thompson (1984–85:299–306).

Quantity expressions in general consist of definite and indefinite numbers and are thusly classified in the following subsections. Definite numbers include cardinals (S126) and ordinals, while indefinite number nouns include degree (S127), general, interrogative (S128) and person numeral nouns.

S126: Definite numeral noun

mɔj ʔi.ŋaj puəh tɛː ʃoŋ toʔ mu.ciʔ pəl.loː
 each day set from five to ten tube-trap
 ‘Each day one sets from five to ten tube traps.’

S127: Degree indefinite numeral noun

viː kliŋ ti.kuəj ʔən ləjʔ hoj toːŋ kaːŋ pa.koŋ
 exist many human that not able speak language Pacoh
 ‘There are many people who can’t speak the Pacoh language.’

S128: Interrogative numeral noun

ʔa.caːj boːn pləj li.məː bɛː ʔa.riəw
 SPMY able buy how many bottle liquor
 ‘How many bottles of wine were you able to buy?’

Numeral nouns, particularly indefinite numbers, can stand alone as bare noun phrases, as in S129, but are typically followed by countable nouns, as in S130.

S129: Numeral noun as a complement

kɪː viː kliŋ
 1s have many/much
 ‘I have many/much.’

S130: Numeral noun as noun phrase head

kliŋ luəjʔ tər.haw ti.kuəj pa.koŋ
 much/many type drug person Pacoh
 ‘many kinds of Pacoh medicines’

7.4.1 Cardinal and ordinal numbers

Pacoh has a basic set of ten numerals, which serve as the phonological base forms for the numbers 11 to 99 (see §12.4).

S131: Definite numeral noun

pɛː ʔa.tɛh ʔa.ʔim ʔŋ.koŋ
 three basket corn those
 ‘those three baskets of corn’

Definite numeral nouns differ from the other numeral nouns, which are all indefinite, by their ability to be dependents of the singular distributive scope noun (§7.6), *tal* ‘each’, as in S132. In contrast, this scope noun cannot take indefinite numerals.

S132: Definite numeral noun as a dependent of a scope noun

tal puən naʔ juən
 each four UNIT Vietnamese
 (**tal li.mə: naʔ ti.kuəj*)
 how many
 ‘each of the four Vietnamese people’

Definite numeral nouns also have the capacity to be compared (e.g. ‘more than three’) and put in a range context (e.g. ‘from two to four’).

S133: Definite numeral and comparison

ti.lət so:ŋ-cit ku.mə:
 beyond fifty year
 ‘more than fifty years’

Pacoh ordinals can be indicated in two ways, either with the use of the predicate-taking relator noun *ʔən* or the ordinal marking form *t^{hi}*.⁵⁴

S134: Ordinal numbers

ʔa.kəj ʔən pɛ: ki:
 child which three 1s
 (a) ‘my third child’

lam ʔa.ci:w ʔən t^{hi}-pɛ:
 UNIT knife which third
 (b) ‘the third knife’

7.4.2 Degree indefinite numerals

Degree indefinite numeral nouns (*ʔe:* and *kli:ŋ* ‘many’ and *biəʔ* ‘few’) may take the intensifying adverb *li:* ‘very’, as in S135. They are commonly used as impersonal nominal predicates (i.e. lacking overt subjects) and often have locational topics, as in S136. Pacoh degree numeral nouns are the only numeral nouns that, in the data, freely occur as the sole heads of noun phrases (i.e. do not co-occur with unit noun dependents).

S135: Degree indefinite numeral with degree adverb

ki: vi: biəʔ li: lam pɛ:ʔ
 1s have few truly UNIT banana
 ‘I have very few bananas.’

S136: Degree numeral noun with intensifying adverb

kəl.luŋ ʔm.bu:t ʔe: li: noh ʔa.lə:ŋ
 inside jungle many very UNIT tree
 ‘In the jungle, there are many kinds of trees.’

⁵⁴ This form is a Vietnamese loan, *t^{hi}*³⁵, which precedes numerals and indicates they are ordinals.

7.4.3 General and person indefinite numeral nouns

The general indefinite numerals include the non-interrogative *li.mɔ:* ‘several’ and *bar-pe:* ‘a few’.⁵⁵ Indefinite nouns are also semantically and syntactically plural, as they can occur as subjects of reciprocal verbs. The form *?a.pe:* ‘a number of’, which is derivationally related to the third-person plural pronoun *?a.pe:* ‘they,’ can only take semantically human nouns, as in S137.

S137: Person and non-person numerals

?a.pe: ?a.ca:j

a few SPMY

(a) ‘a few guys’

bar lam pe:ʔ

two item banana

(b) ‘two bananas’

S138: Comparing person and non-person numerals

(a) *bar lam* ‘two of them’

(b) *bar naʔ* ‘two people’

(c) *?a.pe: naʔ* ‘a few people’

(d) **?a.pe: lam* ‘a few of them’

7.4.4 Interrogative numeral noun

There are three words in this category, *li.mɔ:*, *?a.li.mɔ:* and *li.mɔ:-ʔe:*, all meaning ‘how many/how much’.

S139: Interrogative numeral noun

?a.ca:j ?n.ta:ŋ li.mɔ: kən

SPMY weigh how many kilogram

‘How many kilos do you weigh?’

7.4.5 Numerals without countable nouns

While numeral nouns almost always co-occur with unit nouns, they are still optional in some cases, though the contexts in which this is the case is not entirely clear based on available data. A number of examples show count nouns dropped in parallel constructions, as in S139 and S140.

S140: Numeral noun with non-unit noun

duŋ he: vi: pe: lam ti.kuəj ?ŋ.koŋ puən ?ŋ.kan

house our has three UNIT person male four female

‘Our house has three men and four women.’

⁵⁵ *bar-pe:* shares phonological material with the Pacoh numerals for ‘two’ and ‘three,’ *bar* and *pe:* respectively.

S141: Numeral nouns with stative verb modifiers

mat dɔː mɔːj lɔːm mɔːj pluːʔ
 eye 3s one black one gray
 ‘He’s got one black eye and one grey eye.’

7.5 Relator nouns of location and possession

The term ‘relator noun’ has been used in Southeast Asian linguistic literature to refer to what are sometimes taken for locational prepositions (see §4.4 for a discussion of the distinction).⁵⁶ In Pacoh, words in this class mark location, possession, the dative voice, instruments, and relative clauses, as illustrated in S142 to S144. See §12.6 for a list of Pacoh relator nouns.

S142: Possessive and predicate-taking relator nouns

?n.nɛh ?n.dɔː tʰɔːj
 this of teacher
 (a) ‘This is the teacher’s.’

ti.kuɔːj ?ən hoːj liː
 person that capable very
 (b) ‘people who are very capable’

S143: Locational and instrumental relator nouns

ciɔːm ?n.truɔːj toʔ kəː.ruːŋ duːj
 raise chickens at beneath house
 (a) ‘(We) raised chickens under the hut.’

puh ?a.bil tək duːj
 hit mouse with stick
 (b) ‘(I) hit the mouse with a stick.’

S144: Dative relator noun

dɔː pa.cɔːm baːj ?a.dɔː nam
 3s teach lesson to NAME
 ‘He taught Nam the lesson.’

7.5.1 Dative relator nouns

Pacoh has one dative relator noun, *?a.dɔː* ‘to/for’, which may be either a complement or adjunct (i.e. required or optional) depending on verb subclasses. A difference in usage is

⁵⁶ The question of whether relator nouns are different from prepositions still carries some controversy. Nonetheless, relator nouns differ from prepositions in a handful of ways. While prepositions tend to express direction and location, relator nouns often express parts of a noun. Prepositions can be fronted in Pacoh while the distribution of relator nouns tends to be more strictly postverbal. Finally, relator nouns in some cases are genuinely historically derived from nouns and maintain some of the semantic and syntactic features of those nouns. Alves (2000) contains additional general information, and Alves (forthcoming, SEALS XIII), on the topic of Pacoh grammaticalization, explores the historical development of this class of nouns in Pacoh. See also Indrambarya (1995) on Thai and Sak-Humphry (1996) on Khmer.

for indirect objects, as in S145, versus beneficiaries or recipients of actions in a general sense, as in S146. In S145 the relator noun is a complement of the ditransitive verb ‘to give’.

S145: Dative relator noun

ŋa:j jɔ:n pi.ne:ʔ ʔa.dɔ: ku.mɔ:r
 3s give gift to girl
 ‘They give gifts to the girls.’

S146: Beneficiary dative relator noun

fij ʔn.nɛh taʔ ʔa.dɔ: ʔa.bil
 trap this make for mouse
 ‘This trap is made for mice.’

7.5.2 Predicate-taking relator nouns

The only Pacoh predicate-taking relator noun *ʔən* is similar to a relative pronoun in function since it is followed by a predicate, creating a modifying clause (see also §7.5.5). The time relator nouns *ʔn.dɔŋ* and *ho:j* ‘when/while’ (the latter, a Vietnamese loanword, *hỏi*) also take following clauses, which are sometimes non-finite verbs with the /ʔi-/ prefix, as in S147(c).

S147: Predicate-taking relator nouns

ti.kuəj ʔən ho:j li:
 people that skilled very
 (a) ‘the very skilled people.’

ŋa:j ʔən la.ləw
 3p that male
 (b) ‘those fellows’ (Lit. ‘they who are male’)

ʔn.dɔŋ ʔi.taʔ tu.miəŋ ki: ho:m
 when to-make crossbow 1s watch
 (c) ‘When they made crossbows, I watched.’

The general predicate-taking relator is unrestricted in the kinds of noun and verb dependents it can take. In S147(a), the relator noun takes a stative verb; in S147(b), it takes a predicate noun; in S148(a), the relator nouns takes an active/non-stative verb; and in S148(b) below, a predicate numeral noun.

S148: General relator noun and with an ordinal

ʔa.cɔ: ʔən pɔ:k ʔa.ŋa:ʔ ʔŋ.ki:
 dog that go quickly of-1s
 (a) ‘The dog that goes fast is mine.’

bɛ: ʔa.riəw ʔən bɑ:r
 bottle liquor that two
 (b) ‘the second bottle of wine’

Another word used to form ordinals is *t^{hi}*; a Vietnamese loanword (*thứ*), which is very restricted in that it only co-occurs with numeral nouns.

S149: Ordinal with relator and numeral

pɛ: ʔa.niəw t^{hi}: ba:r ɲiəm ʔi.ŋɔ:jʔ
 bottle wine (-th) two tasty to drink
 ‘The second bottle of wine was tasty.’

7.5.3 Instrumental relator nouns

Three instrumental relator nouns occur in the data: *daŋ*, *tək*, and *baŋ*, all of which mean ‘with/by means of’. The first word, which is related to the locational relator noun *daŋ* ‘place’, is the most commonly used of the three in the data, while the other two forms are loanwords (*tək* is from Bru in Quảng Trị province, and *baŋ* is from Vietnamese *bằng*).

S150: Instrumental relator noun

kiə daŋ ka.niə
 saw by saw
 (a) ‘to saw with a saw’

puh ʔa.bil tək du:j
 hit mouse by stick
 (b) ‘Hit the mouse with a stick.’

The word *baŋ* occurs in available data as the complement of subjectless verbs that have the [ʔi-] presyllable (§3.2.2).

S151: Instrumental relator noun with non-finite verb

kɪp ʔi.taʔ baŋ bul
kup trap to make by stone
 ‘As for the *kup* trap, it is made of stone.’

These words can serve as predicate heads, as in S152, in which the predicate is marked off by the clause-linking sentence particle *ki:*.

S152: Instrumental relator noun referring to material

kəl.laʔ ki: baŋ ʔa.lɔ:ŋ
 prop LINK by wood
 ‘As for the prop, it’s of wood.’

7.5.4 Locational relator nouns

Locational relator nouns (several of which are listed in §12.6) share the capacity to occur as the complements of the locative verb *ʔat* ‘to be situated at’ or other locative verbs (§10.6). These locational relator nouns then take non-locational nouns as complements. The most general locational relator noun *daŋ* ‘at the place/side of’ occurs most often in the data, perhaps due to its minimally restrictive semantic features.

S153: Locative relator noun

ta.lih ?ŋ.koh ?m.piən ki.ba:n
 put that top table
 (a) ‘Put that on the table.’

ki: ?at daŋ mi:ʔ
 1s at place of America
 (b) ‘I live in America.’

In the topic-comment constructions, these locational nouns are commonly the topics of impersonal verbs or existential nominal predicates, as in S153.

S154: Relator noun as a topic

?i.di:p kla:ŋ pɛ: ?a.nu:h
 underneath *klang*-layer three *anuh* layer
 ‘Under the *klang* floor layer are three *anuh* floor layers.’

7.5.5 Possessional relator nouns

Pacoh possessional relator nouns include two words differentiated by their complements, whether human or non-human. The form *?n.dɔ:*, historically derived from [*?ən*] plus the third-person singular pronoun [*dɔ:*], takes only noun complements with human semantic features. The other form is the non-person general possessional relator noun *?ən*, which takes any noun type (see also §7.5.2).

S155: Specific possessional relator noun

sɔ:j ?ən ?a.djəʔ^h
 tail of monkey
 (a) ‘the tail of a monkey’

duŋ ?n.dɔ: ?a.ca:j
 house of SPMY
 (b) ‘his house’

7.6 Scope nouns

Pacoh scope nouns (listed in §12.8) refer semantically to the totality or the individual distribution of their dependents. Pacoh scope nouns appear at the leftmost position in all multiple-word noun phrases, as in S156 and S157, though some of them may also appear as bare noun phrases.

S156: Totality scope nouns

ŋɛʔ pɛ: naʔ cɔ:m jə:
 all three UNIT know already
 (a) ‘All three of those people know already.’

ŋɛʔ ?a.pɛ: ti.kuəj pa.kəh
 all 3p UNIT Pacoh
 (b) ‘All of them are Pacoh people.’

S157: Distributive scope nouns

- (a) *tal pɥən lam peʔ* (each-four-unit-banana) ‘each of the four bananas’
 (b) *tal naʔ jɥən* (each-Vietnamese-person) ‘each Vietnamese person’
 (c) *ki:p ʔl.lam ʔa.li:k* (any-unit-pig) ‘every pig’
 (d) *mɔ:j ʔn.naʔ* (every person) ‘every person’

In S157(a), the scope noun refers to the totality of a single unit. Totality scope nouns can occur as a bare noun in a case-marked position, as in S158(b).

S158: Totality scope noun and scope noun as a bare noun phrase

- ʔa.ʔaj ɲɛʔ caʔ*
 hurt whole body
 (a) ‘My whole body hurts.’

- ɲɛʔ po:k jə:*
 all go already
 (b) ‘All (of them) went.’

The word *tal* ‘each’ is the only distributive scope noun that does not require a singular dependent. It has no constraint on plurality of its dependent and can take either singular and plural noun dependents, as in S159(a) and (b). In the data, there are no examples of this noun as the single element in a noun phrase.

S159: Poly-distributive scope noun

- tal pɥən lam ʔa.cə:*
 each four UNIT dog
 (a) ‘each of the four dogs’

- tal ʔn.naʔ*
 each one-UNIT
 (b) ‘each person’

Mono-distributive scope nouns consist of the three words *tɔ:f*, *tal* and *mɔ:j*, ‘every’, which co-occur with singular numerals and unit nouns. The distributive scope nouns *tɔ:f* and *mɔ:j* (likely derived from the homophonous word for ‘one’), which both mean ‘every’, refer to each of their dependents, as in S160, while *ki:p* ‘any’ refers to an indefinite range of members in a set, as in S161. There are no examples of these nouns as bare noun phrases.

S160: Mono-distributive scope nouns (‘every’)

- tɔ:f ʔn.naʔ ʃjər ci.ca:*
 every one-UNIT descend eat
 (a) ‘Every person sat and ate.’

- mɔ:j kən.tiʔ tʰəj.jawʔ pa.fə:l ʔa.na:*
 every time teacher call we
 (b) ‘Every time, the teacher calls us.’

S161: Mono-distributive scope noun (‘any’)

- ki:p lam ti.rɪək*
 any UNIT buffalo
 ‘any buffalo’

8 *Prepositions*

Prepositions in Pacoh serve a number of functions, including marking comitative, comparative, dative, equative, and locational constructions. Some of these semantico-syntactic categories are also expressed by the use of relator nouns (§7.5, and also see §4.4 for a discussion of the distinctions between the lexical categories).

8.1 Comitative preposition

The only comitative preposition in Pacoh, *ʔa.liŋ* ‘with’, typically adds an optional subject. The comitative preposition is semantically similar to coordinative conjunctions, but comitative prepositions differ from conjunctions in taking only one complement, while coordinative conjunctions can connect more than two. *ʔa.liŋ* may occur either before or after the verb phrase.

S162: Comitative preposition before verb

ki: ʔa.liŋ ke: ŋɔ:j? da:k

1s with friend drink water

(a) ‘I drank water with my friend.’

ki: ləj? dah po:k ʔa.liŋ ʔa.ca:j

1s no dare go with SPMY

(b) ‘I don’t dare to go with you.’

As adjuncts, comitative prepositional phrases tend not to separate verbs from their complements. In S163, *ʔa.liŋ* appears in its natural position, after the directional prepositional phrase complement.

S163: Comitative preposition as an adjunct

dɔ: po:k mɔt duj ʔa.liŋ ki:

3s go to into house with 1s

‘He went into the house with me.’

8.2 Comparative prepositions

Pacoh comparative prepositions *ti.lət* ‘more than’, *hə:n* ‘more than’ (a Vietnamese loanword), and *li:* ‘equal to’ form prepositional constructions after degree stative verbs (§10.1.4).

S164: Comparative prepositions and degree stative verbs

lam ?n.nɛh ?ɔ: ti.lət dɔ: ?n.tih

UNIT this good more-than 3s that

(a) ‘This one is better than that one.’

dɔ: ?a.jəŋ li: ?a.po:m

3s tall equal to chest

(b) ‘He is as tall as one’s chest.’

When negation is used, the negation word precedes the stative verb and not the preposition, as in S165.

S165: Negation of stative verb in comparative construction

lam ?n.nɛh ləj? ?ɔ: ti.lət dɔ: ?n.tih

UNIT this no good more-than 3s that

‘This one is not better than that one.’

8.3 Dative prepositions

Pacoh dative prepositions *jɔ:n* ‘to/for’ and *?alij* ‘to’ mark the recipients of actions, namely, dative objects. The semantic range of dative prepositions includes goals, as in S166, as well as beneficiaries, as in S167.

S166: Dative preposition with goal

dɔ: ləj? to:ŋ ?a.liŋ ki: mɔ:j kəl.lɔ:ŋ taj ?m.mɔ:

3s not speak to 1s one grain rice whichever

‘He didn’t say one word to me. (He didn’t speak even a grain of rice to me)’

S167: Dative preposition with beneficiary

ki: ləj? dah pləj pe? jɔ:n ?a.ca:j ?ŋ.koh

1s not dare buy banana for SPMY that

‘I don’t dare buy bananas for him.’

The preposition in S168 semantically refers to the beneficiary of an action. The noun complement of the beneficiary preposition is not receiving the rice, but rather is benefiting from the assistance of measuring the rice.

S168: Plain goal preposition

ki: pɔ:k to? cɔ:ʔ val ?a.fəʔ jɔ:n ?a.ʔɛ:m

1s go to market measure rice for SPMY

‘I’m going to the market to measure the rice for you.’

8.4 Equative prepositions

The single Pacoh equative preposition, *?a.rəʔ* ‘like/as’, semantically associates the manner of the action of the main verb with its noun complement (e.g. ‘Don’t do it *like* that’). It co-occurs only with non-stative verbs and is thus considered syntactically as well as semantically distinct from comparative prepositions. This form is related to the homophonous oblique-object verb form *?a.rəʔ* ‘to be like’ (§10.4.3.1).

S169: Associative goal preposition

nam ?a.ca:j ta? viək ?a.rə? ?ŋ.koh la: ?a.lɛ:ʔ li:
 if SPMY do work as that LINK tired very
 ‘If you work like that, then you’ll be tired.’

8.5 Locational prepositions

Pacoh locational prepositions (*ti.lət* ‘past’, *tɛ:* ‘from’, *to?* ‘to/at’, *?at* ‘at’, *mə:t* ‘into’) indicate either stationary or directional meanings.⁵⁷ Stationary location prepositions express the location of an entire event, while the directional location prepositions are complements of verbs expressing movement. S170 contains an example of both kinds, since the form *to?* expresses both ‘at’ and ‘to’.

S170: Stationary and non-stationary locational prepositions

to? ha.no:j ki: pə:k to? duŋ ?a.ca:j ?ŋ.koh
 at Hanoi 1s go to house SPMY that
 ‘In Hanoi, I went to his house.’

Directional prepositions co-occur with verbs of movement, and they typically follow those verbs, as in S171, though they can precede them.

S171: Movement verb and non-stationary preposition

pɛ: lam ?a.cɛ? par ti.lət vɛ:l
 three UNIT bird fly over village
 (a) ‘Three birds flew over the village.’

də: luh tɛ: kəl.luŋ duŋ
 3s run from inside house
 (b) ‘He ran from inside the house.’

There are two types of stationary prepositions, namely the locative preposition *?at*, which requires additional locational prepositions or relator nouns, and the non-locative types, *tɛ:* (homophonous with ‘from’), *ti:*, *to?* (homophonous with ‘arrive’ and ‘to’), and *tu:*,⁵⁸ all of which mean ‘at’ and take non-locational noun complements.

S172: Stationary prepositions

ki: ?at tɛ: mi:ʔ
 1s be at America
 N V P N
 (a) ‘I’m in America.’

⁵⁷ Corresponding homophonous verbs exist for some of these. The preposition *ti.lət* comes from the homophonous verb meaning ‘to pass’, *to?* from ‘arrive’, *?at* from ‘to reside’, and *mə:t* from ‘enter’. This is a typical Pan-Asiatic form of grammaticalization (see Matisoff 1991).

⁵⁸ These four forms all express the same meaning and show no distributional differences in available data. The preposition *to?* is derived from the verb meaning ‘arrive,’ *tɛ:* is most likely a Lao loanword, while the other two similar-sounding words are of unclear origins, though still possibly derived from the other words.

ki: tu.məŋ ʔat daŋ ʔŋ.koh
 1s live at place there
 N V P N N

(b) ‘I am living there.’

The locative *ʔat* can also take locational prepositions as complements, as in S173, but those preposition complements are themselves non-locative and do not take locational words as dependents, as in S173(c).

S173: Locative versus non-locative locational prepositions

- (a) *ʔat toʔ duŋ* (at-at-house) ‘at the house’
 (b) *ʔat ti: duŋ* (at-at-house) ‘at the house’
 (c) **toʔ ʔat duŋ* (at-at-house) ‘at the house’
 (d) **ti tɛ duŋ* (at-at-house) ‘at the house’

A typical use for Pacoh locational prepositions is to mark the location of impersonal verbs, as in S174.

S174: Locational preposition with impersonal verb

toʔ kruəŋ-ku.tjək hɛ: vi: ti.kuəj pa.kəh ka.tu: vən-kiəw
 at region 1p exist people Pacoh Katu Bru Van Kieu
 ‘In our region, there are Pacoh, Katu and Bru Van Kieu.’

Differentiating stationary and directional prepositions provides an explanation for the distributional differences of homophonous prepositional forms and verbs. In S175, whereas *ti.lət* can follow only ‘run’, the phonological form *toʔ* can follow both ‘run’ and ‘stay at’, showing that this phonological form represents two words, *toʔ*, a stationary preposition, and *toʔ*, a directional preposition.

S175: Movement verbs and direction prepositions

- (a) *dɔ: la.luh ti.lət duŋ* (3s-run-past-house) ‘He ran past the house.’
 (c) *dɔ: ʔat toʔ duŋ* (3s-situated-at-home) ‘He stays at home.’
 (d) **dɔ: ʔat ti.lət duŋ* (3s-situated-past-home) ‘*He stays past the house.’

Time succession can be expressed using the time preposition *je:/jə:* ‘after’ (related to the homophonous aspectual particle *je:/jə:* ‘already’).

S176: Use of the completive time preposition

je: ʔŋ.koh jɨl ra:w ʔɔ: cɛh
 after that take to clean good clean
 ‘After that get water and wash it till it’s clean.’ (Cubuat & Watson 1976)

8.6 VCT prepositions

VCT (verb-complement-taking) prepositions, like VCT verbs (§11), take predicates as complements, including both noun and verb predicates. This class of prepositions consists of purpose and temporal prepositions.

8.6.1 Temporal prepositions

Temporal prepositions (*to?* ‘when’ and ‘until’, *tɛ:* ‘from’, *ʃɛ:* ‘after’, *ʃə:* ‘after’, *kuə* ‘after’) in Pacoh indicate the completion or non-completion of their predicate noun or verb complements in relation to their clausal predicates. Existing data show prepositional phrases either in sentence-initial or sentence-final position.

Completive time predicate-taking prepositions include both prepositions that take clauses with subjects, as in S177, and those that take clauses without subjects, as in S178. The form *to?* functions to indicate a place in time or the goal of time, as in S179.

S177: Completed time VCT preposition with finite verb complement

ʃə: dɔ: ki.kəɾ ʔa:m vɔ:t noh
 after 3s afraid 3s jump here
 ‘After it’s startled, it jumps over this.’

S178: Completed time VCT preposition with non-finite verb complement

ʃə: ʔi.hɔ:k dɔ: rɔ:m ʔa.ʔi: cɔm ʔa.li:k
 after to study 3s help father tend to pig
 ‘After studying, he helped his father tend to the pigs.’

S179: Goal and non-goal time prepositions

to? ku.mɔ: tu.pat tuəj? na:m po:k hɔ:k
 when year seven age Nam go study
 (a) ‘At the age of seven, Nam was able to go to school.’

ki: hɔ:k to? cu:-pət
 1s study until Sunday
 (b) ‘I will study until Sunday.’

In available data, a few nouns recurred as predicate complements of these time prepositions, including *ʔŋ.koh* ‘that’, *pruə?* ‘things to do/work’, and time nouns (e.g. day, year, etc.). Unlike the complements of locational prepositions, these nouns are events in time, and so they can, in terms of time, be reached and co-occur with or be followed by other events.

S180: Time predicate-taking preposition with predicate noun

ʃə: pryə? ba: la.luh to? duŋ-ʔi.te?
 after matters NAME run to clinic
 ‘After all was done, Ba ran to the clinic.’

8.6.2 Purpose prepositions

Purpose prepositions are not commonly used in Pacoh speech. More typically, sequences of verbs are used to express intention, as in S181.

S181: Intention expressed in a verb series

pɛ:h da:ʔ ŋəj?
 get water drink
 (a) ‘Get some water to drink.’

ki: ta? sij ?a.cuət ?a.bil
 1s make trap to trap mouse
 (b) ‘I made a trap to trap mice.’

Intention predicate-taking prepositions. *ʃo:n* and *dɔ:ʔ* ‘in order to’,⁵⁹ are adjuncts used to express the purpose of an action. Their predicate complements may or may not contain subjects. The use of the intent preposition *ʃo:n* is much more common than *dɔ:ʔ*, the latter of which could be a recent Vietnamese calque.⁶⁰ Whereas verbs for ‘to give’ are common sources of intention prepositions in general among other Southeast Asian languages,⁶¹ Pacoh has purpose meaning counterparts for the Vietnamese words for both ‘to give’ and ‘to put’, suggesting at least the possibility of language contact and influence.

Typically, when an upper clause has the same subject as a lower clause, the lower clause does not contain that noun. However, as in S182(a), it is possible to have an overt subject in the lower clause.

S182: VCT purpose prepositions

ki: ta? ʃo:n ki: bo:n ca:
 1s work so to 1s able eat
 (a) ‘I work so that I can eat.’

ki: hɔ:k ka:ŋ-pa.koŋ ʃo:n bu:ʃ
 1s study Pacoh language for pleased
 (b) ‘I study Pacoh in order to have fun.’

Subjectless [ʔi-] verbs can also be the complements of these VCT prepositions, as in S183.

S183: VCT preposition with non-finite [ʔi-] verb

ki: ta.lah ?n.truəj ?a.li:k ʃo:n ?i.ca:-?i.ca:
 1s let out chicken pig for to eat
 ‘I let the chickens and pigs out to eat.’

Purpose prepositions are differentiated from their homophonous verb counterparts by the types of noun complements they take. In S184, the purpose preposition is not a verb taking the first person pronoun as an ‘object’. The upper verb takes the goal of the action, as the [ʔa-] pronoun indicates, so the second pronoun must be the subject of the lower verb, not the complement of the intent preposition.

S184: Intent preposition versus a verb

vit ku.laj ?n.tih ?a.ki: ʃo:n ki: ca:
 throw fruit that to-1s so to 1s eat
 ‘Throw that fruit to me for me to eat.’

⁵⁹ These prepositions are homophonous with the verbs *ʃo:n* ‘to give’ and *dɔ:ʔ* ‘to put’.

⁶⁰ Vietnamese *để* represents both the word meaning ‘to put’ and the word meaning ‘in order to’, both sharing distributional patterns with *ʃo:n* in Pacoh.

⁶¹ Clark (1989) discusses this derivational pattern among Southeast Asian languages.

9 *Sentence particles*

Sentence particles in Pacoh either lie in sentence-final position, such as aspect, interrogative, or mood particles, or have other restricted positions, such as interclausal positions, though both types take entire clauses as their semantic scope. Sentence particles differ from adverbs in that while adverbs modify verbs semantically in terms of manner and aspect, sentence particles tend to indicate mood or inquiry. In addition, other sentence particles mark condition, cause and effect, topic and comment, among other interclausal relationships.

9.1 Aspect sentence particles (statements and questions)

Pacoh aspect sentence particles mark completion or inquire about completion of an action or state. The two phonetically similar aspectual sentence particles, *je:* and *jə:*, ‘already’, which mark the completion of an action or condition, occur without apparent restrictions on the co-occurrence of verb subtypes. In S185(a), a basic verb appears, while in S185(b) and (c), there are co-occurring progressive and negation preverbs.

S185: Aspectual sentence particles as dependents of different verb subcategories

?a.pɛ: po:k jə:

3p go already

(a) ‘They’ve already left.’

?a.pɛ: ?at ta? jə:

3s PROG do already

(b) ‘They’re working already.’

?a.pɛ: jo:h po:k jə:

3p not yet go already

(c) ‘They’ve not yet gone.’

The single aspect interrogative sentence particle *jo:h* is used to ask whether or not an action has been completed. The responses consist of the verb in question plus an aspectual *je:* to indicate completion, as in S186(b), or the homophonous auxiliary verb *jo:h* ‘not yet’ to indicate lack of completion, as in S186(c).

S186: Aspect interrogative sentence particle*?a.lɛ:ʔ jo:h₂*

tired yet

(a) 'Are you tired yet?'

?a.lɛ:ʔ jɛ:

tired already

(b) 'I am.'

jo:h₁ ?a.lɛ:ʔ

not yet tired

(c) 'Not yet.'

9.2 Interrogative sentence particle

Interrogative sentence particles are used to elicit affirmative-negative answers. They can occur in sentences with a rising interrogative intonational pattern. Both primary interrogative sentence particles have negation predicate-taking verb counterparts that can be used in responses.

S187: Interrogative intonation*li: ləjʔ*

correct no?

(a) 'Is that right?'

ləjʔ li:

no correct

(b) 'No, it's not.'

The simple interrogative sentence particles *ləjʔ₂* and *bɪʃ* are used to elicit affirmative-negative answers. They occur with both nominal and verbal predicate regents. The answer is typically the head verb alone, as in S188(b).

S188: Simple interrogative sentence particle*jo:l dɔj ləjʔ*

still-exist cooked-rice no?

(a) 'Is there still some rice left?'

jo:l

still-exist

(b) 'Yes, there is.'

This subcategory also co-occurs with predicate noun regents.

S189: Predicate noun with sentence particle*?m.par ?n.nɛh la: ?n.dɔ: tʰɔj ?ŋ.koh ləjʔ*

thing this be of:3s teacher that no?

'Is this that teacher's (possession)?'

The compound form *?a.liŋ-ləjʔ* 'or not' occurs in sentence-final position in the data. The form *?a.liŋ* is a conjunction meaning 'or'.

S190: ‘Or not’ sentence particle

ʔm.par ʔn.nəh ʔa.ca:j li: ʔa.liŋ-ləjʔ
 thing this SPMY correct or not
 ‘Is this yours?’

9.3 Clause-linking sentence particles

Sequences of clauses expressing cause and effect, condition and result, and chronological sequencing do not require overt lexical marking but rather may occur alone with simple juxtaposition of clauses, as in S191.

S191: Time versus condition

ʃjəŋ taʔ poh kiə ki: po:k ka.tik kiə
 wind cause open door 1s go close door
 ‘The wind made the door open, (so) I went to close it.’

While such sentences are common, sentence particles, which clearly express intended clausal relationships, are also used. Clause-linking sentence particles⁶² precede predicates and are syntactically bound to those predicates. Those clauses in turn are syntactically bound to other clauses, in which case they serve as dependents as in S192(a), or they may stand as root predicates bound semantically to a broader discourse context, as in S192(b).

S192: Clause-linking prepositions as dependents

də: to:ŋ koh ki: kəm.maŋ
 3s talk so 1s listen
 (a) ‘He talked, so I listened.’

koh ki: kəm.maŋ
 so 1s listen
 (b) ‘So I listened.’

Clause-linking sentence particles have a range of semantic qualities and functions. They express cause (*vi:* or *cə:* ‘because’),⁶³ result (*koh* ‘thus’), and condition (*nam* ‘if’ and *ʔa.bi:f* ‘otherwise’) while linking two predicates, as in the examples in S193(a) to S193(d).

S193: Clause-linking predicate-taking prepositions

vi: ʔŋ.koh ki: po:k
 have that 1s go
 (a) ‘Because of that, I went.’

də: po:k koh ki: dəj po:k
 3s go thus 1s too go
 (b) ‘He went, so I went too.’

⁶² In Alves (2000), these words were considered to be predicate-taking (requiring predicate complements) prepositions.

⁶³ This form at first sight might appear to be a Vietnamese loanword, as in *vi* ‘because (which itself is possibly a nativized Sino-Vietnamese form) though Pacoh has a homophonous form *vi:* ‘to have/exist.’ Thus, Pacoh *vi:* ‘because’ may also be the result of the grammaticalization of *vi:* ‘have/exist’.

nam ki: po:k dɔ: ləj? po:k
 if 1s go 3s no go
 (c) ‘If I go, he won’t go.’

maj po:k ?a.bi:f ki: ləj? po:k
 2s go otherwise 1s no go
 (d) ‘Go, otherwise I won’t.’

These sentence particles have general clause-linking functions, but often they are not needed to link sentences in Pacoh. Sentences like S194, which has no clause-linking sentence particle, are generally pronounced without intonational pauses.

S194: Predicate-taking verb with result complement

?n.truəj par je: ki: ləj? bo:n kɔ:p dɔ:
 chicken fly already 1s no able catch 3s
 ‘The chicken flew away (so) I couldn’t catch it.’

The question word *vi: ?i.mɔ:* ‘why’ is here considered a sentence particle based on its distributional properties and its semantic scope.

S195: Interrogative clause-linking sentence particle

vi: ?i.mɔ: maj ?a.ŋo: ki:
 why 2s rest thus
 ‘Why are you resting?’

Condition may be overtly expressed with either the word *nam* or *lah*. In available data, conditional clauses occur before the regent, as in S196, but they occur after as well, as in S197.

S196: ‘If’ before the regent

nam pɥən na? ti.kuəj ?i.ta? pɛ: kər.lɔ:h
 if four UNIT person to make three floor layer
 ‘If there are four people, they can make three *karloh* floor layer sections.’

S197: ‘If’ after the regent

?i.ta? pɛ: kər.lɔ:h nam pɥən na? ti.kuəj
 to make three floor layer if four UNIT person
 ‘Three *karloh* can be made, if there are four people.’

In conditional constructions, the main verb may or may not co-occur with a ‘thus’ general predicate-taking sentence particle, as in S198.

S198: ‘If’ with and without ‘thus’

nam kəl.la? li: luh
 if scared very run
 (a) ‘If he’s very scared he’ll run away.’

nam kəl.la? li: koh luh
 if scared very thus run
 (b) ‘If he’s very scared, he’ll run away.’

Further data is needed to better understand the function of sentence particles in conditional and chronological relationships, which overlap semantically.

9.4 Comment sentence particles

Comment sentence particles serve as links in topic-comment constructions in which the initial element is highlighted as a theme, as in S199. The possible semantic relations that may obtain between the two connected elements are numerous, and may semantically highlight or simply propose semantic notions such as subjects, objects, time, location, cause, and condition (see §4.2 for additional examples).

S199: Comment sentence particle with subject theme

ʔa.diəf la: ləjʔ hoj dɔ:ʔ fɔ:ʔ ma: dɔ:ʔ pa.fə:m
 monkey LINK no able grow hair but grow fur
 ‘As for monkeys, they can’t grow human hair but rather grow fur.’

There are four words in this class: *ki:*, *koh*, *ma:* and *la:*. While all of these words may be followed by verbs, the sentence particle *la:* may also take nouns as complements. More than one noun can occur as the topic, as in S200.

S200: Comment sentence particle with object theme

kəl.lɔ: siŋ ki: ʔi.cə:m taʔ
 trap trap LINK to know make
 ‘As for the *kallo* and *sing* traps, I’m able to make them.’

Theme-marked nouns are syntactically distinct (though semantically/logically related) from complements of verbs in the comment portion of a sentence. Thus, a sentence can have both a noun as a topic and a semantically corresponding subject in the comment clause, as in S201.

S201: Semantically linked topic and subject

ʔa.bil ki: ʔan mət toʔ noh
 mouse LINK 3s enter to here
 ‘As for the mouse, it goes in here.’

While comment sentence particles are common, a topic can appear in the sentence initial position without the sentence particle, as in S202, though topics still may be highlighted by an intonational pause.

S202: Theme without comment sentence particle

ʔa.ʔe:m ʔa.cɔ: kap je:
 3s (younger) dog bite already
 ‘It was he who the dog bit.’

The comment sentence particle *la:* is also used to link nouns in copula-like constructions since they connect topic nouns with predicate nouns in equational constructions.⁶⁴ Noun predicates without lexical marking are prevalent in Pacoh, so *la:*, which is optional and

⁶⁴ This may be in part due to the original function of this Vietnamese loanword, *là*, which is to link two nouns in an equational construction, though it is also used in Vietnamese in more typical topic-comment constructions.

parallel in distribution to other sentence particles, does not have verb status. Moreover, the form *la:* is not considered a verb since it cannot be negated.⁶⁵ Such constructions function not only in equational construction but in existential ones as well, as in S203.

S203: Locational topic and existential comment

ŋɛ? duŋ-ve:l hɛ: la: ti.kuəj pa.kəh
 all village 1p LINK people Pacoh
 ‘Throughout our whole village, there are Pacoh.’

Theme-marked nouns appear either with or without comment predicate-taking sentence particles, as in S204(a) and (b).

S204: Equational construction with and without sentence particle

ʔn.nɛh ʔŋ.ki:
 this mine
 (a) ‘This is mine.’

ʔn.nɛh la: ʔŋ.ki:
 this (link) mine
 (b) ‘As for this, it’s mine.’

9.5 Imperative sentence particle

Urging another person can be done with a sentence-final particle *ʔaw*, as in S205. Urging can also be expressed with *hə:* and *hi:*.

S205: Imperative sentence particle and interrogative noun

pləj ʔa.məh ʔaw
 buy something IMP
 (a) ‘Buy something.’

ki: pa.pi: ʝo:n ʔa.maj kam.maŋ ʔaw
 1s speak for to-2s listen IMP
 (b) ‘When I talk to you, listen.’

9.6 Mood sentence particle

The mood sentence particles function to express emphasis or to lighten the sentence. Words such as *bə:*, *ʔən*, *hə:* and *hi:* and provide mild emphasis.

S206: Emphatic mood sentence particles

dəj ʔn.nɛh ʃəm li: hə:
 rice this tasty very EMPH
 (a) ‘Boy, this rice is good.’

li: hi:
 correct EMPH
 (b) ‘You’re right, alright!’

⁶⁵ This is in contrast with Vietnamese *là*, which can be negated by *không phải* in equational constructions. Negation of nouns in Pacoh is accomplished by the use of the negation verb *ʔih* (see §11.6).

10 *Basic verbs*

Verbs in this grammar are divided primarily by distribution and secondarily by morphosyntactic and semantic properties. The primary division in this work is between verbs that take only nouns as complements and those that require verbs as complements (what are called verb-complement-taking verbs or ‘VCT’ verbs, dealt with in Chapter 11). The primary categories include intransitive, transitive, and ditransitive verbs as well as impersonal verbs (i.e. true subjectless verbs), stative verbs, locative verbs, mode verbs, oblique-object verbs, and various combinations of these primary verb subtypes.

In many cases, homophonous forms occur across subgroups, but as much as they maintain distinctions in semantic and syntactic properties, they are treated as distinct words. A lack of a complete paradigm further supports the idea that these are held in the mental lexicon as distinct words rather than classes of similarly derived word classes that could be accounted for simply by derivational or analogical rules.

10.1 Intransitive verbs

Intransitive verbs in Pacoh cannot take object complements. They are further divided into four subcategories: general, inanimate-subject (middle voice), reciprocal, and stative intransitive verbs.

10.1.1 *General intransitive verbs*

Pacoh general simple intransitive verbs encompass a wide range of semantic fields. The general intransitive verb subcategory is the least marked category and consists of the largest number of intransitive verbs. While these sentences often take subjects, subjects may be omitted in various discourse contexts

S207: Simple intransitive verbs

na:m ləj? ŋo:

NAME no rest

(a) ‘Nam isn’t resting.’

ta:n ?a.kjər

weave to thickness

(b) ‘Weave it thick.’

ʔa.kəp to:ŋ ɣən li:
 don't speak loud very
 (c) 'Don't speak loudly.'

10.1.2 Middle voice: inanimate-subject intransitive verbs

In contrast with general intransitive verbs (such as *ta.jiŋ* 'stand', *ŋo:* 'rest', *bi?* 'sleep') which generally have animate subjects, certain verbs (such as *ʃi:p* 'to wear (on any body portion)', *tru:* 'to wear (on the upper body)', *viət* 'to write') take inanimate subjects that are semantically the recipients of the action, as in S208 (cf. English 'This car drives well'). As there is no overt marking of the passive (morphological, verbal, or otherwise) in these instances, they are likely examples of middle voice constructions.⁶⁶

S208: Middle voice verb

siŋ ʔn.nəh ta? cuət ʔa.bil
 trap this make catch mice
 (a) 'This sing trap is made to catch mice.'

kəm.pə:ŋ ʔn.nəh sər ʔa.ʔɔ:
 ladder this climb good
 (b) 'This ladder is easily climbed.'

Inanimate-subject intransitive verbs generally have homophonous transitive counterparts. Such verbs often take general manner adverbs, as in S209(a), though some can take resultative adverbs as well, as in S208(b) and S209(b).

S209: Middle voice verbs with adverbials

ʔa:w ʔŋ.koh ʃi:p pʃəj?
 shirt that wear suitable
 (a) 'That shirt fits (you) well.'

pe:ʔ ʔn.nəh ca: ʔa.jəm
 banana this eat tasty
 (b) 'This banana tastes good.'

Another subclass of verbs in this category is verbs that have the [ʔi-] prefix to indicate that an overt subject is not used.

S210: Middle verbs with the [ʔi-] prefix

kup ʔi.ta? baŋ bul
 trap one-make of stone
 (a) 'The *kup* trap is made of stone.'

ʔŋ.kar ʔa.pən ho:j ʔi.sip
 skin bear able one-wear
 (b) 'Bearskin can be worn.'

In fact, these so-called 'middle voice' verbs that participate in this type of syntactic construction are common enough to demonstrate a more general fact about the topic-

⁶⁶ Also, see S37 in §4.1.

comment type syntax of Pacoh instead of a simply a special class of verbs. Nevertheless, the class of verbs that fit into this category does ultimately form a closed set of verbs (i.e. verbs that take inanimate nouns as their semantic patients).

10.1.3 Reciprocal intransitive verbs

Reciprocal simple intransitive verbs have either the non-causative word presyllable [tər-] (or one of its phonological variants) or the causative reciprocal form [pər-] (see §3.2.4).

Table 42: Reciprocal simple intransitive verbs

Non-causative	Causative
<i>tər.taʔ</i> ‘fight with each other’	<i>pər.klɔw</i> ‘make each other answer’
<i>tər.tɔŋ</i> ‘talk with each other’	<i>pər.hɔ:k</i> ‘make each other learn’
<i>tər.kap</i> ‘bite each other’	<i>pər.ca:</i> ‘make each other eat’

Both verb types require either nouns that are inherently plural (as in S211(a)) or subjects connected by conjunctions or comitative prepositions (as in S211(b)).

S211: Reciprocal verbs

ʔa.pɛ: ʔat tər.taʔ

3p process fight-RECIP

(a) ‘They’re fighting with each other.’

ʔa.ma: ʔa.liŋ ʔa.ca:j tər.rɔ:m-rɔ:m

SPFO and SPMY fight-RECIP

(b) ‘She and he are helping each other.’

There is a small subclass of causative reciprocal intransitive verbs that share the word-initial form [pər-]. Like non-causative reciprocal verbs, they require plural subjects, but they also have causative semantic properties with the effect that the nouns cause each other to perform some action.

S212: Causative reciprocal verb

hɛ: pər.cuŋ toʔ ʔŋ.ki:m triəŋ

1p make-gather at middle school

(a) ‘We gathered in the middle of the school.’

li.mə: ti.kuəj tər.tɔ:m

how many person spoke-reciprocal

(b) ‘How many people talked with each other?’

10.1.4 Stative intransitive verbs

Stative verbs are those words in Pacoh that cannot be the dependents of the preverbal marker of the progressive *ʔat*, as in S213. The largest subclass of stative verbs in Pacoh is descriptive stative verbs, sampled in S214. These verbs participate in comparative constructions (§8.2).

S213: Non-stative versus stative verbs

dɔː ʔat caː dɔːj

3s PROG eat rice

(a) 'He's eating rice.'

**dɔː ʔat ʔa.lɛʔ liː*

3s PROG tired very

(b) '*He's being very tired.'

S214: Descriptive degree stative verbs

ʔaːw ʔn.nɛh ku.ban liː

shirt this thin very

(a) 'This shirt's pretty thin'

ʔa.lɔːŋ ʔŋ.koh kiː kɛt

tree that so small

(b) 'As for that tree, it's small.'

Degree descriptive stative verbs also include a class of forms that share word shape and distributional requirements. Multitude general stative verbs share the [Ca-] presyllable, in which the initial consonant is the same as the derivationally-related monosyllabic base. These verbs interpret their subjects as plural, as in S215(b).

S215: Multitude general stative verb

ʔa.lɔːŋ kiː pɪt

tree that big

(a) 'That tree is large.'

ʔa.lɔːŋ kiː pa.pɪt

tree that big

(b) 'Those trees are large.'

Most descriptive stative verbs carry semantic properties of degree and can take as a dependent the intensifying *liː* 'very'.

S216: Degree stative verbs

baːj diːŋʔ liː

lesson difficult very

'The lessons are very difficult.'

The non-degree stative verbs *ku.cɛt* 'die' and *cɛh* 'be born' cannot take intensifying adverbs.

S217: General non-descriptive stative verb

maj ku.cɛt vaːf pi.nah

2s die become ghost

(a) 'After you die, you become a ghost.'

tu.mɔː maj cɛh

where 3s born

(b) 'Where were you born?'

Non-descriptive degree stative verbs, which are few in number, are verbs with cognitive semantic scope, including *?ijn* ‘to like’, and *?a.?ijn* ‘to hate’.

S218: Cognitive degree stative verb

ki: ?ijn li:
1s like/want very
‘I like it a lot.’

10.2 Transitive verbs

Transitive verbs require subjects and objects, objects which are not locative, inchoative, or oblique objects. Typically, the objects of transitive verbs in Pacoh may be topicalized, that is, made into presentential themes, as in S219. Transitive verbs in Pacoh may belong to one of three subcategories: general, causative (having the [pa-] prefix), or [ʔi-] complement transitive verbs.

S219: Transitive verb with a presentential theme

?m.bar ?ən dɔ: pləj ki: li: ?ijn
the one that 3s buy 1s true want
‘I really want the one he bought.’

10.2.1 General transitive verbs

General transitive verbs are the least marked and most numerous in this category. S220 shows two sample sentences.

S220: Transitive verbs

ki: ?a.dah təm.muh ?a.ca:j
1s fear meet SPMY
(a) ‘I was afraid of meeting you.’

ku:j ba.lo: ?aw
carry backpack IMP
(b) ‘Carry the backpack.’

Two minor subclasses of general transitive verbs include the degree and the reciprocal subcategories. There is a small class of degree simple transitive verbs, including *?ijn* ‘like/want’, *?a.mɔ:f* ‘love/be fond of’, and *?a.?ijn* ‘hate’. Also, there are reciprocal transitive verbs which require plural subjects, as illustrated in S221(b). (See also §10.1.3 on reciprocal intransitive verbs.)

S221: Degree and reciprocal transitive verb

hɛ: ?a.mɔ:f li: t^həj-jaw? hɛ:
1p love very teacher 1s
(a) ‘We really love our teacher.’

ba:r-pɛ: ?a.?ɛm tər.piən ?a:w
a few youth exchange clothes
(b) ‘A few young people exchanged clothes.’

10.2.2 Causative transitive verbs

Causative transitive verbs, which share the word-initial form [pa-] (§3.2.1), generally have homophonous correlates in the transitive VCT (i.e. those taking lower clauses) verb subcategory. Some words found to belong to this subcategory include *pa.ʔa:k* ‘to make play,’ *pa.ra:w* ‘to cause to clean,’ and *pa.hət* ‘to cause to sniff,’ though there are dozens of words in this category (see §3.2.1 and S. Watson 1966).

S222: Causative transitive verb

ki: pa.hət ʔa.cə:

1s make-sniff dog

‘I made the dog sniff (at something).’ (S. Watson 1966)

10.2.3 Infinitival complement transitive verbs

Complement verbs in Pacoh share the [ʔi-] presyllable and do not take overt subjects.⁶⁷ They typically function like infinitives, following variously verbs, adjectives, and nouns. While this morpheme has some significant amount of productivity, it does appear to be restricted overall to active transitive verbs. These verbs function in several ways. First, they commonly follow stative verbs that semantically qualify the action, as in S223(a).

S223: Complement simple intransitive verb

ku.tjək ʔn.nəh ʔiən li: ʔi.biʔ

ground this easy very to dig

(a) ‘This ground is easy to dig.’

ʔjəjʔ ʔi.sip ləjʔ

fit to wear INT

(b) ‘Does it fit you?’

Next, they sometimes follow nouns, describing their purpose or usage, as in S224.

S224: Purpose verbs after nouns

hɛ: vi: dɔ:j ʔi.ca: ʔa:w ʔi.sip

1p have rice to eat clothes to wear

(a) ‘We have rice to eat and clothes to wear.’

ki: plo:h ʔa.ca:j ba:r kəw ʔən ʔi.plo:h

1s ask SPMY two question which to ask

(b) ‘I’m asking you two questions.’

Third, these verbs sometimes follow certain grammatical words, such as the negative prohibitive ‘don’t’, time words such as ‘after’, and certain auxiliaries, as in S225.

⁶⁷ This category of affixed-verb is commonly used in Pacoh but is not seen in other Mon-Khmer languages. The special nature of these forms is dealt with in this grammar only to a basic degree, and certainly other syntactic and pragmatic aspects of these verbs have other details that need to be explored and explained.

S225: Purpose verbs after grammatical words

ʔa.kəp ʔi.ʃo:n ʔa.kaj ti.ku: ku.tjək
 don't to-let child sit ground
 (a) 'Don't let the child sit on the ground.'

ʃə: ʔi.hək dɔ: həp ca: dɔj
 after to-study 3s hurry eat rice
 (b) 'After studying, he rushed to eat his rice.'

Finally, these verbs commonly appear as the predicates in middle voice constructions (§10.1.2) and topic-comment constructions (§4.2 and §9.4). The exact usage of these verbs forms need to be dealt with in more depth in future studies.

10.2.4 Locative transitive verbs

Transitive locative verbs require three complements: a subject, an object, and a locational goal. Often, locational goals must be marked by locative prepositions or relator nouns, as in S226(a) and (b). S226(b) also shows an example of the subclass of causative locative transitive verbs, such as *pa.ŋoh* 'bring out' and *ta.mət* 'to bring in'.

S226: Locative transitive verb

dɔ:ʔ pɛ: ʔa.teh ʔa.ʔi:m ʃjər ku.tjəkʔ
 put three baskets corn down ground
 (a) 'Put the three baskets down on the ground.'

ʔa.ʃər ʔe.ʔɛ:m toʔ duŋ
 bring up child to house
 (b) 'Bring the child up to the house.'

Transitive locative verbs differ from ditransitive verbs by the kinds of prepositions and relator nouns they can and cannot take as complements. Whereas oblique-object verbs (§10.4) require dative prepositions, relator nouns, or pronouns as complements, locative verbs require locational nouns or prepositions.

S227: Locative versus oblique-object verbs

kɪ: vit pɛ:ʔ toʔ dɔ:
 1s toss banana to 3s
 (a) 'I threw the banana to him.'

kɪ: ʃo:n pɛ:ʔ ʔa.dɔ:
 1s give banana to-3s
 (b) 'I gave him the banana.'

10.3 Ditransitive verbs

Pacoh ditransitive verbs—which require a subject, direct object, and indirect object—consist of two subcategories—bare and non-bare. Non-bare ditransitive verbs require dative pronouns, dative relator nouns, or dative prepositions to mark the indirect object.

Bare ditransitive nouns, which are much less common in the data than their non-bare counterparts, take non-dative nouns as indirect objects.

S228: Non-bare ditransitive verb

dɔː pa.cɔːm baːj ʔa.dɔː naːm
 3s teach lesson to NAME
 ‘He taught Nam the lesson.’

When these verbs take theme nouns in topic-comment constructions, topicalized nouns only correspond to the direct object, as in S229.

S229: Direct object corresponding to topic

li.mɔː pəl.luk faːc ʔn.nəh kiː jɔːn ʔa.dɔː tʰəj-jaw kiː
 several UNIT books this 1s give to teacher 1s
 ‘As for these several books, I’m giving (them) to my teacher.’

Bare ditransitive verbs take non-dative nouns, as in S230. Unlike their non-bare counterparts, bare ditransitive verbs require a specific order of indirect-before-direct objects. The only verbs found so far in this subclass are causative verbs.

S230: Causative transitive oblique-object verb

kiː pa.caː dɔː dɔːj
 1s feed 3s rice
 (a) ‘I fed him some rice.’

ʔa.kəp pa.ʔaːk ʔa.ʔeːm ʔa.ciːw
 don’t make-play SPNY knife
 (b) ‘Don’t give him a knife to play with.’ (S. Watson 1966)

Non-bare ditransitive verbs are predominant in the data, occurring much more regularly than do the bare counterparts. Non-bare ditransitive verbs do not restrict the relative order of their postverbal direct and indirect objects, as in S231(a) and (b).

S231: Two orderings of direct and indirect objects

jɔːn ʔa.kiː ku.laj
 give to-1s fruit
 (a) ‘Give me the fruit.’

jɔːn ku.laj ʔa.kiː
 give fruit to-1s
 (b) ‘Give the fruit to me.’

These verbs differ from transitive locative verbs, which require either locational prepositions or relator nouns. The sentence in S232(a) is ungrammatical with a ditransitive verb with a locational preposition, but it is grammatical with a dative relator noun in S232(b), and a dative preposition in S232(c).

S232: Differentiating locative and oblique-object verbs

**jyən pa.tɛːc ʔa.liːk toʔ pa.kəh*
 Vietnamese sell pig to Pacoh
 (a) ‘The Vietnamese sell pigs to the Pacoh.’

jʉən pa.tɛ:c ʔa.li:k ʔa.dɔ: pa.kəh
 Vietnamese sell pig to Pacoh
 (b) ‘The Vietnamese sell pigs to the Pacoh.’

jʉən pa.tɛ:c ʔa.li:k jɔ:n pa.kəh
 Vietnamese sell pig to Pacoh
 (c) ‘The Vietnamese sell pigs to the Pacoh.’

There are causative ditransitive verbs with the [pa-] prefix, as in S233, which demonstrates that it is a non-bare verb requiring a dative complement.

S233: Causative non-bare transitive oblique-object verb

ki: pa.cɔ:m baj ʔa.dɔ: hɔ:k-si:n
 1s teach lesson to student
 ‘I taught the lesson to the student.’

The semantic goal of the action may be marked by dative pronouns, which all have the presyllable [ʔa-] (see §7.3.3.3), as in S234.

S234: Beneficiary pronoun as indirect object

ʔa.ʔam na:m pləj ʔa.dɔ: mɔ:j lam bɔ:ŋ
 mother NAME buy for:3s one UNIT ball
 ‘Nam’s mother bought a ball for him.’

10.4 Oblique-object verbs

Oblique-object verbs take nouns that tend not to be manipulated by actions but rather are the results of actions, as in S235(a), or the focus of conditions, as in S235(b). They differ from transitive verbs, in which the objects are directly manipulated goals of verbs, and moreover, regular objects may freely serve as topics in topic-comment constructions, while oblique-objects may not.

S235: Simple oblique-object verbs: result and focus

ki: ta:n ʔa.cɔ:jʔ
 1s weave basket
 (a) ‘I’m weaving a basket.’

ki: ʔa.ʔaj pəl.luŋ li:
 1s sick stomach very
 (b) ‘I’m very sick to my stomach.’

Simple oblique-object verbs constitute four main subcategories—general, goal, stative, and speech—which combine to create seven categories. Speech oblique-object verbs take quote nouns as complements. Goal oblique-object verbs take dative pronouns or dative relator nouns in the dative case form. Stative and general oblique-object verbs cannot be the dependents of the preverbal progressive marker *ʔat*. General oblique-object verbs tend to express the creation of things. Subsequent sections discuss each subcategory.

10.4.1 General oblique object verbs

General oblique-object verbs, which tend to have inchoative meanings, as in S236, do not have specific semantic requirements for their dependents, though the complements of these verbs are the results of the action rather than the affected ‘objects’ of the actions.

S236: General oblique-object verbs

ki: ti.ʔo:ʔ ʔa.va:h

1s vomit rice

(a) ‘I vomited rice.’

maj ku.cət vaf pi.nah

2s die become ghost

(b) ‘When you die, you become a ghost.’

These verbs can take resultative adverbs or purpose predicate-taking prepositions, but only after noun complements, as in S237.

S237: General oblique-object verb with adverb

ta:n ʔa.cojʔ ʃo:n ʔa.kiər

weave basket for to thickness

‘Weave the basket so that it’s thick.’

10.4.2 Speech and quote oblique-object verbs

The verbs in this category take either nouns or quoted speech as complements. Speech oblique-object verbs require dative pronouns, relator nouns, or prepositions as complements.

S238: Goal oblique-object verbs

dɔ: to:n ʔa.ki:

3s speak to-1s

‘He spoke to me.’

Speech oblique-object verbs (such as *to:n* ‘to say’, *pa.pi:* ‘to talk of’, *ploh* ‘to ask’, and *ʔo:ʃ* ‘to answer’) take quote-derived speech (§7.1.4) as complements.

S239: Speech oblique-object verb

ki: pa.pi ki-po:k-ju-lic-toʔ-viət-na:m

1s talk of I went travelling in Vietnam

(a) ‘I talked about my travelling in Vietnam.’

no: ploh maj-po:k-tu.mɔ:

NAME ask where are you going

(b) ‘Nô asked, “Where are you going?”.’

These verbs may take dative nouns or prepositions as adjuncts to mark the goal of the speech, typically followed by the quote-derived speech.

S240: Bare transitive oblique-object verb

ploh ?a.dɔː li.mɔː-pra?
 ask 3s how much money
 ‘Ask him how much money.’

These verbs can also take other nouns as complements while retaining the same basic semantic function of speech reference.

S241: Speech oblique-object verb

kɪː pa.piː duŋ-veːl
 1s talk about hometown
 ‘I spoke about my hometown.’

10.4.3 Stative oblique-object verbs

Stative oblique-object verbs (which generally have homophonous stative simple intransitive counterparts) consist of two general types: condition stative verbs (*?a.?aj* ‘sick/hurt’, *?n.taŋ* ‘weigh’) and possessive/existence stative verbs (*viː* ‘have’ and *?eː* ‘be many/much’).

10.4.3.1 Condition stative oblique-object verbs

Verbs in this category describe the condition of parts of things (e.g. *?a.?aj* ‘pained’) or the extent of a state (e.g. *truː* ‘deep’). The difference between these verbs and their non-oblique-object verb counterparts is that, whereas the semantically affected noun is a subject of non-oblique-object verbs, as in S242(b), the same nouns only occur in the postverbal object position as oblique-objects, as in S242(a). An intensifying adverb can precede the oblique object, as in S243.

S242: Oblique-object versus non oblique-object verbs

kɪː ?a.?aj pəl.luŋ liː
 1s sick stomach very
 (a) ‘I’m very sick to my stomach.’

pəl.luŋ kɪː ?a.?aj
 stomach 1s hurts
 (b) ‘My stomach hurts.’

S243: Impersonal oblique-object verb

ki.faj təŋ.hiən bɔːŋ liː ku.laj
 season summer plentiful very fruit
 ‘In the summer, fruit is plentiful.’

There are both intensifiable and non-intensifiable stative oblique-object verbs, as in S244.

S244: Stative oblique-object verbs

kɨ: pluk mat li:
 1s bad (vision) eye very
 (a) ‘I have very bad eyesight.’

ʃɔ:ʔ tru: ʃo:ŋ tro:ʔ
 stream deep five (unit of length)
 (b) ‘The stream is five *troq* deep.’

These oblique-object verbs take interrogative pronominal nouns in the same case-marked positions as non-interrogative verbs, as in S245. That is, question words are not fronted with these verbs.

S245: Interrogative pronoun and oblique-object verb

ʔa.ʔem ʔŋ.koh ʔa.ʔaj ʔa.məh
 she-SOC that sick what
 ‘Where does it hurt?’/‘What’s her sickness?’

The verb *ʔa.rəʔ₁* ‘to be similar to’ has the semantic function of expressing similarity or equality between subjects and objects. This word has a homophonous preposition counterpart, *ʔa.rəʔ₂* ‘as’ (§8.4).

S246: Comparison simple oblique-object verb

həj-ʔn.nəh ti.kuəj-pa.kəh ʔa.rəʔ ti.kuəj-juən
 currently Pacoh similar to Vietnamese
 ‘These days, the Pacoh are like the Vietnamese.’ (R. Watson 1976)

10.4.3.2 Existence and possessive stative oblique-object verbs

Existence and possessive stative oblique-object verbs indicate the possession of objects. Verbs in this category include *ʔe:* ‘many of’, *vi:* ‘have’, *bo:m* ‘have’, and *jo:l* ‘still have/exist’. The verb ‘still exist’ has a derivationally related homophonous impersonal correlate (§10.5).

S247: Possessive oblique-object verb

kɨ: jo:l praʔ-ti.rɨʔ-ʔa.kaj
 1s still have wealth
 ‘I still have wealth.’

S248: Possessive simple intransitive verb

hɛ: ʔe: li: lɨəj ʔr.na:m
 1p many very types vegetables
 ‘We have many kinds of vegetables.’

10.5 Impersonal oblique-object verbs

Impersonal oblique-object verbs—including *vi:* ‘there is’, *k^ham* ‘there is enough of’, *ʔe:/kli:ŋ/ʔəp* ‘there is much/are many’, *biəʔ* ‘there are few/is little’, and *jo:l* ‘still have’—do not take subjects but instead require postnominal noun complements. In available data, the

few verbs in this category are all stative, and they all have related personal forms (i.e. requiring subjects).

There are two kinds of adjuncts that co-occur in the sentence-initial position and give some indication of spatial orientation or general point of reference. Impersonal oblique-object verbs often occur with locational adjuncts.

S249: Impersonal verb with locational adjunct

daŋ nɛh kʰam ʔa.fəʔ ʔi.ca:
place here enough rice to-eat
'There's enough rice to eat here.'

These verbs also often take sentential themes, as opposed to subjects. In S250, the theme gives the general point of reference, and the impersonal verb provides the comment regarding the proposed set.

S250: Impersonal verb with a sentential theme

ŋɛʔ kəɾ.rəʔ ʔn.nɛh vi: ti.kə:l lam kəɾ.rə:ʔ ʔŋ.kan
all cattle this exist eight UNIT cattle female
'As for all these cattle here, there are eight cows.'

Impersonal oblique-object verbs with time nouns as complements may indicate past occurrence, as in S251.

S251: Impersonal verb with time reference

vi: mɔ:j kən.tiʔ dɔ: kʰɔ:jʔ ʔa.ʔaj - ʔa.fan
exist one time 3s already have flu
'There was one time that he got the flu.'

10.6 Locative verbs

Locative verbs require locational nouns or prepositions as complements (see §7.5.4 and §8.5 respectively). Some words in this category include *luh* 'run', *fəɾ* 'rise/climb', *po:k* 'go', *ŋoh* 'exit', and *mɔ:t* 'enter'. Locative verbs are divided into three subcategories: movement, non-movement, and impersonal non-movement locative verbs. Movement locative verbs require locational prepositions that indicate direction of movement, while non-movement locative verbs require stationary locational prepositions. Impersonal locative verbs cannot take overt subjects and are redundantly non-movement verbs.

Movement locative verbs require locational prepositions or nouns. Some of these verbs require locational prepositions and cannot take common nouns directly as locational complements, while others can take either category. While *luh* 'run', *po:k* 'to go', and *vɔ:t* 'to jump' can only take locational nouns, *ti.ku:* 'sit on', *ti.lət* 'to follow', and *fəɾ* 'to climb up' can take either locational nouns or regular common nouns directly. In S252(a) and b, the same verb 'to ascend' has two possible distributions, one with a preposition and one without. In S252(c) and (d), however, the verb 'to go' must in fact take a locational preposition.

S252: Comparing bare and non-bare locative verbs

dɔː ʃər toʔ duŋ
 3s go up to house
 (a) ‘He went up to the house.’

dɔː ʃər duŋ
 3s go up house
 (b) ‘He went up to the house.’

dɔː pɔːk toʔ duŋ
 3s go to house
 (c) ‘He went to the house.’

**dɔː pɔːk duŋ*
 3s went up house
 (d) ‘He went to the house.’

Another difference between bare and non-bare locative verbs is that while prepositional complements may precede the verb and ‘subject’, the noun complements of bare locative verbs may not and only follow their regents, as in S253.

S253: Contrasting bare and non-bare locative verbs

toʔ duŋ dɔː pɔːk
 to house 3s go
 (a) ‘To the house, he went.’

**duŋ dɔː ʃər*₂
 house 3s went up
 (b) ‘Up the house, he went.’

Some bare locative verbs have related homophonous locational prepositions,⁶⁸ as exemplified in S254(a) and (b), in which the two functions of *toʔ* are contrasted.

S254: Locative verb versus locational preposition

kiː toʔ kwaːŋ-triː hɔːk kaːŋ-pa.kəh
 1s arrive Quảng Trị study Pacoh
 (a) ‘I came to Quảng Trị to study Pacoh.’

pi.liəŋ toʔ məm.mat
 turn to right
 (b) ‘Turn it to the right.’

Non-movement locative verbs require stationary locational prepositions or nouns. Some words found to belong to this category include *?at* ‘to be at’, *tu.məŋ* ‘to reside’, and *ti.kuː* ‘sit’. They typically take the non-terminus preposition *toʔ* ‘at’ or the locational relator noun *daŋ* ‘the place of’.

⁶⁸ Similar derivational patterns appear across the Pan-Asian region. See Clark and Prasithrathsint (1985) for a good summary of this phenomenon in several East and Southeast Asian languages.

S255: Non-movement locative verbs

dɔː ʔat daŋ ʔŋ.koh

3s be at place there

(a) ‘He’s over there.’

kiː tu.məŋ toʔ ʔa.liəj

1s live at PLACE NAME

(b) ‘I live in A-Lurói.’

Rather than taking subjects, impersonal locative verbs take sentence-initial locational nouns as their locational thematic reference. These stative verbs describe some kind of condition, such as temperature or busy activity in a location. Locational noun and preposition dependents of impersonal locative verbs most often appear in the preverbal position in topic-comment type constructions. S256(a) and (b) demonstrate the difference between a personal stative verb and an impersonal one.

S256: Stative verb versus impersonal locative verbs

pəɾ.baːŋ ʔa.toʔ liː

weather hot very

(a) ‘The weather is very hot.’

kəl.luŋ duŋ ʔa.toʔ liː

inside house hot very

(b) ‘Inside the house, it’s very hot.’

11 *Auxiliary verbs, SVCs, and VCT verbs*

The term verb-complement-taking verbs, or VCT verbs, refers broadly to any verbs that require verbs as complements, thereby including auxiliary verbs, cognitive and causative verbs, and serial-verb constructions (SVCs),⁶⁹ among others. Unlike more general serial verb constructions that can occur with any sequence of verbs, VCT verbs in Pacoh tend not to be separated by clausal prepositions or conjunctions from their verb complements. Moreover, only the higher verbs, and not the verb complements, can be directly negated.

In Pacoh, these predicate-taking verbs include several subtypes and subcategory combinations, including intransitive, transitive, and oblique-object verbs. Additional predicate-taking verb subcategories include aspectual, motion, and stative verbs, all of which share the above-mentioned properties.

11.1 Aspectual VCT verbs

Aspectual predicate-taking verbs make reference to the statements aspect, that is, the state of completion of an action regardless of the actual time of the speech action. These verbs, which never occur as the dependents of other verbs, consist of four subcategories: the progressive, perfective, recent perfective, and near future forms. There are three perfective verbs: the general perfectives *k^hɔj?* and *ʃe:* and the recent perfective *təm.me:* and *bəj?*.

S257: Perfective predicate-taking verbs

ki: *k^hɔj?* *ʔa.ʔaj*

1s already sick

(a) 'I'm sick.'/'I've gotten sick.'

⁶⁹ The approach in this classification of verbs follows the ideas of Wilawan (1993), who argues that what have often been called serial verb constructions (SVCs) in East and Southeast Asian linguistic language are examples of predicate-taking verbs: put simply, verbs that take other verbs as complements. In effect, these are verbs of various categories—auxiliary, negation, stative, active, among others—that share the requirement of predicate complements. The issue then becomes what kinds of complements these verbs take, such as finite versus non-finite (i.e. do or do not take subjects). Furthermore, there are verbs that can only occur as the highest verb and those that can be complements of other verbs.

dɔː təm.mɛː toʔ jəː
 3s just arrive already
 (b) ‘He just arrived.’

S258: Progressive predicate-taking verb

hɛː ʔat pən ŋaːj
 1p PROG wait for 3p
 ‘We’re waiting for them.’

Expected future events can be left unmarked, but the verb *ʔijɪn* ‘will’ (homophonous with the verb *ʔijɪn* ‘want to’) can be used. In S259, the meaning of *ʔijɪn* is clearly future since it has no subject to have intention. The unreal perfective *təm.bəj* ‘about to’ indicates that the action is in the near future.

S259: Future VCT verbs

tu.man ʔijɪn tər.ŋap jɛː
 soon will dark already
 ‘In a little while, it will be dark.’

11.2 Auxiliary verbs

General intransitive predicate-taking verbs include a class of normal verbs that take other verbs as complements and express a wide range of semantic fields and associated selectional restrictions. Such verbs may express ability, intention, or cessation. S260 to S262 show some representative examples.

S260: Abilitative predicate-taking verb

ʔa.caːj boːn pləj ʔa.li.mɔː bɛː
 SPMY able buy how many bottle
 ‘How many bottles were you able to buy?’

S261: Intention predicate-taking verb

ʔa.caːj ʔijɪn pləj duŋ ʔən
 SPMY want buy home (yes-no)
 ‘Do you want to buy a home?’

S262: Cessation predicate-taking verb

hɛː ʔa.ŋoː hɔːk
 3p rest study
 ‘We stopped studying.’

ND&P (1986) list three other words that fall into this subcategory. The word *nɔːŋ* expresses frequency (S267(a)), *pi.lɛː* expresses continuous action, and *kɔːm* expresses certainty (S263(b)). While these words may be translated into English as adverbs, consider the English ‘He is certain to go’, in which the verb-plus-adjective predicate is semantically equivalent to ‘He will certainly go’. Semantic function and lexical category do not always correspond, and in Pacoh, these words with adverbial semantics are nevertheless auxiliary verbs that take verb complements.

S263: VCT verbs of frequency, continuous action, and certainty

dɔː nɔːŋ pɔːr jəw-baj

3s frequent help friend

(a) ‘He frequently helps friends.’ (ND&P 1986)

toʔ sɛʔ dɔː kɔːm pɔːk boːʔ-dɔjʔ

reach mature 3s certain go army

(b) He’s certain to join the army when he’s older.’ (ND&P 1986)

11.3 Causative VCT verbs

Verbs in this category have causative meanings, verbs such as the general form *joːn* ‘allow’ as well as morphological causatives such as *pa.ŋɔːjʔ* ‘make drink’ and *pa.kap* ‘make bite’.⁷⁰ These causative VCT verbs require dative pronouns or dative relator nouns, as in S264. The lower clause is non-finite (i.e. lacking a subject) since the indirect object is marked dative and thus cannot be the subject of the lower clause.

S264: Oblique-object VCT verbs with dative pronoun and relator noun

kiː pa.caː ʔa.dɔː₁ caː dɔj

1s feed to 3s eat rice

(a) ‘I made him eat the rice.’

kiː pa.ŋɔːjʔ ʔa.dɔː₂ jəw ŋɔːjʔ

1s make drink to friend drink

(b) ‘I make my friend drink.’

These dative relator nouns and their dependent nouns cannot be postposed and always precede the lower verb in the clause.

S265: Non-causative oblique-object VCT verb

ʔi.biː ʔn.nɛh joːn ʔa.kiː caː dɔj ʔaw

evening this let to-1s eat rice IMP

‘Let me eat rice tonight.’

11.4 Ditransitive VCT verb

Only one word has been found to belong to this category, *joːn* (homophonous with the word for ‘to give’). Such a verb often has multiple uses in other Southeast Asian languages,⁷¹ and more data may reveal additional functions.

S266: Oblique-object transitive predicate-taking verb

kiː joːn dɔj ʔa.dɔː caː

1s give rice to-3s eat

‘I gave rice to him to eat.’

⁷⁰ See Alves (2000) for more discussion on the distributional properties of Pacoh causative verbs.

⁷¹ See Clark (1989) for related discussion.

11.5 Motion intransitive VCT verbs

Motion intransitive VCT verbs express physical movement with the intent to perform another action in parallel with the common notion of serial verb constructions. These verbs are related to a class of homophonous non predicate-taking verbs, but, contrastingly, they generally do not take manner adverbs and the lower verbs are not negatable. The semantic difference between these two classes of verbs is the difference of focus on the movement (non predicate-taking) versus the redirected focus on the following action expressed by the verb complement, as illustrated in S267(a) and (b) with the verbs marked with subscript numbers.

S267: Contrasting VCT and regular motion verbs

dɔː la.luh₁ ?a.naː?

3s run quick

(a) 'He ran quickly.'

dɔː la.luh₂ təm.muɰ heː

3s run meet 3p

(b) 'He ran to meet us.'

S268: Motion VCT verb with multiple verb complements

heː ʃiər hoːm daː? ?a.baːf byəj?

3p descend bathe water fish for fish

'We went down to bathe and fish.'

S269: Motion VCT verb with verb complement

dɔː ʃər ?a.ləŋ ʃjəl ku.ləj

3s climb tree take fruit

'He climbed the tree and got some fruit.'

11.6 Negation: verb and noun negation VCT verbs

Pacoh negation includes both words that take verb complements and those that take noun complements.

Negation predicate-taking verbs constitute two subtypes: the imperative *?a.kəp* 'don't' and general negation predicate-taking verbs. The general negation verb most commonly used in all regions where Pacoh is spoken is *ləj?*.⁷² Its primary semantic function is negating the truth value of an action.

S270: General negation predicate-taking verb

tu.miəŋ kiː ləj? cəːm ta?

crossbow 1s no know make

'As for crossbows, I don't know how to make them.'

This negation verb can take [ʔi-] non-finite verbs as complements, as in S271. It expresses non-completion of its verb complements, as in S272.

⁷² The form *təj?* is used by some speakers in Quang Tri province.

S271: Negation predicate-taking verb with [ʔi-] verb

də: ʔn.nəh ləjʔ ʔi.ca: pɛ: ʔi.ŋaj
 3s this no to eat three day
 ‘As for that guy, he didn’t eat for three days.’

S272: Negation predicate-taking verb

ki: ləjʔ vi: kəm.paj
 1s no have wife
 ‘I don’t have a wife.’

The imperative negation predicate-taking verb can take an overt referential subject, though it generally does not.

S273: Imperative negation predicate-taking verb.

ʔa.kəp ca.cuŋ ʔa.liŋ ʔa.pɛ:
 don’t get together with 3p
 ‘Don’t hang around with them.’

The word *ʔih* ‘not’, which negates nouns of any kind, can be used with a subject and following noun predicate in a negative equational construction, though it can also be used without a subject to negate a truth value (i.e. expressing ‘It’s not the case that ...’).

S274: Noun negation VCT verb

ʔu.raʔ ʔn.nəh ʔih ʔm.maj
 pen this be not yours
 (a) ‘This pen isn’t yours.’

ʔi:h soŋ-cit-ŋi:n
 not-be fifty-thousand
 (b) ‘It’s not 50,000.’

Negation may occur with conjunctions without the repetition of the negation word.

S275: Negation in coordinative construction

ŋaj toʔ ʔn.nəh ʔih ti.kuəj-viət ma: ti.kuəj-pa.kəh
 3s come here be not Vietnamese but Pacoh
 ‘Those people who came weren’t Vietnamese, but rather were Pacoh.’

There are exceptions to the usage. Some native speakers feel that the supposed nominal negator *ʔih* may be used with following verbs and that the verbal negator *ləjʔ* can be used with noun dependent, though generally that is not the case in available data.

S276: Exceptions of nominal negation verb

ki: ʔih ʔiŋ
 1s not want
 (a) ‘I don’t want.’

ʔa.ca:j ʔŋ.koh ləjʔ ti.kuəj-viət
 SPMY that not Vietnamese person
 (b) ‘He’s not Vietnamese.’

11.7 Stative VCT verbs

Stative general VCT verbs describe the subject, though the verb of the lower clause interprets the subject or object of the upper clause as its own subject or object. Verbs in this category include *bu:j* ‘pleased’, *ʔiən* ‘easy’, *rəw* ‘sad’, or *hoj* ‘able’. S277 is an example in which the verb of the lower clause ‘to meet’ has the same subject as the upper clause. The lower verb is transitive, though in fact, the lower verb could as well be intransitive.

S277: Stative intransitive VCT verb

kɛ: bu:j li: təm.muh ʔa.ca:j
 1s happy very meet SPMY
 ‘I’m very pleased to meet you.’

Verbs in the other subcategory are always transitive, and specifically, they often take transitive [ʔi-] non-finite verbs as complements.

S278: Stative VCT verb with [ʔi-] verb complement

ʔŋ.kar-ʔa.pən hoj ʔi.fjɪp
 bearskin able to wear
 (a) ‘Bearskin is wearable.’

ʔa.lə:ŋ ʔn.nɛh ʔiən ʔi.kiə
 wood this easy to saw
 (b) ‘This wood is easy to saw.’

11.8 Thinking/speaking/feeling VCT verbs

The verbs in this category, which express assertions, beliefs and emotions, are followed by clauses containing finite verbs (i.e. verbs with subjects), as in S279 and S280. Though a majority of the verbs in this category are non-stative, there are a few stative verbs (verbs that cannot co-occur with the progressive *ʔat*) in this category as well.

S279: Active VCT verb

kɛ: tiŋ ʔn.truəj-ʔa.cə-ʔa.lɪk to? duŋ hik li:
 1s count domestic animals at house many very
 ‘I counted that there were many animals at the house.’

S280: Stative VCT verb

kɛ: rəw li: ʔa.ca:j cə: to? mi:ʔ
 1s sad very SPMY return to America
 ‘I’m sad that you’re going back to America.’

11.9 Transitive VCT verbs

Transitive VCT verbs, which take objects and predicate complements, consist of three general subtypes: perception (*kəm.maŋ* ‘hear’ and *ŋoŋ* ‘see’), causative (*pa.ca:* ‘cause to eat’ and *pa.ʔa:k* ‘cause to play’), and general transitive predicate-taking verbs (*kəjʔ* ‘guide’)

and *ʃɔːʔ* ‘prevent’). The general transitive VCT verbs are further divided into those whose subjects of the lower verb are or are not referential with the subject of the upper verb.⁷³

Perception verbs are used to indicate that the subject perceives the action or state of the object. Causative verbs initiate action for the object.

S281: Perceptual transitive VCT verb

kiː kəm.maŋ ʔa.caːj toːŋ
1s hear SPMY speak
(a) ‘I hear you speak.’

kiː ʃɔŋ ʔa.ʔɛːm ʔɔː liː
1s see SPNY nice very
(b) ‘I see that you’re very nice.’

S282: Causative transitive VCT verb

pa.kap ʔa.cɔː kap ʔa.bil
make-bite dog bite mouse
‘Get the dog to bite the mouse.’

Many verbs in Pacoh (such as *pləj* ‘buy’ or *ti.raʔ* ‘prepare’) do allow optional/adjunct lower clauses in serial verb constructions. However, they range in meaning but generally fall into the semantic scope of command or prohibition, as in S283 and S284. In Type 1 verbs, the subject of the lower verb is correferential with the subject of the upper verb, whereas in Type 2 verbs, the lower verb takes the upper verbs subject as an object.

S283: General transitive VCT verb (Type 1)

ʃɔːʔ ʔa.kaj toːŋ kiː
prevent kid speak 1s
(a) ‘Keep that kid from talking.’

ta.lah ʔn.truɔːj-ʔa.liːk ʔi.caː-ʔi.caː
let out domestic animals eat
(b) ‘I let the domestic animals out to eat.’

S284: General transitive VCT verb (Type 2)

dɔː ʃjəl tər.naf taf
3s take a hammer to hammer
(a) ‘He took a hammer to hammer.’

kiː ti.raʔ ba.loː poːk juː-lik
1s prepare backpack go travel
(b) ‘I got my backpack ready to travel.’

These verbs may take dependent transitive verbs and generally belong to the class of non-finite [ʔi-] verbs.

S285: VCT verb with [ʔi-] verb complement

hɛː viː dɔːj ʔi.caː ʔaw ʔi.ʃip
1p have rice to eat clothes to wear
‘We have rice to eat and clothes to wear.’

⁷³ These verbs have been called ‘manner’ verbs (Indrambarya 1994: §5.1.2.1).

12 *Glossary*

This glossary is grouped into tables each containing words belonging to the same part of speech (adverbs, conjunctions, nouns, prepositions, sentence particles, and verbs). Each table contains an English gloss, the Pacoh form, and the sections in which the syntax of such words or words of the same subcategory are described.

12.1 Adverbs

Pacoh adverbs consist of five main categories. The general adverbs discussed in §5.1 constitute the largest class, while the others are made up of a small group or words or words with specialized affixes.

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'additionally'	<i>lɔj</i>	5.1
'afterward'	<i>ʔa.tu:n</i>	5.1
'again'	<i>lɔj</i>	5.1
'alone'	<i>li:l-vi:l</i>	5.1
'alone'	<i>bo:m</i>	5.1
'before'	<i>ʔa.fuəj</i>	5.1
'capably'	<i>ho:j</i>	5.1
'completely/totally'	<i>ŋɛʔ</i>	5.4
'deeply'	<i>tru:</i>	5.4
'difficult'	<i>diəjʔ</i>	5.1
'enough'	<i>faj</i>	5.1
'far'	<i>jo:ŋ</i>	5.1
'firmly'	<i>k^həm</i>	5.1
'fully'	<i>ʔa.faj</i>	5.4
'gradually'	<i>tiʔ-jiʔ</i>	5.1
'happily'	<i>buj</i>	5.1
'happily'	<i>rəx-ri:c</i>	5.1
'hastily'	<i>pər.həp</i>	5.1
'how'	<i>ʔi.mə:</i>	5.3
'hurriedly'	<i>kər.tu:h-tu:h</i>	5.1
'hurriedly'	<i>həp</i>	5.1
'thusly'	<i>ʔi.koh</i>	5.1

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'loudly'	<i>ŋən</i>	5.1
'meticulously'	<i>məl-miʔ</i>	5.1
'oneself'	<i>bɔ:m</i>	5.1
'oneself'	<i>bɔ:m</i>	5.1
'own'	<i>ʔn.daj</i>	5.1
'quickly'	<i>ŋaʔ</i>	5.1
'simultaneously'	<i>ʔm.bɔʔ</i>	5.5
'sneakily'	<i>tɔjʔ</i>	5.1
'straight'	<i>ti.nəŋ</i>	5.1
'studiously'	<i>ʔm.min</i>	5.1
'studiously'	<i>pər.tat</i>	5.1
'suddenly'	<i>ki.kər</i>	5.1
'suitably'	<i>pjəʔ</i>	5.1
'very'	<i>li:</i>	5.2
'well'	<i>ʔɔ:</i>	5.1
'why'	<i>vi:-ʔi.mɔ:</i>	5.3

12.2 Conjunctions

The five categories of Pacoh conjunctions are dealt with in Chapter 6.

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'and'	<i>mɔj</i>	6.1, 6.3
'and'	<i>ʔa.liŋ</i>	6.1
'and'	<i>ʔa.ŋa:</i>	6.1, 6.2
'and'	<i>ʔi.ŋa:</i>	6.2
'and'	<i>ʔi.pɛ:</i>	6.2
'and'	<i>ʔa.pɛ:</i>	6.2
'but'	<i>ma:</i>	6.5
'or'	<i>ʔa.liŋ₅</i>	6.4

12.3 Common nouns

As common nouns follow certain unit/count nouns, the subcategories list the kind of agreement features that help determine which unit nouns may co-occur.

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'America'	<i>mi:ʔ</i>	7.1.5
'animal'	<i>ʔa.ʔət</i>	7.1.1
'animals, domestic'	<i>ʔn.truəj-ʔa.cɔ:-ʔa.lik</i>	7.1.6
'bait'	<i>pər.ran</i>	7.1.3
'bananas'	<i>pɛʔ</i>	7.1.1
'basket'	<i>ʔa.tɛh</i>	7.1.1
'basket, creel'	<i>ka.di:</i>	7.1.1
'bear'	<i>ʔa.pən</i>	7.1.1
'bee (mason)'	<i>ʔa.ŋi:t-ŋɔ:t</i>	7.1.1
'bird'	<i>ʔa.cɛ:ʔ</i>	7.1.1

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'breath'	<i>tər.ŋih</i>	7.1.1
'brother, older'	<i>?a.miəŋ</i>	7.1.2
'buffalo'	<i>ti.rɪə?</i>	7.1.1
'cat'	<i>?a.mɛ?</i>	7.1.1
'child'	<i>?a.kaj</i>	7.1.2
'coconut'	<i>tuəŋ</i>	7.1.1
'cork'	<i>kən.tip</i>	7.1.1
'daughter'	<i>?a.kaj-?a.kan</i>	7.1.2
'dog'	<i>?a.cə:</i>	7.1.1
'duck'	<i>?a.ta:</i>	7.1.1
'elephant'	<i>?a.ciəŋ</i>	7.1.1
'father'	<i>?a.?am</i>	7.1.2
'fence'	<i>kər.rə:ŋ</i>	7.1.1
'fish sauce'	<i>təm.pa?</i>	7.1.3
'friends (general)'	<i>jəw-baj</i>	7.1.6
'frog'	<i>?a.kuət</i>	7.1.1
'grandmother'	<i>?a.kə:?</i>	7.1.2
'ground'	<i>ku.tjək</i>	7.1.3
'Hmong'	<i>ha.mə:ŋ</i>	7.1.2
'hole-driller'	<i>ka.nər</i>	7.1.1
'hometown'	<i>dun-vɛ:l</i>	7.1.6
'house'	<i>duŋ</i>	7.1.1
'man'	<i>?ŋ.koŋ</i>	7.1.2
'materials'	<i>?m.mar</i>	7.1.3
'meat'	<i>ʃɛ:c</i>	7.1.3
'money'	<i>pra?</i>	7.1.3
'monkey'	<i>?a.dʒəʃ</i>	7.1.1
'mother'	<i>?a.?i:</i>	7.1.2
'mouse'	<i>?a.bil</i>	7.1.1
'mousetrap, stone'	<i>kɪp</i>	7.1.1
'mousetrap, tube'	<i>ʃiŋ</i>	7.1.1
'parents'	<i>?a.?i:-?a.?am</i>	7.1.6
'person'	<i>ti.kuəjɿ</i>	7.1.2
'pig'	<i>?a.li:k</i>	7.1.1
'pinch'	<i>təm.bə:c</i>	7.2.1
'place, big and empty'	<i>təp-həp</i>	7.1.6
'plow'	<i>ka.naj</i>	7.1.1
'pole'	<i>ti.nə:l</i>	7.1.1
'prop'	<i>kəl.lə:?</i>	7.1.1
'rice, unhusked'	<i>trə:</i>	7.1.1
'sibling, younger'	<i>?a.?ɛ:m</i>	7.1.2
'sister, older'	<i>?a.mə:?</i>	7.1.2
'society'	<i>duŋ-vɛ:l</i>	7.1.6
'son'	<i>?a.kaj-kəŋ</i>	7.1.2
'sound bamboo makes'	<i>krə:l</i>	7.1.3
'sound wood makes'	<i>klo?</i>	7.1.3

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
‘spider’	<i>ʔa.piəŋ</i>	7.1.1
‘star’	<i>pən.tɔr</i>	7.1.1
‘stone’	<i>bul</i>	7.1.1
‘string’	<i>ka.ʃaŋ</i>	7.1.1
‘string’	<i>ka.naŋ</i>	7.1.1
‘string’	<i>ʔn.tar</i>	7.1.1
‘student’	<i>hɔ:k-ʃiŋ</i>	7.1.2
‘teacher’	<i>t^həj-jaw</i>	7.1.2
‘thing that pushes up’	<i>pa.nək</i>	7.1.1
‘uncle, older’	<i>ʔm.pi:t</i>	7.1.2
‘uncle, younger’	<i>ʔa.ni:</i>	7.1.2
‘Vietnamese’	<i>juən</i>	7.1.2
‘washcloth’	<i>k^han</i>	7.1.1
‘water’	<i>da:ʔ</i>	7.1.3
‘wealth’	<i>praʔ-ti.riəʔ-ʔa.kaj</i>	7.1.6
‘woman’	<i>ʔŋ.kan</i>	7.1.2
‘writing (general)’	<i>ʔu.raʔ-ʔu.ʔar</i>	7.1.6
‘writing utensil’	<i>ʔr.viət</i>	7.1.1

12.4 Numeral nouns

Numeral nouns in Pacoh start with the digits 1 to 10, after which higher numbers are formed regularly with combinations of those same basic numbers. Pacoh numerals are discussed in §7.4.1.

Gloss	Pacoh
‘one’	<i>mɔj</i>
‘two’	<i>ba:r</i>
‘three’	<i>pɛ:</i>
‘four’	<i>puən</i>
‘five’	<i>ʃo:ŋ</i>
‘six’	<i>tu.pat</i>
‘seven’	<i>tu.pɔ:l</i>
‘eight’	<i>ti.kɔ:l</i>
‘nine’	<i>ti.kiəʃ</i>
‘ten’	<i>mu.cit</i>
‘eleven’	<i>mu.cit-mɔj</i>
‘fifteen’	<i>mu.cit-ʃo:ŋ</i>
‘twenty’	<i>ba:r-cit</i>
‘thirty’	<i>pɛ:-cit</i>
‘forty’	<i>puən-cit</i>
‘fifty-one’	<i>ʃo:ŋ-cit-mɔj</i>
‘sixty-seven’	<i>tu.pat-cit-ti.kɔl</i>
‘one hundred’	<i>məh-ku.lam</i>
‘eight hundred’	<i>ti.kɔ:l-ku.lam</i>
‘nine thousand’	<i>ti.kiəʃ-ŋi:n</i>

12.5 Pronouns

Lists of Pacoh pronouns are contained in individual sections on those subcategories. They include demonstrative pronouns (§3.1.3 and §7.3.1), interrogative and indefinite pronouns (§7.3.2), personal pronouns (§3.1.3 and §7.3.3), and socially-conditioned pronouns (§7.3.5).

12.6 Relator nouns

The five subcategories of Pacoh relator nouns are discussed in §7.5.

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'at (the place of)'	<i>daŋ</i>	7.5.4
'at (the place of)'	<i>toʔ</i>	7.5.4
'back'	<i>ta.tu:n</i>	7.5.4
'front'	<i>məm.mat</i>	7.5.4
'inside'	<i>kəl.luŋ</i>	7.5.4
'middle'	<i>tər.di:</i>	7.5.4
'of (human)'	<i>ʔn.də:</i>	7.5.2
'of (possessive)'	<i>ʔən</i>	7.5.5
'outside'	<i>təl.tiəh</i>	7.5.4
'that/which'	<i>ʔən</i>	7.5.2
'to (dative)'	<i>ʔa.də:</i>	7.5.1
'top'	<i>ʔi.niəŋ</i>	7.5.4
'top'	<i>ʔm.piən</i>	7.5.4
'underneath'	<i>ʔi.dɨ:p</i>	7.5.4
'when'	<i>ʔn.dəŋ</i>	7.5.4
'when'	<i>ho:j</i>	7.5.2
'with/by'	<i>daŋ</i>	7.5.3
'with/by'	<i>tək</i>	7.5.3
'with/by'	<i>baŋ</i>	7.5.3

12.7 Count/unit nouns and classifiers

All words which can directly follow numbers fall into the class of count nouns in Pacoh. These include general measure words, time nouns, and classifiers. They are dealt with in §7.2. Parentheses are used to identify classifiers (as opposed to measure words) and the semantic category of nouns with which they co-occur.

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'(flat area)'	<i>tɨəh</i>	7.2.3
'(flat object)'	<i>plə:h</i>	7.2.3
'(general)'	<i>lam</i>	7.2.3
'(person)'	<i>naʔ</i>	7.2.3
'(person)'	<i>ti.kuəj</i>	7.2.3
'(tree)'	<i>to:m</i>	7.2.3
'afternoon'	<i>ʔi.bi:</i>	7.2.2
'bag of'	<i>ba:w</i>	7.2.1

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'ball of'	<i>kəl.lə:ŋ</i>	7.2.3
'basket of'	<i>ʔa.təh</i>	7.2.1
'bottle of'	<i>bɛ:</i>	7.2.1
'bunch of'	<i>ʔm.pət, ʔn.nət</i>	7.2.3
'cup of'	<i>tɪ.ŋa:n</i>	7.2.1
'day'	<i>ʔi.ŋaj</i>	7.2.2
'group of'	<i>kən.təh</i>	7.2.3
'hour'	<i>jə:</i>	7.2.2
'kilogram'	<i>kən</i>	7.2.1
'kilogram'	<i>kən</i>	7.2.1
'month'	<i>ki.saj</i>	7.2.2
'month'	<i>ki.ʃaj</i>	7.2.2
'sheet of'	<i>la:ŋ</i>	7.2.3
'stalk of'	<i>ʔn.no:m</i>	7.2.3
'stick of'	<i>ʔn.trəʃ</i>	7.2.3
'time/episode'	<i>kən.tiʔ</i>	7.2.2
'type/kind'	<i>noh</i>	7.2.1
'year'	<i>ku.mə:</i>	7.2.2
'year'	<i>ku.mə:</i>	7.2.2

12.8 Scope nouns

The scope nouns constitute a small set. Their distribution is discussed in §7.6.

Gloss	Pacoh
'all'	<i>ka:</i>
'all'	<i>ŋɛʔ-ka:</i>
'all'	<i>ŋɛʔ</i>
'any'	<i>ki:p</i>
'every'	<i>məj</i>
'every'	<i>tal</i>
'every'	<i>təʃ</i>

12.9 Prepositions

The six main subcategories of Pacoh prepositions are discussed in Chapter 8.

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'after'	<i>jə:</i>	8.6.1
'after'	<i>kuə</i>	8.6.1
'at'	<i>təʔ</i>	8.5
'at'	<i>ʔat</i>	8.5
'from'	<i>tɛ:</i>	8.5, 8.6.1
'in order to'	<i>jə:n</i>	8.6.2
'in order to'	<i>də:ʔ</i>	8.6.2
'in order to'	<i>jə:n</i>	8.6.2

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'into'	<i>mɔ:t</i>	8.5
'like/as'	<i>ʔa.rəʔ</i>	8.4
'more than'	<i>ti.lət</i>	8.2
'more than'	<i>hə:n</i>	8.2
'more than'	<i>li:</i>	8.2
'past'	<i>ti.lət</i>	8.5
'to'	<i>toʔ, ti, tu:</i>	8.5
'to'	<i>ʃɔ:n</i>	8.3
'to'	<i>ʔa.li:ŋ</i>	8.3
'until'	<i>toʔ</i>	8.6.1
'when'	<i>toʔ</i>	8.6.1
'with'	<i>ʔa.li:ŋ</i>	8.1

12.10 Sentence particles

The six subcategories of Pacoh sentence particles are discussed in Chapter 9.

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'(emphasis)'	<i>hə:</i>	9.6
'(emphasis)'	<i>hi:</i>	9.6
'(emphasis)'	<i>bə:</i>	9.6
'(emphasis)'	<i>ʔən</i>	9.6
'(urging)'	<i>ʔaw</i>	9.5
'already'	<i>ʃe:</i>	9.1
'already'	<i>ʃe:</i>	9.1
'because'	<i>cɔ:</i>	9.3
'if'	<i>nam</i>	9.3
'if'	<i>lah</i>	9.3
'no?'	<i>ləjʔ</i>	9.2
'not yet'	<i>jo:h₁</i>	9.1
'or not?'	<i>ʔa.liŋ-ləjʔ</i>	9.2
'otherwise'	<i>ʔa.bi:f</i>	9.3
'then'	<i>ki:</i>	9.4
'then'	<i>ma:</i>	9.4
'then'	<i>la:</i>	9.4
'then'	<i>koh</i>	9.4
'thus'	<i>koh</i>	9.3
'yet?'	<i>jo:h₂</i>	9.2

12.11 Verbs

The six major subcategories and additional minor subcategories are discussed in Chapter 10. Many have homophonous entries discussed in other subsections.

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'abandon'	<i>tah</i>	10.2.1
'answer'	<i>?o:j</i>	10.4.2
'arrive'	<i>to?</i>	10.6
'ask (someone)'	<i>ploh</i>	10.2.1, 10.4.2
'bad (of eyesight)'	<i>pluk</i>	10.4.3.1
'be at'	<i>?at</i>	10.6
'become'	<i>va:f</i>	10.4.1
'big (plural)'	<i>pa.pi:t</i>	10.1.4
'big'	<i>pi:t</i>	10.1.4
'bite'	<i>kap</i>	10.2.1
'bite each other'	<i>tər.kap</i>	10.1.3
'born'	<i>cəh</i>	10.1.4
'braid (hair)'	<i>kla:n</i>	10.2.1
'breathe'	<i>ta.ŋih</i>	10.1.1
'bring'	<i>do:ŋ</i>	10.2.1, 10.2.4
'bring in'	<i>ta.mo:t</i>	10.2.4
'bring out'	<i>pa.ŋoh</i>	10.2.4
'bring up'	<i>?a.fər</i>	10.2.4
'buy'	<i>pləj</i>	10.2.1
'cackle'	<i>fəp-fəl</i>	10.1.1
'call out'	<i>pə:h</i>	10.1.1
'carry'	<i>ku:j</i>	10.1.2, 10.2.1, 10.2.4
'catch'	<i>cuət</i>	10.1.2, 10.2.1
'cause each other to answer'	<i>pər.kləw</i>	10.1.3
'cause each other to eat'	<i>pər.ca</i>	10.1.3
'cause each other to learn'	<i>pər.ho:k</i>	10.1.3
'cause to clean'	<i>pa.ra:w</i>	10.2.2
'cause to play'	<i>pa.?a:k</i>	10.3
'cause to sniff'	<i>pa.hət</i>	10.2.2
'climb up'	<i>fər</i>	10.1.2, 10.6
'close'	<i>ka.ti:k</i>	10.2.1
'clumsy'	<i>vaŋ-vəŋ</i>	10.1.4
'cook'	<i>ta.koŋ</i>	10.2.1
'cowardly'	<i>kəl.la?</i>	10.1.4
'cross over'	<i>ʃaŋ</i>	10.6
'cut'	<i>kəh</i>	10.2.1
'deep'	<i>tru:</i>	10.1.3, 10.1.4, 10.4.3.1
'die'	<i>ku.cət</i>	10.1.4
'difficult'	<i>diəj?</i>	10.1.4
'dig'	<i>pi?</i>	10.2.1
'discuss'	<i>pa.pi:</i>	10.4.2
'drift (of leaves)'	<i>ʃe:l-ʃo:l</i>	10.1.1
'drill a hole'	<i>kar</i>	10.1.1
'drink'	<i>ŋo:j?</i>	10.2.1
'dry'	<i>pre:ŋ</i>	10.1.4
'dry something'	<i>tiəŋ</i>	10.2.1

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'easy'	<i>ʔiən</i>	10.1.4
'eat'	<i>ca:</i>	10.1.2, 10.2.1
'enough'	<i>k^ham</i>	10.5
'enter'	<i>mø:t</i>	10.6
'exchange'	<i>tər.piən</i>	10.2.1
'exist'	<i>vi:</i>	10.4.3.2
'exit'	<i>ŋoh</i>	10.6
'feed'	<i>pa.ca:</i>	10.2.1, 10.3
'fight with each other'	<i>tər.taʔ</i>	10.1.3
'follow'	<i>ti.lət</i>	10.6
'fragrant (of tree sap)'	<i>ki:l-ku:l</i>	10.1.4
'full of twists and bends'	<i>vjəl-ʔi.vjəl</i>	10.1.4
'give'	<i>ʃo:n</i>	10.3
'give birth to'	<i>cəh</i>	10.4.1
'go'	<i>po:k</i>	10.1.1, 10.6
'hang'	<i>ʃo:ŋ</i>	10.2.1
'hate'	<i>ʔa.ʔiŋ</i>	10.2.1
'have'	<i>bo:n</i>	10.5
'have'	<i>vi:</i>	10.5
'hunt'	<i>pəp</i>	10.2.1
'hurt/painful'	<i>ʔa.ʔaj</i>	10.1.4, 10.4.3.1
'in a hurry'	<i>həp</i>	10.1.4
'jump'	<i>vət</i>	10.6
'know (things)'	<i>cə:m</i>	10.2.1,
'level'	<i>li:p</i>	10.1.4
'like/want'	<i>ʔiŋ</i>	10.1.4,
'listen to'	<i>kəm.maŋ</i>	10.1.1,
'little (exists of)'	<i>biəʔ</i>	10.5
'live/reside'	<i>tu.məŋ</i>	10.6
'lose (something)'	<i>pit</i>	10.2.1
'love/be fond of'	<i>ʔa.mə:f</i>	10.2.1
'lower'	<i>pa.ʃjər</i>	10.2.4
'make/create'	<i>taʔ</i>	10.1.2, 10.4.1
'make fish sauce'	<i>ta.paʔ</i>	10.4.1
'meet'	<i>təm.muɦ</i>	10.2.1
'much (exists of)'	<i>hi:k</i>	10.2.1, 10.5
'much/many'	<i>ʔe:</i>	10.4.3.2, 10.4.3.2, 10.5
'open'	<i>poh</i>	10.2.1
'pleased'	<i>bu:j</i>	10.1.4
'plentiful'	<i>bə:ŋ</i>	10.4.3.1
'plough'	<i>kaj</i>	10.1.1, 10.2.1
'put out'	<i>pa.ŋoh</i>	10.2.4
'put'	<i>də:ʔ</i>	10.2.4
'raise'	<i>ʔa.ʃər</i>	10.2.4
'rest'	<i>ŋo:</i>	10.1.1
'rise'	<i>ʃər</i>	10.6

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'ruffled (of hair)'	<i>tuəp-juəp</i>	10.1.4
'run'	<i>luh</i>	10.1.1, 10.6
'scoop up with one's hands'	<i>kuəjʔ</i>	10.2.1
'sell'	<i>pa.tɛ:c</i>	10.3
'sharp'	<i>hɛ:ŋ</i>	10.1.4
'sick'	<i>ʔa.ʔaj</i>	10.1.4, 10.4.3.1
'similar to'	<i>ʔa.rəʔ</i>	10.4.3.1
'sit'	<i>ti.ku:</i>	10.1.1, 10.6
'sleep'	<i>biʔ</i>	10.1.1
'small'	<i>kɛt</i>	10.1.4
'smooth'	<i>pa.pat</i>	10.1.4
'speak'	<i>to:ŋ</i>	10.1.1
'speak'	<i>pa.pi:</i>	10.4.2
'stand'	<i>ta.jiŋ</i>	10.1.1
'still have/exist'	<i>jo:l</i>	10.2.1
'string'	<i>kaŋ</i>	10.2.1
'study'	<i>riəŋ</i>	10.1.1, 10.2.1
'stuffed up'	<i>du:t</i>	10.4.3.1
'talk with each other'	<i>tər.to:ŋ</i>	10.1.3
'teach'	<i>pa.cə:m</i>	10.1.1, 10.2.3
'tell (someone)'	<i>to:ŋ</i>	10.4.2
'tell stories'	<i>ʔn.sjuər</i>	10.1.1
'thick'		10.1.4
'thin (of cloth)'	<i>ku.ban</i>	10.1.4
'thin (of people)'	<i>ʔəjʔ</i>	10.1.4
'throw (away)'	<i>pa.k^hir</i>	10.2.1
'tired'	<i>ʔa.lɛʔ</i>	10.1.4
'toss'	<i>vit</i>	10.2.1, 10.2.4
'treat (for sickness)'	<i>pa.la:j</i>	10.2.1
'turn'	<i>pi.liəŋ</i>	10.6
'vomit'	<i>ti.ʔoʔ</i>	10.1.1, 10.4.1
'wash'	<i>ʔa.ra:w</i>	10.2.1
'wear (general)'	<i>fip</i>	10.1.2
'wear (on the upper body)'	<i>tru:</i>	10.1.2
'weave'	<i>taŋ</i>	10.1.1, 10.4.1
'weigh'	<i>ʔn.taŋ</i>	10.4.3.1
'whittle'	<i>ciəh</i>	10.2.1
'write'	<i>viət</i>	10.1.2

12.12 Auxiliary/SVC/VCT verbs

VCT verbs (i.e. verbs that have lower verbs and clauses as complements) with the subscript two have non-VCT homophonous counterparts. This is generally the case for non-auxiliary verbs and those with more general, less grammatical functions.

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'able'	<i>bo:n</i>	11.2
'able'	<i>ho:j</i>	11.7
'about to'	<i>təm.bə:j</i>	11.1
'already'	<i>k^hɔ:jʔ</i>	11.1
'already'	<i>je:ɜ</i>	11.1
'also'	<i>də:j</i>	11.2
'also'	<i>cunʔ</i>	11.2
'ascend'	<i>ʃər₂</i>	11.5
'beg'	<i>ci:m</i>	11.2
'cause to bite'	<i>pa.kap</i>	11.3
'cause to carry on one's back'	<i>pa.ku:j₂</i>	11.3
'cause to eat'	<i>pa.ca:ɜ</i>	11.3
'cause to play'	<i>pa.ʔa:k₂</i>	11.3
'certainly'	<i>kɔ:m</i>	11.2
'continuously'	<i>pi.li:</i>	11.2
'cook'	<i>ta.ko^hh₂</i>	11.9
'count'	<i>tij₂</i>	11.8
'descend'	<i>ʃiər₂</i>	11.5
'don't'	<i>ʔa.kəp</i>	11.6
'easy'	<i>ʔiən₂</i>	11.7
'give'	<i>jo:n</i>	11.4
'go'	<i>po:k₂</i>	11.5
'grab'	<i>təŋ.ho:k₂</i>	11.9
'guide'	<i>kəjʔ₂</i>	11.9
'happy'	<i>bu:j₂</i>	11.7
'hear'	<i>kəm.maŋ₂</i>	11.8
'hear'	<i>kəm.maŋ₂</i>	11.9
'in process'	<i>ʔat</i>	11.1
'just'	<i>təm.mε:ɜ</i>	11.1
'let out'	<i>ta.lah₂</i>	11.9
'no/not (noun)'	<i>ʔih</i>	11.6
'no/not' (verb)	<i>ləjʔ</i>	11.6
'not yet'	<i>jo:h</i>	11.6
'often'	<i>no:ŋ</i>	11.2
'please'	<i>sɛ:iʔ</i>	11.9
'pleased'	<i>bu:j₂</i>	11.8
'prepare'	<i>ti.raʔ₂</i>	11.9
'prevent'	<i>jo:ʔ₂</i>	11.9
'really'	<i>li:</i>	11.2
'remember'	<i>ʔa.ji:ɜ</i>	11.8
'request'	<i>sɛ:iʔ</i>	11.9
'run'	<i>la.luh₂</i>	11.5
'sad'	<i>rəw₂</i>	11.8
'say'	<i>to:ŋ₂</i>	11.8
'see'	<i>noŋ₂</i>	11.9
'stop'	<i>ʔa.ŋo:ɜ</i>	11.2

Gloss	Pacoh	Sections
'take'	<i>pɛ:h₂</i>	11.9
'take'	<i>ɟɔh₂</i>	11.9
'tell/order'	<i>juə₂</i>	11.9
'think'	<i>pə.r.ŋih₂</i>	11.8
'use'	<i>ka.di:ŋ₂</i>	11.9
'want'	<i>?iŋ₂</i>	11.2
'will'	<i>?iŋ</i>	11.1

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