The Teop sketch grammar
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### 1.2 Abbreviations in the glosses of texts and grammatical examples

In order to save space, the subcategories of the article, e.g. basic article, non-specific article, object article and are only distinguished and accordingly glossed as BASIC.ART, NSP.ART, OBJ.ART and PART.ART in those contexts where their meaning is explained. Otherwise they are simply glossed as ART.

Prenuclear tense, aspect and mood markers are - with the exception of *toro* 'must' - always glossed as TAM because we could not think of any glosses for these markers that would be self-explanatory, see [TSG 8.2].

The imperfective aspect marker, the object marker and the possessive marker, which inflect for person and number, are mostly simply glossed as IMPF, OBJ, and POSS. Only where their cross-referencing function is important, we have added the indication of person and number, e.g. IMPF:3PL, OBJ: 1INC, or POSS:2SG, see [TSG 6.7].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1EXC</td>
<td>first person plural exclusive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1INC</td>
<td>first person plural inclusive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>first person singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2PL</td>
<td>second person plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2SG</td>
<td>second person singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3PL</td>
<td>third person plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3SG</td>
<td>third person singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3SG/PL</td>
<td>third person, singular or plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4SG</td>
<td>forth person singular object pronoun; see [TSG 6.7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4SG/PL</td>
<td>fourth person singular or plural object pronoun; see [TSG 6.7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>prefix that expresses anticausative; see [TSG 6.3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADV</td>
<td>prefix that derives adverbs; see [TSG 6.5]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APP</td>
<td>applicative; see [TSG 8.6]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ART</td>
<td>article; see [TSG 7.2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BASIC.ART</td>
<td>basic article; see [TSG 7.2.1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAUS</td>
<td>causative prefix; see [TSG 6.3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPL</td>
<td>complementiser; see [TSG 10.1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONJ</td>
<td>conjunction other than complementiser; see [TSG 10.1.2], [TSG 10.7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT</td>
<td>&quot;dative&quot; preposition, i.e. the preposition <em>ki</em> that marks NPs referring to the recipient, addressee, or beneficiary; see [TSG 6.9.2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEM</td>
<td>demonstrative; see [TSG 7.9]</td>
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<tr>
<td>DEREL</td>
<td>derelational suffix; suffix that derives absolute nominals or verbals from relational inalienably-possessed nouns; see [TSG 6.2.2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIM</td>
<td>diminutive particle; see [TSG 7.6]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIR</td>
<td>directional particle; see [TSG 8.7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMPH</td>
<td>emphatic particle; see [TSG 6.12]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXC</td>
<td>exclusive; see [TSG 6.7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<td>--------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>GOAL</td>
<td>the preposition vo indicating that the following word or phrase refers to the goal of a movement; see [TSG 6.9]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IM</td>
<td>immediateness marker; see [TSG 8.2.1], [TSG 8.2.3], [TSG 8.2.4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPF</td>
<td>imperfective aspect marker; see [TSG 6.7], [TSG 8.2], [TSG 9.3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INC</td>
<td>inclusive; see [TSG 6.7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LK</td>
<td>linker; see [TSG 5.2], [TSG 6.10]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MULT</td>
<td>prefix expressing multiple action; see [TSG 6.3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NA</td>
<td>= DEREL; suffix that derives verbals or absolute, non-relational nominals from relational, inalienably-possessed nominals</td>
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<tr>
<td>NEG</td>
<td>negation; see [TSG 8.8]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSP</td>
<td>non-specific article; see [TSG 7.2.2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OBJ</td>
<td>object marker; see [TSG 6.7.3], [TSG 9.3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OBJ.ART</td>
<td>object article; see [TSG 7.2.1], [TSG 9.4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PART</td>
<td>particle; see [TSG 6.12]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PART.ART</td>
<td>partitive article; see [TSG 7.2.3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL</td>
<td>plural marker in noun phrases; see [TSG 7.3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PN</td>
<td>proper name; see [TSG 6.2.1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSS</td>
<td>possessive marker; see [TSG 6.7.2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREP</td>
<td>the multi-purpose preposition te; see [TSG 6.9], [TSG 7.15]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRON</td>
<td>personal pronoun; see [6.7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REC</td>
<td>the particle tom signifying reciprocal kinship; see [TSG 7.8]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RED</td>
<td>reduplicated segment; see [TSG 6.2], [TSG 6.3], [TSG 6.4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REL</td>
<td>particle introducing relative clauses, and occasionally complement clauses and independent clauses, see [TSG 9.6], [TSG 10.2], [TSG 10.3]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SG</td>
<td>singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIMUL</td>
<td>the adverb bata expressing simultaneity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAM</td>
<td>prenuclear tense/aspect/mood marker; see [TSG 8.2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TP</td>
<td>word borrowed from Tok Pisin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.3 Index of keywords and grammatical terms

This index contains keywords and grammatical terms that are used in the annotations of the Teop language corpus, the Teop sketch grammar and the Teop Lexical Database. Terms written in capital letters are keywords that can be searched for in the notes in the corpus, where they refer to interesting phonological, grammatical, semantic or sociolinguistic phenomena, e.g. AGREEMENT; CLAUSE CHAINING; CODESWITCHING; LOANWORD; furthermore, a number of keywords refer to particular ways of expression such as conversational routines or expressions used in a certain emotional state of being, e.g. EMOTION, POLITENESS, SWEARING.

References to the Teop Lexical Database are abbreviated by TD plus the abbreviation of the part of speech term, e.g. adj. for adjective, or for a particular head word.

adjectival

word that prototypically expresses a property and functions as the head of an adjectival phrase, but may also be used as the head of a verb complex, or a noun phrase, and as a modifier; [TSG 6.1], [TSG 6.4]

ADJECTIVAL ATTRIBUTE

adjectival modifier of a noun phrase; [TSG 7.11]

adjectival phrase

group of words (syntagma, construction) that is introduced by an article and functions either as a modifier of a noun phrase or as a predicate in a non-verbal clause; the form of the article is determined by the noun class of the noun it modifies or makes a predication of; [TSG 5.2.3], [TSG 7.13]

ADJECTIVE

word that functions as the head of an > adjectival phrase; [TSG 6.1], [TSG 7.13]; see TD adj.

ADJUNCT

optional constituent of the clause that refers to the particular circumstances of the state of affairs expressed by the verb complex and its arguments; [TSG 9.8]

ADVERB

class of words that exclusively function as modifiers in verb complexes or on clause level; [TSG 6.1], [TSG 6.5], [TSG 8.4]

ADVERBIAL

word that functions as a modifier in the verb complex or as a modifier on clause level; these words are not necessarily adverbs; verbals and adjectivals can also function as adverbials; [TSG 6.1], [TSG 6.5], [TSG 8.4], [TSG 8.5]; see TD adv.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

purposive, temporal and conditional clauses, [TSG 10.5], [TSG 10.6]

agent

semantic role of an argument, attribute, or adjunct denoting the doer of an action; [TSG 6.9.1], [TSG 7.17]

AGREEMENT

imperfective aspect markers, object markers and possessives inflect for number and person; [TSG 6.7]; adjectival phrases agree with the head noun in noun class and number; [TSG 7.13]

ALIENABLE POSSESSIVE

nominal construction expression that s.th. belongs to s.o., [TSG 7.15], [TSG 7.17]

CONSTRUCTION

[TS 9.3], [TS 9.7.5]

animacy hierarchy

ANTICAUSATIVE

intransitive verb derived from a transitive verb by the prefix ta-; expressing that s.th. happens or is done to s.o. or s.th. with no agent or causer being identified; [TSG 6.3.3]

APPLICATIVE

the applicative particle ni changes the valence of a verb complex; [TSG 8.6]
1.3 Index of keywords and grammatical terms

- **APPOSITION**: noun phrase referring to the same participant as the preceding noun phrase; [TSG 7.13]
- **ARGUMENT**: subject, primary object, and secondary object; [TSG 9]
- **ARTICLE**: particle that introduces noun phrases, adjectival phrases, numeral phrases, determiner phrases; [TSG 7.2], [TSG 9.4]
- **attribute**: word, phrase or clause that modifies a noun (in the linguistic literature also called adnominal modifier or adjunct); [TSG 6.9.1] adjective attribute [TSG 7.11], nominal attribute [TSG 7.10], and verbal attribute [TSG 7.12], see TD attr.

- **basic article**: [TSG 7.2.1]
- **AUTOCAUSATIVE**: a causative verb that expresses that s.o. is causing him/herself to undergo a certain process or be in a certain state
- **CAUSATIVE**: morphological causative [TSG 6.3.2]
- **CAUSE**: semantic role that can be expressed by an argument or an adjunct [TSG 6.8.8], [TSG 6.9.5], [TSG 8.6]
- **CLAUSE CHAINING**: sequence of two or more clauses that are dependent though not embedded; [TSG 10.8]
- **CODE SWITCHING**: keyword indicating that a speaker switches from Teop to English or Tok Pisin
- **CODE MIXING**: keyword indicating that a speaker mixes Teop with English or Tok Pisin, usually by using English or Tok Pisin lexical words with Teop functional words
- **COGNATE OBJECT**: object that is formed by a noun of the same lexical root as the verb
- **COGNATE SUBJECT**: subject that is formed by a noun of the same lexical root as the verb
- **comitative**: semantic role expressed by an object or an adjunct [TSG 6.9.3]
- **COMPARATIVE construction**: keyword for constructions expressing that one person or thing excels another one; there are several types of comparative constructions [TSG 8.5]
- **COMPARISON**: keyword for expressions used to say that something is the same or similar to s.th. else; or different in that it has a certain quality to a greater or a lesser degree [TSG 8.5]
- **COMPLEMENT CLAUSE**: dependent embedded clause that functions as an argument, a predicate or as the complement of a linker or a preposition; [TSG 10.1]
- **CONDITIONAL CLAUSE**: [TSG 10.6]
- **CONJUNCTION**: [TSG 6.11], [TSG 10], see TD conj.
- **CONSTITUENT ORDER**: sequence of words or phrases in a particular order in clauses [TSG 5.1], in noun phrases [TSG 7.18]), in verb complexes [TSG 8.1], of pronominal arguments [TSG 9.7.5]
- **CONVERSATIONAL ROUTINE**: keyword for expressions that a speaker uses to comment on what he/she says, like Engl. 'what I wanted to say', 'I am telling you', 'it is like this', 'very true', etc. > SPEAKING
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COORDINATED CLAUSE</td>
<td>[TSG 6.11], [TSG 10.7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COORDINATION</td>
<td>[TSG 6.11]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dative preposition</td>
<td>the preposition <em>ki</em> that marks NPs referring to the recipient, addressee, or beneficiary, [TSG 6.9.2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deictics, DEIXIS</td>
<td>pointing words, [TSG 7.9], [TSG 8.7], see TD <em>det.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEMONSTRATIVE</td>
<td>demonstrative pronoun, [TSG 7.9]. see TD <em>det.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>derelational suffix</td>
<td>a suffix that derives absolute nominals or verbals from inalienably possessed relational nouns; [TSG 6.2], [TSG 7.8]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>determiner</td>
<td>head of &gt; determiner phrase; [TSG 5.2], [TSG 7.5], see TD <em>det.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>determiner phrase</td>
<td>phrase consisting of an article and a determiner, preceding a noun phrase [TSG 5.2.4], [TSG 7.5]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIMINUTIVE particle</td>
<td>prenuclear particle in NPs that expresses empathy or self abasement; [TSG 7.6]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIRECTIONAL particle</td>
<td>the two directional particles <em>maa</em> 'hither' and <em>nao</em> 'thither' follow the verb complex nucleus and indicate the direction of the action; [TSG 8.7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DITRANSITIVE verb/ construction;</td>
<td>ditransitive verbs/verb complexes can be combined with a primary object and a secondary object; [TSG 6.3], [TSG 6.9], [TSG 9.1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DITRANSITIVISATION</td>
<td>valency increasing strategy by preposition incorporation [TSG 6.9] or verb serialisation [TSG 8.5]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>edited version of a recording</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELLIPSIS</td>
<td>[TSG 9.5]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>embedded clauses</td>
<td>clauses that form a constituent within a superordinate phrase or clause; [TSG 10]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMOTION</td>
<td>keyword for expressions that signify s.o.'s emotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMPHATIC PARTICLE</td>
<td>particle used for emphasis; always following the expression it emphasises; [TSG 6.12]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENGLISH</td>
<td>keyword for contexts where the speaker switches from TEOP to ENGLISH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EVALUATION</td>
<td>keyword for expressions used to express how one thinks or feels about something; similar to Engl. 'too much, indeed', 'it's true', etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exclusive</td>
<td>pronoun or pronominal referring to the speaker and other people, but not the addressee ('I and he/she/they'), [TSG 6.7]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOCUS</td>
<td>keyword for focus constructions, [TSG 9.6]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fourth person</td>
<td>category of an argument whose presence implies the presence of a third person argument that ranks higher on the syntactic role hierarchy subject &gt; primary object &gt; secondary object [TSG 6.7.5], [TSG 9.4]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>&gt; NOUN CLASS [TSG 6.2]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goal</td>
<td>semantic role of an adjunct indicated by the preposition vo, [TSG 6.9.6]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HABITUAL ACTION</td>
<td>keyword for constructions that express a habitual action [TSG 6.3.41, [TSG 7.19]]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.3 Index of keywords and grammatical terms

HEADLESS RELATIVE CLAUSE

immediateness marker tense/aspect particle following the nucleus of a verb complex expressing that the state of affairs is of immediate relevance for a subsequent event or state; [TSG 8.2]

IMPERATIVE [TSG 8.2]

IMPERFECTIVE aspect marker particle that indicates the imperfective aspect and inflects for person and number; it holds the last or second to last position in the verb complex; [TSG 6.7.4], [TSG 8.2.8], [TSG 9.3]

inalienable kind of possessive construction, typically used with bodypart terms and kinship terms; > alienable; [TSG 7.15], [TSG 7.17]

inclusive pronoun or pronominal referring to the speaker and the addressee ('I and you'); [TSG 6.7]

incorporated nominal [TSG 8.3]

INCORPORATED OBJECT > incorporated nominal

INCORPORATED PREPOSITION preposition incorporated into the verb complex, a means of valence change and the promotion of an adjunct or a secondary object; [TSG 6.9]

INDEFINITE PRONOUN word referring anybody or anything one can think of in a particular context, e.g. whoever, whatever, anybody, anything; [TSG 6.8.9]

INDEFINITENESS keyword for words that indicate that a noun phrase refers to a specific person or thing that has not been identified

INDIRECT SPEECH keyword for reported speech

INSTRUMENT semantic role that is either expressed by a secondary object or by an adjunct, [TSG 6.3.1.3], [TSG 8.6]

INTERJECTION [TSG 6.13]

interrogative word that is used to ask for information (e.g. who, what, etc.); [TSG 6.8], see TD int err.

INTERROGATIVE CLAUSE structural type of clause; as an independent clause it is typically used for asking questions, but it may also be used as a dependent clause in the function of an adverbial or complement clause; [TSG 10.4]

INTONATION

INTRANSITIVISATION derivational process by which a transitive verb or verb complex becomes intransitive, for example, by the > ANTICAUSATIVE [TSG 6.3.3], or by incorporated nominals [TSG 8.3]

kinship terms [TSG 6.2.2], [TSG 7.8]

LANGUAGE attitude/judgement keyword for metalinguistic comments made by native speakers

LEFT-DISLOCATION the topic of the discourse is expressed by a NP at the very beginning of the sentence without being an integral part of the following clause or sentence; but its referent is referred to by an anaphoric pronoun in the following clause or sentence

LEXICON keyword that draws attention to interesting lexical features of
1.3 Index of keywords and grammatical terms

words

LINKER
the particle *va* that links modifying place names, locative phrases and prepositional phrases introduced by *te* to the nucleus of an NP or VC; [TSG 5.2.8], [TSG 6.9.1], [TSG 6.10], [TSG 7.16]

LOAN TRANSLATION

LOAN WORD

LOCAL NOMINAL
small closed class of nominals that refer to spatial relationships, e.g. *koma* 'inside', [TSG 6.4]

LOCAL NOUN
word that functions as the nucleus of a locative phrase [TSG 5.2]; TD under *loc.*

LOCATIVE construction
construction formed by a prepositional phrase introduced by *te-* , a locative phrase or an adverb, [TSG 6.9.1]

LOCATIVE PHRASE
[TSG 5.2.8], [TSG 6.2.4]

MODALITY
modality is expressed by verbs and particles; see TD under *antee*, *goe*, *manin*, *mene*, *rake*, *tau*, *toro* and [TSG 8.2]

MORPHOLOGY
keyword for interesting morphological phenomena; [TSG 6.3], [TSG 6.4], [TSG 6.7]

multiple action
prefix expressing multiple action; [TSG 6.3.5]; search for MULT in the annotated recordings and their edited versions

N/V DISTINCTION
keyword for examples that show problems with regard to the traditional distinction between nouns and verbs; [TSG 6.1]

NEGATION
negation can be expressed by verbals and particles, [TSG 8.8], see TD *ahiki*, *goe*, *hiki*, *saka* ... *haa*, *sabun*, *samin*,

nominal
word class, prototypically denoting persons and things and functioning as the nucleus of a noun phrase; [TSG 6.2]

NOMINAL ATTRIBUTE
[TSG 7.10]; > attribute

NOMINAL INTERROGATIVE CLAUSE
dependent interrogative clause that has the same syntactic function as a noun phrase [TSG 10.4]

NOMINAL RELATIVE CLAUSE
clause introduced by *to* like a relative clause that has the same syntactic function as a noun phrase; [TSG 10.3]

NOMINALISATION
construction derived from a verbal clause that has certain structural and functional features of a noun phrase; [TSG 7.17]

NON-SPECIFIC ARTICLE
article that indicates that a noun phrase may refer to anybody or anything one can think of; [TSG 7.2.2]

non-verbal clause
[TSG 5.1]

noun
nucleus of a noun phrase (not a lexical category), [TSG 6.1]; > nominal

NOUN CLASS
the three noun classes of Teop determine the selection of the article; in noun phrases and adjectival phrases; [TSG 6.2.1]

NOUN INCORPORATION
keyword for incorporated nominals; [TSG 8.3]

NOUN PHRASE
phrase introduced by an article; nouns phrases function as arguments (subject, object), complements of prepositions and possessors; [TSG 5.2], [TSG 7]
### NUMBER
grammatical category that distinguishes between singular and plural. Singular and plural forms are distinguished by articles (TSG 7.2), pronouns and pronominals [TSG 6.7], and demonstratives [TSG 7.9]. A small number of verbs, nominals and adjectivals mark the plural by > reduplication ([TSG 6.2.1], [TSG 6.4]). Within the noun phrase, plurality can also be expressed by the plural marker, by numerals and collective nouns), [TSG 7.3], [TSG 7.4]

### NUMERAL
[TSG 6.6]
numeral phrase
phrase with a numeral as its head, [TSG 5.2.5], [TSG 7.4]

### OBJECT
[TSG 9]
OBJECT INCORPORATION
keyword for incorporated nominals; [TSG 8.3]

### OBJECT INCORPORATION
object marker
pronominal in the verb complex, inflecting for person and number and cross-referencing the primary object; [TSG 6.7.3], [TSG 9.3]

### ORDINAL NUMERAL
[TSG 6.6.2]

### ORTHOGRAPHY
keyword for unclear or interesting cases of spelling variants; [TSG 4.4]

### PARTICLE
[TSG 6.12]
PASSEPARTOUT WORD
keyword for a semantically empty word like taba 'thing', used by the speaker when a particular word does not come to his mind

### PASSIVE
keyword for constructions that are translation equivalents of English passives; Teop lacks the grammatical category of passive

### PATIENT
semantic role of an argument or attribute denoting a person or thing that is affected by an action; [TSG 6.3.1], [TSG 7.17]

### PHONOLOGY
[TSG 4]
phrase
group of words that form a structural unit within the clause; e.g. adjectival phrase, noun phrase, verb complex

### PHRASEOLOGY
keyword for idioms and similar more or less lexicalised expressions that seemed noteworthy to mark in the transcriptions and editions

### PLURAL MARKER
particle used in noun phrases to indicate plurality; [TSG 7.3]

### POLITENESS
keyword for polite expressions

### POSSESSIVE MARKER
possessive marker, [TSG 6.7.2], [TSG 7.15]

### POSSESSION
keyword for various kinds of constructions that express possessive and part/whole relations; [TSG 6.7], [TSG 7.15]

### POSSESSIVE COMPOUND
construction consisting of a body-part term and an adjectival with the meaning 'having a so-and-so body part'; e.g. kuri ('hand') kakaniva ('sharp') meaning 'having a sharp hand', for example, see TD koma.

### POSSESSIVE CONSTRUCTION
construction that expresses that s.o. has s.th. or that s.th. or s.o. belongs to s.o. or s.th. else; [TSG 5.2.9], [TSG 6.2.2], [TSG 6.2.1], [TSG 6.2.4], [TSG 6.9.3], [TSG 7.15]; for possessive construction at clause level see TD under tei me

### POSSESSIVE MARKER
suffix or clitic that is attached to the possessed noun in inalienable possessive constructions and that agrees in person and number
1.3 Index of keywords and grammatical terms

**predicate**
with the possessor, but does not refer to the possessor, [TSG 6.7]

**PREPOSITION**
[TSG 5.2], [TSG 6.9]

**preposition incorporation**
preposition within a verb complex [TSG 6.9].

**prepositional attribute**
prepositional phrase functioning as attribute (adnominal modifier) [TSG 7.14]

**PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE**
[TSG 5.2.7], [TSG 6.9], [TSG 7.14], [TSG 9.8] > ADJUNCT

**PRIMARY OBJECT**
object that is indexed by the > object marker in the verb complex [TSG 5.1], [TSG 9]

**pronominal**
clitic or suffix that inflects like a pronoun [TSG 6.7] >
imperfective aspect marker [TSG 8.2.8], object marker [TSG 9.3],
possessive marker [TSG 6.7]

**pronoun**
word class corresponding to personal pronouns (*I, you, he/she/it* ... ) in English; [TSG 6.7], [TSG 9.7]

**proper name**
[TSG 6.2.1]

**PSEUDOPASSIVE**
keyword for a transitive or ditransitive clause with a 3PL subject
pronoun referring to an agent that cannot be identified

**PURPOSIVE CLAUSE**
[TSG 10.5]

**quantification**
numeral phrase [TSG 7.4], determiner [TSG 7.5], quantifier [TSG 7.7]

**QUANTIFIER**
prenuclear word in a noun phrase, expressing some quantity like
‘little, few, much, many’ in English, [TSG 7.7]; see TD
bero ‘many’, peha ‘few’

**QUESTION**
keyword for expressions and constructions that we do not fully
understand

**R**
transcription and translation of a recording with notes on the
content, grammar and lexicon, edited as a PDF text file

**RAISING**
keyword for a construction by which an argument of a
complement clause is expressed as the object of the superordinate
predicate/the matrix verb, [TSG 10.1.4]

**recipient**
semantic role expressed by a primary object or an adjunct referring
to s.o. who receives s.th., [TSG 6.3.1.3], [TSG 8.6],

**reciprocal**
1. the reciprocal kinship particle *tom* ; [TSG 7.8]
2. reciprocal verbs marked by the prefix *va-* expressing an action
of two or more people in which all people involved play an active
and a passive role at the same time, e.g. 'hit each other'; [TSG
6.3.5]

**REDUPLICATION**
verbals, adjectivals and nominals can be reduplicated to express a
number of meanings such as plurality, duration, and intensity;
[TSG 6.2], [TSG 6.3.4], [TSG 6.4], [TSG 7.12]

**REFLEXIVITY/REFLEXIVE CONSTRUCTION**
keyword for constructions that express that an agent performs a
transitive action that he/she directs to him/herself [TSG 9.7.4]

**RELATIVE CLAUSE**
clause introduced by *to* that modifies a noun; [TSG 10.2] >
NOMINAL RELATIVE CLAUSE, [TSG 10.3]
REQUEST keyword for an expression that is used by s.o. who is requesting s.th.
RESULTATIVE tense/aspect marking expressing that a state results from a previous action; [TSG 8.2]
SECONDARY OBJECT the second object of ditransitive verb complexes; [TSG 5.1], [TSG 9]
SECONDARY PREDICATION adjectival incorporated into the verb complex or adjectival phrase following the verb complex that makes an additional predication [TSG 6.4]
serial verb > VERB SERIALISATION
SPACE keyword for expressions that relate to spatial orientation.
SPEAKING keyword for a conventionalised phrase similar to Engl. 'I am going to say', 'this is what I always say', etc.
SPEECH ACT VERB key word drawing attention to speech act verbs, verbs expressing communicative acts
SUBJECT grammatical function of subject [TSG 9.1]
SURPRISE keyword for an expression signifying surprise
SWEARING keyword for an expression used in swearing
TAIL HEAD construction/linkage > CLAUSE CHAINING; a construction in which a sentence starts with nearly the same wording as the preceding sentence; [TSG 10.8]
TD Teop Lexical Database
tense, aspect and mood [TSG 8.2]
THINKING keyword 1. for a conversational phrase used when talking about one's opinion, corresponding to Engl. 'I think', 'I mean', 'in my opinion', etc.; 2. for metaphorical expressions for thinking
THREAT keyword for expression that are used to threaten s.o.
TIME keyword for expressions other than TAM markers that relate to the location of events in time
TO-CLAUSE clause introduced by to which does not seem to be classifiable as a > relative clause or a > nominal relative clause
TOK PISIN keyword referring to the use of Tok Pisin expressions in Teop utterances
TOPIC [TSG 6.9.1], [TSG 9.2], [TSG 9.5], [TSG 9.8]
TOPICALISATION keyword for the use of a noun phrase other than the subject as the topic of a clause [TSG 9.2], [TSG 9.5]
TRANSITIVITY keywords drawing attention to interesting transitive constructions and/or morphological operations that make intransitive verbals transitive; valence [TSG 6.3.1]
TRANSITIVISATION
VAA-PHRASE phrase that modifies a VC or an NP; [TSG 5.2.8], [TSG 7.16]
valence/valency property of verbs and verb complexes that determines number, form and semantic role of arguments > transitivity, ditransitivity,
1.3 Index of keywords and grammatical terms

- reflexivity, reciprocal; verbal [TSG 6.3.1]; > preposition incorporation [TSG 6.9]; incorporation of nominals [TSG 8.3]; serial verbs [TSG 8.5]; applicative [TSG 8.6]

VC > verb complex

VERB nucleus of a verb complex [TSG 6.1], [TSG 6.3]

VERB COMPLEX phrase that is introduced by a tense/aspect or mood marker and functions as a predicate; [TSG 5.2.6], [TSG 8]

VERB SERIALISATION two or more juxtaposed verbals within a single verb complex; [TSG 8.5]

verbal class of words that typically express actions and function as the nucleus of a verb complex [TSG 6.3], but can also function as an > attribute [TSG 7.12], the head of a NP [TSG 7.17] > a serial verb [TSG 8.5]

VERBAL ATTRIBUTE verbal modifying a noun; [TSG 7.12].

WORD CLASSES keyword referring to words that are difficult to unequivocally classify [TSG 6].

word order > constituent order
1.4 References


2 The Teop language documentation

2.1 The Teop language and its speakers

Names of the language: Teop, Tiop

2.1.1 Genetic affiliation of the Teop language

Teop is an Oceanic language that is spoken in the north-east of the island of Bougainville, in the Tinputz District of the autonomous North Solomons Province of Papua New Guinea. It belongs to the Nehan-North Bougainville network of the North-West Solomonic Group of the Meso-Melanesian Cluster (Ross 1988:217).

2.1.2 Dialects

The project was carried out in the coastal area between the Catholic Mission Tearuki and the Mission of the United Church in Kekesu where the so-called coastal dialect is spoken.

It was not possible to carry out any dialect survey. Ethnologue lists: Wainanana, Losiara (Raosiara), Taunita, Malilup, Petspets.

The project did not do any research on dialects.

2.1.3 Sociolinguistic background

Number of speakers: 5000 (1991 SIL)
Literacy: 75-100%

source: www.ethnologue.com/show_language.asp?code=tio)

All children attend primary school.

Bilingualism: all Teop speakers speak Tok Pisin and many of them speak English

Economy: subsistence economy (gardening, fishing), cocoa plantations

Churches: Adventists, Catholic, Methodist, United Church

The project did not do any sociolinguistic research.
2.2 The history of Bougainville

29,000 years BP  first population of Buka and Bougainville, probably through the Bismarck Archipelago
3,000 years BP  new waves of settlement on Buka and Bougainville (Lapita pottery)
1768  Bougainville Island sighted by French expedition under Louis de Bougainville
1885-1914  New Guinea mainland, the Bismarck Archipelago and Solomon Islands including Buka and Bougainville under German administration
Sept. 1914  German rule in New Guinea ends, Australian military forces take over
Dec. 1914  Australian forces occupy Kieta
May 1921  League of Nations grants mandate over former German New Guinea to Australia
1934-1942  sporadic gold-mining near Panguna
Mar. 1942  Japanese occupation of Bougainville
Aug. 1943  US forces land at Torokina
Oct.-Dec. 1944  Australian troops take over military operations on Bougainville
Dec. 1944  Australian military campaign begins
Aug. 15, 1945  Japan surrenders
1949  UN grants formal approval for joint administration of Papua and New Guinea (PNG)
         Territory of Papua and New Guinea (TPNG) legislative council established
1958  1st Local Government Council established in Bougainville for Teop Tinputz area
1960  Government geological report confirms copper mineralisation at
         Panguna/Kupei area, Central Bougainville
1963  Conzinc Rio Tinto Australia Exploration Ltd (CRA) granted authority to
         prospect over area including Panguna deposit
1964-1967  first discordance between Panguna landowners and CRA concerning drilling, licences and compensation
Sept. 16, 1975  PNG gains independence
1976  Bougainville gains limited autonomy as a province of PNG
1988-1990  beginning of the Bougainville Crisis
1990  Bougainville declares its independence
1990-1998  blockade of Island
Jan. 1998  Peace treaty signed in New Zealand
2001  Bougainville becomes autonomous province
May 2005  1st elections, Joseph Kabui elected president
### Missions and Church

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>Catholic Society of Mary (Marists), mostly from Germany and France, establish mission near Kieta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1902</td>
<td>Toboroi Roman Catholic Mission established</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1920</td>
<td>Methodist missionaries in Siwai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1924</td>
<td>Seventh-Day Adventist mission in Bougainville</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1930</td>
<td>American Fr Thomas Wade, SM, becomes bishop of Bougainville Diocese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>Marists establish school at Chabai, Northwest Bougainville</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1953</td>
<td>Engineering workshop to teach boys to repair various machines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1954</td>
<td>Catholic teacher training for boys at Tarlena, North Bougainville</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>Catholic teacher training for girls at St Mary’s Asitavi High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>Marists near Kieta extend schooling for boys to secondary level at St Joseph’s school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1963</td>
<td>First Bougainvilleanes ordained as priests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>First indigenous bishop of Catholic diocese of Bougainville (Fr Gregory Singkai)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### References:


[http://www.natural-resources.org/minerals/development/indigp/Bougainville.htm](http://www.natural-resources.org/minerals/development/indigp/Bougainville.htm)

_for more details on the Crisis and the Peace process see:_


[http://www.bcl.com.pg/events.htm](http://www.bcl.com.pg/events.htm)

2.3 Previous work on the Teop language

Religious literature


Hymn Book

School primers


Linguistic articles and theses

Mosel, Ulrike. in print. The fourth person in Teop. (Festschrift)


2.4 The Teop archive

The Teop archive consists of five parts:

1. Teop language corpus
2. Lexicographic work
3. Descriptions of Teop grammar and phonetics
4. Recordings of vocal music without transcriptions and translations
5. Videos

2.4.1 The Teop language corpus - types of media

The centre of the Teop language documentation and by far largest component is the corpus of annotated recordings which contains the following types of documents:

1. Annotated audio and video files in ELAN with
   1. an orthographical transcription in a practical orthography and translation
   2. an orthographical transcription, morphological segmentation, glosses and translation
   3. a narrow phonetic transcription, orthographical transcription, morphological segmentation, glosses and translation (one file, Asu_01R, used in the explorative phonetic study)

2. PDF files that contain the transcriptions and translations of the ELAN files, but in addition have footnotes on content and linguistic phenomena (so-called R-versions).

3. PDF files of edited versions of the transcriptions of the recordings with a translation into English and footnotes on the content and the language. These versions (so called E versions) were edited by native speakers of Teop, and some of these versions are also glossed (so-called G-versions).

4. PDF files of the community edition (so-called CE-versions) which contain the same Teop texts as the E-versions, but not translations and notes on the language.

5. Wav-files of the recorded readings of the E/CE-versions.

6. PDF files of written texts (so-called W-versions) that in contrast to the E-versions are not based on transcriptions.


All files are labelled by the following conventions:

The first letters are an abbreviation of the name of the speaker or speakers, e.g. Mah_Loa_Vaa for Mahaka, Loata and Vaabero.

The number following this abbreviation indicates the number of the session with these speakers, e.g. Aro. 14 is the fourteenth session with Leah Arovi Magum.
The number is followed by R, E, G, CE, W, RSR, RSE, RSW. These abbreviations stand for:

- **CE**: community edition (edited versions of transcribed recordings, Teop text only)
- **E**: edited version of transcribed recordings with translations and comments in footnotes
- **G**: glossed version of E, but without footnotes
- **R**: R version containing a transcription of the recording with translation and comments in footnotes
- **RSE**: E versions solely done by Ruth Saovana Spriggs
- **RSR**: R versions solely done by Ruth Saovana Spriggs
- **RSW**: text written by Ruth Saovana Spriggs
- **W**: text written in Teop, not based on a transcription

While the CE, E, G, R and W versions were done by a team, often including Ruth Saovana Spriggs, the RDE, RSR and RSW versions were exclusively done by Ruth Saovana Spriggs. Only the CE, E and G versions are freely available. The other files are available on request.

### 2.4.2 Topics of the recordings

**Literature**

1. legends
2. modern stories for children

**Culture**: interviews and monologues on culture:

1. ceremonies, cultural practices and concepts
2. material culture (houses, canoes, fishing, food preparation, games)
3. the role of women

**History**: interviews and narratives on history:

1. history of the missions and the church
2. 2nd World War
3. Bougainville Crisis
4. personal histories
5. Social changes and education

### 2.4.3 Lexicographic work

1. The Teop lexical data base in SHOEBOX by Marica Schwartz, Ruth Saovana Spriggs, Ulrike Mosel, Ruth Siimaa Rigamu, Jeremiah Vaabero, Naphtaly Maion
2. Alphabetical picture dictionary with drawings by Neville Vitahi and photos by Ulrike Mosel, and Yvonne Thiesen
3. Picture gallery with pictures organised by themes related to the environment, the material culture and the social life
4. Wordlists of various themes (kinship, bodyparts, perception, natural environment (landmarks, sea),
trees and other plants, animals, dwelling, baskets, etc. by Marica Schwartz, Ruth Spriggs and
Ulrike Mosel

5. Example sentences by Siimaa Rigamu ("Siimaa's sentences") edited and translated by Ulrike
Mosel with Naphtaly Maion and Marcia Schwartz; example sentences by Naphtaly Maion
translated by Naphtaly Maion with Marcia Schwartz and Ulrike Mosel

6. Monolingual definitions and examples by Jeremiah Vaabero, edited by Marcia Schwartz

The resources listed under 1-3 are freely available. The others are closed files that are available on
request.

2.4.4 Teop grammar and phonetics

Mosel, Ulrike with Yvonne Thiesen. 2007. The Teop sketch grammar.

perzeptorischer Basis.


2.4.5 Videos

Video gallery with video clips illustrating typical activities of the Teop people

2.4.6 Vocal music

We had the opportunity to record a few chants, but did not record vocal music systematically.
2.5 Scope and organisation of the Teop Sketch Grammar

The main purpose of this Teop Sketch Grammar is to give an overview of structural features of the language and facilitate the understanding of the annotated recordings and written texts, and the usage of the dictionary. The grammar of Teop has not yet been investigated in depth, but we are confident that the documentation of the Teop language provides sufficient data for a thorough analysis and description of most morpho-syntactic areas. For studies on particular topics see [TSG_02_03].

The Teop sketch grammar describes the coastal dialect of Teop as it is spoken in the villages between Tearuki and Kekesu, and on Teop Island.

As we wanted to keep this grammar small, interesting examples of various grammatical and lexical phenomena are highlighted and commented on in the footnotes of the PDF files of the text corpus. There we also address problems of analysis and interpretation, and provide literal translations wherever we thought it difficult to relate the free translation to the Teop original. Four of the freely available texts, all of them edited versions of legends, are glossed: Asu_01G, Iar_2G, Val_1G, Val_2G.

Readers who are interested in a particular linguistic phenomenon can consult the sketch grammar for preliminary information and then search the corpus for examples. The index of this grammar (see [TSG_01-03] contains the keywords that are used in the footnotes of the corpus. Thus a reader who is interested in complement clauses may first read the relevant chapter of this sketch grammar, check the index if COMPLEMENT CLAUSE figures as a keyword in the grammatical footnotes, which it does, and then search the corpus for this keyword.
3 Typological features of Teop grammar

Similar to other Oceanic languages, Teop is a non-inflecting configurational language. Its grammar shows many characteristics that are typical for Oceanic languages, but also some unique features, especially in respect to the verb complex and the argument structure.

3.1 Lexical and morphological features

- Teop has three noun classes (n.e., n.a., n.o.) which manifest themselves in distinctive articles and are partly semantically motivated, though independent of sex and animacy.
- With nouns, number can be expressed by various means: the articles, quantifiers, numerals, and reduplication.
- The verb shows derivational affixes for causative, anti-causative, multiple and reciprocal action.
- Tense/aspect/mood is expressed by particles and reduplication.
- The paradigm of pronouns and pronominals shows the number categories of singular (SG) and plural (PL). There is no dual.
- The first person plural distinguishes between exclusive and inclusive.
- In addition to a third person pronoun, Teop has a fourth person pronoun.

3.2 Syntactic features of the clause

- The valence of the verb complex (VC) can be different from the valence of the verb. Valence increasing or rearranging means of expression within the VC are: serial verbs, the applicative particle and incorporated prepositions. The valence can be decreased by the incorporation of an object.
- Teop has an exceptionally high number of ditransitive constructions.
- Transitive verbs can be made ditransitive by adding the causative prefix.
- Transitive VCs can be made ditransitive by the incorporation of prepositions.
- The grammatical relations of subject, primary object and secondary object are indicated by the interaction of constituent order, indexing in the verb complex and particular articles for certain kinds of objects.
- Prepositions introduce adjuncts, while core arguments are expressed by bare noun phrases.
- The order of constituents in clauses, noun phrases and verb complexes is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>VC</th>
<th>OTHER ARGUMENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SUBJECT</td>
<td>VC</td>
<td>PRIMARY OBJECT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRIMARY OBJECT</td>
<td>VC</td>
<td>SUBJECT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SECONDARY OBJECT</td>
<td>VC</td>
<td>SUBJECT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

But when non-topical, i.e. post-verbal arguments are expressed by pronouns, the sequential order of arguments follows the person hierarchy 1st/2nd person > 3rd person. This hierarchy is also relevant for the agreement in person and number between core arguments and the verb complex.
### 3.3 Syntactic features of the noun phrase

Noun phrases show the following constituent order:

\[(2) \quad \text{ART} \quad \text{N} \quad \text{DEM} \]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{[ART NUM]} \quad \text{ART} \quad \text{N} \quad \text{DEM} \\
\text{ART} \quad \text{N} \quad \text{DEM} \quad \text{POSSESSOR PHRASE}
\end{array}
\]

The *article* indicates the noun class of the head noun and distinguishes number and specificity.

**Numerals** and **adjectivals** are combined with articles that agree with the article of the head noun with respect to noun class, number and specificity.

There are two kinds of possessive construction: the *inalienable* and the *alienable* construction. Inalienable possessors are either directly suffixed or joined to the possessed noun by a possessive linker. Alienable possessors take the form of a prepositional phrase. This prepositional phrase is introduced by the "all-purpose preposition" *te*. There are **no possessive classifiers** as in other Oceanic languages.

Personal pronouns and the interrogatives *teiee* 'who' and *tabae* 'what' are determined by articles.

A noun phrase can have two or even three demonstratives.

### 3.4 Syntactic features of the verb complex

The verb complex (VC) can incorporate

- a split negation (NEG1.NEG2),
- a prenuclear tense/aspect/mood marker (TAM),
- an incorporated noun,
- one or two serial verbs,
- prenuclear and postnuclear adverbs (ADV),
- an applicative particle (APP),
- a preposition (PREP),
- a cross-referencing object marker (OBJ),
- a directional marker (DIR)
- a marker expressing immediateness (IM) and
- an imperfect aspect marker (IMPF).

The sequential order of constituents within the VC is:

\[(3) \quad \text{NEG} \quad \text{TAM} \quad \text{ADV}_1 \quad \text{V} \quad \text{N} \quad \text{SERIAL VERBS} \quad \text{ADV}_2 \quad \text{NEG} \quad \text{APP} / \text{PREP} \quad \text{ADV}_3 \quad \text{OBJ} \quad \text{DIR} \quad \text{IM} \quad \text{ADV}_4 \quad \text{IMPF}\]
4 Phonology and orthography
(by Ulrike Mosel and Alexander Radtke)

The analysis is based on the recordings LanguageLab_1 – LanguageLab_05, and Asu_01. For details see Radtke 2005 in this Documentation of the Teop Language.

4.1 Consonants

Table 4.1: Consonant phones

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>bilabial</th>
<th>labio-dental</th>
<th>dental</th>
<th>alveolar</th>
<th>post-alveolar</th>
<th>retroflex</th>
<th>palatal</th>
<th>velar</th>
<th>uvular</th>
<th>pharyng-gal</th>
<th>glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>p pʰ p’  b b</td>
<td>t tʰ tʰ</td>
<td>d tʰ</td>
<td>k kʰ kʰ’</td>
<td>g</td>
<td>?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>m m</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n n</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trill</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tap or Flap</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>φ</td>
<td>β β β</td>
<td>θ</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>s s</td>
<td>s s</td>
<td>s s</td>
<td>s s</td>
<td>s s</td>
<td>s s</td>
<td>s s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td>ß</td>
<td>ß</td>
<td>ß</td>
<td>ß</td>
<td>ß</td>
<td>ß</td>
<td>ß</td>
<td>ß</td>
<td>ß</td>
<td>ß</td>
<td>ß</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral approximant</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Double articulation: n m

Table 4.2: Consonant phonemes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>bilabial</th>
<th>dental</th>
<th>alveolar</th>
<th>velar</th>
<th>glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>p b</td>
<td>t d</td>
<td>k g</td>
<td>k g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trill</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>(φ) β (θ)</td>
<td>s (z)</td>
<td>h</td>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral fricative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approximant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral approximant</td>
<td>(l)</td>
<td>(l)</td>
<td>(l)</td>
<td>(l)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Vowels

Table 4.3: Vowel phones

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>front</th>
<th>central</th>
<th>back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>close</td>
<td>i   j</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>close-mid</td>
<td>e   e</td>
<td>e`</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open-mid</td>
<td>æ   æ</td>
<td>æ`</td>
<td>æ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open</td>
<td>a   a</td>
<td>a`</td>
<td>a:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These vowels represent seven vowel phonemes.

Fig. 4.1: Vowel phonemes

The realisation of these phonemes covers the space depicted in Fig. 2. Thus the oval at the top of the left corner shows the space of the realisation of the phoneme /i/ that reaches down to [e] and in one instance, in the loanword *nusilan* 'New Zealand' is realised with lip rounding [y].
The localisation of these realisations is not based on digital measurements, but on Radtke's auditive perception. He observed that the more distant a symbol is located from the phoneme symbol in the same circle, the less frequent they are.

Note that the realisation of /æ/ shows very little variation and that /a/ is never realised as [æ], whereas both /a/ and [o] can be realised as [œ], and both /a/ and /æ/ as [ɛ].
4.3 Syllable structure and prosodic phenomena

The syllable structure is

\[(C) \ V \ \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{(m)} \\ \text{(n)} \\ \text{(s)} \end{array} \right\} \]

Examples: 
- [e.'na:] 'I', [pam ]'tie', [en] 'hier', [ki'kis] 'strong'.

Stress and intonation have not been investigated yet. For data see LanguageLab_1 – LanguageLab_05, and Asu_01.

4.4 Orthography

The orthography, which has been developed by missionaries, is phonological, but loanwords are written in their original English or Tok Pisin orthography.

Table 4.4: Orthography of consonants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>bilabial</th>
<th>alveolar</th>
<th>velar</th>
<th>glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plosive</td>
<td>[p b]</td>
<td>[t d]</td>
<td>[k g]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>p b</td>
<td>t d</td>
<td>k g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>[ m]</td>
<td>[ n]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>m</td>
<td>m</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trill</td>
<td></td>
<td>[ r]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td></td>
<td>[s]</td>
<td></td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>s</td>
<td></td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With the exception of /æ/ and /ɔ/, the vowels are rendered by the equivalent IPA symbols. The vowels /æ/ and /ɔ/, which historically derive from diphthongs, are spelled as ae and ao respectively.

1. **nao** [nɔː] 'go'
   - **hae** [æː] 'go on board'

In reading ae and ao are sometimes pronounced as [æc] and [aʊ].

The orthography used in the hymn book and by most Teop speakers does not indicate vowel length. But the orthography used in schools indicates vowel length by the sequence of two identical vowel letters, e.g.

2. **naa** [nəː] 'I, me, my'
   - **hee** [heː] 'give'

Word division is lexical for full words, i.e. each lexeme is rendered as an orthographical word whereas the writing of clitics largely depends on stress patterns. Two or three clitics may form a phonological and consequently an orthographical word, e.g.
However, word division, is only partly standardised so that the corpus of annotated recordings shows variation, but in the community edition of the legends, we aimed at a consistent spelling.
5 The sentence: an overview

This chapter gives an overview of the structure of the sentence, the clause and various kinds of phrases within the clause. We distinguish between clauses that contain one predicate and its arguments and complex sentences that contain more than one clause. Whether two adjacent clauses constitute a complex sentence or are to be considered as a sequence of two independent clauses is not always clearly to determine.

Well-formed utterances are not necessarily formed by clauses and complex sentences but may consist of single phrases.

5.1 Types of clauses

Clauses are subclassified on the basis of the form of their predicate into verbal clauses and non-verbal clauses.

A verbal clause has a verb complex (VC) as its predicate. In addition, it can have arguments (a subject and one or two objects) and adjuncts. The arguments are expressed by noun phrases (NPs), adjuncts by noun phrases, prepositional phrases (PPs), and locative phrases (LPs). The number and the semantic role of the arguments depends on the valence of the VC which can be intransitive, transitive and ditransitive and thus have primary objects (OBJ 1) and secondary objects (OBJ 2):

(1)  SUBJ____________ VC____________
    O  hum vai me na mataa nana.
    ART place DEM too TAM good IMPF
    'This place, too, is good.' [Vos. 1.13R]

(2)  SUBJ _________ VC__________________ OBJ 1___
    A  moon vai kahi vahio ni nana bona otei.
    ART woman DEM TAM marry APP IMPF ART man
    'This woman will marry the man.' [Daa. 1.22R]

(3)  SUBJ_ VC____ OBJ 1___ OBJ 2____
    Ean  toro hee ama-naa ta vohe.
    2SG  must give OBJ-1SG ART paddle
    'You must give me a paddle.' [Vae. 1.159R], [Vae. 1.119E]

The first position of the core of the verbal clause is held by the topic which can be the subject, the primary object or the secondary object, while the second position is always filled by the verb complex (VC). The unmarked and most frequent order is SUBJ VC OBJ1 OBJ2.

(4)  OBJ 2  VC________ SUBJ OBJ 1______________
    Tabae toro hee ri naa a ta Papua New Guinea.
    what must give OBJ-1SG ART people Papua New Guinea
    'What must I give to the people of Papua New Guinea?' [Pur. 1.190R]

The order of nominal arguments after the VC follows the syntactic functions hierarchy

subject < primary object < secondary object.
5.1 Types of clauses

Table 5.1 Order of arguments in verbal clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>first position: topic</th>
<th>VC</th>
<th>second position</th>
<th>third position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>subject</td>
<td>VC</td>
<td>primary object</td>
<td>secondary object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>primary object</td>
<td>VC</td>
<td>subject</td>
<td>secondary object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secondary object</td>
<td>VC</td>
<td>subject</td>
<td>primary object</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If the postverbal object is a pronoun and the postverbal subject a NP, the pronoun precedes the subject:

(5) OBJ2____ VC_____ OBJ1  SUBJ________

'A inu na hee a-naa e gavaman.
ART house TAM give OBJ-1SG ART government
'The house was given to me by the government.' [Pur. 2.28R].

The syntactic functions of the arguments as subject, primary object or secondary object are indicated by the articles and inflecting cross-referencing morphemes within the VC, namely the object marker (OBJ) and the imperfective aspect marker (IMPF). The paradigms of the imperfective aspect marker and the object marker are given in [TSG_06_07] in section 3 and 4, respectively.

Non-verbal clauses have a noun phrase, an adjectival phrase, a numeral phrase, a locative phrase or a prepositional phrase as their predicate.

(6) NP___ NP____________

Enaa  a  too  Teapu
1SG  ART person Teop
'I am a Teop.' [Sii.1.1R]

(7) NP_ NumP_____

Eori a  buaku.
3PL  ART two
'They were two.' [Kor. 1.191R]

(8) NP_____ PP____________

A  iana ki  bene teiee?
ART  fish  DAT  ART  who
'For whom is the fish?'
5.2 Types of phrases

Phrases consist of a lexical head and satellites. They can be subclassified on the basis of what kinds of the functional satellites they occur with:

1. noun phrases, e.g. *e bubuu* 'Granny', *a inu* 'a, the house', *o ravarava* 'a, the sarong'
2. locative phrases, e.g. *ini* 'at home, home'; *komana inu* 'inside the house'
3. adjectival phrases, e.g. *a mataa* / *o mataa* 'good (lit. a/ the good one)' 
4. determiner phrases, e.g. *a meh-* / *o meh-* 'other'
5. numeral phrases, e.g. *a buaku* / *o buaku* 'two'
6. verb complexes, e.g. *na mataa nana* 'is good', *na hagi nana* 'is dancing'
7. prepositional phrases, e.g. *tea teesin* 'on the plantation', *ki e bubuu* 'for Granny'
8. the *vaa-*phrase
9. the possessor phrase

5.2.1. Noun phrases

Noun phrases are introduced by an article and typically refer to human beings, animals or things.

(1) *e guu, a moon, a kokokoo, a inu, o sinivi*  
ART pig ART woman ART heron ART house, ART canoe  
'the woman, the pig, the heron, the house, the canoe'

The article of the noun phrase indicates number, specificity and the noun class of the lexical head. It also contributes to the identification of syntactic roles. Noun phrases function as arguments, adjuncts, predicates and complements of prepositions.

5.2.2 Locative phrases

Locative phrases (LPs) are similar to noun phrases. Their head is a nominal denoting a place, but in contrast to noun phrases, they lack an article and are inherently singular and specific, i.e. similar to place names, as they refer to a particular place.

(2) *me-ori paa hiava vahabana rasuu*  
and-3PL TAM go.up again jungle  
'and they went up again into the jungle' [Eno. 1.119R]

(3) *E subuava he tea goroho koma-n- a inu.*  
ART old.woman butCOMPL sleep inside-POSS ART house  
'but the old woman was sleeping in the house' (lit. 'inside the house') [Aro. 4.19R]

The head of LPs can be formed by local noun (3), place names, or common nouns that denote places, e.g. *kasuana* 'beach', *rasuu* 'jungle, bush', *tahii* 'sea', *vaan* 'village'.

Locative phrases function as adjuncts as in the two clauses above, as predicates in non-verbal clauses, or as complements in *vaa-*phrases.
5.2.3 Adjectival phrases

Adjectival phrases (APs) are introduced by an article. Their head is a lexical word which typically denotes a property like 'good', 'bad', 'big' or 'small' or a colour. They function as attributes and as predicates in non-verbal clauses. In both functions they follow the noun phrase.

(4)      A   kavono    a   kakaavoo
         ART cockatoo  ART white
'The white cockatoo.' / 'The cockatoo is white.'

(5)      O   sinivo    o   mataa
         ART canoe      ART good
'The good canoe.' / 'The canoe is big.'

Since the AP can be separated from the head of the NP by other phrases, we consider it as a phrase on its own and not as a part of the NP. The selection of the article is determined by the noun class of the noun which the adjectival phrase modifies or is a predicate of.

5.2.4 Determiner phrases

A NP can be preceded by a determiner phrases (DP). DPs are marked by an article that agrees in noun class and number with the article of the NP. The head of the determiner phrase is formed by the anaphoric words meh- 'other' or vuaba 'such', e.g.

(6)      a   meh-a   inu    o   meh-o   sinivi
         ART  other-ART house      ART other-ART canoe
'another house'     'another canoe'

(7)      ta   vuaba   ta   moon
         NSP.ART such      NSP.ART woman
'such a woman' [Aro. 8.107E]

Note that meh- and the following article of the NP form a phonological word.

5.2.5 The numeral phrase

In attributive function numeral phrases precede the noun phrase and similar to adjectival phrases have an article that agrees with the article of the noun phrase. Both the quantified noun phrase and the numeral phrase are singular:

(8)      a   buaku   a   inu
         ART  two      ART  house
'two houses'

(9)      o   buaku   o   sinivi
         ART  two      ART  canoe
'two canoes'

The numeral phrase may also be used in predicative function and then follows the noun phrase:

(10)     Eori  a   buaku.
        3PL   ART  two
'They are two.' [Kor. 3.191R]

The quantifier bero 'many' can be used like numerals:
5.2 Types of phrases

5.2.6 Verb complexes

Verb complexes (VCs) are marked by prenuclear particles expressing tense, aspect and mood (TAM). They function as predicates and typically denote actions.

(12) E Kakato na ani nana.
    ART Kakato TAM eat IMPF
    'Kakato is eating.'

Apart from TAM particles, a VC can contain a negation, an incorporated nominal [TSG_08_03], serial verbs [TSG_08_05], adverbs [TSG_08_04], an adverbial vaa-phrase (this chapter, section 7), an incorporated preposition [TSG_06_09], the applicative particle [TSG_08_06], a directional particle [TSG_08_07], and an imperfective aspect marker (IMPF) [TSG_08_01].

5.2.7 Prepositional phrases

Prepositional phrases (PPs) are introduced by a preposition and function as attributes, predicates and adjuncts.

(13) a kiu te- a moon
    ART work PREP- ART woman
    'the work of the woman'

(14) A maa toogoori ki bene teiee?
    ART PL toogoori for ART who
    'For whom are the toogoori-fish?'

(15) Ahehe ki- e Sovavi.
    sing for- ART Sovavi
    'Sing for Sovavi!'

5.2.8 The vaa- phrase

The vaa-phrase consists of the linker vaa- and a locative phrase (15), a place name (16) or a prepositional phrase introduced by te (17-20). They mostly function as attributes (15-18), but are also found as adverbials (20) and as predicates (21).

(16) a si iana vaa tahii
    ART DIM fish LK sea
    'a little fish from the sea' [Mor. 2.10R]

(17) a tavaan vaa Teapu
    ART people LK Teop
    'the Teop people, the people from Teop Island'

(18) a iana vaa te- a kave
    ART fish LK PREP-ART net
    'the fish in the net' [Sii. 6.239R], [Sii. 6.136E]

(19) o matapaku vaa te- a koron - o potee
    ART method LK PREP-ART carve POSS-ART canoe
    'the method of carving a canoe', lit. 'the method of carving of a canoe' [Mor. 4.1R]
5.2 Types of phrases

(20) Evehee na tavus vaa te- a oraa nana.
   but TAM come.out LK PREP-ART demon IMPF
   'But it comes out like a demon.' [San. 3.92R]

(21) A averu na vaa te- a peeler nana.
   ART peeler TAM LK PREP-ART peeler IMPF
   The 'averu' is like a peeler. [Sii.Sen. 1.16]

5.2.9 The possessor phrase

The possessor phrase denotes the possessor in inalienable possessive construction. Apart from one exception, it consists of the possessive marker [TSG_06_07] and a pronominal or nominal complement. The exception is the 1SG pronoun which is directly suffixed to the possessed noun. Dependent on the lexical class of the head noun, the possessor phrase is obligatory or optional, see [TSG_06_02], section 2-4.

(22) e tama- naa, e tama- m- an
   ART father- 1SG ART father- POSS:2SG- 2SG
   'my father', 'your father'

(23) a tama- n- a moon
   ART father- POSS:3SG- ART woman
   'the woman's father'

(24) a koro n- o potee
   ART carve POSS:3SG- ART potee.canoe
   'the carving of the potee canoe'
5.3 Complex sentences

We distinguish between

1. independent clauses;
2. coordinate clauses that are connected by a conjunction, but are syntactically independent from each other;
3. embedded clauses that function as a constituent within a superordinate clause;
4. dependent non-embedded clauses that are syntactically dependent on another clause but do not form a constituent within that clause.

In non-embedded clauses, dependency can manifest itself in the use of particular conjunctions, reduced forms of subject pronouns and the lack of TAM marking [TSG_08_02]. The time reference of such clauses depends on the preceding or the following clause.

A complex sentence contains at least two clauses, clause 1 and clause 2, which can be related to one another in a number of ways:

1. Clause 1 is dependent on and embedded in clause 2 as a complement or a relative clause (1, 2)

   (1) Enaa na rake nom _tea_ an.

   1SG TAM want IMPF COMP eat
   'I want to eat.'

   (2) a _moon_ to rake nom-an

   ART woman REL want IMPF-2SG
   'the woman that you want'

2. Clause 1 is dependent, but not embedded (3):

   (3) Tei nom vaan, nam _he_ gono vaha a _paepa_ vai.

   stay IMPF village 1 EXC CONJ get again ART paper DEM
   'While staying in the village, we got these papers.' [Sii. 2.481R]

   Both clauses lack TAM marking as the location in time is understood from the context. Furthermore, the first clause lacks the subject. As in the corresponding English construction, the subject is provided by the second clause. But in contrast to its English counterpart, this construction is not an adverbial construction; the conjunction _he_ coordinates clauses that express two simultaneous events.

3. The two clauses are dependent on each other. A typical example are conditional constructions where both clauses are marked by a conjunction, i.e. _be_ 'if' and _re_ 'then', and cannot stand by themselves. e.g.

   (4) Be-- ori hiki _rori_, e _tama-m- an re- _paa_ mate,

   if- 3PL not.exist IMPF ART father-POSS- 2SG CONJ- TAM die
   'If it were not for them, your father would have died.' [Sia. 1.207E]
6 Word classes

The words of the Teop lexicon can be classified into open and closed classes. Whereas the classification of the open classes is difficult, see [TSG_06_01], the classification of the closed classes can be carried out on the basis of their distribution within the clause. In order to avoid repetition, not all word classes are described in this chapter. Those that are confined to the noun phrase are dealt with in the noun phrase chapter and those which are typically found in the verb complex are described in the verb complex chapter.

Open classes:
- nominals [TSG_06_02]
- verbals [TSG_06_03]
- adjectivals [TSG_06_04]
- adverbs [TSG_06_05]
- Numerals [TSG_06_06]

Closed classes described in this chapter are:
- pronouns and cross-referencing pronominals [TSG_06_07]
- interrogatives [TSG_06_08]
- prepositions [TSG_06_09]
- the linker *vaa/vai* [TSG_06_10]
- conjunctions [TSG_06_11]
- particles [TSG_06_12]

Word classes and unclassified words that only occur in NPs are explained in [TSG_07]:
- articles [TSG_07_02]
- the plural marker *maa* and *maamihu* 'every' [TSG_07_03]
- determiners other than articles [TSG_07_05]
- the diminutive *si* [TSG_07_06]
- the quantifier *vahara* [TSG_07_07]
- the reciprocal kinship particle *tom* [TSG_07_08]
- demonstratives [TSG_07_09]

Similarly, the following word classes are dealt with in the verb complex chapter [TSG_08]:
- tense, aspect and mood particles (TAM) [TSG_08_02]
- the applicative particle [TSG_08_06]
- directional particles [TSG_08_07]
- negation [TSG_08_08]
6.1 Nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs

At this stage of our research, it is not possible to present a detailed analysis of lexical word classes. While the types of phrases are well defined by structural and distributional criteria, the words which function as their lexical heads and more or less semantically correspond to the traditional categories of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs in European languages, do not show obvious distinctive formal features, e.g.

(1) a vasu a bebeahu
ART stone ART long 'a long stone' [Pur. 5.86E]

(2) na bebeahu bata-na
TAM long SIMUL-IMPF:3SG 'it was becoming long' [Mor. 3.101R]

(3) paa bebeahu
TAM long 'it became long' [Mor. 3.186R]

(4) a bebeahu te-a inu
ART long PREP-ART house 'the length of the house' [Kae. 2.132R].

The problem is that before we have not fully analysed the morphosyntax of Teop, we cannot assign wordforms to lexemes and group the lexemes of the language into word classes. Thus we do not know whether or not it is justified to ascribe bebeahu to the three word classes of adjective (1), verb (2,3), and noun (4) or to a single class (Adj-V-N) or two classes (Adj-V or Adj-N). On the other hand, we need a decision on what kind of units to use as lemmas in the dictionary and how to deal with the different syntactic uses of words like bebeahu and its corresponding various English translations.

In the dictionary, we use the most simple word of a word family as the lemma, e.g. BEBEAHU and list the syntactically different uses of BEBEAHU and all derived lexemes under this lemma as subentries.

(5) bebeahu
adj., long
v., become long
n., length

The categories adjective (adj.), verb (v.), and noun (n.) then mean 'used as the head of an adjectival phrase', 'used as the head of a verb complex', and 'used as the head of a noun phrase', respectively.

This lexicographical solution, however, is not useful for grammatical analysis and description. We need a second classification of lexemes that allows us to account for the particular lexical properties of the words and group those with similar properties together. Such lexical properties are, for example, those that determine

- agreement, e.g. the inherent gender/noun class
- the presence and form of other constituents, i.e. valence and inherent inalienability
- the derivational potential.

Assuming that these lexical properties are closely related to the meaning of the words, we set up the three classes of nominals, adjectivals and verbals and define them by the meaning and the unmarked function of their prototypes:
Table 1: Nominals, adjectivals and verbals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>meaning</th>
<th>nominal</th>
<th>adjectival</th>
<th>verbal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>thing, person, animal, body part, plant, landmark</td>
<td>property</td>
<td>activity, process</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>examples</td>
<td><em>inu</em> 'house', <em>moon</em> 'woman', <em>guu</em> 'pig', <em>kurinaa</em> 'my hand', <em>vaan</em> 'village'</td>
<td><em>beera</em> 'big', <em>mataa</em> 'good'</td>
<td><em>ani</em> 'eat', <em>kuu</em> 'fall'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prototypical function</td>
<td>head of NP</td>
<td>head of AP</td>
<td>head of VC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other functions</td>
<td>head of VC</td>
<td>head of VC</td>
<td>head of NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>head of LP</td>
<td>head of NP</td>
<td>attribute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>attribute</td>
<td>attribute</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>incorporated in VC</td>
<td>incorporated in VC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Taking these definitions as the point of departure, we first describe the formal properties of various kinds of verbals, nominals and adjectivals in their typical syntactic functions, i.e. in the function of heads of verb complexes, noun phrases and adjectival phrases, respectively. Then we give examples for their other functions and again describe their formal properties in these functions as far as we are able to identify them at this stage of research. We assume that a thorough morphological and syntactic investigation of the text corpus will lead to a clearer picture of word classes in Teop.

Following traditional grammar, we distinguish between the word class adverb and the syntactic function adverbial. The term adverb refers to a class of words that express manner, time, place and the speaker's attitude and syntactically function as modifiers of clauses, phrases and single words, but never as the head of a noun phrase, verb complex or adjectival phrase. In contrast, the term adverbial refers to any kind of word that functions as a modifier in a verb complex or as a modifier of the entire clause level. All adverbs function as adverbials, but the adverbial function is not exclusively fulfilled by adverbs. In verb complexes verbals and adjectivals can also function as adverbials.

To conclude, we distinguish between two kinds of word classes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>lexical category</th>
<th>nominal</th>
<th>verbal</th>
<th>adjectival</th>
<th>adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>syntactic category (abbr. in TD)</td>
<td>noun ($n.$)</td>
<td>verb ($v.$)</td>
<td>adjective ($adj.$)</td>
<td>adverbial ($adv.$)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2 Nominals

Nominals typically function as the nucleus of noun phrases, but they also occur as attributes, as the heads of locative phrases, as incorporated objects in verb complexes, and even as the nucleus of verb complexes.

6.2.1 Noun class and number

Nominals have three genders or noun classes which manifest themselves in the form of the so-called basic singular article, which is *e*, *a* or *o*, and are accordingly called the e-class, the a-class and the o-class, e.g.

Table 1: Examples of the three noun classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>e-class</th>
<th>a-class</th>
<th>o-class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 e Kakato</td>
<td>a otei</td>
<td>o demdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 e Sovavi</td>
<td>a moon</td>
<td>o kurita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 e tetee</td>
<td>a beikoo</td>
<td>o beikoo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 e tama-naa</td>
<td>e sina-naa</td>
<td>e beera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 e guu</td>
<td>e sina-naa</td>
<td>e beera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 e guu</td>
<td>e sina-naa</td>
<td>e beera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 e ta</td>
<td>e sina-naa</td>
<td>e beera</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the examples given above illustrate, the classification is not related to sex. While the common nominals *otei* 'man' and *moon* 'woman' select the article *a*, kinship terms select the article *e* irrespective of their sex. But still the classification of nominals has a semantic basis and is highly predictable, an exception is *e ta* 'piece of'.

Table 2: The relation between the noun classes and semantic types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>e-class</th>
<th>a-class</th>
<th>o-class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 proper names of persons</td>
<td>human beings other than those of the e-class</td>
<td>invertebrates without legs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 people who have a particular social status</td>
<td>all vertebrates; invertebrates with legs</td>
<td>plants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 pets</td>
<td>all vertebrates; invertebrates with legs</td>
<td>parts of plants other than fruit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 fruits</td>
<td>food</td>
<td>things made from plant materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 food</td>
<td>utensils other than those of the o-class</td>
<td>landmarks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 utensils other than those of the o-class</td>
<td>landmarks</td>
<td>amorphous masses, fire, light</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 When native speakers give examples for these words, they usually use them as the head of a noun phrase. Our text corpus also suggests that this usage of nominals is the most frequent, but we have not done any statistics.
While the e-class and the o-class can be defined in terms of semantic features, the a-class is a default class. It contains nominals denoting all kinds of human beings other than relatives and people of a particular socially important status, as well as nominals denoting all sorts of tools and utensils apart from those made of plant material.

The examples also show that two words of the same phonological form, but a different, though related meaning may belong to different noun classes. Nouns denoting plants and trees, for example, belong to the o-class, whereas the names of their fruit belong to the a-class, e.g. *a overe* 'coconut', *o overe* 'coconut palm'. Another example is *a kasuana* 'beach' and *o kasuana* 'sand'.

Apart from nominals, also independent pronouns and interrogative pronouns are marked by an article:

1. **enaa, ean,** etc. 'I, you (sg.)',etc.
   - **e teiee** 'who'
   - **a tabae** 'what'

The independent pronouns contrast with the dependent pronouns *naa* 'I', *an* 'you', etc., so that the initial *e* can be interpreted as the article *e* [TSG_06_07]. The interrogative pronoun *teiee* 'who', which is most frequently answered by a person's name or a personal pronoun, selects the article *e*, whereas the article of *tabae* 'what?' is the default article *a*.

The articles do not only indicate the noun class, but also distinguish singular and plural. The plural basic article is *o* for e- and a-class nominals and *a* for o-class nominals:

Table 3: Singular and plural noun phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>e-class</strong></td>
<td><strong>e magee tenaa</strong></td>
<td><strong>o magee tenaa</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ART friend 'my friend'</td>
<td>ART friend 'my friends'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>a-class</strong></td>
<td><strong>a moon</strong></td>
<td><strong>o moon</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ART woman 'the woman'</td>
<td>ART woman 'the women'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>o-class</strong></td>
<td><strong>a hoi</strong></td>
<td><strong>a hoi</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ART basket 'the basket'</td>
<td>ART basket 'the baskets'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proper names of persons, kinship terms, and the interrogative pronoun *teiee* 'who' can take a special plural article *ere*.

2. **ere Kakato bo Sovavi**
   - ART.PL PN and PN
   - 'Kakato and Sovavi'

3. **ere subu- na- e**
   - ART grandparent-POSS- 3SG
   - 'his/her grandparents'

4. **ere Kakato**
   - ART PN
   - 'Kakato and his companions'

5. **ere teiee?**
   - ART who
   - 'who (are the people)?'
The restriction of this kind of plural marking allows to establish a subclass which comprises proper names of persons, kinship terms and the interrogative pronoun teiee 'who', but not animal names or independent pronouns.

A few nominals, most of which denote human beings, can be reduplicated for the expression of plurality. This subclass contains nominals of the e- and the a-class:

Table 4: Plural marking by reduplication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>e subuava</td>
<td>'old woman'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o subusubuava</td>
<td>'old women'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e sumeke</td>
<td>'old man'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o sumsumeke</td>
<td>'old men'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a visoasi</td>
<td>'boy'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o visvisoasi</td>
<td>'boys'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plurality can also be expressed by the prenuclear plural marker maa (cf. [TSG_07_03] and numerals (cf. [TSG_06_06], [TSG_07_04]. There is no distinction between mass and count nominals.

(6) Ahaik, a maa ruene toro isuvu ma- ori mohina, no, ART PL water must fetch DIR- 3 PL garden

'No, the water must be fetched from the garden...' [Kae. 1. 245R].

To sum up, the selection of articles allows us to distinguish three classes: the e-, the a- and the o-class. The problem of this classification is that two classes do not only contain lexical words, i.e. nominals, but also pronouns. In other words, this is the first case where a classification of lexemes by formal criteria leads to classes which are different from those in traditional European grammar.

6.2.2 Kinship terms

The kinship terms can be grouped into various subclasses. The first distinction is that between ordinary terms vs. informal terms which are also used as forms of address. With a few exceptions, the ordinary terms are relational and are inalienably possessed, i.e. pronominal possessors are expressed by suffixes (for more details on inalienable possessive constructions, see [TSG_07_15].

(7) e tama- nna
    ART father- 1 SG
    'my father'

One exception is keara 'sister of a woman, brother of a man', whose possessor is expressed by a prepositional phrase, e.g.

(8) e keara te- nna
    ART sister/brother PREP- 1 SG
    'my sister/brother'

The informal kinship terms are always alienably possessed:

(9) e tetee (te- nna)
    ART Dad PREP- 1 SG
    '(my) Dad'

Kinship terms like sina- 'mother' and tama- 'father' can be transformed into transitive verbs meaning 'be the ... of' who or what is referred to by the object. In this function, they take the derelational suffix -na.

(10) Eove to sina- na ni nana bona maamihu kaku matapaku.
    3SG REL mother- DEREL APP IMPF:3SG ART all kind practice
    'It is her who mothers all kinds of traditional practices.' [Vos. 1.268R]

This suffix is also used in the reciprocal-kinship-construction (cf. [TSG_07_08]:


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6.2.3 Body-part terms and similar nominals

Body-part terms and a limited number of other nominals which express the part of a whole or something that is related to a person like a body part enter inalienable possessive constructions (cf. TSG_07_15) and belong to the a-class when the possessor is expressed, e.g.

(11) a bua tom tama-na
    ART two.ART REC father-DEREL
    'father and son'

(12) a bua tom sina-na
    ART two.ART REC mother-DEREL
    'mother and daughter'

Body-part terms and similar nominals which express the part of a whole or something that belongs to something else can enter inalienable possessive constructions:

(18) hutate 'story'
    von 'price'
    kavara 'whole, all'
    buibui 'beauty'
    tanetaneo 'beginning'
    pana 'boundary'

(19) o hutate n- a bua si tom keara
    ART story POSS:3SG- ART two.ART DIM REC sister
    'the story of the two dear sisters'

Other nominals like hena 'name' are used without such a suffix, but also change the noun class.

(17) a hena-naa 'my name'
    o hena 'the name'

A tentative explanation of this noun class shift is given in Mosel and Spriggs (1999:366).

In principle, all nominals that denote some part of a whole or something that belongs to something else can enter inalienable possessive constructions:

(20) o aho no suraa 'the ashes of the fire'
    o aniva no suraa 'the charcoal of the fire'
    o buibui no purupuru 'the beauty of the flower'
Note that *hutate* 'story' can also enter the alienable possessive construction, e.g.

(21) o *hutate* te bubuu

   ART    story    PREP.ART   granny

' the story of granny', i.e. 'the story told by granny'

6.2 Nominals

6.2.4 Local nominals

Local nominals denote a space in relation to an object. Some of them are derived by metaphor from body-part terms.

Table 5: Local nominals and body-part terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>local nominal</th>
<th>corresponding body-part term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>koma-</td>
<td>'inside'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'stomach'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mata-</td>
<td>'in front of'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'eye'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>muri-</td>
<td>'behind'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'back, backside'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paa-</td>
<td>'under'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rapa-</td>
<td>'beside'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'side'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rihi-</td>
<td>'next to'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>too-</td>
<td>'on top of'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'back'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similar to body-part terms, they enter inalienable possessive constructions. They are most frequently found in locative phrases in the function of predicates and adverbial adjuncts.

(22) Hio rori too- n- a maa overe vai?
    sit     IMPF:3PL  back- POS:3SG- ART  PL   coconut  now
    'Are (they) sitting on top of the coconuts now?' [Kae. 1.340R]

(23) A taba ani koma- n- a inu.
    ART  thing  eat  inside- POS:3SG  ART  house
    'The food is inside the house.' [TD *komana*]

6.2.5 Collective nominals

Collective nominals refer to a group, a bundle, cluster, or any other form of collection of items of the same kind. The collective nominal is the head of a noun phrase and determines its gender. It is directly followed by the nominal denoting the collected items:

(24) a ba sina- ri- ori
    'their mothers' [San. 3.54E]

(25) ta vuu hiihii
    NSP.ART:A-CLASS  cluster:A-CLASS  ginger:O-CLASS
    'a cluster of ginger shoots' [Vae. 1.98E]

If a non-human collective NN-construction is followed by an attributive or predicative adjectival phrase, the collective nominal is repeated, e.g.
6.2 Nominals

(26) ta yuu hihihii vai ta yuu visoasi
   ART cluster ginger DEM ART cluster young
   'a cluster of young ginger shoots' [Vae. 1.129E]

6.2.6 The partitive nominal ta 'piece of'

The word ta 'piece of' is always followed by a nominal denoting a substance, e.g.

(27) e ta kapa
   ART piece sheet.metal
   'the piece of sheet metal' [Hel. 1.26R]

It is classified as a nominal as it has an inherent gender; it takes the article e irrespective of which kind of nominal it is combined with, e.g. the use of a muu 'taro' and o tovu 'sugarcane':

(28) bene ta muu
   ART:E-CLASS piece:E-CLASS taro:A-CLASS
   'a piece of taro' [Nah. 2.200R]

(29) bone ta tovu
   ART:E-CLASS piece:E-CLASS sugarcane:O-CLASS
   'the piece of sugarcane' [Nan. 3.12E]

If the e ta N - construction is followed by an attributive or predicative adjectival phrase, ta is repeated and forms its head, e.g.

(30) e ta kaukau e ta hata
   ART piece sweet.potato ART piece bad
   'the bad piece of sweet potato' (notes 1999)

In this respect ta is similar to collective nominals. Occasionally ta is used with the article a:

(31) a ta peha ta aheahe a ta kehaa
   ART piece one piece sing ART piece shell
   'a song' [Sha. 1.58R]       'a piece of shell' [Pur. 5.80E]

The partitive nominals ta can take the plural marker maa:

(32) bona maa ta naono
   ART PL piece wood
   'pieces of wood' [San. 3.40E]

6.2.7 Summary: subclassification of nominals

In Teop, the nominals can be classified on the basis of several criteria:

1. the selection of articles groups nominals into three noun classes or genders;
2. the type of possessive construction nominals distinguishes between alienably and inalienably possessed nominals, and those which can enter both types of construction;
3. attributive constructions which require the repetition of the head of the noun phrase are characteristic for collective nominals and the partitive nominal ta 'piece of';
4. the marker of kinship groups tom sorts out the subclass of reciprocal kinship terms.

The classes formed by these criteria are, of course, not disjunct; each nominal belongs to at least two of these classes. Teop does not distinguish between count and mass nouns (see example (6), [Kae. 1.245R] where ruene 'water' is used with the plural marker maa).
6.3 Verbals

Verbals typically denote actions and function as the nucleus of a verb complex. They can be subclassified on the basis of their valence into intransitive, transitive and ditransitive verbals. Verbals can be reduplicated in order to express durative and habitual actions, whereas tense and mood are marked by particles in the verb complex. Verbals also function as serial verbs [TSG_08_05], as attributes [TSG_07_12] and as the nucleus of noun phrases [TSG_07_17]. Noun phrases with a verbal as their head, i.e. nominalisations, take the article *a* or the article *o*, e.g. *a vagana* 'the fishing', *o moroko* 'speaking, speech' and are classified as *n.a.* and *n.o.* in the Teop lexicon. The principles of noun class assignment of verbals are not clear to us.

6.3.1 Valence of simple verbals

The term 'valence' as used here does not only refer to the number of participants, but also to their morphosyntactic and semantic properties. Accordingly, valence change can be a change in the number, the morphosyntactic and/or the semantic properties of the verbal. As will be shown below, valence as a lexical property of verbals has to be distinguished from the valence of the VC, because they may be different. A transitive VC can, for instance, consist of an intransitive verbal as its nucleus and a transitivizing applicative particle or incorporated preposition. On the other hand, a transitive verbal can be combined with an incorporated object noun and form an intransitive VC.

In Teop, simple verbals can be intransitive, transitive, ditransitive and ambitransitive. Ambitransitive verbals can be used intransitively and transitively, e.g. *ani* 'eat, eat s.th.', or even intransitively, transitively and ditransitively like *nahu* 'do the cooking; cook s.th.; cook s.th. with s.th.', e.g.:

(1) **Nahu e guu bona tahi.**  
    **cook ART pig ART saltwater**  
    'Cook the pig with saltwater.' (cf. [Mat. 1.68R])

Verbals that have a fixed number of arguments take valence-changing morphology to increase or decrease the number of arguments, for example the causative or the anticausative prefix.

Table 1: Causatives and anticausatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple form</th>
<th>Derived form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mararae (v.i.)</td>
<td>'be happy'</td>
<td>vaamararae (v.t.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nao (v.i.)</td>
<td>'go'</td>
<td>vaanao (v.t.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paku (v.dt.)</td>
<td>'make s.th. from s.th.'</td>
<td>tapaku (v.i.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gune (v.t.)</td>
<td>'wake s.o. up'</td>
<td>tagune (v.i.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Teop, the applicative is not a bound morpheme but a clitic particle that changes the valence of the VC, see [TSG_08_06].

6.3.1.1 Intransitive verbals

According to our definition, intransitive verbals typically denote actions, e.g.:

(2) **Me- ori paa pita maa.**  
    **and- 3PL TAM walk DIR**  
    'And they walked here.' [Eno 1.115R]

Other verbals denote processes like *kuu* 'fall', *siko* 'fall (of rain)'.

(3) **A huan na siko nana.**  
    **ART rain TAM fall IMPF:3SG**  
    'The rain is falling.'
If words denoting a state are to be classified as verbals or adjectivals is not always clear. Those that like *kamisi* 'sick' only occur as the head of a verb complex in our data, but not as the head of an adjectival phrase are regarded as verbals.

(4) **Enaa na kamisi nom**

1SG TAM sick IMPF:1SG 'I am sick.' [Asu 1.70E]

Other words that function as the head of an adjectival phrase as well as the head of a verb complex and denote a property are regarded as adjectivals, e.g. *beera* 'big':

They denote states of being when used as adjectives, i.e. as heads of adjectival phrases, but take on an ingressive meaning when they function as the head of verb complexes introduced by *paa*, see [TSG_08_02]:

(5) **a kiu n- o sinivi suuna a beera sana.**

ART work POSS-ART canoe original ART big very 'the building of a *sinivi suuna* (original Bougainville canoe) is very big (work)' [Mor. 4.25R]

(6) **me- a beiko paa beera maa me beera maa**

and- ART child TAM big DIR and big DIR 'and the child grew bigger and bigger' [Iar 2.33E]

### 6.3.1.2 Transitive verbals

Transitive verbals can denote all kinds of state of affairs: actions (7), perception (8), cognition and states of being.

(7) **O kare koto bata- ri bari.**

ART brown.ant bite along- IMPF:3PL 4SG/PL 'The brown ants were biting him.' [Sha. 1.82R]

(8) **Me- ori paa tara nao bono iana.**

and- 3PL TAM see DIR ART fish 'And the saw the fish.' [Sii. 6.123E]

Examples for stative transitive verbals are *antee* v.t., 'suit s.o.', *gagaruana* v.t., 'be unsuitable for s.o.', *hikihiki* v.t., 'not have s.th.', *potee* v.t., 'be like s.o./s.th.'. For interesting examples search the corpus for TRANSITIVITY and for these verbs. Note that many verbs that denote actions affecting someone or something are ambitransitive, e.g. *nahu* v.i., 'cook, do the cooking'; v.t., cook s.th.'; v.dt., cook s.th. with s.th.'.

### 6.3.1.3 Ditransitive verbals

In contrast to other Oceanic languages, Teop has a considerable number of ditransitive verbals and a productive means of deriving ditransitive VCs from transitive VCs. In basic verbal clauses, both objects follow the VC. Ditransitive verbals in our data show various kinds of semantic role structures. The primary and the secondary object can refer to a patient and an instrument, a causee and a patient, a recipient and a theme, a place and a theme, or an addressee and a message.

Although in most cases the secondary object is optional, we regard it as an argument because its coding properties are the same as those of the secondary objects of *hee* 'give s.o. s.th. (see TSG_09_04)) and because its semantic role is determined by the valence of the verb complex.
Table 2: Semantic roles of the objects of ditransitive verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Semantic role of primary object</th>
<th>Semantic role of secondary object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>navuhu</td>
<td>'hit, strike s.o./s.th. with s.th.'</td>
<td>patient (person, animal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asun</td>
<td>'kill s.o. with s.th. (e.g. a weapon)'</td>
<td>patient (person)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hee</td>
<td>'give s.o. s.th.'</td>
<td>recipient (person)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dao</td>
<td>'name s.o. s.th.'</td>
<td>recipient (person, thing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vaasusu</td>
<td>'teach s.o. s.th.'</td>
<td>recipient (person)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bana</td>
<td>'spread s.th. on s.th.'</td>
<td>place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koma</td>
<td>pour s.th. on s.th.</td>
<td>place</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interesting examples of ditransitive verbals are searchable in the corpus through the keyword DITRANSITIVITY. The semantic role structure of ditransitive verbals can be changed by the applicative, see [TSG_08_06].

6.3.2 Causatives

Causative verbals are derived intransitive and transitive verbals by the prefix vaa-/ va- (CAUS):

Table 3: Causative verbals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>simple verbal</th>
<th>causative verbal</th>
<th>v.a.</th>
<th>v.a.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mararae v.i.</td>
<td>vaa-mararae v.t.</td>
<td>'make s.o. happy'</td>
<td>'make s.o. happy'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mate v.i.</td>
<td>vaa-mate v.t.</td>
<td>'make s.o. die, kill s.o.'</td>
<td>'make s.o. die, kill s.o.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hagi v.i.</td>
<td>vaa-hagi v.t.</td>
<td>'hold a little child and make him/her dance on one's lap'</td>
<td>'hold a little child and make him/her dance on one's lap'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mimi v.i.</td>
<td>vaa-mimi v.t.</td>
<td>'help (a child, handicapped person) to urinate'</td>
<td>'help (a child, handicapped person) to urinate'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>huvi v.i.</td>
<td>vaa-huvi v.t.</td>
<td>'help s.o. peel s.th.'</td>
<td>'help s.o. peel s.th.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ani v.i. v.t.</td>
<td>vaa-ani v.t.</td>
<td>'give s.o. s.th. to eat, feed s.o.'</td>
<td>'give s.o. s.th. to eat, feed s.o.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gaga v.i. v.t.</td>
<td>vaa-gaga v.t.</td>
<td>'give s.o. s.th. to drink, let s.o. drink'</td>
<td>'give s.o. s.th. to drink, let s.o. drink'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the examples vaa-mimi and vaa-huvi show, the causee can be an agent who is not forced, but only supported by the causer to do an action.

6.3.3 Anticausatives

The prefix ta- derives intransitive verbals from typical transitive verbals, i.e. verbals which denote activities controlled by an agent and affecting a patient. In verbals of the form ta-X, the prefix ta-indicates that the event denoted by X happens without being caused by any agent, or that it implies an
agent who for whatever reason is not mentioned. The latter derivations are similar to passive forms. The derived verbal are called anticausative and accordingly, the prefix is glossed as $\text{AC}$.

Table 4: Anticausatives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>transitive verbal</th>
<th>intransitive (detransitivised) verbal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kae 'lift'</td>
<td>ta-kae 'rise (for instance the moon)'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kaku 'break'</td>
<td>ta-kaku 'break (by itself), be broken (by an unknown agent)'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mamata 'open s.th.'</td>
<td>ta-mamata 'open by itself'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paku 'do, make s.th.'</td>
<td>ta-paku 'happen'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(9) A $\text{tabae to ta-} \text{ paku nana i?}$
\hspace{1cm} ART what REL AC- do IMPF:3SG DEM
'What is it that is happening?' [Ata. 1.20E]

Table 5: Passive-like derivations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>transitive or ditransitive verbal</th>
<th>intransitive (detransitivised) verbal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gigi 'flesh out (a fish)'</td>
<td>ta-gigi 'be fleshed out'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hee 'give s.o. s.th.'</td>
<td>ta-hee 'be given, bestowed (for instance land)'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neba 'plant s.th.'</td>
<td>ta-neba 'be planted'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pau 'change s.th.'</td>
<td>ta-pau 'be changed'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(10) ...a maa moon saka pau-pau haa- ri
\hspace{1cm} ART PL woman NEG RED-change NEG- IMPF:3PL
bona maa hena ri- ori.
\hspace{1cm} ART PL name POSS:3PL-3PL
'(At the girl's initiation) the women do not change their names.' [Kae. 3.393R]

(11) O hena paa ta- pau vaevuru.
\hspace{1cm} ART name TAM PASS- change already
'The name has already been changed.' [Kae. 3.274R]

6.3.4 Reduplication

Reduplicated verbals can express durative, repeated and habitual actions, e.g. $\text{paku 'do s.th. once'}}$, $\text{pakupaku 'do s.th. habitually'}}$. Reduplication has not been investigated yet. Here is an example which illustrates the habitual meaning:

(12) Ere iaa sa ko- koara haa vo-ri enei.
\hspace{1cm} ART.PL mum NEG RED- speak NEG like-IMP:3PL DEM
'My mum and her sisters do not speak like this.' [Aro. 14.48R]

Further examples are found under the keyword REDUPLICATION in the corpus.
6.3 Verbals

6.3.5 The multiple action prefix \textit{va-}

The multiple action prefix \textit{va-} is usually combined with reduplicated verbal stems and expresses that an action is done several times. This can mean that two or more people do the action to each other, that someone or something moves to and fro, that an action is done habitually and that an action can be easily performed. With transitive verbal stems this can lead to intransitivisation. Compare the following examples:

Table 6: Derivation with \textit{va-}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>simple verbal</th>
<th>verbal derived by \textit{va-}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>asun</td>
<td>v.t., hit, kill s.o.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hee</td>
<td>v.dt., 'give s.o. s.th.'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>higan</td>
<td>v.t., 'disapprove, reject'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hivi</td>
<td>v.i., 'ask'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moroko</td>
<td>v.i., 'talk, say, speak'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mirin</td>
<td>v.i. 'roll'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.4 Adjectivals

Adjectivals typically occur as the head of adjectival phrases (see [TSG_05_02]). Reduplication of adjectivals expresses plurality or intensity.

(1) o onono o be-beera sana
   ART.SG grass skirt ART.PL RED-big very
   'the very big grass skirt' [Kae. 2.175R]

(2) a muu vai a mata-mataa
   ART taro DEM ART RED-good
   'very good taro' (compare [Sii. 1.148R])

A small group of adjectivals is derived from nominals by reduplication and the suffix –ana. The form RED-X-ana means 'full of X'.

(3) butoo 'mud' butobutooana 'muddy'
    nou 'rubbish' nounouana 'full of rubbish'
    piii 'sore' piipiiiana 'full of sores' [Viv. 1.34R]
    vasu 'stone' vasuvasuana 'stony'

In addition, adjectivals can occur as the head of verb complexes:

(4) na mataa nana
    TAM good IMPF:3SG
    'it is good/ alright' [Daa. 2.21E], [Eno 1.15E]

(5) o are bona sa gogoraavi vakisi haa- na, o perepereee.
    ART betelnut.palm DEM NEG red still NEG- IMPF:3SG ART green
    'this betelnut palm was not red yet, it was green...' [Val. 2.18R]

and as the attribute of noun phrases:

(6) e keara beera
    ART brother big
    'the elder brother' (lit. 'big brother') [Aro 3.42E], [Auv 1.8R]

The attributive function, however, does not seem to be equally available for all adjectives in all contexts, but only for certain adjectives in combination with particular nominal heads. Whereas noun phrases that are directly modified by adjectivals seem to be lexicalised, modification by adjectival phrases is productive.

When functioning as the head of a noun phrase, adjectivals are categorised for noun class. As in the case of nominalised verbals, the noun class assignment of nominalised adjectivals has not been investigated yet. They occur as n.a. and n.o.:

(7) a bebeahu 'the length'
    a ponisi 'the heaviness, weight'
    o kikis 'the strength, power' [Val. 2.28R], [Val. 2.82R]

This variation in noun class membership perhaps indicates that the use of adjectivals as noun phrase heads has to be regarded as conversion, i.e. a change in word class.

Adjectivals are not used in adverbial function, but are changed into adverbs by the prefix va- in this function, see [TSG_06_05]:

(8) sa paa kiu va- bebeahu haa
    NEG TAM work ADV-long NEG
    '(he) did not work long' [Sii. 1.283R]
But in the function of a secondary predication adjectivals are not changed into adverbials:

(9) E guu na June peere ri- ori.
    ART pig TAM carry raw IMPF- 3PL

'They take the pig raw. [Kae. 1.78R]
6.5 Adverbs

The word class defined here as adverbs is quite heterogenous. Adverbs have in common that they only occur as modifiers, never as the head of a phrase. Morphologically we can distinguish between simple and derived adverbs, syntactically between sentential modifiers and adverbs that modify verbals. In addition, some of these adverbs also occur as attributes or as modifiers of adjectives and other adverbs.

Table 1: Adverbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentential adverbs</th>
<th>Adverbs in verb complexes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nabunuu</td>
<td>'in former times'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nomana</td>
<td>'today'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subunubu</td>
<td>'tomorrow'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bata</td>
<td>'simultaneously, at the same time, along'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>haabana</td>
<td>'again'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tamuana</td>
<td>'always'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vamataa</td>
<td>'well'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The adverbs derived by the prefix va- only occur as modifiers in verb complexes, e.g.

(1) "A! Na mahaka kurusu, na mahaka va- mataa."
   Yes! TAM dried.up very, TAM dried.up ADV- good
   "Yes! (They) dried up, (they) are well dried. [Sii. 6.68R]

Most adverbs of this kind are derived from adjectivals, but occasionally one also finds some
derived from verbals, nominals or numerals.

(2) sue va- manaata
    say ADV- agree
    'agree, give consent' [Jar. 2.208], [Daa. 1.30R]

(3) nao va- taneo
    go ADV- start
    'go for the first time' [Sii. 1.92R]

(4) me- ori paa va- vaa- sikuuru va- buaku
    and- 3PL TAM RED- CAUS school ADV- two
    'and they both taught.' [Pur 1.261R]

(5) na hooto va- taba an nana
    TAM mature ADV thing eat IMPF
    '... it matured enough to be eaten' [Sii 1.473R]

Since vowel length is variable, it is sometimes difficult to decide whether a segment <va> [βa] is to be interpreted as the adverb prefix va-, the causative prefix vaa-/va- or the linker vaa.
6.6 Numerals

Numerals can be classified into cardinal, ordinal, distributive and adverbal numerals. Ordinal numerals are derived from cardinal ones by the prefix \textit{vaa-}, distributive numerals by reduplication and adverbial numerals by the prefix \textit{va-}; for example

\begin{enumerate}
\item \textbf{buaku} 'two'
\item \textbf{vaabuaku} 'second'
\item \textbf{bubuaku} 'in pairs'
\item \textbf{vabuaku} 'as two'
\end{enumerate}

Both cardinal and ordinal numerals can be used in various syntactic functions, i.e. as the nucleus of a numeral phrase, the nucleus of a verbal phrase, the nucleus of a noun phrase, and as a modifier in the verb complex; see TD \textit{buaku}. The functions of distributive numerals are not clear yet. Adverbial numerals only occur as modifiers in verb complexes. Interesting constructions can be found in the corpus by searching for NUMERAL.

6.6.1 Cardinal numerals

Table 1: Cardinal numerals

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>peha</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>buaku</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>kukan</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>dorana</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>taonim</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>peha totoka</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>buaku totoka</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The examples below show the cardinal numeral \textit{dorana} 'four' in the function of the head of a numeral phrase [TSG\_07\_04] and of a verb complex:

\begin{enumerate}
\item \textit{o dorana o vinu}
\begin{tabular}{ll}
ART & four  \\
year & four years. \[Sii. 1.149R]
\end{tabular}

\item \textit{enam paa dorana vaevuru}
\begin{tabular}{ll}
1EXC & TAM four  \\
already & 'we were already four' \[Sii. 2.341R]
\end{tabular}
\end{enumerate}

Note that \textit{peha} is also used in the sense of 'same' and 'a few'; note the different position of \textit{peha} 'same' and \textit{peha} 'few' (see [TSG\_07\_05], section 2).

6.6.2 Ordinal numerals

With the exception of \textit{momohu} 'first', ordinal numerals are derived from cardinal numerals by the causative prefix \textit{vaa-}, e.g. \textit{vaabuaku} 'second', \textit{vaakukan} 'third', \textit{vaadorana} 'fourth', \textit{vaataonim} 'fifth', etc.

\begin{enumerate}
\item \textit{o vaadorana o vinu}
\begin{tabular}{l}
'the fourth year' \[Sii. 1.96R]
\end{tabular}

\item \textit{o vaataonim o vinu}
\begin{tabular}{l}
'the fifth year' \[Sii. 1.95R]
\end{tabular}
\end{enumerate}
When used as quantifiers in noun phrases, they are similar to cardinal numerals: they precede the nucleus and are marked by an article that agrees with the nucleus in gender and is sensitive to the article selection rule, while the nucleus is marked by the simple article.

(5) Ei hivi vai a-naa bono vaabaku o hivi
DEM ask DEM OBJ-1 SG ART second ART question
'Here, (she) then asked me a second question' [Pur. 2.127R]

Ordinal numerals can also be used as adverbials in verb complexes.

(6) me-ori paa rake be subu-ri-ori
and-3PL TAM want CONJ grandmother- POSS-3PL
ahaehe vaabaku bone Vakikira Roosuu.
sing second ART Vakikira Roosuu.

'and they wanted that their grandmother sang the Vakikira Roosuu for a second time'
[pr.4.21]

Or as the nucleus of a verb complex:

(7) E Paul Lapun na vaabaku k-ama-naa.
ART Paul Lapum TAM second DAT-OBJ-1SG
'Paul Lapun became second after me.' [Pur. 1.775R]

Or as the nucleus of a noun phrase:

(8) e vaabaku-na-e
ART second POSS-3SG
'his partner' (lit. 'his second')

### 6.6.3 Distributive numerals

Distributive numerals are derived from cardinal numerals by reduplication. They express the meaning of 'two at a time, three at a time etc' and occur as a modifier in the verb complex, e.g.

(9) eori re paa nao bu-buaku bata
3pl CONJ TAM go RED-two SIMUL
'they would go in pairs' [Kae. 2.223R]

### 6.6.4 Numeral adverbs

As other adverbs, numeral adverbs are derived by the prefix va-. They exclusively occur as modifiers in verb complexes and express that a certain number of people are involved in the event denoted by the verb complex.

(10) me-ori paa va- vaa-sikuuru ya-buaku
and-3PL TAM RED-CAUS-school ADV-two
'and they both taught' [Pur. 1.261R]

(11) tabae mene an va-buaku ni k-ara-ara
because otherwise eat ADV-two APP DAT-OBJ:1INC PRON:1INC
'because otherwise he will eat both of us' [San. 1.36E]

(12) o-re goe ara-ara tea ani ya-buaku
3SG CONJ refuse OBJ:1INC:PRON:1INC COMPL eat ADV-two
'so that he won't eat us two' (lit. 'so that he refuses/ abstains from us to eat as two') [San. 1.45R]

In the intransitive clause (10) vaabaku relates to the subject, in the transitive clause (11) to the object. We do not know if a numeral adverb could also relate to the subject of transitive clauses.
6.7 Pronouns and pronominals

In the following the term pronoun is used in the sense of 'personal pronoun', whereas the term pronominals refers to various kinds of cross-referencing morphemes that inflect for person and number. Historically the pronominals seem to have developed from pronouns. There are three kinds of pronominals: the possessive marker, the object marker and the imperfective aspect marker. For the syntax of basic pronouns and pronouns with object markers see [TSG_09_07], for possessive constructions see [TSG_07_15] and for the imperfective aspect marker [TSG_08_02].

6.7.1 Basic pronouns

The basic pronouns distinguish two numbers (singular and plural) and inclusive and exclusive in the first person plural. There is no gender distinction.

Table 1: Basic pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRON</th>
<th>ART-PRON</th>
<th>PREP-PRON</th>
<th>PRON-re</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>naa</td>
<td>enaa</td>
<td>te-naa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2SG</td>
<td>an, ani</td>
<td>ean</td>
<td>te-an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3SG</td>
<td>e, ee, eve</td>
<td>eove, eve</td>
<td>t-eve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1PL.EXC</td>
<td>nam</td>
<td>enam</td>
<td>te-nam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1PL.INC</td>
<td>ara</td>
<td>eara</td>
<td>te-ara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2PL</td>
<td>am</td>
<td>eam</td>
<td>te-am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3PL</td>
<td>ori</td>
<td>eori</td>
<td>te-ori</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

They function as subjects, objects and complements of the preposition te. In clause initial position, i.e. when functioning as a topic, they usually take the personal article e. When followed by the conjunction re 'so that, consequently', the pronouns are fused with the conjunction (1SG) or shortened to prefixes (3SG, 1INC, 3PL).

6.7.2 Pronouns in inalienable possessive constructions

In inalienable possessive constructions, see [TSG_07_15], the pronouns occur as suffixes that apart from the 1SG pronoun are linked to the possessed noun by a suffix or clitic called possessive marker (POSS). The possessive marker inflects for person and number.

Table 2: Possessive pronouns

| PRON | POSS-PRON | example | |
|------|-----------|---------| |
| 1SG  | naa-naa   | a hena-naa | 'my name'
| 2SG  | an-m-an   | a hena-m-an | 'your name'
| 3SG  | e-na-e    | a hena-na-e | 'his/her name'
| 1PL.EXC | nam | ma-nam | a hena-ma-nam | 'our name'
| 1PL.INC | ara | ra-ara | a hena-ra-ara | 'our name'
| 2PL  | am | me-am | a hena-me-am | 'your name'
| 3PL  | ori | ri-ori | a hena-ri-ori | 'their name'
6.7 Pronouns and pronominals

6.7.3 Pronouns with object markers

In the function of the primary object, basic pronouns other than the 3SG and 4SG\(^1\) are indexed by an object marker. There are two kinds of object markers. The first one occurs as a constituent of the verb complex (VC) holding a position before DIR, IM, the adverb roho and IMPF. In the following example the object marker precedes the imperfective aspect marker:

(1)  Nam re- paa tara ri nom  ori...
    1EXC CONJ TAM- watch OBJ:3PL IMPF:1EXC PRON:3PL
    'We would be watching them ...' [Sii. 2.464R]

When it is not followed by other VC constituents, but directly precedes the object pronoun, the object marker and the pronoun form a phonological word and are written together:

(2)  Naa hivi vai ri- ori ...
    1SG ask then OBJ:3PL- PRON:3PL
    'I then asked them, ...' [Pur. 1.628R]

The second type of object marker, which is only found with 1SG and 1EXC, is prefixed to the basic pronoun, e.g. a-naa 'me' and a-nam 'us' and occurs outside the VC:

(3)  to vaa- mararae kurusu nom a- naa
    REL CAUS-happy very IMPF OBJ:1SG- 1SG
    '(the children) that make me very happy.' [Pur. 1.441R]

(4)  e sina- an paa koa ma u a- nam bona pidaa
    ART mother- POSS:2SG 2SG TAM serve DIR IM OBJ 1EXC ART potato.water
    'your mother only served us sweet potato water' [Aro. 3.35R]

These object pronouns can also be cross-referenced by VC internal object markers which results in double object marking. The VC internal object marker of the 1SG and 1EXC is ama or a:

(5)  be-ori von ama maa nom a- nam
    if- 3PL pay OBJ-IMP 1EXC
    'if they pay us' [Pur. 1.843R]

(6)  sa mataaa haa k- a- nom a- naa
    NEG good NEG DAT- OBJ IMPF OBJ- 1SG
    'was not good for me'. [Pur. 1.691R]

(7)  Eam paa paku me k- ama- u a- naa enei.
    2PL TAM do with DAT- OBJ-IM OBJ- 1SG DEM
    'You did this to me.' [Sii. 6.460R]

Occasionally a 1EXC pronoun in object function is only marked by an object marker inside the VC:

(8)  eori he paa mee tagihu a- ma- u nam
    3PL CONJ TAM take inland OBJ-IM 1EXC
    'they took us inland' [Bua. 1.9R]

The 2PL object marker can also occur outside the VC as a prefix of the pronoun and then be cross-referenced by the short object marker a inside the VC so that the object function of the pronoun is indicated by the two object markers a and ame.

(9)  Enaa kahi vaasusu a- v- ame- am ...
    1SG TAM teach OBJ- IMP- OBJ:2PL- 2PL
    'I am going to teach you ...' [San. 2.92R]

The table below lists the object markers and the object markers in combination with pronouns:

---

\(^1\) For the fourth person see section 6.7.5 below.
\(^2\) The IMPF shows agreement with the object here, since the object is a 1EXC and ranks higher in the person hierarchy than the 3PL subject.
6.7 Pronouns and pronominals

Table 3: Object markers with pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>OBJ</th>
<th>short OBJ</th>
<th>OBJ-PRON</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>ama</td>
<td>a-</td>
<td>ama-naa, a-naa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2SG</td>
<td>u / vu-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>vu-an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3SG</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-e, eve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4SG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1PL.EXC</td>
<td>ama</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>ama-nam, a-nam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1PL.INC</td>
<td>ara</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>ara-ara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2PL</td>
<td>ame</td>
<td></td>
<td>ame-am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3PL</td>
<td>ri</td>
<td></td>
<td>ri-ori</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4PL</td>
<td>ri</td>
<td></td>
<td>ri bari</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The combination of pronouns with object markers, directional particles, and imperfective aspect markers results in complex phonological words. The table below shows a few examples:

Table 4: complex forms with object markers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>orthography</th>
<th>morphology</th>
<th>reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>araara 'us'</td>
<td>ara- ara</td>
<td>[Vos. 1.95R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>araraara 'us'</td>
<td>ara- ra- ara</td>
<td>[Bua. 1.132R], [Kae. 2.302R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amaraara 'us'</td>
<td>a- ma- ra ara</td>
<td>[Vos. 1.96R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amaara raara 'us'</td>
<td>a- maa-ra ra ara</td>
<td>[Vos. 1.94R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kamanam '(for) us'</td>
<td>k- ama- nam</td>
<td>[Vos. 1.112R], [Vos. 1.114R]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kamamaanam '(for) us'</td>
<td>k- ama- maa- nam</td>
<td>[Vos. 1.43R], [Vos. 1.102R]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.7.4 The imperfective aspect marker

The imperfective aspect marker signifies the right boundary of the VC. It is a portemanteau morph expressing person and imperfective aspect, but shows some syncretism. There are long and short forms. The short forms are, for example, used when they follow a directional marker (DIR) or when they precede a post-verbal subject pronoun.

When the subject pronoun following the imperfective aspect marker starts with a vowel, the imperfective aspect marker and the subject marker form a phonological word and are written together.
Table 5: The imperfective aspect marker

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>IMPF long form</th>
<th>IMPF short form</th>
<th>DIR -IMPF</th>
<th>IMPF-PRON:SUBJ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>maa nom</td>
<td>nom naa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2SG</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>maa nom</td>
<td>noman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3SG</td>
<td>nana</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>maana</td>
<td>nae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1PL.EXC</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>maa nom</td>
<td>nom nam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1PL.INC</td>
<td>rara</td>
<td>ra</td>
<td>maara</td>
<td>raara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2PL</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>maa nom</td>
<td>nomeam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3PL</td>
<td>rori</td>
<td>ri</td>
<td>maari</td>
<td>riori</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.7.5 Fourth person object pronouns

In accordance with the article selection rule, Teop does not only have the third person pronouns mentioned above, but in addition a special pronoun that we call the 4th person object pronoun, see [TSG_09_04], [TSG_09_07].

This pronoun is used in the function of non-topical primary and secondary objects when the subject of the clause is a third person, e.g.

(10) Enaa paa sue vuru Aaron e iaa he vahuhu bona ?
    1SG TAM say earlier Aaron ART mum CONJ give.birth 4SG
    'Did I mention Aaron when mum gave birth to him?' [Sii. 3.263R]

There are two forms, the singular form bona and the plural form bari. The plural form bari is used to anaphorically refer to plural noun phrases (11). It also refers to singular noun phrases in the case that the subject of the clause is plural.

(11) ... bona bua heiko ... Evehe tetee na vaakisi ri bari.
    ...ART two child... but Dad TAM not.allow OBJ 4SG/PL
    '... the two children ... But Dad did not allow them (to go).’ [Sii. 3.294-296R]

(12) ... a hostel vai me- ori paa paku bari.
    ART hostel DEM and- 3PL TAM make 4SG/PL
    '...this hostel, and they built it.' [Sii. 3.256R]

This kind of agreement seems to be typologically unusual.
**6.8 Interrogatives**

Interrogatives are words that are used to ask for information. Their position within the clause depends on their syntactic function.

**Table 1: Interrogatives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>interrogative</th>
<th>position in clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 teiee</td>
<td>'who?' variable according to syntactic function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 tabae</td>
<td>'what?' variable according to syntactic function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 havee</td>
<td>'where?' clause-initial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 havee ... vo</td>
<td>'where ... (to)?'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 havee to paku vo ...</td>
<td>'how is ...?'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 havee to ... vaavaha</td>
<td>'how (is it that), how come that?'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 sau</td>
<td>'where?' clause-internal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 vaasau</td>
<td>'which, what kind of, from where?' attributive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 tobonihi</td>
<td>'when?' clause-initial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 tovihi</td>
<td>'how many?' same position as numerals, e.g. head of prenominal numeral phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 sovee me</td>
<td>'why?' sentence-initial</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to their function as question words, interrogatives are also used to express the notion of 'whoever, whatever, whichever' etc. Examples for these usages are given in section 6.8.9.

**6.8.1 Teiee 'who'**

*Teiee* 'who' occurs in all positions where a nominal referring to a human being can stand. Similar to proper names of persons, it takes the article *e* for the singular and the article *ere* for the plural.

Subject in a verbal clause:

(1) \[ E \textit{teiee} \textit{sabin} \textit{vahio} \textit{moon?} \]
\[ \text{ART who not.yet be.married.to woman} \]
\[ 'Who is not married yet?' [Sii. 6.186R] \]

Predicate in a non-verbal clause:

(2) \[ \textit{O hena momohu te- an roho he teiee?} \]
\[ \text{ART name first PREP- 2SG before CONJ who} \]
\[ 'What was your first name before?' \]
\[ (\text{lit. 'Your previous first name was who?}') [Kae. 3.201R] \]

(3) \[ \textit{E teiee o hena momohu teve roho?} \]
\[ \text{ART who ART name first his before} \]
\[ 'What was his name before?' \]
\[ (\text{lit. 'Who was his first name before?') [Kae. 3.220R] \]

Inalienable and alienable possessive attribute:
6.8 Interrogatives

6.8.1 

E sine teiee?
ART mother ART who
"Whose mother?" [Kae. 2.381R]

(4) “Eh, o vaanomo te teiee to avuhu bata maana?”
eh ART oil PREP who REL smell along here
“Eh, whose oil is smelling here?” [Nah. 2.56R]

Similar to nouns teiee can be focused and then is followed by a relative clause:

(5) E teiee he
who however
to kahi no sue ki na bona sina- n- a otei bona?
REL TAM go talk DAT IMPF ART mother- POSS-ART boy DEM
'However, who is going to talk to the boy's mother?' [MLV 1.42R]

6.8.2 Tabae 'what'

The interrogative pronoun tabae 'what' is found in the position of the head of an NP or an AP (adjectival phrase). It also occurs in the position of an attribute. When it is focused, it is followed by a relative clause introduced by to.

Head of an NP functioning as the predicate in non-verbal clause:

(7) A tabae rau?
ART what DEM
'What is that?'

(8) A amarao a tabae bene a kiu te- ori?
ART guardian ART what DEM ART work PREP-3PL
'The guardian(s), what is their job?' [Kae. 3.114R]

Head of an NP functioning as a primary object in a verbal clause:

(9) Enaa re paa paku a tabae?
1SG CONJ TAM do ART what
'What shall I do?' [Vos. 1.168R]

Head of an AP (adjectival phrase):

(10) Enam pasi boha vo- en a bua otei a bua tabae?
1EXC TAM think like- DEM ART two ART man ART two ART what
'What would we think these two men are?'
(lit. 'We would think like this, the two men are two what?') [Bua. 1.106R]

Attribute within a NP:

(11) Eam a lotu tabae?
2PL ART church what
'You belong to which church?'
(lit. 'You are which church?') [Pur. 2.127R]

(12) O kaku overe tabae? A magura?
ART kind coconut what ART young
'What kind of coconuts? The young ones?' [Kae. 1.228R]

Focused tabae in the function of a primary object function:

(13) “Eh! Tabae to paku nom eam?”
hey what REL do IMPF 2PL
“Hey, what are you doing?” [Sii 6.10R]

Focused tabae in the function of a secondary instrumental object:
6.8 Interrogatives

(14) A tabae to paku ri- ori bona maa hiroo?
   ART what REL make IMPF- 3PL ART PL hiroo
   'What do they make the hiroo from?' [Bua. 1.51R]

6.8.3 Havee 'where'

(15) Havee ean? Enaa i.
   where 2SG 1SG here
   'Where are you? ... I am here.' [Sii. 6.423R], [Sii. 6.425R]

(16) Havee to vaa- sun ri- ori bona - tobina vaan?
   where REL CAUS-stand IMPF- 3PL 4SG middle village
   'Where do they make it stand – in the middle of the village?' [Kae. 3.51R]

havee ... vo 'where ...to':

(17) Havee to nao bata vo nom- an?
   where REL go SIMUL GOAL IMPF- 2SG
   'Where are you going?' [Pur. 2.35R]

(18) Havee to paku vo nana o mate vai?
   how REL be like IMPF ART illness DEM
   'How is this illness?'

   Na paku bata koa vo na- en.
   TAM be SIMUL just like IMPF- DEM
   'It is just like this.' [Pur. 2.97R]

6.8.4 Sau 'where'

In contrast to havee 'where', sau always occurs after the VC. Otherwise there does not seem to be a difference.

(19) Eori he na tii rori sau?
   3PL but TAM stay IMPF where
   'But where are they staying now?' [Kae. 3.24R]

(20) Me- am paa taneo skul sau?
   and 2PL TAM begin school where
   'Where did you begin school?' [Bua. 1.171R]

vaavaha me sau 'how':

(21) Enaa re- paa rare vaavaha me sau?
    1SG CONJ-TAM sort.out how
    'How do I sort things out?' [Bua. 1.109R]

vo ... sau 'where to, in which way, how, what'

(22) Nao vo nao sau?
    go GOAL DIR where
    'Where did they go?' [Kae. 1.288R]

(23) A moon he antee vo nana sau?
    ART girl but reach GOAL IMPF where
    'How big is the girl?' (lit. 'Where does the girl reach to?' [Kae 1.87R]
(24) **Eara he toro paku yo sau?**
INC but must do like what
'What shall we do?' (lit. 'In which way/how should we act?') [Pur. 1.236R]

6.8.5 **Vaasau 'from where'**

The interrogative *vaasau* consists of the linker *vaa*, see [TSG_06_10], and *sau* 'where', e.g.:

(25) **Te-o hum vaa- sau?**
PREP ART place LK- where
'From which place?' [Pur. 2.123R]

(26) **Eam a si tavaan vaa sau?**
2PL ART DIM people LK where
'You are people from where?'

**Enam a abana vaa Bougainville.**
1EXC ART people LK Bougainville
'We are people from Bougainville.'

6.8.6 **Tobonihi 'when'**

(27) **Tobonihi to kahi nao vaha bana ra- ara?**
when REL TAM go back again IMPF- INC
'When are we going to go again?' [Sii. 6.326R]

6.8.7 **Tovihi 'how many'**

(28) **A tovihia vaani to kao oha vai ee?**
ART how many ART village REL go pass then 3SG
'How many villages did she pass?' [Nah. 2.70R]

(29) **Tovihi o vinu to tei nom eam te- a inu vai a rutaa?**
how many ART year REL stay IMPF 2 PL PREP- ART house DEM ART little
'How many years do you stay in this little house?' [Bua. 1.80R]

6.8.8 **Sovee me 'why'**

(30) **Ae sovee me- ori vaasuasun haabana rori?**
and why CONJ- 3PL fight again IMPF
'And why do they fight?' [Kae. 3.122R]

(31) **Sovee me an ore- orere nom?**
why and 1 2SG RED- scream IMPF
'Why are you screaming?' [Pur. 2.155R]

6.8.9 **Interrogatives used as indefinite proforms**

The interrogatives can be used in the sense of 'whoever, anybody', 'whatever, anything', and the like:

(32) **Evehe teiee to vigis nana, o- re- paa memea.**
but who REL late IMPF 3SG- CONJ- TAM thirsty
'But whoever was late, remained thirsty.' [Aro. 1.7R]

---

1 This *me* seems to be the same that is used with adjuncts in declarative sentences, see [TSG_09_08].
(33) **e teiec to kahi nao nana te- a vaaupe,***
    ART who REL TAM go IMPF PREP ART initiation
    'whoever will go through the initiation ritual,'

    **a beiko vaa sau pasi mee vo- ri***
    ART child LK- where TAM take GOAL-3PL
    'whatever child they will take there,'

    **me- paa no vaa- tii bari inu bona vue***
    and- TAM go CAUS- stay 4SG/PL houseDEM particular
    'they will put him into this house' [San. 3.11R] – [San. 3.14R]

(34) **O mago, o kara kuriri ge a tabae.***
    ART bat's.teeth ART fathom shell.money or ART what
    'Bat's teeth, a fathom of *kuriri, or whatever.' [Kae. 3.506R]
6.9 Prepositions

Teop has seven prepositions which can be classified into three different types.

Table 1: Prepositions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>English translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>te</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>'of, in, at, on'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ki</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>'for, to'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>me, mi 1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>'with'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kahi</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>'from, off'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suku</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>'because of'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vo</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1. 'to, towards, in the direction of',</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. 'in the way of, like'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mene, men-/me/mi 2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>'for'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This classification is based on the following criteria:

- the kind of complement the preposition governs: (1) an NP with the basic article, (2) an NP with the object article, (3) a locative construction, i.e. a local adverb, a bare locative noun phrase or a prepositional phrase introduced by te, or (4) an NP with a basic article or a bare verbal;
- whether or not the preposition can be incorporated into the verb complex.

Table 2: Classification of prepositions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Incorporated</th>
<th>Complement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>te</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>NP with basic article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ki/k-, me/mi 1, kahi, suku</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>NP with basic/object article;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>vo</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>locative construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>men-/mene / me/mi 2</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>NP with basic article or bare verbal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the prepositions are incorporated into the verb complex, the valence of the verb complex changes so that the complement of the preposition becomes the primary object. This process will be briefly described below in the section on the preposition ki.

Similar to other Oceanic languages, Teop has local nominals which are constructed like inalienable nouns. Some of them are derived from body-part terms, e.g. koma- 'stomach; inside, in', toon 'back'. They are not classified as prepositions, because they behave like other nominals that are used without an article when they function as the nucleus of a locative phrase [TSG_05_02]:

(1)  ... vaa- hovo ri bari koma- n- a inu
     ... CAUS- enter OBJ 4SG/PL inside- POSS- ART house
     '(and they) let them go inside the house.' [Mat. 1.126R]

6.9.1 *Te* 'of, in, at, to, from'

The preposition *te* governs noun phrases with the basic article and subject pronouns. It has a wide range of meanings and introduces prepositional phrases which function as attributes, predicates, adjuncts and complements:
1. Alienable possessive attributes:

(2) a baara te Kakato, a baara te naa
   ART ball PREP Kakato ART ball PREP 1SG
   'Kakato's ball, my ball'

2. Attributes of *peha* 'one' and *a meha papana* 'the others'

(3) Ahiki ta peha te- nam.
    not.exist any one PREP- EXC
    'There was not anybody of us.' (TD *ahaiki*)

(4) a meha papana te- nam
    ART other side PREP- EXC
    'the others of us' [Vos. 1.163R]

3. Attributes referring to the agent in constructions with verbal attributes, see [TSG_07_12]:

(5) O hum va- sisibuu te- a abana.
    ART place MULT- bathe PREP- ART people
    'The place where the people bathe.' [Kae. 3.21R]

4. Predicates:

(6) O hum poo- popo te- ori he te- o vioga.
    ART place RED- live PREP- 3PL CONJ PREP- ART wild.betelnut.palm
    'But the place where they lived was on the wild betelnut palm.' [Val. 2.3E]

5. Complements of the linker *vaa/vai* (cf. below):

(7) a- maa moon vai te- a mamana
    ART PL woman LK PREP- ART outside
    'these women outside' [Kae. 3.128R]

6. Adverbials:

(8) o re paa pahin hovo nao te- a inu vai
    3SG/PL CONJ TAM immediately enter DIR PREP- ART house this
    'and they would immediately go into this house' [Bua. 2.62R]

7. Sentence initial topics:

(9) Te- a maa aheahe vaa te- a maa
    PREP- ART PL song LK PREP- ART PL
    Sunday te- a lotu vai
    Sunday PREP- ART church DEM
    'As for the songs on Sunday at church,
    a moon rau to paku na bono aheahe.
    ART woman DEM REL do IMPF:3SG ART song
    'it is the woman who does the songs.' [Vos. 1.155R]

The semantic interpretation of the preposition *te* depends on the context. With verb complexes expressing a state of being or an event that occurs at a certain place, the prepositional phrase refers to the location, whereas with goal-oriented verb complexes of motion or transfer, it refers to the goal and with source-oriented verb complexes to the source.
Table 3: Location-, goal- and source-oriented verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Goal</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tei, tii</td>
<td>'be'</td>
<td>nao</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hio</td>
<td>'sit'</td>
<td>nomaa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obete</td>
<td>'lie'</td>
<td>suguna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goroho</td>
<td>'lie, sleep'</td>
<td>vaati</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sun</td>
<td>'stand'</td>
<td>vaasun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Location:

(10) ... pasi no beera- u te- a inu bona vue

...TAM go big- IM PREP-ART house this particular
'(he) will become big in this particular house' [San. 3.46R]

Goal:

(11) me- a paree paa hopo te- o kasuana

and- ART paree TAM slip.into PREP- ART ground
'and the paree slipped into the ground' [Mor. 3.177R]

Source:

(12) Bubuu, no gono maa a- maa iana te- o sinivi

granna go get DIR ART- PL fish PREP- ART canoe
'Granny, get the fish from the canoe.' [Aro. 4.118R]

With time expressions, te indicates that this is the time a certain event or state of being occurs¹:

(13) Suguna te- o Saarere te- a tauravi

arrive PREP- ART Saturday PREP- ART afternoon
'(We) arrived on Saturday in the afternoon.' [Pur. 2.120R]

Finally, we find te in constructions which can be regarded as metaphors of locational usages, e.g.:

(14) te- a vakokona te- naa

PREP- ART thinking PREP- 1SG
'in my opinion' [Vos. 1.6R]

An example where te introduces an adjunct referring to an instrument is (30) below.

6.9.2 The Dative preposition ki

The complement of the preposition ki denotes a beneficiary, a recipient or an addressee. Therefore, it is called Dative preposition and glossed as DAT.

(15) A- maa toogori ki bene teice?

ART- PL toogori DAT ART who
'The toogori (fish) are for whom?' [pr. 3:57]

(16) eori re vavaasun ta inu ki bene masta

3PL CONJ build ART house DAT ART master
'so that they would build a house for the master' [Sii. 2.76R]

When the prepositional phrase functions as a predicate (15) or an adjunct (16), the noun phrase governed by ki takes the object article. In (16), the patient NP ta inu 'a house' is the primary object and the beneficiary ki bene masta 'for the master' is an adjunct.

¹ Duration is expressed by simple noun phrases, search the corpus for o vinu, bono vinu 'a year'
Pronominal complements are marked by the object marker:

(17)  
<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>k-</td>
<td>a - naa</td>
<td>k- ama- naa</td>
<td>ki- vu an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT- OBJ- 1SG</td>
<td>DAT- OBJ 1SG</td>
<td>DAT- OBJ- 2SG</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(to) me'</td>
<td>'(to) me'</td>
<td>'you (to)'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k- a- nam</td>
<td>k- ama- nam</td>
<td>k- ara- ara</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT- OBJ- 1EXC</td>
<td>DAT- OBJ- 1EXC</td>
<td>DAT- OBJ- 1INC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'(to) us'</td>
<td>'(to) us'</td>
<td>'(to) us'</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k- ame- am</td>
<td>ki- ri ori</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAT- OBJ- 2PL</td>
<td>DAT- OBJ 3PL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'(to) you'</td>
<td>'(to) them'</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When *ki* is incorporated into the verb complex, its complement (a beneficiary, recipient or addressee) becomes the primary object of the verb complex and chooses its article according to the article selection rule, see [TSG_09_04].

Through the incorporation of the preposition the valence of the verb complex can be increased so that an intransitive verb complex becomes transitive and a transitive verb complex becomes ditransitive. Compare the four examples below in which the predicate is expressed by *sue* 'say, tell':

(18)  
Sue a pasu- na- e!  
tell ART reason- POSS- 3SG  
'Tell its reason!' [Sii.Sen 1.arata]

(19)  
me- ori paa sue bona va- tavusu,  
and- 3PL TAM tell ART CAUS- go.out  
'... and they announced that they let (her) go out.' (lit. 'the letting go out') [Kor. 1.66R]

(20)  
me- naa paa sue ki- ri a maamihu aba  
and 1SG TAM tell DAT- OBJ ART all person 'work  
'and I told everybody, "Work ..."' [Pur. 1.805R]

(21)  
e sina- na- e paa sue ki- ri bona tavaan, "...".  
ART mother- POSS- 3SG TAM say DAT- OBJ ART people  
'his mother said to the people, ...' [Nan. 3.155R]

In (18), (19) the verbal *sue* 'tell, say' is transitive and governs a primary object that refers to the content of what is said. In (18) the primary object is marked by the basic article *a*, because the subject is a speech act participant (a second person), whereas in (19), which has a third person subject, the object is marked by the object article *bona*.

The examples (20) and (21) show the same verbal nucleus, i.e. *sue* 'tell, say', but this time the preposition *ki* is incorporated into the verb complex. The verb complex *paa sue kiri* is ditransitive, governing the addressee as its primary object and the reported speech as its secondary object. In (20) the primary object is marked by the basic article *a* because the subject is a speech act participant. But in (21) where a third person is the subject, it is marked by the object article *bona*.

In addition to the constructions described above, *ki* occurs with the applicative *ni* and the comitative preposition *mi* with first and second person objects. In these two constructions *ki* has adopted a purely grammatical function. Put differently, the applicative and the comitative govern first and second person pronouns in the Dative case.

(22)  
Enaa na hevee kurusni ki- u nom an.  
1SG TAM angry very APP DAT- OBJ IMPF 2SG  
'I am very angry with you.' [Pur 2.454]

(23)  
Hagi mi- k- a- naa.  
dance with DAT- OBJ- 1SG  
'Dance with me.'
6.9 Prepositions

6.9.3 The comitative preposition me/mi 'with'
The preposition me/mi 'with' is usually incorporated into the verb complex and changes its valence in the same fashion as the incorporation of ki does.

An example of me/mi 'with' introducing a prepositional phrase in the function of an adjunct is:

(24) eori he paa mee tagihu ama- u a- nam...
    3PL CONJ TAM take go.into.the.bush OBJ- IM OBJ- IEXC
    me bona vateen guu ...
    with ART backpack pork ...
    'they took us further inland with a backpack of pork' [Bua. 1.9R]

(25) Gii, paapoo mi nom a sibono maanii.
    PN stay.at.home with IMPF ART rack possum
    'Gii, stay at home with the possum rack.' [Aro. 2.14R]

The verb tii 'stay' is used with mi to express possession:

(26) na tii mi nana bona magara
    TAM stay with IMPF ART beard
    '(it) has a beard' [Ata. 1.97R]

6.9.4 The preposition kahi 'from, leaving behind'
The status of kahi as a preposition is not clear. It seems to have originated from a serial verb and still occupies the same position as a serial verb within the verb complex. In our corpus we only have an elicited example where kahi is used as a preposition:

(27) Huriki a rokoroko vaarau a mate kahi bona hanana.
    remove ART frog DEM ART dead from ART road
    'Remove the dead frog from the road.' [TD huriki]

With the exception of the fixed phrase kahi 'leave it! nevermind!', kahi is not used as a predicate. For further examples, see TD under ini kahi 'leave food uneaten (lit. eat leave)', kao kahi 'leave' (lit. 'go leave'), mate kahi 'die (and) leave behind'.

6.9.5 The preposition suku 'because of'
Similar to kahi 'from', suku 'because' seems to have originated from a serial verb. This verb, which is still attested in the mountain dialects, means 'follow'. But in contrast to kahi it is well attested in the function of a preposition, e.g.:

(28) O paku na paku ri- ori suku bona vatavatava-. i.
    ART feast TAM make IMPF:3PL- 3PL because ART vatavatava-ceremony- DEM.
    'They make a feast for this tavatava ceremony.'
    (lit. 'The feast, they make ...') [Mah. 2.265R]

In the following example suku is incorporated. The object of sue suku 'speak because of' is the relative pronoun to.

(29) Na tara naa, ei to sue suku nom naa.
    TAM see 1SG DEM REL speak because IMPF 1SG
    'I saw (it), that's why I speak (about it).' [Mah. 3.276R]

6.9.6 The preposition vo 'to, towards to; like'
The preposition vo is polysemous. Its basic meaning is 'to, towards' (GOAL), but in certain contexts it can also take on the meaning 'the way in which s.th. is done', and with verbs of speaking and thinking
it relates to phrases or clauses expressing what s.o. says or thinks. In these contexts we gloss vo as 'like'.

In all contexts vo governs an adverb, a bare locative NP or a prepositional phrase introduced by te.

(30) **Murinae enam paa aha eve te- o iaha vo te- a besin.**
    after that 1 EXC TAM grate 3 SG PREP-ART grater GOAL PREP- ART bowl
    'Then we grate it with the grater into a bowl.' [Hel. 1.12-13R]

When vo '(towards) to' is incorporated, it does not change the valence of the verb complex and neither affects the form nor the syntactic function of the phrase referring to the goal. In the example below vo is incorporated in a verb complex that ends with the directional particle nao 'away'.

(31) **ma kavuhu vo nao matana**
    and spit GOAL DIR bow
    'and spat it to the bow' [Aro. 8.83R]

The use of vo in the meaning of 'in the way of, like' seems to be similar to the polysemy of English way that is used both in the concrete sense of 'route, direction' and in the more abstract sense of 'manner, method'.

rake vo 'want s.th. in a particular way':

(32) **Nam na rake vo nom enei.**
    EXC TAM want like IMPF DEM
    'We want it this way/like this.' [Vos. 1.89R]

(33) **Havek to rake vo nom- an?**
    where REL want like IMPF- 2 SG
    'Which way do you want (it)/How do you want it?' [Pur. 2.359R]

kao vo 'go in a particular direction, a particular way':

(34) **Kao vo koa na- e**
    go like just IMPF- 3 SG
    'That's just how it is./It goes just the way (mentioned before).' [Kae. 3.333R]

paku vo 'do, be done a particular way, be like':

(35) **To paku bata vo koa nam ei.**
    REL do SIMUL like just EXC DEM
    'This is just how we worked.' (lit. 'What we worked like (is) this.') [Pur. 1.226R]

With speech act verbs and verbs of cognition, vo relates to the content of what one says, senses or thinks:

(36) **ei to paa sue vo nom naa**
    DEM REL TAM say like IMPF 1 SG
    'this is what I have been saying!' [Pur. 1.791R]

The combination of vo and en 'this' is used to refer to what s.o. says or thinks and often introduces direct speech [TSG_10_01].

(37) **Enam na upehe vo nom en, can toro nao teebona.**
    EXC TAM think like IMPF DEM 2 SG must go there
    'We are thinking you must go there.' (lit 'we are thinking like this: you ...') [Pur. 1.268R]

6.9.7 The preposition mene and me/mi 'for'

The preposition mene introduces prepositional phrases and can be incorporated. When introducing prepositional phrases, it fuses with the article of the noun phrase (see TD under mena and meno):
The head of the noun phrases governed by the preposition *mene* can be a bare verbal:

(38)  Ean ne paa nana bata maa ta karirava mena menaga.

2SG CONJ TAM warm.up SIMUL DIR ART karirava for.ART menaga

'Then you warm some karirava-leaves over the fire for the *menaga* (tapioca pudding).'

[Aro. 2.70R]

When *mene* 'for' is incorporated, it takes the form *me/mi*. In the example below the verbal nucleus *rakerake* 'search for' is transitive. However, its transitivity is blocked by the incorporation of the object *moonii* 'money'; *rakerake moonii* 'search for money' is intransitive, but through the addition on *me* 'for' the verb complex becomes transitive.

(39)  o varu mene vaasuasun te roosuu

ART shield for fight PREP.ART giant

'the giant's shield for fighting' [Mor. 2.57R]

(40)  ei to rake- rake moonii bana me nom

DEM REL RED- search money again for IMPF

a haus lotu te- nam

ART house church PREP- EXC

'It is like this when we were looking for money for our church building.' [Vos. 1.59R]
6.10 The linker vaa/vai

The linker vaa and its variant vai ‘of, belonging to, originating from, associated with’ are combined with an adverb, a bare locative phrase or a prepositional phrase introduced by te:

vaa/vai + adverb:

(1)  a  mooni  vaa  nomana
    ART  money   of   today
    'the modern money'

(2)  te-  a  nubunubu  vaa  subunubu
    PREP- ART  morning   of   tomorrow
    'tomorrow morning'

vaa + bare locative phrase:

(3)  o  matapaku  vaa  vaan
    ART  custom   of   village
    'the customs of the village' [Daa. 1.254R]

vaa + te NP:

(4)  o  matapaku  vaa  te-  a  paku  n-  o  sinivi
    ART  method  LK  PREP- ART  make  POSS- ART  canoe
    'the method of making a canoe' [Tah. 2.0R]

For the syntactic function of the vaa-phrase, see [TSG_05_02], section 5.2.8.
6.11 Conjunctions

We distinguish between three types of conjunction:

- coordinating conjunctions that connect a word or construction to a preceding word or construction of equivalent syntactic status
- conjunctions that link dependent embedded and non-embedded constructions, see [TSG_05_03].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Coordinating conjunctions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>me</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) *a peha si otei ae a bua roosuu*  
ART one DIM boy and ART two giant  
'(Once upon a time, there lived) a boy and two giants.' [Viv. 1.1E]

(2) *Muu koa bara voi ae a pauna*  
taro only and yams and ART banana  
'Only taro and yams and bananas.' [Iar. 2.114 R]

(3) *Me-ori hua bata rori bara naba vahakaa.*  
and-3PL paddle SIMUL IMPF:3PL and group beat.the.water  
'And he was paddling along together with the group of the beaters.' [Mor. 3.70 R]

(4) *Enam bo taan ei*  
1INC and person DEM  
'I and this person.' [Sii. 6.116R]

(5) *t- ere tama- na- e bo sina- na- e*  
PREP- ART.PL father- POSS- 3SG and mother- POSS- 3SG  
'from her father and her mother' [Val. 3.9E]

(6) *ta maa raviana ge ta maa ariono*  
ART PL raviana or ART PL ariono  
'some raviana vines or some ariono vines Sii. [6.22R]

When the first conjunct is a pronoun and the second one a noun phrase, the pronoun is plural even if it only refers to a single person as in (3) and (4). Coordinated kinship terms are marked by the plural article *ere*, see [TSG_06_02], section 6.2.1.

---

1 Lit. 'They were paddling along and the group of beaters'.
Table 2: Conjunctions linking dependent embedded and dependent non-embedded clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Be</th>
<th>1. 'if', introduces a dependent non-embedded clause</th>
<th>2. 'when, while', introduces a dependent non-embedded clause</th>
<th>3. 'that', introduces a complement clauses whose subject is different from the subject of the superordinate clause, see [TSG_10_01]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>'while, but, although', links dependent non-embedded clauses; follows the first argument of the clause (NP or pronoun), see [TSG_10_07]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Re</td>
<td>'so that, in order to', links dependent non-embedded clauses expressing the consequence or the purpose of a previous event, see [TSG_10_05]</td>
<td>2. links complement clauses whose subject is co-referential with the object of the superordinate clauses, see [TSG_10_01]</td>
<td>The conjunction re always follows the first argument (NP or pronoun) of the clause, pronouns preceding re show a reduced form (see [TSG_06_08]); re -clauses frequently lack TAM marking; the only TAM marker found with re is paa [TSG_08_02].</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ne</td>
<td>'so that, in order to', variant of re used with a 1SG pronoun subject [TSG_06_07]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tea</td>
<td>'to, that', a complementiser that introduces complement clauses without overt subjects and TAM marking; these complement clauses are very similar to English infinitival complements, see [TSG_10_01]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent embedded clauses are subordinate clauses; they hold the position of an adjunct or a complement in a superordinate clause, i.e. a matrix clause. In contrast, dependent non-embedded clauses do not function as an adjunct or complement in some other, superordinate clause; but nevertheless they are dependent as they tightly linked to a preceding or following clause by the means of particular conjunctions in both clauses, argument sharing and/or the lack of TAM marking.
6.12 Particles

While articles, TAM markers, negations, prepositions, the linker *vaa*, directionals and conjunctions can be defined in terms of phrase or clause structure and their grammatical function, particles are words that modify the immediately preceding word. Many of them express some kind of intensification. Their particular meanings have not been investigated yet. We are also not sure where to draw the borderline between adverbs and particles so that the reader will certainly come across some inconsistencies.

Table 1: Particles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>particle</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>karana</td>
<td>indeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koa</td>
<td>only, just</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koma</td>
<td>indeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kou</td>
<td>indeed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kurusu</td>
<td>very</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>me, mee</td>
<td>too, also</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patoo</td>
<td>isn't it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rakaha</td>
<td>very</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rehe</td>
<td>indeed (expressing surprise or shock)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sana</td>
<td>very</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ve</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vue</td>
<td>particular</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.13 Interjections

The interjections have not been investigated yet. There are interjections like *anda* 'sorry' that are used to correct oneself, utterance initial interjections that express surprise like 'gosh!, hell', e.g. *kantei!* or hortative interjections like *nigara* 'let's go!' For further examples search the corpus for the keyword INTERJECTION and the lexical database TD for ps/ interj.
7 Noun phrase

Noun phrases (NPs) are marked by an article and function as arguments, adjuncts, predicates and complements of prepositions.

7.1 Nucleus and satellites

The nucleus of a noun phrase is formed by a common nominal, a proper name, a personal pronoun, a demonstrative, an interrogative pronoun or a verbal. Common nominals, proper names, topicalised personal pronouns and interrogative pronouns are preceded by an article. In fast speech the article can be missing at the beginning of an utterance. Examples:

(1) A- maa moon be- beera
   ART PL women RED- chief
   'the chiefly women' ...' [Nan 2.31R]

(2) E Donald Alley bara e Aaron Kotosomaa paku-paku.
   ART PN PN and ART PN PN RED- make
   bona skul
   ART school
   'Donald Alley and Aaron Kotosomaa conducted school.' [Pur. 1.4R]

(3) E- ori a buaku.
   ART- 3PL ART two
   'They are two.' [Kor 1.101R]

(4) E teiee a otei?
   ART who ART man
   'Who is this man?' [Kae. 3.191R]

(5) A tabae to rake nom an.
   ART what REL want IMPF 2SG
   'What do you want?'

The nucleus of a noun phrase can take a number of the prenuclear and postnuclear satellites:

Table 1: Satellites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>prenuclear satellites</th>
<th>postnuclear satellites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>articles [TSG_07_02]</td>
<td>demonstratives [TSG_07_09]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural marker [TSG_07_03]</td>
<td>nominal attributes [TSG_07_10]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>numeral phrases [TSG_07_04]</td>
<td>adjectival attributes [TSG_07_11]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>determiner phrases [TSG_07_05], [TSG_05_02]</td>
<td>verbal attributes [TSG_07_12]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the diminutive [TSG_07_06]</td>
<td>adjectival phrases [TSG_07_13]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the quantifier vahara [TSG_07_07]</td>
<td>prepositional attributes [TSG_07_14],</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the reciprocal particle tom [TSG_07_08]</td>
<td>possessive constructions [TSG_07_15]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vaa-phrases [TSG_07_16], [TSG_05_07]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>relative clauses [TSG_07_17], [TSG_10_02]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.1 Noun phrase: Nucleus and satellites

7.1.1 Prenuclear satellites

(6) Plural marker: [ART [PL N]]
   a- maa moon
   ART- PL woman
   'the women'

(7) Numeral phrase: [[ART NUM] [ART N]]
   a bua otei
   ART two.ART man
   'the two men' [Pur. 1.22R]

(8) Determiner phrase: [ART DET] [ART N]
   a meha otei
   ART other.ART man
   'another man, the other man'

(9) The modifier vahara: [ART [little.PL N]]
   o vahara beiko
   ART little.PL child
   'the children'

(10) Diminutive: [ART [DIM N]]
    a si beiko
    ART DIM child
    'the little/ dear/ poor child'

(11) Reciprocal particle: [[ART NUM] [ART REC N]]
    a bua tom sina-na
    ART two.ART REC mother- DEREL
    'the mother and her child'

7.1.2 Postnuclear satellites

(12) Demonstrative: [ART [N DEM]]
    o vuri bona
    ART time DEM
    'that time' [Pur. 1.19R]

(13) Nominal attribute: [ART [N N]]
    O monaa tabae? O monaa guu?
    ART fat what ART fat pig
    'What kind of fat? Pig's fat?' [Bua. 1.87R]

(14) Verbal attribute: [ART [N V]]
    a taba ani
    ART thing eat
    'food'

(15) Adjectival phrase: [[NP] [AP]]
    a hausik vai a beera
    ART hospital DEM ART big
    'this big hospital' [Sii. 1.292R]

(16) Prepositional phrase: [[NP] [PP]]
    a kaku vagana te- a maa moon
    ART kind fish PREP-ART PL woman
    'the women's kind of fishing' [Iar. 2.251R]
(17) Possessive attribute [ART [N [POSS NP]]]
   a kahoo n- e guu
   ART head POSS- ART pig
   'the head of the pig'

(18) Attributive vaa-phrase: [ART [N [vaa-PHRASE]]]
   a iana vaa te- a kave
   ART fish LK PREP- ART net
   'the fish in the net' [Sii. 6.239]

(19) Relative clause: [ART [N RELATIVE CLAUSE]]
    A otei to paa nao vuru nao te- a nubunubu,
    ART boy REL TAM go already DIR PREP- ART morning
    'the boy who had gone off in the morning, ...' [Vae. 1.339R]
7.2 Articles

The articles can be classified into three classes:

1. the specific article, which has two subclasses: the basic and the object article
2. the non-specific article
3. the partitive article

With the exception of the partitive article, the forms of articles distinguish three noun classes and two numbers.

Table 1: Articles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Articles</th>
<th>noun classes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e-class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basic article</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>object article</td>
<td>bone, bene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non-specific article</td>
<td>te</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>partitive article</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.2.1 The basic and the object article

The basic and the object article contribute to the distinction of different kinds of syntactic functions of noun phrases in the following way:

1. Irrespective of their position, subjects always take the basic article.
2. Topics always hold the first position in the clause and take the basic article irrespective of their syntactic function.
3. Non-topical primary objects take the basic article when the subject of the clause is a first or a second person, otherwise they take the object article.
4. Non-topical secondary objects take the basic article when the subject and the primary object refer to the speech act participants, otherwise they take the object article.
Table 2: Article selection rule

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>primary object</th>
<th>secondary object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st/2nd person</td>
<td>1st/2nd person</td>
<td>basic art N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st/2nd person</td>
<td>3rd person/basic ART N</td>
<td>object ART N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person/basic article N</td>
<td>1st/2nd person pronoun</td>
<td>object ART N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person/basic ART N</td>
<td>3rd person/object ART N</td>
<td>object ART N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) SUBJECT: VC

Enaa na ani nom a iana
1SG TAM eat IMPF ART fish
'I am eating the fish.'

(2) SUBJECT VC

E roosuu na ani bata-na bona karavona
ART giant TAM eat SIMUL- IMPF OBJ.ART lobster.
'The giant was eating the lobster.' [Sii. 6.362R]

(3) SUBJECT VC

Eam toro dao a kuhoo vai bene Joshua
2PL must name ART baby DEM ART Joshua
'You must name the baby Joshua.'

(4) OBJECT VC

A kururu te-naa na kaku a aba.
ART bamboo PREP- 1SG TAM break ART someone
'Someone broke my bamboo.'

(5) OBJECT1 VC

A inu bona na dao ri-ori bona hai.
ART house DEM TAM call IMPF- 3PL ART nest
'This house they call nest.' [Kae. 1.10R]

(6) OBJECT2 VC

A inu na hee anaa e gavaman
ART house TAM give 1SG.OBJ ART government
'The house was given to me by the government.' [Pur. 2.20R]

The object article is cognate with the anaphoric demonstrative bona. Note, however, that the demonstrative always follows the noun and is not marked for noun class. An explanation of the article selection rule in given in [TSG_09_04].

7.2.2 The non-specific articles

The non-specific articles are te, ta, to 'any'. They express that the entity denoted by the noun cannot be identified. They are typically used with noun phrases denoting the unknown undergoer of future actions or a person or thing that does not exist.

(7) ahiki ta aba
not.exist NSP.ART person
'(here) is not anybody.' [Pur. 2.219R]
7.2 Article

(8)  to  hum  nata
     NSP.ART  piece  know
     'any knowledge'. [Pur. 1.43R]

7.2.3 The partitive article

The noun phrase *sa N* means 'any piece of N you can think of', i.e. *sa* is a non-specific partitive article.

(9)  sa  muu  te-  an
     PART.ART  taro  PREP-2SG
     'your piece of taro' [Aro. 14.10R]

The partitive article does not inflect for noun class and number.
7.3 The plural marker *maa* and *maamihu* 'all sorts of, every'

The plural marker *maa* precedes the nucleus and requires the article *a*, irrespective of the inherent noun class of the nominal.

Table 1: The plural marker

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>e magee tenaa</em></td>
<td><em>a maa magee tena</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>a moon</em></td>
<td><em>a maa moon</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>o hoi</em></td>
<td><em>a maa hoi</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This can either be interpreted as the neutralisation of noun class distinctions in the plural or as an indication that in these constructions *maa* is the head. The latter is supported by the fact that constructions with the plural marker *maa* are formally categorised as singular in possessive constructions.

(1)  
\[ a \text{ kavara } n- \text{ a maa kiu } \]  
\text{ART all POSS:3SG- ART PL job}  
'all the jobs' [Pur. 1.238R]

The possessive marker (POSS) agrees with the possessor in number and person; it is *n-* for singular and *ri-* for plural possessors, see [TSG_07_15].

The plural marker *maa* can be modified by *mihu* which only occurs together with *maa*. The resulting construction *maa mihu* means 'all sorts of, every'. In the standard orthography *maa* and *mihu* are written together.

(2)  
\[ a \text{ maamihu } taba \]  
\text{ART all.sort.of thing}  
'all sort of things, everything'

(3)  
\[ a \text{ maamihu } bon \]  
\text{ART every day(n.o.)}  
'every day'

For the use of the plural marker in determiner and adjectival phrases see [TSG_07_05] and [07_13].
7.4 The numeral phrase

In the function of NP satellites, cardinal and ordinal numerals take an article and form a numeral phrase (NumP) that precedes the NP. Both the NumP and the NP have singular articles and agree in gender.

(1) a buaku a inu
    ART two ART house
    'two houses' [Pur. 2.209R]

(2) o buaku o sikiri
    ART two ART bamboo.spear
    'two bamboo spears' [Aro. 15.75R]

The cardinal numerals peha, peho 'one' and bua, buo 'two' have attracted the article of following NP so that they look like inflecting words that agree with the head noun:

(3) a peha moon, o peho hoi
    ART one.ART woman ART one.ART basket
    'one woman, one basket'

If the noun phrase containing a numeral phrase functions as an object that selects the object article, this object article only marks the numeral phrase whereas the head noun is preceded by the basic article, i.e. [ART N] is treated as an apposition of [ART NUM]:

(4) me Rigamu paa vaa- nomaa vaha [bona buaku] [a otei].
    and PN TAM CAUS-come again ART two ART men
    'and Rigamu sent back two men.' [Sia. 1.85E]

(5) na nomaa me roho [bono buaku] [o hum].
    TAM come with before ART two ART thing
    'they came with two things' [Vos. 1.174R]

(6) vahutate vai ki- ri bona bua subunaie.
    tell then DAT-OBJ ART two ART grandchildren
    'then (she) told her two grandchildren,' [Aro. 4.62R]

(7) eori paa rom maa bono buo rom veresun.
    3PL TAM cut DIR ART two ART stem wild.banana
    'they cut two wild banana stems' [Aro. 4.133R]

With the non-specific article, we found two kinds of construction: The non-specific article marks both the numeral and the noun phrase as in the example below

(8) Ahiki ta peha ta tootoo.
    not.exist NSP.ART one NSP.ART live
    'There was none who survived.' [Val. 1.116R]

or it occurs only in the position of the first article whereas the head noun is preceded by the basic article. In the example below this basic article is fused with the preceding numeral.

(9) ean paa gono maa to buo paka kavovo.
    2SG TAM get DIR NSP.ART two.ART feather cockatoo
    'then you get two cockatoo feathers' [Nah. 2.40R]

Although noun phrases which are quantified by numerals are determined by a singular article, they are treated as plural phrases in the possessive construction where the possessive marker agrees with the possessor NP in number, see [TSG_07_15]:

(10) o revasin ri- a bua tom keara
    ART blood POSS:3PL- ART two.ART REC sister
    'the blood of the two sisters'
Partitive constructions of the type *e ta* N 'piece of N' are quantified by constructions in which the partitive nominal *ta* functions as the head and the numeral as an attribute: [ART *ta* NUM] [NUM *ta* N]. Note that *ta* belongs to the *e*-class and that, accordingly, the phrase ART *ta* NUM takes the article *e*.

(11) e ta buaku koa e ta atavo
    ART piece two only ART piece sago-palm.leaf
    'only two sago-palm leaves' (lit. 'two pieces only, sago-palm leaf piece') [Kae. 2.29R]

The word *bero* 'many' is either used like a numeral in a numeral phrase or like an adjectival in an adjectival phrase. But in contrast to numerals, it can occur with the plural maker *maa*:

(12) a bero sana maa kaku mate
    ART many very PL kind death
    'very many kinds of death' [Daa. 2.6R]

(13) a bero sana a beiko to tii rori teebona.
    ART many very ART child REL stay IMPF:3PL there
    'it is many children indeed who will stay there.' [San. 3.11-17R]
7.5 Determiners

7.5.1 The determiner meha, meho 'other'

Similar to the numeral peha, peho 'one', the prenuclear satellite meha, meho 'other' agrees with the nucleus in noun-class:

(1)  a meha taba o meho vinu
    ART other. thing    ART other year
    'another thing'     'another year'

The noun phrases a meha taba and o meho vinu can be interpreted as [ART meh-]DetP [ART taba/vinu]NP.

Nouns preceded by the plural marker maa can be modified by meha which itself is also preceded by maa so that maa meha agrees in number and noun-class with the plural marker of the noun:

(2)  a maa meha maa taba
    ART PL other PL thing
    'some other things' [Daa. 2.162R], [Vos. 1.310R]

(3)  a- maa meha maa kaku vavahio
    ART- PL other PL kind marriage
    'the other kinds of marriage customs' [Daa 1.216R]

In other words, the plural marker behaves like the nucleus as it determines the noun-class of the whole NP, but in the determiner phrase it resembles an inflectional affix marking agreement in number.

7.5.2 The determiner peha 'some'

The combination of the plural marker maa and the numeral peha 'one' yields the meaning 'some'

(4)  a maa peha vuaba koa
    ART PL some clan only
    'only some of the clans' [Kae. 1.274R]

(5)  a peha maa hum koara
    ART some PL bit language
    'some of the things they say' [Pur. 2.446R]

Note the variable position of peha.

7.5.3 The determiner vuaba 'such'

(6)  enaa re vaa-hae ta vuaba ta moon
    1SG CONJ CAUS-board ART such ART woman
    'so that I take such a woman on board' [Aro. 8.107E]
7.6 The diminutive *si*

The diminutive particle *si* is polysemous. Depending on the context, it means ‘little, small’ or ‘few’, or it expresses the speaker's endearment or self-abasement. It follows the plural marker *maa*:

(1) a **maa si** mono iana
    ART PL DIM parcel fish
    'little fish parcels' [Daa. 1.69R]

Similar to the plural marker *maa*, see [TSG_07_05] section 1 and [TSG_07_13] the diminutive marker *si* resembles an inflectional agreement affix. In (2) and (3) it occurs in both the numeral and the noun phrase:

(2) bona **si** taonim a **si** iana teve
    ART DIM five ART DIM fish PREP.3SG
    'her five little fish' [Ata. 1.28R]

(3) a **si** peha koa a **si** vohe
    ART DIM one only ART DIM paddle
    '(there is) only one paddle' [Vae. 1.159R], [Vae. 1.120E]
7.7 The quantifier vahara 'little ones'

The quantifier vahara means ‘a number of little (ones)’. It is most frequently used with beiko ‘child’. The article of the NP modified by vahara can be a or o. We find this variation even with the same speaker in the same interview.

(1)  o vahara beiko a vahara beiko
    ART little.PL child ART little.PL child
    'the little children' [Pur. 1.296R], 'the little children' [Pur. 1.561R]

The quantifier vahara can be combined with the plural marker maa::

(2)  bona maa vahara taba tahii
    ART PL little.PL thing sea
    'the little things from the sea' [Iar. 2.253R]

When phrases like a vahara beiko function as the possessor in inalienable possessive constructions, they are treated like singular noun phrases, which suggests that vahara is a kind of collective nominal:

(3)  a kavara n- a vahara beiko
    ART all POSS:3SG- ART little.PL child
    'all the little children' [Pur. 1.313R]
7.8 The reciprocal kinship particle *tom*

The particle *tom* is used with kinship terms and a few other terms denoting human relations. It expresses that the NP refers to both sides of the relationship in question, e.g. *tom kēara* 'brothers/sisters (siblings of the same sex)', *tom sinana* 'mother and her child(ren)', *tom tamana* 'father (his wife) and his child(dren)', *tom vavina* 'brother(s) and sister(s) (siblings of the opposite sex)'. The inalienably possessed kinship terms are used in their absolute form¹ that is marked by the derelational suffix –*na*.

(1) Eara kahi vaa- voosu ri rara a bua *tom sinana* ...
   INC TAM CAUS-go.home OBJ IMPF ART two REC mother-DEREL
   'We will let the mother and her child go home ...' [Mat. 1.128R]

In the combination with *bua* 'two', the *tom N*- constructions mean ‘two people in the relationship denoted by N’. Accordingly, the combination with the plural marker *maa* refers to several people in this kind of relationship, e.g.

(2) Te-o peho vuri a-maa si *tom tama-na* na tei-tei.
   PREP-ART one time ART- PL DIM REC father-DEREL TAM RED-exist
   Once upon a time, there was a family. [Nan. 3.0R]

(3) Nabunuu na tii-tii roho
    past TAM RED-exist before
    a peha si maa *tom subu-na* 
    ART some DIM PL REC grandparent-DEREL
    - e subu-ri-ori a moon ae a bua beiko otei.
    ART grandparent-POSS- 3PL ART woman and ART two child man
    'Once upon a time there lived a grandparent with grandchildren --a grandmother and her two grandsons (lit. 'their grandparent, a woman, and two boys).' [Aro. 4.0R].

¹ The absolute form is the form that is not followed by a possessor.
7.9 Demonstratives

The inventory, the meaning and the use of demonstratives has not been investigated yet. Demonstratives follow the head. Up to three demonstratives can follow the head:

(1) te a bua aba bari vori ei
   PREP ART two person DEM.PL DEM.PL DEM
   'with those two people' [Kae. 1.6R]

The demonstrative vai is frequently followed by a relative clause. When it occurs in this function the NP can have the non-specific article:

(2) ei kou paa hiki vaevuru ta aba vai
       because TAM not.exist now NSP.ART person DEM
   toro ururu ae kikira ni bona
       REL.must love and take.care. APP 4SG
   'because there wasn't any person that would love and take care of her.' [Val. 3.34]

Similarly, vai DEM occurs with non-specific noun phrases modified by an adjectival phrase (see [TSG_07_13]):

(3) ta vuu hiihii vai ta vuu visoasi
       NSP.ART shoot ginger DEM NSP.ART shoot young
   'a shoot of young ginger' [Vae. 1.98R]

The demonstratives bona (sg.) and bari (pl.) are anaphoric demonstratives:

(4) Be Mooge kahi peha te- o naono.
    when Monkey TAM climb PREP ART tree
    'Whenever Monkey climbed a tree,
       o naono bona kahi tagaru nana -
       ART tree DEM TAM shake IMPF
    the tree would be shaking, ... [Val. 2.73-75R]

The demonstratives vai 'this', voi 'that over there' and bona 'that' have the plural forms vaarii, vori and bari respectively.

(5) a kavara- n- a tavaan bari
       ART all- POSS:3SG- ART people DEM.PL
    'all these people' [Sia. 1. 145E]

(7) a- maa moon vaarii o be- beera.
    ART- PL woman DEM.PL ART RED- chiefly
    'these chiefly women' [Kae. 1.400R]

(8) a taonim a iana vaarii
       ART five ART fish DEM.PL
    'these five fish' [Ata. 1.47E]

Note that a tavaan 'people' in (5) and a iana 'fish' in(8) are formally singular. Further examples can be found in the corpus by searching for DEMONSTRATIVE and in the lexical data base by searching the field ps for dem.
7.10 Nominal attributes

The nucleus can be modified by an immediately following nominal. These compounds can express a variety of meanings, for example:

1. human beings or animals and their sex:

(1) a beiko moon
    ART child woman
    'a girl'

2. objects and their material:

(2) a inu kaapa
    ART house corrugated.iron
    'a house of corrugated iron'

3. objects and their purpose:

(3) a inu lotu
    ART house church
    'the church (building)'

4. containers and what they are filled with:

(4) o hoi kaukau
    ART basket sweet.potato
    'a basket sweet potatoes'

5. bundles, clusters, collections etc. and what they consist of:

(5) a hian are
    ART bunch betel-nut
    'a bunch of betel-nuts'
7.11 Adjectival attributes

The use of adjectival attributes, i.e. adjectivals that directly follow the head noun in the function of an attribute, is restricted to three types of constructions:

1. Lexicalised phrases such as

   (1) a taba hata
       ART thing  bad
       'a bad thing, a sin'

   (2) e keara beera e keara rutaa
       ART sibling big ART sibling small
       'the elder brother/ sister'   'the little brother/ sister'

   (3) o vuri tovuhu
       ART time  cold
       'the cold season' [Aro. 7.7E]

2. Constructions in which the adjectival modifies a collective or container nominal, which itself functions as a modifier, see [TSG_06_02], section 5, e.g.

   (4) Kasi ta vuu hiihii vai ta vuu visoas
       dig ART cluster ginger DEM ART cluster young
       'Dig this young shoot of ginger.' [Vae. 1.100E]

   Here visoas 'young' modifies the preceding nominal vuu 'cluster', whereas the whole phrase ta vuu visoas modifies ta vuu hiihii vai 'this cluster of ginger'.

3. Possessive compounds, which typically consist of a bodypart term followed by an adjectival, meaning that s.o. has a bodypart of the kind as described by the adjectival:

   (5) bene subuava vai a vunu karakarahi
       ART old.woman DEM ART hair long.and.unkept
       'this old woman with this long and unkept hair' [Vae. 1.183E]

   The phrase a vunu karakarahi is an adjectival phrase.
7.12 Verbal attributes

In attributive function, verbals denoting actions are usually reduplicated and directly follow the head. The semantic relation between the modifying verbal and the head noun can be of various kinds:

(1) [agent – action – patient (incorp. obj.)]
    a too garu- garuhu ravarava
    ART person RED- wash sarong
    ‘the person who washes the clothes and helps the woman to prepare food’ [Pur. 1.104R]

(2) [[instrument – action] agent/possessor (attribute)]
    A kanono vaga- vagana te- naa
    ART line RED- fish PREP- 1SG
    ‘my fishing line.’

(3) [place – action – patient (incorp. obj.)]
    A kanono va- vaa- hana ravarava rau.
    ART line RED- CAUS-hang clothes DEM
    ‘This is a clothes line.’ (lit. a line (where s.o. habitually hangs clothes) [TD kanono]

(4) [[place – action – patient (incorp.obj.)] agent/possessor]
    o poa va- vaa - tei nahu te ve
    ART bench RED- CAUS-stay pot PREP- 3SG
    ‘the bench where she put her pots’, lit. ‘her pot putting place’ [Iar 2.7 E]

(5) time action patient/possessor (attribute)
    O vuri vaa- tavusu n- a heiko he suguna ...
    ART time CAUS-go.out POSS- ART child CONJ arrive
    ‘When the time of bringing out the child had arrived, ...’,
    (lit. ‘the bringing-out time of the child’) [Iar 2.49E]

In (2) and (4) the agent/possessor is expressed by an alienable construction, while the patient/possessor in (5) is expressed by an inalienable construction.
7.13 Adjectival phrases (AP)

In contrast to verbals, adjectivals do not freely function as attributives, but only in lexicalised expressions. Otherwise modification by adjectivals requires the form of an adjectival phrase. The typical adjectival phrase has an adjectival as its head and is marked by an article. Adjectival phrases can be separated from the noun phrase by demonstratives and prepositional phrases:

(1) **te- a hausik vai a beera**
    PREP ART hospital DEM ART big
    'to this big hospital' [Sii. 1.292R]

The head of the AP can also be formed by a verbal as is shown in the following example where the verbal is modified by an adverb:

(2) **o suraa o mataa bara o asi va- mataa rakaha**
    ART fire ART good and ART burn ADV good very
    'a good and very well burning fire' [Hel. 4.7R]

The selection of the article is determined by the noun class of the modified noun. Whereas the nominals have three noun classes, the adjectival phrases only distinguish between two classes: the a-class which modifies nouns of the e-class and the a-class, and the o-class which modifies nouns of the o-class.

(3) **e maagee te- nnaa a kou**
    ART friend PREP ISG ART extravagant
    'my extravagant friend'

(4) **a otei a mataa rakaha**
    ART man ART good very
    'a very good man' [Pur. 1.709R]

(5) **o meho hena o voon**
    ART other name ART new
    'another new name' [Kae. 3.276R]

The adjectival phrase also agrees with the noun phrase with regard to specificity and number:

(6) **ta otei ta suunano**
    NSP.ART man NSP.ART chiefly
    'a chiefly man' [Daa. 1.3E]

(7) **to ravarava to voon**
    NSP.ART sarong NSP.ART new
    'a new sarong'

(8) **tea gono bona maa kiu vai a maa be- beera**
    COMPL get ART PL work DEM ART PL RED- big
    '(None of them missed out) in getting these top jobs' [Pur. 1.444R]

Similar to **maa**, numerals are repeated in the adjectival phrase.

(9) **a bua kiu a bua mataa**
    ART two work ART two good
    'the two good jobs' [Pur. 1.578R]

This repetition of a quantifying element is also observed with the diminutive particle, see [TSG_07_06] and with quantifying and collective nominals, see [TSG_06_02], section 5 and 6.

(10) **a si inu a si rutaa**
    ART DIM house ART DIM little
    'the little house'
As *bona maa kiu vai amaa bebeera* lit. 'these jobs the big (ones)' in (8) shows, the object article only occurs in the first position of the construction. Similar to appositional NPs, the AP is introduced by the basic article. Compare:

(13) \[\text{na rake- rake bata- na bona aasun e keara teve}\]
\[\text{TAM RED- look.for SIMUL- IMPF:3SG ART tuna, ART brother PREP.3SG}\]
'(he) is looking for the tuna, his brother' [Sha 1.126R]

Adjectival phrases seem to hold the last position of a noun phrase as the following example suggests in which the adjectival phrase follows the demonstrative and the prepositional possessive phrase.

(14) \[\text{ART PL N DEM [PREP NP]_{pp} [ART PL ADJ]_{pp}}\]
[\text{ta maa trakta vai te- a Public Works ta maa hata}]
\[\text{ART PL tractor DEM PREP- ART Public Works ART PL bad}\]
'some of these bad tractors from the Public works' [Pur. 1.990R]
7.14 Prepositional attributes

Most prepositional phrases in attributive function are introduced by *te*, see [TSG_07_15], example 1 and 2. Others are rare, e.g.

(1) ta karirava mena menaga
    NSP.ART for.ART ART
    'some karirava-leaves for the menaga (a dish)' [Aro. 2.71R], [Aro. 2.90E]
7.15 Possessive constructions

As other Oceanic languages, Teop distinguishes between alienable and inalienable possessive constructions, but it does not have possessive classifiers in alienable constructions (Lynch et al. 2002: 41-42). In alienable constructions the possessor is expressed by a prepositional phrase introduced by te. This prepositional phrase does not differ from other prepositional attributes, e.g.

(1) a baara te - a beiko
    ART  ball   PREP- ART  child
    ‘the child’s ball’

(2) a baara te- naa
    ART  ball   PREP- 1SG
    ‘my ball’

In inalienable possessive constructions, nominal possessors and possessor pronouns of the 3rd person are connected with the possessed noun by the possessive marker n- POSS:3SG and ri- POSS:3PL, see [TSG_06_07] section 6.7.2.

(3) a hena- n- o toro
    ART  name- POSS:3SG- ART  ship
    ‘the name of the ship’

(4) a hena n- e tetee
    ART  name  POSS:3SG- ART  Dad
    ‘Dad’s name’

(5) a hena ri- o moon
    ART  name POSS:3PL- ART  woman
    ‘the names(s) of the women’

(6) a hena na- e
    ART  name POSS:3SG- 3SG
    ‘his/her name’

(7) a hena ri- ori
    ART  name POSS:3PL- 3PL
    ‘their name’

For possessor pronouns of the 1st and the 2nd person see [TSG_06_07], section 2..

The possessive linker and the possessor can be separated from the possessed noun:

(8) a taba boo- boha n- a overe
    ART  thing RED- break POSS:3SG- ART  coconut
    'something to break the coconut with'
    (lit. 'the breaking thing of the coconut') [Aro. 4.38R]

(9) te- a tane- taneo rakaha na- e
    PREP- ART  RED- begin very POSS3SG-3SG
    ‘at its very beginning’ [Sap. 1.100R].

The meaning of alienable and inalienable possessive constructions

With a few exceptions, alienable possessive constructions express ownership, action-agent relationships and similar relationships in which someone has more or less control over something.

(10) a inu tenaa  my house
    a kaara tenaa  my car
The exceptions are the constructions of informal kinship terms, e.g. *e bubuu* ‘granny’, *e iaa* ‘mum’, and *e keara* ‘sister of a woman, brother of a man’.

(11)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>e bubuu tenaa</em></td>
<td>my grandpa, my grandma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>e tetee tenaa</em></td>
<td>my dad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>e iaa tenaa</em></td>
<td>my mum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>e keara tenaa</em></td>
<td>my sister/brother</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inalienable possessive constructions express relationships in which the possessor has no control over the controlled, for example, close relationships like kinship, part-whole relationships and the relationship between an action and a patient, see also example (9) and [TSG_07_17].

(12)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>e sina-naa</em></td>
<td>my mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>a kuri-naa</em></td>
<td>my hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>a kavara na vahara beiko</em></td>
<td>all the children (lit. 'the whole pf the children)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>a tanetaneo nae</em></td>
<td>its beginning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>a koro no potee</em></td>
<td>the carving of the canoe [Mor. 4.1R]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inalienable constructions are also used with local nouns, e.g.

(13)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>paa-n-o tako</em></td>
<td>under- POSS:3SG- ART tako-tree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'under the tako-tree'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inalienability is not a lexical category of nominals. Rather, types of construction are classified as alienable and inalienable. Therefore, one and the same nominal can enter an alienable and an inalienable construction:

(14)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>a vuhun te- ve</em></td>
<td>ART bow PREP- 3SG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'his bow ('the bow that he uses' [Mor. 2.17R])</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(15)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>a vuhun- m- an</em></td>
<td>ART bow- POSS:2SG 2SG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'your bow ('the bow that will kill you' [Aro. 7.87R])</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.16 The attributive *vaa*-phrase

The linker *vaa* connects locative and associative attributes to the nucleus of the noun phrase, see [TSG_05_02], section 5.2.7, [TSG_06_10]:

(1) a abana *vaa* Teapu
    ART  people  LK  Teop.Island
    'the people of Teop Island'

(2) a tootoo te-  naa *vaa* te-  a vaasusu
    ART  life  PREP- 1SG  LK  PREP  ART  teach
    'my life as a teacher' (lit. 'my life associated with teaching')[Pur. 1.1R]
7.17 Nominalisation

We speak of nominalisation when a verbal forms the nucleus of a noun phrase. Note that such nominalisations are not morphologically marked. The verbal can form the nucleus of noun phrases and enter the alienable and the inalienable possessive construction (see [TSG_07_15]):

(1) o moroko te- an
    ART speech  PREP- 2SG
    'your speech' (TD)

(2) o moroko n- o kasuana
    ART talk  POSS- ART land
    'the talk about the land' (TD)

The verbal can also keep verbal properties such as being combined with an adverb (3), a directional particle (4), or an object instead of an inalienable possesor (4, 6):

(3) ahiki ta popo va- tamaka
    not.exist NSP.ART live  ADV- sad
    'there wasn't any sad life' [Nan. 3.6E]

(4) a kiu te- ori koa a dee maa bona taba-an
    ART work PREP- 3PL only ART carry DIR ART thing-eat
    'their only work is bringing the food,' [San. 3.34R]

In (4) the nominalisation a dee maa bona taba an, lit. 'the carrying hither the food', contains a primary object marked by the object article. Since primary objects are only marked by the object article (bona here) if the subject is a 3rd person, we assume that the nominalisation a dee maa 'the bringing' has an implied 3rd person subject that is grammatically relevant. If our assumption is correct, the same nominalisation should have an object with a basic article if the implied subject is 1st or 2nd person

(5) A kiu te- naa koa a dee maa a taba-an
    ART work PREP- 1SG only ART carry DIR ART thing-eat
    My only work is bringing the food.   

Unfortunately the corpus does not contain nominalisations of this kind. The next example shows a nominalisation with a comitative prepositional phrase:

(6) me- a vavaasuku te- a maa moon me- ri bona abana vaari ei
    and- ART fall.in.love PREP ART PL woman with- OBJ ART men DEM DEM
    'and the falling in love of the women with these men' [Mom. 1.156E]

But nominalisations can also be used without any argument, just emphasising the state of affairs as such as in (3) or the following example (7), both being existential clauses:

(7) Te- o kake, ahiki ta meha taba to paku na- e,
    PREP-ART hut  NEG ART other  thing REL do  IMPF- 3SG
    a goroho koa
    ART sleep  only
    'In the hut, there was nothing to do but sleep.'
    lit. 'In the hust, there wasn't any other thing that he did, there was only sleeping. [Sia. 1.51E]
7.18 The sequential order of noun phrase constituents

Quantifying expressions precede the nucleus, while demonstratives and lexical attributes follow.

(1)  \[\text{ARTICLE} + \text{PLURAL MARKER} + \text{DIMINUTIVE} + \text{vahara} + \text{N} + \text{NOMINAL ATTRIBUTE}\]
    \[
    \text{bona maa si vahara beiko otei}
    \]
    \[\text{ART} \quad \text{PL} \quad \text{DIM} \quad \text{little} \quad \text{child} \quad \text{male} \]
    ‘the dear little boys’ [Kae 3.250R]

(2)  \[\text{ARTICLE} + \text{PLURAL MARKER} + \text{DIMINUTIVE} + \text{N} + \text{NOMINAL COMPLEMENT} + \text{POSSESSOR}\]
    \[
    \text{bona maa si ta tovu teve}
    \]
    \[\text{ART} \quad \text{PL} \quad \text{DIM} \quad \text{piece} \quad \text{sugar} \quad \text{cane} \quad \text{PREP.3SG} \]
    ‘his pieces of sugar cane’ [Nan. 3.75E]

(3)  \[\text{[ARTICLE} + \text{NUMERAL]}_{\text{NUM}}\text{[ARTICLE} + \text{DIMINUTIVE} + \text{RECIPROCAL} + \text{N} + \text{DEMONSTRATIVE}]\]
    \[
    \text{a bua si tom magee bari}
    \]
    \[\text{ART} \quad \text{two} \quad \text{ART} \quad \text{DIM} \quad \text{REC} \quad \text{friend} \quad \text{DEM} \]
    ‘these two little friends’ [Gol. 1.2R]

Numerals and adjectivals usually do not directly modify the head noun, but function as the head of numeral and adjectival phrases that modify the NP:

(4)  \[\text{[ARTICLE} + \text{meha} + \text{NUMERAL]}_{\text{NUM}}\text{[ART meha N]}_{\text{NP}}\]
    \[
    \text{[a _ meha _ dorana] [a meha tarakta]} \quad \text{[a _ meha _ dorana] [a meha tarakta]}
    \]
    \[\text{ART} \quad \text{other} \quad \text{four} \quad \text{ART} \quad \text{other} \quad \text{tractor} \]
    ‘another four tractors’ [Pur.1.939R]

(5)  \[\text{[ART PL N DEM]}_{\text{NP}}\text{[PREP NP]}_{\text{PP}}\text{[ART PL ADJ]}_{\text{AP}}\]
    \[
    \text{[ta maa trak vai] [te- a Public Works] [ta maa hata]} \quad \text{[ta maa trak vai] [te- a Public Works] [ta maa hata]}
    \]
    \[\text{ART} \quad \text{PL} \quad \text{truck} \quad \text{DEM} \quad \text{PREP-} \quad \text{ART} \quad \text{Public} \text{Works} \quad \text{ART} \quad \text{PL} \quad \text{bad} \]
    ‘some of these bad trucks from the Public works’ [Pur. 1.990R]

These appositional modifying phrases show agreement with respect noun class, specificity and number with the noun phrase they modify. The modifying AP follows the possessive PP in (4).
8 The verb complex

8.1 The elements of the verb complex and their sequential order

The predicate of Teop verbal clauses is formed by the VC, which besides can contain the following elements:

- prenuclear tense/aspect/mood particles (TAM), see [TSG_08_02]
- a discontinuous negation (NEG NEG), see [TSG_08_08]
- an incorporated nominal (N), see [TSG_08_03]
- serial verbs (V2 V3), see [TSG_08_05]
- several adverbs in prenuclear and post nuclear position (ADV1 ADV2 ADV3 ADV4)
- a valence-changing clitic (APP) or an incorporated preposition, see [TSG_08_06], [TSG_06_09]
- an object marker (OBJ), see [TSG_06_07], section 6.7.3
- a directional particle (DIR), see [TSG_08_07]

The sequential order of the VC elements is:

\[
\text{NEG TAM ADV1 N V1 V2 V3 ADV2 NEG ADV3 APP/PREP OBJ DIR IM ADV4 IMPF}
\]

The boundaries of the verb phrase are defined by the negation saka/ sa or the initial TAM particle and the phrase final imperfective aspect marker (IMPF). The IMPF marker is a portemanteau morph which indicates imperfective aspect and person, see [TSG_06_07], section 4. For example:

(1) \[\text{saka tapaku pinopino bata haa-na} \]
\[\text{NEG be.done be.unorganised SIMUL NEG-IMPF:3SG} \]
\'it is not done in an unorganised way' [Daa. 2.122R]

The number, the form and the semantic role of arguments is determined by the valence of the VC, which can be different from the valence of the verb and the root of the verb. An intransitive verb, for instance, can combine with an applicative particle (2b) or an incorporated preposition (3) and form a transitive VC:

(2a) \[\text{enaa [na moroko nom]} \]
\[1SG TAM talk IMPF:1SG \]
\'I am talking.'

(2b) \[\text{enaa [na moroko ni nom]} a otei vai \]
\[1SG TAM talk APP IMPF:1SG ART man DEM \]
\'I am talking about this man.' [Daa. 2.92R]

(3) \[O bai bona he \]
\[ART mango DEM CONJ \]
\[na sun nanaoana rakaha kahi nana] bona vaan. \]
\[TAM stand be.far.away very from IMPF:3SG ART village \]
\'This mango tree stood far away from the village.' [Mat. 1.5R]

On the other hand, a transitive verb, e.g. rakerake 'look for s.th.' can combine with an incorporated object and thus yield an intransitive VC.
8.1 The elements of the verb complex

(4a)  
\[Na \ rakerake \ rori] \quad \text{bona kehaa vaj}\n
TAM search.for IMPF:3PL ART shell DEM

'They are looking for this shell.'

(4b)  
\[Na \ rakerake \ kehaa \ rori.\]

TAM search.for shell IMPF:3PL

'They are looking for shells.'
8.2 Tense, aspect and mood

In our corpus we have identified a number of prenuclear tense/aspect/mood markers (TAM) some of which can be combined with the postnuclear immediateness marker (IM), and the imperfective aspect marker (IMPF, cf. [TSG_06_07] section 6.7.5).

The immediateness marker – hence its name – expresses that a past or future event or state of being is immediately related to or relevant for the time of the utterance or the time talked about..

Table 1: TAM makers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TAM</th>
<th>description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kahi</td>
<td>event/ state of affairs that occurs in the future or after a point of reference in the past</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>na</td>
<td>present or past event/ state of affairs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paa</td>
<td>event/ state of affairs that involves a change of the preceding situation; either in the past or in the future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pasi</td>
<td>event/ state of affairs in the future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mene</td>
<td>event/ state of affairs that is to be avoided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tau</td>
<td>event that occurs immediately after the point of reference in the past or the moment of the utterance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toro</td>
<td>obligation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are also many contexts where the verb complex does not contain any TAM marker.

The function of the tense, aspect and mood markers has not been analysed in detail yet. In particular, we have not investigated

- which TAM markers can cooccur with particular temporal adverbs, e.g. *bata* 'at the same time, simultaneously, along', *roho* 'before', *vaevuru* 'already';
- how the semantics of verbalis interacts with the meaning of TAM markers and whether or not there are semantic types of verbalis that cannot occur with certain TAM markers;
- if the negation can be combined with all TAM markers;
- under which conditions or in which contexts verbal clauses do not have any TAM marking;
- the function of reduplication.

Therefore, the descriptions below cannot be regarded as conclusive.

8.2.1 kahi

Without any further tense or aspect markers, *kahi* locates the event in the future as seen from the moment of the utterance

(1)  **Enaa kahi** nao tea tara te- a taba vai

1SG TAM go COMPL look PREP- ART thing DEM

'I'll go to have a look at this thing ...' [Pur. 5.16E]

or a point of time in the past:
(2) Tavusu vai o boni to kahi nao pete ni ori.
    come now ART day REL TAM go continue APP 3PL
    'Now the time came to move on.' (lit. 'that they would continue to go'). [Sii. 1.130R]

It is also used in counterfactual conditional clauses, see [TSG_10_06].

**kahi + IMPF**

When *kahi* is used with the imperfective aspect marker (IMPF), the event talked about follows immediately after the utterance, happening within a time span that seems to be conceptualised as present:

(3) Naa kahi asun u- nom- an ei!
    1SG TAM kill OBJ- IMPF-2SG now
    'I'll kill you now!' [Aro. 2.111R], cf. [Viv. 1.117R]

We frequently find *kahi + IMPF* in the introductory sentences of narratives:

(4) Enaa kahi hutate ni nom a oraa vai nabunuu.
    1SG TAM tell.story APP IMPF ART spirit LK olden.days
    'I am going to tell a story about a spirit from the olden days.' [San. 1.0-1R]

In combination with the imperfective aspect marker, *kahi* can also express habitual or iterative actions in the past.

(5) Be Moogee kahi peha te- o naono,
    when Monkey TAM climb PREP- ART tree
    'Whenever Monkey climbed a tree,
    o naono bona kahi tagaru nana -
    ART tree DEM TAM shake IMPF
    the tree would be shaking,
    o- re kuu oha maa.
    3SG- CONJ fall pass DIR
    so that it would fall down.' [Val. 2.73-75R]

The habitual use of *kahi* is frequently found in the interviews on traditional practices.

**kahi + u**

The meaning of *kahi* in combination with the immediateness marker (IM) *u* is less clear than the combination *paa + u* (see below). The combination *kahi ... u* seems to indicate that the event is of immediate relevance for what is going to happen later or is planned for the future.

(6) E masta vai kahi vaahae vu ara- ara
    ART white.man DEM TAM give.a.lift IM OBJ 1INC
    kahi sue ki- u naa
    TAM tell DAT- IM 1SG
    o- re vaahae ara- ara
    3SG CONJ give.a.lift OBJ- 1INC
    a- re gunaha maa,
    1INC CONJ get.down DIR
    'The white man will give us a lift, I'll tell him to give us a lift so that we'll get down.' [Pur. 2.259 R]
8.2.2 na

Na occurs by itself or in combination with the imperfective aspect. In contrast to all other TAM markers, it only occurs in VCs denoting events that actually happen or happened and therefore could be called a realis marker.

In the first example na refers to the past, whereas the reduplication expresses habituality and the adverb roho that this was a long time ago.

(7) \textit{Te- o peho vuri a peha si otei na tei - tei roho}  
\textit{PREP- ART one time ART one DIM man TAM RED- be before}  
'Once upon a time, there was a man, ...' [Val. 2.0E]

When na is combined with the imperfective aspect, the VC can express a past event of some duration that is the background for some other event, or it locates the event in the actual present:

(8) \textit{Te- o peho vuri, eori na tei rori te- o peho naono}  
\textit{PREP- ART one time 3PL TAM stay IMPF PREP- ART one tree}  
'Once they were staying on a tree.' [Val. 2.10-11R]

(9) \textit{Ean bene na tei nom paa- n- o kasuana?}  
\textit{2SG DEM TAM stay IMPF below-POSS-ART ground}  
'Are you staying below the surface of the ground?' [Val. 2.67 R]

8.2.3 paa

Paa expresses a change of situation in the past or the future:

(10) \textit{Eori he tei rori Solomon}  
\textit{3PL CONJ stay IMPF Solomon}  
\textit{me iaa paa gigo a- naa Solomon}  
\textit{and mum TAM pregnant OBJ- 1SG Solomons}  
'While they were staying in the Solomons, mum got pregnant with me in the Solomon Islands' [Sii. 2.114-116 R]

(11) \textit{Be-an rake tea nao, ean paa nao papahiana.}  
\textit{if- 2SG want COMPL go 2SG TAM go alone}  
'If you want to go, you go by yourself.' [Aro. 5.142R]

\textit{paa + u}

The immediateness marker u specifies that a change of situation is immediately relevant for the current situation. In the following example the parents have just arrived with their daughter at her future parents-in-law's house. They say:

(12) \textit{Bara, enam ei,}  
\textit{alright 1EXC DEM}  
'Alright, we are here,  
\textit{Enam paa mee ma- u e Taguone tea atono.}  
\textit{1EXC TAM take DIR- IM ART Taguone COMPL leave.with.s.o.}  
We have brought Taguone to leave (her) with (you).
8.2 Tense, aspect and mood

Note that paa in the last clause of the example refers to a future event.

**paa + IMPF**

The combination of paa with the imperfective aspect is rare. The following example suggests that it expresses a state of being that has resulted from a previous change of state:

(13) **Paa asun vaevuru maa** nom.

TAM kill now DIR IMPF

'(She) is killed now.' [Aro. 6.92 R]

**8.2.4 pasi**

Pasi is similar to kahi in that it refers to future or counterfactual events, but it is less frequent than kahi. The difference between pasi and kahi is not quite clear. Its frequent use with the second person suggests that it is more polite or less determined that kahi.

(14) pasi + IMPF and pasi + IM

Eara pasi nao rara tahii ei.

TAM go IMPF sea now

'We will go to the sea now.' [Sii. 6.163R]

**pasi + u**

Similar to kahi + u, pasi + u expresses that a future event is immediately relevant for a later subsequent event, which in the following example is the killing of the person. Note that this event is followed by a change of situation indicated by paa in paa gunaha.

(15) Ean pasi gono ka ma- u a naa o taapeau, taapeau te- naa

TAM get DAT.OBJ-DIR- IM OBJ- 1SG ART spear spear PREP- 1SG

'You should get me a spear, my spear eara paa gunaha, enaa re asun va- mate nom a aba

TAM go.down 1SG CONJ hit CAUS-dead IMPF ART person

we go down, and then I will kill the person.' [Eno. 1.141-143R]

**pasi + IMPF**

The combination of the pasi with the imperfective aspect expresses very much the same temporal relation as kahi + IMPF:

(16) Eam pasi tei nom be- naa nao tea vaahili pi.

TAM stay IMPF when 1SG COMPL hunt.pigs

'You will be staying here, while I go pig hunting.' [Mat. 1.47R]

It also occurs in the introductory sentences of stories (cf. [Auv. 1.0R]; [Tah. 1.0R]).

---

1 DIR 'for us, as we can see now'.
8.2 Tense, aspect and mood

8.2.5 mene

_Mene_ is used to express apprehensions and warnings, and translates as 'might, lest, otherwise, or else':

(17) Aha! Ean _mene_ ani anaa, ean a roosuu.

Aha! 2SG TAM eat me 2SG ART giant
(The poor man saw the giant and he got frightened and said.)
'Aha! I am afraid you will eat me, you are a giant!' [San. 2.14-15E]

In the next example _mene_ expresses a warning:

(18) Ean _toro_ gunaha _koa_,

2SG must go.down just
_enaa mene_ busu ni _ki- vu- an te- o bakubaku
1SG TAM throw APP DAT- OBJ- 2SG PREP- ART shark
_o- re paa an _vu- an!
3SG/PL- CONJ TAM eat OBJ 2SG
'You must go down now, or else I throw you to the the sharks so that they eat you!' [Vae. 1. 324-325R]

8.2.6 tau

Similar to _kahi_, _tau_ locates an event in the future. In most contexts it is translated by 'be about to'. The story from which the example above (18) is taken continues:

(19) Me roosuu paa sue _ki nao bona_,

and.ART giant TAM say DAT DIR 3SG
"Ahiki, _enaa tau_ sa an haa _vu- an_,
no 1SG TAM NEG eat NEG OBJ- 2SG
_enaa tau_ vaasusu _vu- an tea paku a peha taba mene haihai _vu an!"
1SG TAM teach OBJ- 2SG COMPL make ART one thing for help OBJ- 2SG
'And the giant said to him, "No, I am not about to eat you, I am going to teach you something for helping you." [San 2.16-17E]

Similar to _kahi_ and _pasi_, _tau_ is found in the introductory sentences of narratives, e.g.

(20) _Enaa tau_ vahutate _ni- o vahutate...

1SG TAM tell APP- ART story
'I am about to tell a story ...' [Mor. 2.0R]; [Mor. 3.1R]; [Val. 1.1R]

8.2.7 toro

In most contexts _toro_ expresses obligation:

(21) Ean _toro_ vagana _maa_.

2SG must go.fishing DIR
'You must go fishing for us.' [Iar 2.134 R]
8.2 Tense, aspect and mood

(22) **Me- ori paa paku bono peho vakokona**
and 3PL TAM make ART one plan

*toro* murina ori.
must follow 3PL

'And they made a plan that they had to follow.' [Val 2.22-23 R]

But *toro* can also be used to express that someone wanted something to happen, e.g.

(23) **Ei na rake nana ta aba toro nao mi- e tahii.**
now TAM want IMPF ART person could go with 3SG:SUBJ sea

'Now he wanted a person he could go with to the sea.' [Aro. 5.8-9 R]

or imagined something to happen that did not happen, e.g.

(24) **Enaa hiki roho to hum toro hae maa.**
1SG not.have before ART place could board DIR

'I did not have a place where I could board.' [Aro. 15.49 R]

Note that in both examples *toro* occurs in the predicate of a relative clause that modifies a non-specific NP. Relative clauses with *toro* lack the relative pronoun *to*. For relative clauses see [TSG_10_02].

8.2.8 The imperfective aspect

The imperfective aspect marker expresses that a situation is simultaneous with the moment of the utterance or some other point of reference given by the context, e.g.

(25) **Materua, havee to paku vaha mi nom- an a beiko?**
Materua, what REL do again with IMPF 2SG ART child

'What are you doing with the child?' [Aro. 6.44 R]

(26) **Be- a otei nao tea tataeana, e subuava na nao bata- na.**
when ART man go COMPL defecate ART old.woman TAM go along-IMPF

'When the man went to the toilet, the old women went along (with him).' [Aro. 7.58-59R]

The imperfective aspect can be used with the imperative:

(27) **Oh Gii, Gii paapoo mi nom a sibono maanii,**
Oh Gii, Gii stay.at.home with IMPF ART rack possum

nam nao nao roho mohina ...
1EXC go DIR first garden

'Oh Gii, Gii stay at home with the possum rack, we go to the garden ...' [Aro 2.39-41R]
8.3 Incorporated nominals

Incorporated nominals directly follow the head of the verb complex and can express various semantic roles such as the patient (1), the place (2) or the cause (3). If the head of the verb complex is a transitive verbal, the verb phrase can be intransitivised by the incorporation of a nominal. Compare the two turns in the following dialogue: the first one shows an incorporated nominal with an indefinite meaning (i.e. *karuu*), the second one the corresponding definite noun phrase (i.e. *amaa kuruu ei*):

(1) "Bara, ean paa osi karuu ma- u?" .
   "Well, did you pick nuts?"
   "A! Enaa paa osi vaevuru maa a- maa karuu ei."

   "Yes, I already picked the nuts now." [Vae. 1.79-80R]

In the next example the nominal *kasuana* is first used in a locative prepositional phrase and then incorporated. In both cases it denotes the place where the child is put.

(2) Kahi va- hio ri- ori te- o kasuana.
   TAM CAUS-sit IMPF- 3PL PREP-ART ground
   'They are going to make (him) sit on the ground.' [Kor.18R]

   ... me-ori paa va- hio kasuana- u bona beiko.
   and-3PL TAM CAUS-sit ground IM ART child
   '...and they have made the child sit (on the) ground.' [Kor. 13-14R]

Finally, incorporated nominals can express the cause of an event. The example given below comes from a legend. The giant sees a leaf from his breadfruit tree hovering in the air and asks the leaf:

(3) Ean paa ta- pesu kukurii ma- u gee?
   2SG TAM AC- pick little.snake DIR- IM or
   'Did you break off (because of a) snake?'

   Ean paa ta- pesu iravata ma- u gee?
   2SG TAM AC- pick wind DIR- IM or
   Did you break off (because of the) wind?' [Mor. 2.45-46R]
8.4 Adverbials

Similar to the categories of noun, verb and adjective, the category of adverbial is defined as a syntactic category. With the exception of nominals, all content words that function as a modifier in a verb complex are classified as adverbials and abbreviated as *adv.* in the Teop lexical database. This syntactic definition includes:

adverbs which only occur as modifiers of verbals, see [TSG_06_05]

(1) O suraa toro asi va- mataa.
   ART fire must burn ADV- good
   'The fire must burn well.' [Hel. 3.31R]

(2) Enaa kahi pahin vahio koa u- nom- an.
   1SG TAM immediately marry just IMPF- 2SG
   'I will immediately marry you.' [Daa. 1.255R]

adjectivals

(3) E guu na dee peree ri- ori.
   ART pig TAM take raw IMPF:3PL- PRON:3PL
   They take the pig raw (i.e. their portions) [Kae. 1.78R]

and verbals (serial verbs) like *pete* in sentences below:

(4) Ean toro vaasu su pete ama- nam.
   2SG must teach continue OBJ:1EXC- PRON:1EXC
   'You must continue to teach us.' [Sii. 6.69R]

All adverbials have a fixed position within the verb complex, though only a few occur before the nucleus. These can be found in the Teop Lexical Database by searching for the *ps/* field for *prehead mod.*

The serial verbs are discussed in the next section [TSG_08_05].
8.5 Serial verbs

Strictly speaking, serial verbs are verbals that follow the head of a verb complex and function as an adverbial. But we stick to the common term serial verbs and treat them here in a separate section because serial verb has become a well established category in linguistics. For this reason we also used the term VERB SERIALISATION as a keyword in the grammatical notes of the R- and E-versions of the corpus of annotated recordings.

The data show up to three verbals in a serial verb construction:

(1) **Gono koa bona ta naono, me [navuhu boofoha] bono sinivi**
    got just ART piece wood and hit break ART canoe
    '(He) just got the stick and hit the canoe to pieces.' [Aro. 2.112R]

(2) **Ean re-[paa gono takun tavus kahi] e bono suraa**
    2SG CONJ- TAM get collect go.out from 3SG ART fire
    'Then you take them out of the fire.' [Hel. 4.16R]

The syntactic and semantic relations that hold between the serial verbs themselves and between the serial verbs and the arguments of the clause can be quite complicated as the following example shows.

(3) ... **me-ori [paa taneo popo potee] bona bua tom tana.**
    and- 3PL TAM start live be.like ART two REC couple
    '... and they started living together like a couple.' [Nah. 2.103E]

The head of the VC is **taneo** 'start' which as a transitive verbal governs **popo** 'live'. The intransitive verbal **popo** 'live' is modified by the verbal **potee** 'be like'. Through **potee** the verb complex becomes transitive and governs the primary object **bona bua tom tana** 'a couple'. Similar examples where the valence of the VC is increased by a serial verb are the following two clauses in which the serial verb construction consists of two verbals and expresses two simultaneous events:

(4) **me-ori [paa vagana umee] bono gohoho.**
    and-3PL TAM fish forget ART tide
    'and they fished (and) forgot about the in-coming tide.' [Iar. 2.72E]

(5) **Me-ori [varavihi ihuana rori] ta aba**
    and- 3PL hide wait IMPF ART person ...
    'They were hiding (and) waiting for someone ...' [Eno. 1.156R]

The next example also shows valence increase but here the nucleus is an adjectival:

(6) **Enaa [na kikisi oha- u nom] an.**
    1SG TAM strong surpass- OBJ:2SG IMPF 2SG
    'I am stronger than you.' [Val. 2.10E]

The construction of an adjectival followed by the serial verb **oha** is the common expression for comparison.

For further information on serial verbs search the corpus under the keyword VERB SERIALISATION and Reinig (2004).
8.6 The applicative

The applicative is expressed by the particle *ni* which follows the head of the verb complex and its lexical modifiers but precedes the object marker, the directional particle, the immediateness marker and the adverb *roho*. It changes the valence of the VC in that it introduces a new primary object or promotes a secondary object or adjunct to the position of a primary object. With 1\textsuperscript{st} and 2\textsuperscript{nd} person pronominal objects, the applicative particle is combined with the incorporated dative preposition *ki/ k-*.

(1) \textit{Enaa \{na tamaka kurus \underline{ni} ki- u nom\} an.}
\begin{align*}
\text{1 SG TAM sad very APP DAT- OBJ:2SG IMPF 2SG} \\
\'I feel very sorry for you.' [Sia. 1.66 E]
\end{align*}

8.6.1 The applicative with intransitive verbs

When combined with intransitive verbs (i.e. intransitive verbal heads of VCs), the applicative transtivises the verb complex so that it governs a primary object:

(2) \textit{Enaa na \{tamaka\} nom}
\begin{align*}
\text{1 SG TAM sad IMPF} \\
\'I am sad'
\end{align*}

(3) \textit{Enaa \{na tamaka \underline{ni} nom\}-ee.}
\begin{align*}
\text{1 SG TAM sad APP IMPF- 3SG} \\
\'I am sad about it/ because of it.' [Pur. 2.444R]
\end{align*}

The applicative particle is regularly used with verbs of emotion to express who or what the emotion is aimed at, e.g. \textit{hevee ni ‘be angry with'}, \textit{mararae ni ‘be happy about}, etc. Other semantic roles expressed by applied objects are cause, instrument, and content:

Table 1: Semantic roles of applied objects:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>simple verb</th>
<th>applicative</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>instrument</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vagana</td>
<td>go fishing</td>
<td>vagana ni use for fishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>magisi</td>
<td>warm o.s.</td>
<td>magisi ni use for warming o.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cause</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goroho</td>
<td>sleep</td>
<td>goroho ni sleep because of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mate</td>
<td>die</td>
<td>mate ni die of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oga</td>
<td>cry</td>
<td>oga ni cry of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>content</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moroko</td>
<td>speak</td>
<td>moroko ni speak about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vahutate</td>
<td>tell a story</td>
<td>vahutate tell a story about</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.6.2 The applicative with transitive verbs

The applicative does not seem to occur with transitive verbs. Verbs denoting actions that affect s.o. or s.th. and can be carried out with an instrument can be used in ditransitive constructions with the primary object referring to the patient and the secondary one to the instrument:

(4) \textit{SUBJ VC OBJ:patient}
\begin{align*}
\text{[Enaa] \{kahi asun u- nom\}-[an]!} \\
\text{1 SG TAM kill OBJ:2SG IMPF- 2SG} \\
\'I am going to kill you!' [San. 1.107R] \\
\end{align*}
8.6 The applicative

There are two types of simple (non-causative) ditransitive verbs: the recipient oriented verbs that take a recipient and the patient oriented verbs that take a patient as their primary object, see [TSG_06_03], section 1.2. When these verbs are combined with the applicative particle, their secondary object takes the position of the primary object, while the original primary object is removed or demoted to the position of an adjunct.

A typical ditransitive recipient oriented verbal is hee 'give s.o. s.th.', e.g.

(8) SUBJ:agent VC OBJ1:recipient OBJ2:theme
    Me [Toko] [paa hee] [bene Sookara] [bona overe].
    and ART Toko TAM give ART Sookara ART coconut
    'Toko gave Sookara the coconut.' (compare [Sia. 1.68E])

When hee is used with the applicative, the theme becomes the primary object whereas the recipient is either removed or demoted to the position of an adjunct.

(9) SUBJ:agent VC OBJ1:theme ADJUNCT:recipient
    [eori to] [hee ni nao-ri] [bona taba ani] [yo kuri- ri- ori]
    3PL REL give APP DIR-IMPF:3PL ART ART thing eat GOAL hand- POSS- 3PL
    'it is them who give the food into their hands' [Bua. 1.221R]

This means that the use of the applicative results in valence reduction.
With ditransitive patient oriented verbs the applicative promotes the instrumental secondary object to the primary object position and demotes the patient object.

(12) OBJ2:instr. VC SUBJ OBJ1:patient

```
Me paa sue ki bona [bona taba] [toro booboh] e bona overe,
and TAM say DAT 4SG ART thing must break 3SG ART coconut
and said to her the thing must break she the coconut
'And (the old woman) told her what to use for breaking the coconut.'
```

```
me paa boha voen,
and TAM say this
```

```
"Ahiki, enaa [na booboh ni nom] [a kahoo ri- o aba]."
no 1SG TAM break APP IMPF ART Kopf POSS-ART person
and (she) said, "No, I only use the head of human beings for breaking."
```

```
[Booboh vai ni ] [bona kahoo n- e subuava.]
break then APP ART head POSS- ART old.woman
Then (she) used the old woman's head for breaking.' [Aro. 4.102-104R]
```

Again the applicative serves as a means of valence reduction. The same applies to the applicative construction with gono (see example (7)):

(13) "Eam o upa?"

```
2PL ART unable.to.fish
"Are you unable to catch fish?"
```

```
"Ahiki, enam na toku koa nom
no 1EXC.PL TAM not.know.just IMPF
[OBJ1:instrument] [VC ] [SUBJ:agent]
[a tabae] [toro gono ni] [nam]."
ART what must get APP 1EXC.PL
"No, we just don't know what me must use to get (some)." [Sii 6.13-14R]
```

---

1 Lit. 'told her the thing she must break the coconut with.' The NP *bona taba* 'the thing' is the secondary object of the verb *sue* in the matrix clause and simultaneously the topicalised secondary object of the embedded clause.
8.7 The directional particles

There are two directional particles:

- **maa** 'hither, towards the deictic centre of who or what is talked about'
- **nao** ‘thither, away from the deictic centre of who or what is talked about'

The directional particles occur in the verb complex after the applicative particle or an incorporated preposition and before the immediateness marker:

\[ V \text{ ADV APP/ PREP } \text{maa/nao} \text{ IM IMPF} \]

They are most frequently combined with motion verbs and verbals of communication. With motion verbs they specify the direction of the movement and can often be translated by 'come' and 'go', e.g.

(1) **Gunaha maa!**

\[ \text{move.down} \text{ DIR} \]

'Come down here!'

With communication verbals **maa** and **nao** can be used instead of an argument referring to the addressee:

(2) **Be-a paree hivi maa, can re- paa sue nao, ...**

\[ \text{if- ART} \text{ paree ask} \text{ DIR} \text{ 2SG CONJ-TAM} \text{ say} \text{ DIR} \]

'If the paree asks you, then you say to him, ... [Mor. 3.61E]

The directional particle **maa** is also used to express that the subject is the beneficiary of an action.

(3) **enaa paa asun vaevuru maa e Suvin**

\[ \text{1SG TAM} \text{ kill} \text{ already} \text{ DIR} \text{ ART PN} \]

'I have already killed Suvin for us' [San. 1.88E]
8.8 Negation

The negation *saka ... haa* is a discontinuous morpheme. While *saka* holds the first position in the clause, *haa* occurs after the lexical elements of the verb complex, i.e. it comes after the adverbs which are derived by *va-* from adjectivals.

(1) E Ririgono he saka baitono pete haa.
   ART Ririgono CONJ NEG listen continue NEG
   'But Ririgono was still not listening.' [Nah. 1.58E]

(2) A moon bona saka tei haa mi nana bono navisi.
   ART woman DEM NEG be NEG with IMPF ART vagina
   'This woman did not have a vagina.' (lit. 'was not with a vagina') [Pur. 5.68E]

The negation *saka ... haa* does not only negate verbals like *baitono* (1) or *tei* (2), but also nominals (3), pronouns (4), nominal constructions (5) and prepositional phrases (6):

(3) negated nominal
   saka abana haa- ri
   NEG men NEG- IMPF:3PL
   'They were not men.' [San. 2.35E]

(4) negated pronoun
   Saka eara haa- na a abana to pasi gogi rara.
   NEG PRON:1INC NEG IMPF:3SG ART men REL TAM gogi IMPF:1INC
   'Its is not us, the men, who will do the gogi-ritual.' [Sii. 6.106E]

(5) negated nominal construction
   Saka peha taem haa- na to nomaa o toro.
   NEG one time NEG IMPF REL come ART ship
   'Not only one time did the ship come.' [Pur. 2.12R]

(6) negated prepositional phrase
   A sikuuru saka te- o beiko haa na.
   ART school NEG PREP ART child NEG IMPF:3SG
   'This school was not for the children.' [Pur. 1.213R]

There is even one example in which *saka ... haa* negates a clause:

(7) O mana, koara rori evehe saka eve mamana haa- na
   ART truth speak.language IMPF:PL but NEG 3SG real NEG- IMPF:3SG
   'The truth is, they speak (their) language, but it is not (the) real (language).' [Pur. 2.411R]

The only TAM marker found with *saka ... haa* constructions can be marked for the imperfective aspect (2-7) shows that they are verb complexes; or put differently, *saka ... haa* does not only verbalise nominals but also prepositional phrases and clauses.

For other negations search for *ahiki, goe, hiki*, and *vahiki* in the corpus and the Teop Lexical Database.
9 Argument structure

9.1 Subjects and objects

Teop has intransitive, transitive and ditransitive clauses. On the basis of their coding and their syntactic behaviour, three kinds of argument can be distinguished:

1. the subject;
2. the primary object (i.e. the sole object of transitive clauses and the first object of unmarked ditransitive clauses that exactly shows the same morphosyntactic properties as the sole object on transitive clauses;
3. the secondary object (i.e. the second object in unmarked ditransitive clauses).

(1)  

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Me} \quad \text{Toko} \\
\text{and, ART} \quad \text{Toko} \\
\text{[paa hee]} \\
\text{[TAM give]} \\
\text{[bene Sookara]} \\
\text{[ART Sookara]} \\
\text{[bona overe].} \\
\text{[ART coconut]} \\
\end{array}
\]

'Toko gave Sookara the coconut.' [Sia. 1.68E]

The coding strategies are:

1. Sequential order of arguments, see below [TSG_09_02] and [TSG_05_01]
2. Cross referencing pronominals, see below [TSG_09_03] and [TSG_06_07]
3. Articles, see below [TSG_09_04] and [TSG_07_02]

Teop is a verb-second language. The position before the verb complex is occupied by the topic of the clause which can be the subject, the primary or the secondary object, see [TSG_09_02]. If the topic can be understood from the context, it can be left out so that the clause starts with the verb complex, see below [TSG_09_05].

Teop does not distinguish between active and passive voice. But transitive verbs expressing destruction and a few others can be detransitivised by the derivational prefix \textit{ta-}, see [TSG_06_03], section 3, and TD for verbs derived by \textit{ta-}. A further translation equivalent of English passives is a construction with a topicalised object and an impersonal 3PL pronoun in the function of the subject:

(2)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{A si otei paa asun vahaa koa v- ori hanana.} \\
\text{ART DIM man TAM kill again just IM-3PL road} \\
\end{array}
\]

'The man was killed on the road.' (lit. 'The man they just again killed on the road.') [Aro. 7.128E]
9.2 The sequential order of arguments

The sequential order of arguments is to some extent variable. The first position of the verbal clause is that of the topic and can be occupied by all three types of argument: the subject, the primary object or the secondary object. If the subject is the topic, the first postverbal position is held by the primary object and the second one by the secondary object. If an object holds the topic position, the subject directly follows the verb complex and the second postverbal position is held by the other object.

Table 1: Sequential order of arguments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOPIC</th>
<th>VC</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>subject</td>
<td>VC</td>
<td>primary object</td>
<td>secondary object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>primary object</td>
<td>VC</td>
<td>subject</td>
<td>secondary object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secondary object</td>
<td>VC</td>
<td>subject</td>
<td>primary object</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples

(1) [Me Toko] [paa hee] [bene Sookara] [bona overe].
'Toko gave Sookara the coconut.' [Sia. 1.68E]

(2) [E Toko] [na asun va-mate ri nana] [bona maa keusu] [bona vasu]
'Toko is killing the rats with a stone.'

(3) [A kave vaa nabunu] [na dao ri]- [ori] [bona kave baoru,]
'The net of the past, they called kave baoru.' [San. 2.5R]

(4) [O paku bona ve] [pasi hee ri vu] - [e] [bona a ba noasinai]
'But this feast he will give his relatives.' [MLV 1.22R]
9.3 Cross-referencing pronominals

Irrespective of their position, the subject is cross-referenced by the imperfective aspect marker and the primary object by the object marker.

Figure 1: Cross-referencing pronominals

While the imperfective marker shows some syncretism, the object marker does not show homonymous forms. It cross-references all person/number categories except for the third person singular. 1SG and 1EXC.PL object pronouns take the object marker a- as a prefix and can additionally be cross-referenced by the object marker within the verb complex. The pronouns of other persons only combine with the object marker if the object marker holds the last position of the VC. In this case the object marker and the pronoun form a phonological word that can be called object pronoun.

Table 1: Object marker, imperfective aspect marker and pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Pronoun</th>
<th>Imperfective aspect</th>
<th>Object marker</th>
<th>Object pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>enaa / naa</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>a- / ama</td>
<td>anaa, amanaa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1EXC.PL</td>
<td>enam / nam</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>a- / ama</td>
<td>anam, amanam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2SG</td>
<td>ean / an</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>u</td>
<td>vuan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2PL</td>
<td>eam / am</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>ame-</td>
<td>ameam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 INCL PL</td>
<td>eara / ara</td>
<td>rara / ra</td>
<td>ara</td>
<td>aaraara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3SG</td>
<td>eove / eve / ee / o</td>
<td>nana / na</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>e, eve, i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3PL</td>
<td>ori</td>
<td>rori / ri</td>
<td>ri</td>
<td>riori</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4SG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4SG/PL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(ri)</td>
<td>bari</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) **Enaa kahi hua nao nom**
1SG TAM paddle DIR IMPF:1SG
'I will paddle away.' [Vae. 1.9E]

(2) **Enaa kahi asun u- nom- an**
1SG TAM kill OBJ:2SG- IMPF:1SG- PRON: 2SG
'I will kill you.' [San. 1.107R]

(3) **Nomana to kahi asun va- mate-mate ri nom naa ori**
today REL will hit CAUS-RED- dead OBJ:3PL IMPF:1SG PRON:1SG PRON:3PL
'It's today that I'll kill them!' [Eno. 1.53E]

The imperfective aspect marker, however, does not agree with the subject if the subject is a third person and the object a first or a second person. In this case the imperfective aspect marker cross-references the object.

(4) **be ori von ama nom a- nam.**
as.long.as PRON:3PL pay OBJ:1PL.EXC IMPF:1PL.EXC OBJ:1PL.EXC- PRON:1PL.EXC
'(We'll do your work,) as long as they pay us.' [Pur. 1.843R]
9.4 Argument marking by articles

The articles can be classified into three classes: the specific articles, the non-specific articles and the partitive article. The specific articles are further divided into basic and object articles. Both the specific and the non-specific articles distinguish between three noun classes and singular and plural, see [TSG_07_02]. For the coding of arguments, only the distinction between basic and object articles is relevant.

Table 1: Basic and object articles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>noun classes</th>
<th>a-class</th>
<th>o-class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>e-class</td>
<td>ere, o</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basic article</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>object article</td>
<td>bone, bene</td>
<td>bona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bere, benere, bono</td>
<td>bono</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The object articles are related to the demonstratives bene 'this' and bona 'that', but in contrast to the object articles, these demonstratives do not distinguish noun class and number, and they always follow the noun phrase nucleus. In the spoken language, and occasionally also in transcriptions and the edited versions of transcriptions, the object article is followed by the basic article, e.g.

(1) bonä a si aba

OBJ.ART BASIC.ART DIM person
'the little person' [Iar. 2.65R]

(2) bonä a are

OBJ.ART BASIC.ART betelnut
'the betelnut' [Nan. 2.7E]

In interaction with word order and cross-referencing pronouns, the basic and the object article contribute to the coding of the syntactic functions of nominal arguments according to the following rule that are called article selection rules:

1. Topics always hold the first position in the clause and take the basic article irrespective of their syntactic function (see [TSG_09_02], see example (3) and (4)).

2. Irrespective of their position, subjects always take the basic article.

3. Non-topical primary objects take the basic article when the subject of the clause is a first or a second person, otherwise they take the object article.

4. Non-topical secondary objects take the basic article only when both the subject and the primary object refer to the speech act participants. Otherwise they take the object article.

Table 2: Nominal arguments marked by the basic article

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>subject</th>
<th>primary object</th>
<th>secondary object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st/2nd pers. pron.</td>
<td>1st/2nd pers. pron.</td>
<td>basic art N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st/2nd pers. pron.</td>
<td>basic ART N / 3rd pers. pron.</td>
<td>object ART N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basic ART N / 3rd pers. pron.</td>
<td>object ART N</td>
<td>object ART N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>basic ART N / 3rd pers. pron.</td>
<td>1st/2nd pers. pron.</td>
<td>object ART N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Corresponding to the two kinds of argument— the arguments marked by the basic article and those marked by the object article – Teop has two pronouns that refer to non-speech-act participants: a basic 3rd person pronoun and a b-pronoun. The latter is called 4th person pronoun, see [TSG_06_07], section 5; [TSG_09_07], section 2.
The examples below (3-7) illustrate the article selection rules; the underlined phrases are arguments that refer to non-speech-act participants.

Object marking in transitive clauses:

(3)  Enaa paa asun- u e guu.
     1SG.SUBJ TAM kill- IM BASIC.ART pig
     'I have killed the pig.'

(for comparable examples in texts see [Mat. 1.78E], [San. 1.88E])

(4a)  A beiko te- naa paa asun- u bene guu.
     ART child PREP- 1SG TAM kill- IM OBJ.ART pig
     'My child has killed the pig.' [Aro. 15.134R]

If the object is topicalised, it is still possible to distinguish subject and object:

(4b)  E guu paa asun- u a beiko te- naa
     BASIC.ART pig TAM kill- IM BASIC.ART child PREP- 1SG
     'The pig has been killed by my child.'

This clause cannot mean 'The pig has killed my child,' because then 'my child' would be the object and marked by the object article:

(4c)  E guu paa asun- u bona beiko te- naa
     BASIC.ART pig TAM kill- IM BASIC.ART child PREP- 1SG
     'The pig has killed by my child.'

Secondary object marking:

(5a)  Enaa pasi vaasusu avame- am a meha taba.
     1SG.SUBJ will teach OBJ:2PL.IM 2PL BASIC.ART other thing
     'I'll teach you another thing.' [Sii. 6.45R]

(5b)  Me paa vaasusu ri bari bona meha taba.
     and TAM teach OBJ:3PL 4SG/PL OBJ.ART other thing
     'And (he) taught them another thing.' [Sii. 6.46R]

(6)  Enaa paa vaasusu ri- a abana bona meha taba.
     1SG.SUBJ TAM teach OBJ:3PL- BASIC.ART men OBJ.ART other thing
     'I taught the men another thing.'

(7a)  Eori paa vaasusu ara- ra- ara bona meha taba
     PRON:3PL TAM teach OBJ:1INC-IMPF:1INC- PRON:1INC OBJ.ART other thing
     'They taught us another thing.'

(7b)  be- ori havi ara- ra- ara bona menaga
     when-PRON:3PL rub OBJ:1INC-IMPF:1INC- PRON:1INC OBJ.ART tapioca-pudding
     'when they rub the tapioca-pudding on us' (lit. 'rub us the tapioca-pudding') [Kae. 2.302R]

The clauses (5a) and (5b) are adjacent clauses in a legend. They have exactly the same ditransitive verbal predicate vaasusu 'teach s.o. s.th.', the same secondary object meha taba 'other thing', and the same sequential order of arguments, yet the marking of the secondary argument is different because the subject and the primary object in (5a) refer to speech act participants, but in (5b) the implied subject 'he' and the primary object bari 'them' refer to non-speech-act participants. The example (6) and (7) show that the secondary object is also marked by the object article when only one of the other arguments is a third person. For further ditransitive clauses see [TSG_09_05].

The coding of non-topical objects can only be explained if one considers the argument structure of the clause and, in addition, the kinds of relations that hold between the speaker and the participants he/she speaks about, i.e. speech-act roles of the arguments. Three kinds of speech-act roles are relevant for the understanding of the use of Teop articles:

---

1 Another example of this kind from the text corpus is [Vos.1.95R].
9.4 Argument marking by articles

- the speech-act participants, i.e. the speaker and the addressee;
- the first order outsider X, i.e. a participant that is not a speech-act participant
- the second order outsiders Y, i.e. further non-speech-act participants in addition to X.

Examples for **first order outsiders** (X):

(8)  
I have killed the pig(X).
I'll teach you another thing(X).

Examples for **first** and **second order outsiders** (X and Y):

(9)  
He(X) taught them(Y) another thing(Y).
They(X) taught us another thing(Y).
They(X) rub the tapioca-pudding(Y) on us.

Arguments that refer to outsiders are called **outsider arguments**. In clauses that contain only one outsider argument as in (3) and (5a), this argument is a first order outsider irrespective of its syntactic function.

Second order outsiders imply the existence of a first order outsider. The former is distinguished from the latter in that it figures higher on the syntactic functions hierarchy:

(10)  
subject > primary object > secondary object

Accordingly, the following rules hold:

- If in a transitive clause the subject refers to a speech-act participant and the object to an outsider, the object is a first order outsider argument, see (3).
- If in a ditransitive clause the subject refers to a speech act participant, but the objects don't, the primary object is a first order outsider argument and the secondary object a second order outsider argument, see (6).
- If the subject is an outsider argument, it is a first order outsider argument, while all other outsider arguments are assigned the status of a second order outsider argument, see (4a), (5b) and (7).
- The secondary object is only a first order outsider argument when both the subject and the primary object refer to speech act participants (5a).

All three types of core argument – the subject, the primary and the secondary object – can be topicalised and then are marked by the basic article irrespective of their syntactic function. The argument structure of the clause remains the same as is shown by the cross-referencing morphology in the verb complex and the order of arguments following the verb complex. Topicalisation of an argument also does not affect the speech act role structure of the clause as the following example illustrates:

(11)  
O vioga me na dao-dao bata ra-ara
ART vioga also TAM RED-call at.the.same.time IMPF:1INC- PRON:1INC
bono are te Magaru
ART betelnut PREP.ART Earthquake
'The vioga palm, we also call Earthquake's betelnut palm.' [Val. 2.61E]

The verb *dao* 'call s.o. s.th.' is ditransitive. Its primary object denotes the recipient (*o vioga*) and its secondary object the name (*bono are te Magaru*). As the primary object (*o vioga*) is topicalised, the secondary object directly follows the subject (*ara 'we'), but it is still a second order outsider argument and consequently marked by the object article.

---

2 The term *participant* is used here in the broad sense of 'someone or something that participates in the situation talked about'.
To conclude, the selection of the article is determined by
- their pragmatic role as a topic or a non-topic
- their syntactic function as a subject, primary object or secondary object
- their speech-act role as a speech-act participant, a first order outsider or a second order outsider

The article selection rule is paralleled in the paradigm of pronouns which distinguishes two kinds of object pronouns: the third and the fourth person [TSG_09_07].

Non-specific objects are marked by the non-specific article regardless of their speech act role.

(12) Me- ori paa asun roho ta guu ge havee?
    and- 3PL TAM kill before NSP.ART pig or what
    'And did they kill a pig or what?' [MM 2.263R]
9.5 Topic

9.5.1 The overt topic

Teop is a verb-second language. The first position of a clause is occupied by the topic which can be the subject, the primary object and the secondary object. The first example shows a ditransitive clause with the subject as its topic, followed by the primary object bene Sookara and the secondary object bona overe.

(1) Me Toko paa hee bene Sookara bona overe.
   and Toko TAM give ART Sookara ART coconut
   'And Toko gave Sookara the coconut.' [Sia. 1.68E]

The verbal hee takes the recipient as the primary object as is evident in clauses where the recipient NP is cross-referenced by the object marker. In the clause below, the primary object bona banoasinae 'his relatives' is cross-referenced by the 3PL-object marker ri, whereas the secondary object o paku bona 'this feast' functions as the topic.

(2) O paku bona ve pasi hee ri vu-e bona banoasi-na-e
   ART feast DEM PART TAM give OBJ:3PL IM- 3SG ART relatives-POSS 3SG
   'This feast, he will give his relatives.' [MLV 2.21R]

In (3) the topic is the primary object of dao 'call s.o./s.th. a name', o pipi vai 'this sore'.

(3) Evehe, te-a bua moo-na-e, o pipi o bero
    but PREP- ART two leg- POSS- 3SG ART sore ART many
    O pipi vai na dao ri-ori bona toka-pis
    ART sore DEM TAM call IMPF- 3PL ART toka-pis
    'But on his two legs (he had) many sores.
    These sores, they call toka-pis.' [Sia 1.18-19E]

The selection of non-subjects as topics is far less frequent than the choice of the subject as the topic.

9.5.2 Clauses without a topic and ellipsis of topic

There are two types of clauses in which the first position is held by the verb complex. The first type is a clause without a topic that introduces a new participant into the discourse, whereas the second type of clause occurs in contexts where the topic is elided as it can be unequivocally identified.

Below the first example shows the beginning of a story which lacks a topic but introduces a new participant by the post-verbal subject phrase a peha vaan. In the second clause this new participant figures appears in the topical locative phrase komana vaan bona 'inside that village'.

(4) Tei-tei roho a peha vaan.
    RED- exist before ART one village
    Koma-n-a vaan bona na tei rori o vahara beiko o bero.
    inside- POSS- ART village DEM TAM exist IMPF ART little.PL child ART many
    'Long ago, there was a village.
    Inside this village, there were many children.' [Mat. 1.1E]

As (2) and (3) illustrate, topic is a syntactic category that is independent of the category of subject. In coordinate constructions, we find subjects as well as objects that are not overtly expressed, but only implied. Since such clauses generally start with the verb complex, these implied subjects or objects are evidently to be understood as topics.
The example (5) shows a coordinate construction in which the topical subject of the first conjunct controls the ellipsis of the topical object in the second conjunct.

(5) SUBJ VC or (_VC SUBJ

E \text{guu [na tei nana]} ge \underline{[na asun]} [ori] ?

[ART pig] [TAM be IMPF:3SG] or [TAM kill] [PRON:3PL]

'Is the pig there or did they kill (it)?' [Aro. 15.128-129R]

In the next example, a third person singular topic (\textit{Sokara}) is maintained over a sequence of clauses in various forms and functions. (6b) consists of direct speech in which the previous topic \textit{Sokara} appears as a 1SG pronoun. In the next clause (6c), \textit{ori} 3PL refers to the previous topic \textit{Sokara} and other people. In (6d) and (6e) the topic is not overt. For semantic reasons, however, it cannot be coreferential with \textit{ori}, but only with \textit{Sokara}. The implied topic has the syntactic function of a subject in (6d), but in (6e) the syntactic function of an object.

(6a) Me \textit{Sokara} paa boha vo- en

and Sokara TAM say like- DEM

'And Sokara said

(6b) "E\text{naa kahi butara bata- u tea pita.}"

1SG TAM try SIMUL- IM COMPL walk

'I'll try to walk.'

(6c) Me- \textit{ori} paa nao.

and 3PL TAM go

And they went.

(6d) (SUBJ) Saka butara vira haa- na.

(3SG) NEG try much NEG- IMPF:3SG

(He) did not try much.

(6e) (OBJ) \textit{Kapee bata ri- ori.}

(3SG) carry along IMPF:3PL- PRON:3PL

They carried (him) along.' [Sia. 1.135-139E]

The referent of the implied topic can change within a single sentence, suggesting that as long as the context provides sufficient clues, any argument may be implied:

(7) Me-\textit{ori} paa u\text{mee koa} \underline{\textit{bona}} \underline{\textit{moon}}.

and-3PL TAM forget just ART woman

Paa kona koa- u vo- en paa mate-u.

TAM think just- IM like- DEM TAM die- IM

'(But then at last they abandoned the search) and they just forgot the woman.

(They) just thought that (she) had died.'

(lit. 'and they just forgot the woman, just have thought like this has died') [Mat. 1.55-56E]
9.6 Focus

The focus construction is similar to the relative clause construction, see [TSG_10_02]. The focused NP holds the first position in the clause and is followed by a clause introduced by to. The construction of NP to... can be literally translated as 'it's X who/what ...'

Subjects, objects and secondary objects can be focused:

(1) "Si otei! Enaa na kikisi oha u- nom- an!"
   DIM man 1SG TAM strong pass OBJ:2SG- IMPF- PRON:2SG
   E Moogee me paa sue ki bene Magaru,
   ART Monkey also TAM say DAT ART Magaru
   "Ahiki, enaa to kikisi oha u- nom- an!"
   no, 1SG REL strong pass OBJ:2G-IMPF-2SG
   '(Earthquake said to Monkey,)
   "Dear man! I am stronger than you!"
   But Monkey also said to Earthquake,
   "No, it's me who is stronger than you!" [Val. 2.10-12E]

(2) O hum bona he ahiki ta taba ani.
   ART place DEM CONJ not.exist NSP.ART thing eat
   A tapeako a puara to ani ori.
   ART manioc ART wild REL eat 3PL
   '(At) that place, there wasn't any food.
   (It was) wild manioc, what they ate.' [Sia 1.144E]

The next two examples show a topicalised object followed by a focused subject:

(3) eori re- paa kao- kao pete bono paku vaa- tea hivi von.
   3PL CONJ-TAM RED- go continue ART feast LK- COMPL ask price
   O paku bona he, a papana te- a moon to kahi paku maa- ri.
   ART feast DEM CONJ ART side PREP- ART woman REL TAM do DIR- IMPF
   'and then they proceed with the feast of asking for the bride price.
   This feast, however, is prepared by the woman's side.
   (lit. 'This feast, however, it's the side of the woman who prepares (it).') [Daa. 1.23-24E]

(4) ... maamihu kiu vai naa to paku nom.
   all work DEM 1SG REL do IMPF
   '(...(she) makes me sweep and scrub pots.)
   All this work, it's me who does (it).' [Sha. 1.47-48R]
9.7 Pronoun as arguments

The table below shows the forms of the pronouns; for further information on their morphology see [TSG_06_07].

Table 1: Pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Pronoun</th>
<th>Object marker</th>
<th>(Object marker - ) pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1SG</td>
<td>enaa / naa</td>
<td>a- / ama</td>
<td>a-naa/ ama-naa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2SG</td>
<td>ean / an</td>
<td>u</td>
<td>vu-an</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3SG</td>
<td>eove / eve / ee / o</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>ee, eve, -i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4SG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1EXC PL</td>
<td>enam/ nam</td>
<td>a- / ama</td>
<td>a-nam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 INCL PL</td>
<td>eara / ara</td>
<td>ara</td>
<td>ara-ara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2PL</td>
<td>eam / am</td>
<td>ame-</td>
<td>ame-am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3PL</td>
<td>eori / ori / o</td>
<td>ri</td>
<td>ri-ori</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4SG/PL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>bari</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.7.1 Pronouns in clause initial position

In clause initial position, i.e. as topics or focused arguments, the e- forms (enaa, ean, eove/ eve ..) are used, whereas postverbally in subject and object function the forms without e- occur. The e- seems to be the article e which is also found with teiee 'who', kinship terms and proper names of persons, see [TSG_07_02].

(1) Enaa kahi suu- sue nom a tootoo te- naa.
   1SG TAM RED- tell IMPF ART live PREP-1SG
   'I am going to talk about my life.' [Pur. 1.0-1R]

The clause initial pronoun can be a subject as in (1) or an object. In (2) eve is the focused object of the transitive verb kusu. Although it anaphorically refers to a plural NP, it is singular in form as is often the case with pronouns referring to inanimate items.

(2) OBJI                     SUBJ
eve to kusu vaa te- o usu vaha bata na- e.
   3SG REL crush LK PREP-ART louse again SIMUL IMPF- 3SG
   '(it was) them (the galip nuts) that he crushed like lice' [Vae. 1.106R]

9.7.2 The fourth person object pronoun

The fourth person object pronouns bona and bari are used for primary objects when the subject of the clause is a third person, and for secondary objects when the subject and/ or the primary object are third persons.

(3) Enaa na rake nom e.
   1SG TAM want IMPF:1SG 3SG
   'I want it/him/her.'

(4) Eove na rake nana       bari.
   3SG TAM want IMPF:3SG 4SG
   'S/he wants it/him/her.'

The next two clauses are ditransitive clauses. In (5) the secondary object, the theme argument Daphne is focused and the primary object, the recipient (of the name), is a fourth person pronoun as the subject ori is a third person. Note that the form bari 4SG/PL is chosen instead of bona 3SG, because the subject is plural, see [TSG_06_07], section 5.


9.7 Pronominal arguments

If in a ditransitive clause the subject refers to a speech act participant, the primary object is a third person pronoun and the pronominal secondary object a fourth person pronoun:

\[
(6) \quad \text{SUBJ} \quad \text{OBJ1} \quad \text{OBJ2}
\]

\[
\text{Pesu ta veraka. Ean re tasu nao e \textit{bona}.}
\]

'Pick a ripe breadfruit and throw it at him.' [Jen. 1.69E]

In (6) \textit{e} refers to the recipient ('at him') and \textit{bona} to the theme, i.e. 'it' (the breadfruit).

Our next example illustrates the use of two fourth person pronouns within a single clause:

\[
(7) \quad \text{SUBJ} \quad \text{OBJ1} \quad \text{OBJ2}
\]

\[
\text{o- re paa mosi suku maa bari bona}
\]

'so that they cut it as he wants it' (lit. 'so that they cut it following him') [Tah. 2.22R]

The incorporated preposition \textit{suku} 'following, according to, because of' governs the pronoun \textit{bari} 'him'. This pronoun refers to a single person, but has a plural form because the subject is plural. In contrast, the second pronoun, \textit{bona} 'it' does not show this kind of agreement. When \textit{mosi} 'cut' is used by itself in a transitive clause with a 3PL subject, the pronominal patient object is \textit{bari} as expected:

\[
(8) \quad \text{OBJ1} \quad \text{OBJ2}
\]

\[
\text{o- re paa mosi bari}
\]

'then they cut it' [Tah. 2.25R]

9.7.3 First and second person pronouns functioning as secondary objects

When first and second person pronouns function as primary objects, they take the short forms (\textit{naa, an, eve, e, i, nam, am}) and combine with the object markers, see [TSG_06_07], section 6.7.3.

\[
(9) \quad \text{Eh, vaa- hae vareko ama- naa!}
\]

'Hey, please, take me on board!' [Aro.15.21R]

There is only one example where a second person pronoun functions as a secondary object:

\[
(10) \quad \text{OBJ1} \quad \text{OBJ2}
\]

\[
\text{a beiko te- nam, ei}
\]

'our boy here, we chose you for him.' (lit. '... we chose him you.') [Vos. 1.468-469R]

Because of the incorporated \textit{ki DAT}, the verb complex is ditransitive and takes the recipient/beneficiary \textit{e} 'for him' as its primary object and the theme \textit{bene ean} 'you' as the secondary object. This secondary object is an \textit{e}-pronoun marked by the object article \textit{bene}. It is not cross-referenced by or combined with an object marker.

Since secondary objects denote themes or instruments, pronouns referring to speech act participants are not expected to occur often in this function.
9.7 Pronominal arguments

9.7.4 Reflexivity

Since the coding of objects is dependent on speech act roles which distinguish between insiders (first and second person), first order outsider (third person) and second order outsider (fourth person), one would assume that reflexivity has an impact on the coding of outsider arguments. If the action of X doing something to himself is expressed by a transitive clause and 'himself' is expressed by a pronoun, this pronoun does not refer to a second order outsider, but to a first order outsider as it is coreferential with the subject. Consequently, it should not be expressed by the fourth person pronoun which refers to a second order outsider. Rather we would expect the third person pronoun. A number of examples support this hypothesis, e.g.

(11) **Nomaa vai kou tahi vahuhu ni e te-o veoveo.**
    come now PART stab put.feet.into.the sand APP- 3SG PREP- ART village.square
    '(She) came indeed (flying in the air) -
    (and when landing) she stabbed (herself/ her feet) into the sand¹ on the village square.'
    [Aro. 4.17R]

(12) **Sa nata haa vo-na-en mee,**
    NEG know NEG like–IMPF- DEM also
    e roosuu to hae bata mi-na- e- te-o sinivi.
    ART giant REL board SIMUL with- IMPF- PRON:3SG PREP-ART canoe
    '(He) also did not know that it was the giant who had come on board of the canoe with him.'
    [Sii. 6.219E], see also [Vae. 1.78E]

Another way of expressing reflexivity is illustrated by the following example where the pronominal reflexive object is expressed by an e-pronoun (eove) with the object article:

(13) **Me Kousiaga paa tara-tara bata bona,**
    and Kousiaga TAM RED look SIMUL PRON:4SG
    me-paa hivi-hivi komana bata bene eove, ...
    and- TAM RED- ask PART SIMUL OBJ.ART 3 SG
    'And Kousiaga looked at her and kept asking himself, ...' [Ata. 1.15R]

The construction bene eove seems to belong to same paradigm as bene ean in (10).

9.7.5 The sequential order of pronominal arguments

If both a third person subject and a first or second person object follow the verb complex, the usual constituent order of the subject preceding the object is reversed and the object precedes the subject. Compare (14) with (15):

(14) **VC SUBJECT OBJECT**
    Nomana to kahi asun va-mate-mate ri nom naa ori!
    today REL TAM kill CAUS-RED- kill OBJ:3PL IMPF:1SG PRON:1SG PRON:3PL
    'Today I'll kill them.' [Eno. 1.53E]

(15) **VC OBJECT SUBJECT**
    Vaasusu ama-nam ori.
    teach OBJ- PRON:1EXC PRON:3PL
    'They taught us.' [Pur. 1.85R]

¹ The object 'herself' is expressed by the 3SG pronoun. It is unlikely that e in ni-e APP-3SG refers to the subject as in the preceding and the following clauses the topical subject is ellipsed. Enoch's edition supplies the objects **bono buo moo kakaniva teve** 'her two sharp claws' [Aro. 4.17E], **bona moonae** 'her claws' [Aro. 4.85E] and **bona bua moonae** 'her two claws' [Aro. 4.127E].
Postverbal pronouns referring to speech act participants precede pronouns or NPs referring to outsiders, irrespective of their syntactic function. The syntactic function of subject and object are distinguished by the object markers, e.g. *a-naa* OBJ-PRON:

(16) ADJUNCT to VC OBJECT- SUBJECT
    Teebona to tavatava a-naa ori
    there REL make.incisions OBJ- 1SG 3SG
    'There they made incisions on me.' [MM 2.193-195R]

(17) OBJ2 VC OBJ1 SUBJ
    A inu na hee a-naa e gavaman
    ART house TAM give OBJ- 1SG ART government
    'This house was given to me by the government.' [Pur. 2.28R]

The prominent role of pronouns referring to speech act participants is also shown by the agreement rules of object markers; see [TSG_09_03].
9.8 Adjuncts

Adjuncts are formed by prepositional phrases or locative phrases and are positioned at the beginning or the end of the clause [TSG_05_02] and [TSG_06_09].

At the beginning of a clause, we have to distinguish two kinds of constructions. If none of the arguments functions as a topic, the adjunct is followed by the verb complex which then is followed by the subject and the objects:

(1) ADJUNCT VC SUBJECT
    [Nabunuu] [na tiitii roho] [a peha vuu tom sina- na]
    long.ago TAM exist before ART one cluster REC mother- DEREL
    'Once upon a time there lived a mother with her child.' [Aro. 5.1R]

For similar constructions see [Aro. 1.1R], [Aro. 1.1E], [Aro. 5.1E].

(2) Me te- a rasuu naa tii nana o peho kariapa.
    and PREP- ART jungle TAM exist IMPF:3SG ART one.ART kariapa
    'And in the jungle, there was a kariapa tree.' [Mor. 2.21.R]

If, however, the clause has a topic, the sentence initial topic is very often followed by the conjunction me that in other contexts means 'and'.

(3) O vuri bona me- naa paa rake mana ta sikuuru.
    ART time DEM and- ISG TAM want eventually COMPL go.to.school
    'That time I eventually wanted to go to school.' [Pur. 1.65R]

(4) Te- o peho bon me- sina- ri- o beiko paa vahuhu.
    PREP- ART one.ART day and- mother-OBJ- ART child TAM give.birth
    'One day the children's mother gave birth.' [Aro. 6.4E]

This construction is also found with ellipsed topics:

(5) Te- o peho bon me- paa tara bana ri maa
    PREP- ART one.ART day and- TAM see again OBJ DIR
    bona bua tom keara...
    ART two REC brother
    'One day (she) again saw the two brothers ...' [Aro. 4.13E]

It seems that we only find temporal and locative adjuncts in sentence initial position, whereas in clause final position we also find benefactive, purposive, instrumental and causal adjuncts. Note that those introduced by incorporating prepositions can alternate with primary objects in case that the preposition is incorporated into the verb complex; see [TSG_06_09]. For example:

(6) VC OBJECT1 ADJUNCT
    me- paa vaakuu vahaa bana bono pesun ki bene keara rutaa teve.
    and- TAM drop back again ART skin DAT ART brother little PREP.3SG
    'and then again dropped the skin for his little brother.' [Mom. 1.47E]

(7) VC OBJECT1
    me- paa vaakuu vaha ki maa bona si keara rutaa teve
    and- TAM drop again DAT DIR ART DIM brother little PREP.3SG
    OBJECT2
    bono kapa kokoraa.
    ART skin empty
    'and (he) dropped the empty skin for his younger brother.' [Mom. 1.39E]
10 Complex sentences

10.1 Complement clauses

So far we have identified four types of complement clauses in Teop which we name after their kind of linkage:

- asyndetic clauses
- re-clauses
- be-clauses
- tea-clauses

A fifth type of clause-linkage is strictly speaking not a complement clause construction, but contains two independent clauses that are linked by the preposition vo 'like' and the correlative deictic en 'this, here', e.g. vo-en 'like this', in the first clause (cf. TD voen; [TSG_06_09], section 6).

(1) Enam na uphe vo-nom-en en can toro nao teebona.
    1EXC TAM think like- IMPF- this 2SG must go there
    'We think that you must go there.'
    (Lit. 'We think like this: you must go there.') [Pur. 1.268R]

Table 1: Complement clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>type of linking</th>
<th>TAM</th>
<th>embeddedness</th>
<th>subject</th>
<th>raising</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>asyndetic</td>
<td>no TAM</td>
<td>not restricted</td>
<td>embedded</td>
<td>any NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conjunction re</td>
<td>no TAM</td>
<td>no TAM</td>
<td>embedded</td>
<td>anaphoric pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conjunction be</td>
<td>no TAM</td>
<td>no TAM</td>
<td>embedded</td>
<td>any NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complementiser  te</td>
<td>no TAM</td>
<td>no TAM</td>
<td>embedded</td>
<td>no subject</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

10.1.1 Asyndetic complement clauses

The asyndetic clause is found with verbs of cognition, perception and communication. It is time-independent, has its own subject and may contain a focus construction (3), see [TSG_09_06].

(2) Sue ki ma-e subuava a otei paa asun v-ori.
    tell DAT DIR- ART old.woman ART man TAM kill IMPF- 3PL
    'Tell the old woman, they have killed the man.' [Aro. 7.104-105R]

(3) A otei saka nata haa-na
    ART man NEG know NEG- IMPF
    tabae to kahi ta paku nana- i,
    what REL TAM AC do IMPF:3SG- here
    'The man does not know what must be done here.'
    (lit. 'The man does not know what (is it) that must be done here.') [Vos. 1.215R]

See also the section on dependent interrogative clauses [TSG_10_04].
10.1 Complement clauses

10.1.2 *Re-*clauses

Clauses linked by *re*, which always holds the second position of the clause, generally express that the event in question follows or is the consequence of a previous event. Following a verb of the meaning 'tell s.o. to s.th., make s.o. do s.th.', *re-*clauses function as a complement clause. In other contexts, they occur as non-embedded clauses and can have the TAM-marker *paa*, see [TSG_08_02], [TSG_10_05], [TSG_10_06] and TD under *re*.

(4) **Kao nao te subuava, ean re sue ki ee**
    go DIR PREP.ART old.woman 2 SG CONJ tell DAT 3 SG
    * 3 SG CONJ let.free ART man

'Go to the old woman to tell her to let the man free.' [Aro. 7.73-74R]

10.1.3 *Be-*clauses

*Be-*clauses are used with modal verbs like *rake* 'want', if their subject is different from that of the superordinate predicate.

(5) **Evehe e Sookara saka rake haa be a bua otei vaariikapee bari.**
    but ART Sookara NEG want NEG COMPL ART two man DEM carry 4 SG/PL

'But Sookara did not want that these two men carried him.' [Sia. 1.102E]

The subject of the complement clause can be raised, thus functioning as the object of the matrix verb, i.e. *rake*:

(6) **Enaa na rake nom e iaa Loata be sue- sue bona hum bona.**
    1 SG TAM want IMPF ART mother Loata COMPL RED- talk.about ART part DEM

'I want mother Loata to talk about this part.' [MLV 1.6R]

Note that temporal and conditional clauses are also introduced by *be*, see [TSG:10_06].

10.1.4 *Tea-*clauses

The *tea-*clause is the most closely integrated type of complement clause. Its predicate is not marked for TAM, never negated and does not have a subject of its own. Either the subject or the object of the superordinate predicate can function as its subject.

(7) **Bara, eara antee vai tea paku a taba- an.**
    well 1 INC can now COMPL make ART thing- eat

'Alright, we can now make the food.' [Iar. 2.131R]

(8) **Eori to kahi ausu ri maa- ri bari tea vaamahaka.**
    3 PL REL TAM help OBJ:3PL DIR- IMPF:3PL 4 SG/PL COMPL cook

'They are the ones that help them to cook.' [Vos. 2.354R]

(9) **E iaa na sue ki bona moon tea mamata bono matavus.**
    ART Mother TAM tell DAT ART woman COMPL open ART door

'Mother told the girl to open the door.' (TD *sue*)

If the complement clause has an object, the choice of its article is subject to the article selection rule [TSG_09_04]. Therefore *tabaan* 'food' has the basic article in (7) and (10), but the object article in (11).

(10) **Naa sa nata vira haa nom tea paku a taba- an vaa Teotoro.**
    1 SG NEG know at.all NEG IMPF COMPL do ART thing- eat of Europeans

'I did not know at all how to prepare European food.' [Pur. 1.106R]
The next example shows a complement clause with the ditransitive verb *hee*. The primary recipient object *anaa 'me'* is a raised object of *rake*, whereas the secondary object holds the first position of the sentence as a focused argument:

(12) $\text{OBJ2} \quad \text{V} \quad \text{OBJ1} \quad \text{SUBJ} \quad \text{COMPL}$
    
    *Bero a- maa kiu to rake vaha anaa a gavaman tea hee.*
    
    many ART- PL work REL want again me ART government COMPL give
    
    'The government wanted to give me many tasks.'
    
    (lit. 'It was many works that the government again wanted me to give.') [Pur. 2.292R]

Occasionally, the complement-taking predicate attracts the applicative particle of the predicate of the complement clause. The verb *busu* takes the applicative particle in the meaning of 'throw something', as illustrated in the first sentence of the example below. This *ni* is attracted by the superordinate verb *goe* 'not do' in the second sentence.

(13) $\text{A- maa avuin sa busu vakahu haa ni ri- ori.}$
    
    ART- PL nose.jewelry NEG throw. quickly NEG APP OBJ- 3 PL
    
    *Toro goe ni- am tea busu.*
    
    must not.do APP- 2 PL COMPL throw.away
    
    'The avuins, they do not quickly throw away.
    
    You must not throw (them) away.' [Mah. 2.154-155R]

### 10.1.5 Classification of complement taking predicates

We have not yet examined the complement clauses in detail. But it is obvious that one and the same verb can have different types of complement clauses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predicate</th>
<th>Correlative</th>
<th>Asyndetic</th>
<th>Re</th>
<th>Be</th>
<th>Tea</th>
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10.2 Relative clauses

Relative clauses are clauses that modify a noun phrase and are introduced by the relative pronoun *to* 'the one(s) that', which, like any relative pronoun, has two functions: on the one hand it refers to the modified noun phrase and thus connects the relative clause to the matrix clause, and on the other hand, it functions as the topic of the relative clause, functioning as an argument or an adjunct.

(1) *Gaga han te- a ruene vai to paa gono ma- u e subuava ei.*

'drink PART PREP- ART water this REL TAM get DIR- IM ART old.woman this'

'Drink from this water that this old woman got.' [Aro. 1.31R]

We classify *to* as a relative pronoun because it holds the position of a noun phrase in the relative clause. It always functions as the topic, and as any other topic, it can play various syntactic roles. In the preceding example it functions as the object of *paa gono mau* 'got'. At the same time it refers back *a ruene vai* 'this water' and thus links the relative clause to the NP it modifies.

Being the topic of the clause, *to* is immediately followed by the VC. In other words, the order of constituents of the relative clause follows the general rule:

```
TOPIC   VC   NON-TOPICAL ARGUMENTS ADJUNCTS
```

In our data the relative pronoun *to* can function as a subject, primary object, secondary object and an adjunct.

Subject:

(2) *a-re vaa- ani a beiko vai to asun bene guu.*

'we'll feed the child that killed the pig.' [Aro. 15.158R]

Primary object:

(3) *te- a inu vai to dao ri- ori bona kara overe*

'into this house that they called kara overe' [Bua. 1.121R]

(4) *O are to pokaa komana ra- ara bono are te Magaru.*

'It is the betel nut palm, that we ourselves (also) call (by the name) Earthquake’s betel nut palm.' [Val. 2.13-15R]

Secondary object denoting the theme:

(5) *a- maa taba vai to hee ama- ra- ara ori ei*

'the things that they give us here' [Vos. 1.95-96R]

(6) *Daphne to dao- dao roho- ri bari.*

'Daphne was what they called her' [Pur. 1.157R]
Locative adjunct:

(7) **Ah a inu vai to ani nom nam a- maa hiroo.**
    ah ART house this REL eat IMPF 1EXC ART- PL hiroo
    'Yes, a house where we eat the hiroo.' [Bua. 1.116R]

(8) **me, vo te- o kasuana to hopo vaha-e**
    and GOAL PREP- ART ground REL disappear.inside.of again-3SG
    'and – to the ground where he disappeared inside' [Val. 2.49R]

A noun phrase can be modified by two juxtaposed relative clauses in which *to* plays different syntactic and semantic roles:

(9) **Erau, Moogee abana gunaha vai kahi bono naono vai**
    and.so Monkey jump down now from ART tree DEM
    'And so Monkey jumped down from that tree.
    to ta-kaku, to toka na- e.
    REL AC-break REL perch IMPF- 3SG
    that broke, that he had been perching on.' [Val. 2.85-87R]

In the first relative clause, *to* is the subject of *takaku* 'broke', whereas in the second one, it is an adjunct. The examples below show that relative clauses do not necessarily directly follow the noun phrase they modify.

(10) **a oraa bona vue na dao ri- ori bona suvin**
    ART spirit this particular TAM call IMPF- 3PL ART suvin
    'this particular spirit is called the suvin'
    to tii nana te- o island bona
    REL live IMPF PREP- ART island this
    '(the one) that lived on this island' [San. 1.16-17R]

(11) **O matapaku saka mataa haa- na**
    ART treatment NEG good NEG- IMPF
    'The treatment was not good
    OBJ2 VC SUBJ OBJ1
to [paku-paku ki-] [a moon vai] [bene Toovarapiri]
    REL RED- do DAT- ART woman DEM ART Toovarapiri
    that this woman did to Toovarapiri.'
    'The way this woman treated Toovarapiri was not good.' [Nan. 3.32E]
10.3 Nominal relative clauses

Like other types of relative clauses, nominal relative clauses are introduced by the particle *to*. But instead of modifying a preceding head noun, they have the same function as a noun phrase and function as a predicate of a non-verbal clause or an argument.

(1) **Ei to sue nom naa.**
DEM REL say IMPF 1SG
'This is what I am saying.', compare [Vos. 1.157R]

(2) **To paku bata vo na ei,**
REL be along like IMPF:3SG DEM
**to paku bata vo nana o taatate.**
REL be along like IMPF:3SG ART tradition
'This is how it goes, (this is) how the tradition goes.' [Vos. 1.548R]

(3) **(E) tama-na- e he saka nata- nata haa- na,**
(ART)father- POSS- 3SG but NEG RED- know NEG- 3SG
**to paku-paku bata- na mi- e sina na- e bona.**
REL RED- do along-3SG with- ART mother- POSS- 3SG 4SG
'... his father did not know what his mother was doing with him.' [Nan. 3.59-60R]

In the three examples given above, the nominal relative clauses are specific and referential as they refer to a particular event that has been mentioned before.

But nominal relative clauses can also be used in a generic sense:

(4) **To nao bata vo nana a moon,**
REL go along GOAL IMPF ART girl
**o taovu na uvu vaovoi bata koa ni na- e.**
ART hood TAM wear always along just APP IMPF- 3SG
'Wherever the girl goes, she wears the *taovu*-hood all the time.' [Vos. 3.202R]

In contrast to English, Teop nominal relative clauses are formally distinguished from dependent interrogative clauses, see [TSG_10_04].
10.4 Dependent interrogative clauses

Interrogative clauses cannot only function as independent clauses expressing questions, but can also function as dependent clauses. The first three examples show dependent embedded clauses functioning as complements.

(1) A otei saka nata haa-na
   ART man NEG know NEG-IMPF:3SG
   tabae to kahi tapaku nana-i.
   what REL TAM be.done IMPF:3SG- here
   'The man does not know what must be done here.' [Vos. 1.215R]

(2) Enaa saka nata haa nom
   1SG NEG know NEG IMPF:1SG
   o vinu tabae to nao-nao nao rohori tea skul ...
   ART year what REL RED-go DIR before.3PL COMPL school
   'I do not know which year they went to get their training ....' [Sii. 2.27R]

(3) Sa tara haa– na bene teiee to aheahe bata nana.
   NEG see NEG– IMPF:3SG ART who REL sing along IMPF:3SG
   '(... he heard a singing. He) did not see who was singing.' [Tah. 5.13E]

All three sentences have in common that the interrogative pronouns relate to someone or something particular that cannot be identified by the person talked about: a particular thing that must be done in the first case, a particular year in the second one and a particular singer in the third one. In contrast, the nominal relative clauses refer to s.th. that can be easily identified through its context, see [TSG_10_03], example (1-3).

In the following example the interrogative clauses still seem to be dependent, but they are not embedded like complement or adverbial clauses because the clauses following the interrogative clauses are connected by the conjunction me or re. Semantically they differ from the preceding clauses in that interrogative phrases do not relate to particular persons or entities but carry a generic meaning in the sense of 'whoever, anybody, no matter who' and 'no matter how many'.

(4) Erau, ... -- e teiee to kahi nao nana tea vaauee,
   so ... -- ART who REL TAM go IMPF:3SG COMPL be.initiated
   a beiko vaa- sau pasi mee v- ori
   ART child LK- where TAM take IM-PRON:3PL
   me- paa no vaatii bari inu bona vue, ...
   ART many very ART child REL stay IMPF:3PL there
   and- TAM go put 4SG/PL house DEM particular
   Tovihi a beiko to pasi nao- u,
   how.many ART child REL TAM go- IM
   o- re tii teebona,a bero sana a beiko to tii rori teebona.
   3SG/PL- CONJ stay there ART many very ART child REL stay IMPF:3PL there
   'And so, he/she – whoever will go through the initiation ritual,
   whatever child they will take there,
   (they) put him into this particular house, (this house that they call tobara, that is inside the jungle.)
   However many children will go there,
   they will stay there, it is many children indeed who will stay there.' [San. 3.11-17R]

See also [TSG_10_06], example (7) and (8).
10.5 Purposive clauses

There are two kinds of purposive clauses: tea-clauses and re/ne-clauses. Both types are formally similar to complement clauses, see [TSG_10_01].

(1) ... meori paa va- hio ri bari tea an.
   and 3PL CAUS-sit OBJ 4SG/PL COMPL eat
   '... and they made them sit down to eat'. [Aro. 11.44E]

(2) ...me-ori paa gono a- naa, enaa ne titsa te- a Methodist.
   and-3PL TAM get OBJ- 1SG 1SG CONJ teacher PREP- ART PN
   '...and they selected me to become a teacher of the Methodist (Church).’ [Mah. 1.54R]

(3) Nao pahi an ruene, can re tara te- a vaabeabe- m- an!
   go EMPH 2SG river 2SG CONJ look PREP- ART reflection POSS- 2SG
   'Go to the river to have a look at your reflection.' [Vur. 1.14-15E]

In the first example the purposive clause is linked by tea. Similar to tea-complement clauses, it lacks TAM marking and does not have an overt, but an implied subject that is coreferential with an argument (here the object) of the matrix clause. In contrast, the subjects of the purposive clauses marked by ne/re are expressed by pronouns that are coreferential with the object of the matrix clause (2) or with its subject (3). It is not clear whether tea and ne/re purposive clauses have the same function and distribution or not.
10.6 Temporal and conditional clauses introduced by *be*

The conjunction *be* introduces temporal and conditional clauses (1, 2) which in some cases cannot be unequivocally distinguished (3). When the *be*-clause precedes the main clause, the main clause can be marked by *re* that indicates that the state of affairs is a consequence of a previous event, see [TSG_08_02].

(1) "...murinae  be- an posi va- kavara a overe,  
      after.that when- 2SG squeeze ADV- be.finished ART coconut  
      ean re- paa koma me te- a besin tapeako vai ...
      2SG CONJ- TAM pour also PREP- ART basin maniaco DEM
      '...then, when you have finished squeezing the coconut,
      you also pour it into the bowl with this manioc.' [Hel. 1.20-21R]

(2) "Be- an rake tea rake a- naa,  
      if- 2SG want COMPL look.for OBJ- 1SG  
      ean paa vuriha a- naa tobi- n- a namana."  
      2SG TAM find OBJ- 1SG middle- POSS- ART ocean
      'If you want to look for me, you find me in the middle of the ocean.' [Sha. 1.87R]

(3) "Be- naa nao, enaa toro matatopo rakaha bata nom!  
      when/if- 1SG go, 1SG must be.prepared very SIMUL IMPF
      'When/if I go, I must be well prepared.' [Asu. 1.79E]

While the verb complex of temporal and open hypothetical conditional clauses lacks TAM marking, counterfactual conditional clauses can be marked by various TAM markers:

(4) "Me be kahi tii vakisi nana enaa re tamaka rakaha nom.  
      and if TAM stay still IMPF:3SG ISG CONJ sad very IMPF:1SG
      'And if she still stayed there, I would be very sad.' [Pur. 5.116-117R]

(5) "Be- ara kahi kao tavus, e guu re- paa ani ara- ara.  
      if- 1INC TAM go go.outside ART pig CONJ- TAM eat OBJ- 1INC
      'If we went outside (now), the pig would eat us (but we'll stay inside).' [Aro. 15.50-51R]

(6) "Be- an paa sue vuru maa, enaa pasi dee vuru ma- e."  
      if- 2SG TAM say earlier DIR 1SG TAM carry earlier DIR- 3SG
      'If you had told me, I would have brought it with me.' [Ter. 1.84-85E]

The use of the TAM-markers in conditional clauses has not been investigated yet, but note that in (6) the adverb *vuru* expresses anteriority, while *pasi* seems to indicate counterfactuality (for TAM-marking see chapter [TSG_08_02]).

The conjunction *be* can be combined with interrogative pronouns in dependent interrogative clauses which, similar to generic dependent interrogative clauses and conditional clauses, are followed by a *re*-clause.

(7) "Be teiee tagune va- vigisi, o re - paa no ruuruu  
      when who wake.up ADV- late 3SG/PL CONJ- TAM go not.find
      'Whoever woke up late, would not find anything.' [Aro. 1.11E]

(8) "Be nao vo- sau, eve nao bata- na.  
      when go GOAL- where 3SG go SIMUL- IMPF:3SG
      'Wherever (he) went, she went.' [Aro. 7.60R]

These clauses relate to recurrent or habitual events.
10.7 Clauses linked by *he*

The conjunction *he* connects two sequential clauses and can appear in either the first or the second one. As the *he*-clauses haven't yet been investigated, we confine ourselves to presenting a few typical examples and start with constructions in which the *he*-clause follows its unmarked partner clause. These clauses can be syntactically independent of the preceding clause or function as an embedded complement clause.

In our first example, *he* expresses a contrast, but not simultaneity as Vaasiti had turned into a tuna before (*roho*) Gaivaa turned into a seagull. The *he*-clause is not marked for tense.

(1) Me- e Vaasiri na ta- verete potee roho bona aasun,
    and-ART Vasiri TAM AC- change be.like before ART tuna
    e Gaivaa he ta- verete potee bona keeraa.
    ART Gaivaa CONJ AC- change be.like ART seagull

    'And - Vaasiri had turned into a tuna,
    while Gaivaa turned into a seagull.' [Sha. 1.121-122R]

But tense/aspect marking does occasionally occur as the following example shows that expresses a non-simultaneous contrast:

(2) Enaa paa sue na- u toro gono-gono an,
    1SG TAM tell DIR- IM must RED- get 2SG
ean he paa asun vahoara vaha ri- ori?
    2SG CONJ TAM hit wrongly again OBJ- 3PL

    'I had told you to get (them inside), but you hit them instead?' [Aro. 2.30R]

In other constructions, the *he*-clause does not so much express a contrast, but rather seems to focus on simultaneity.

(3) Oga nana rau, e sumeke he tavus bana ki bona.
    cry IMPF:3SG DEM ART old.man CONJ appear again DAT 4SG

    '(While Gaivaa) was crying, the old man again appeared to him.' [Sha. 1.97-98R]

Simultaneity rather than contrast is also expressed in complement clauses that are dependent on perception verbs:

(4) Enaa paa baitono eve he kusu maa bona karavona!"
    1SG TAM hear 3SG CONJ crunch DIR ART lobster

    "I heard him crunching the lobster!" [Mor. 3.49R]

But note that in all examples so far, the two clauses had different subjects.

In dialogues one of the speakers may interrupt the other by a short question to draw the attention to a particular participant that the addressee seems to have forgotten. The following dialogue comes from a story about a dangerous pig:

(5) "Nigara, a- re aun vo inu."
    come.on 1INC-CONJ leave GOAL house

    "E guu he?"
    ART pig CONJ

    "Ahiki, a- re butara bata koa!"
    no, 1SG- CONJ try SIMUL just

    "'Come on, let's leave (and go) to the house.'"
    "But the pig?"
    "No, let's just try!" [Aro. 15.65-68R]

Constructions in which the *he*-clause precedes its partner clause are less frequent. As far as we can judge from the data we looked at, the *he*-clause refers to what has been said before and relates this old information to the new information given in the following clause.
10.7 Clauses linked by *he*

(6) **Eori he na tei rori te- o are bona,**

3PL CONJ TAM stay IMPF PREP- ART betelnut.palm DEM o are bona sa gogooravi vakisi haa- na, o pereperee.

ART betelnut.palm DEM NEG red still NEG- IMPF ART green

'When they were staying on this betelnut palm,
this betelnut palm was not red yet, it was green.' [Val. 2.17-18R]

The *he*-clause can actually repeat the wording of the previous clause. This construction comes close to the so-called tail-head-construction found in Papuan and Oceanic languages.

(7) **Erau tama- na- e vahio vaha vai bona meha - a meha moon.**

and.so father- POSS- 3SG marry again DEM ART other - ART other woman

**Eve he vahio bona meha moon,**

3SG CONJ marry ART other woman

**me- ori paa tei- tei bata mi bona si beiko vai.**

and- 3PL TAM RED- stay SIMUL with ART DIM child DEM

'And so his father married another – another woman

When he married the other woman,

they lived together with this poor child.' [Nan. 3.6-8R]

(8) **... me-ori paa pahana vo Taguakana.**

... and-3PL TAM go.across GOAL Taguakana

**Eori he pahana Taguakana,**

3PL CONJ go.across Taguakana

**me- ori paa nao pete te- o island.**

and- 3PL TAM go continue PREP- ART island.’

',... and they went across to Taguakana.

When they went across to Taguakana,

they went further on to the island.' [Mor. 3.33-35R]

In order to emphasise that the situation referred to by *he*-clause has come to an end, its predicate can be modified by the adverb *vakavara* 'being finished' through which the *he*-clause expresses anteriority

(9) **Eove he ahaha va- kavara, me- paa pita pete.**

3SG CONJ sing ADV- finished and- TAM walk continue

'When she had finished singing, (she) continued her walk.' [Val. 3.46-47E]

10.7.1 The *he tea*-construction

*He*-clauses following their partner clause can have a complement clause introduced by *tea* as their predicate. These clauses do not express contrast, but simultaneity and can have the same or a different subject as the preceding clause.

(10) **Me- ori paa abana a bua sahata,**

and- 3PL TAM jump ART two poor.one

**eori he tea vapaaparu bata.**

3PL CONJ COMPL embrace.each.other SIMUL

'And they jumped, the two poor ones,

while embracing each other.' [Aro. 3.39-40R]

(11) **Erau me Bukimeasun paa nao tea rooroto aasun,**

one.day and.ART Bukimeasun TAM go COMPL fish tuna

**a bua tom keara he tea tei.**

ART two REC sibling CONJ COMPL stay

'One day, Bukimeasun went tuna fishing,

while the two sisters were staying (at home).’ [Aro. 3.3-4R]

While in (10) and (11) the *he-tea*-construction functions as a sentence adverbial, the example below shows this construction in the function of a complement clause:
10.7 Clauses linked by *he*

(12) ... tea tabae enaa paa baitono a oraa [**he**] tea kusu bona karavona ...
... because 1SG TAM hear ART spirit CONJ COMPL crunch ART lobster
'
... because I heard the demon crunching the lobster, ...' [Mor. 3.61R]

10.7.2 The *toboha-he*-construction

The *toboha-he* construction consists of two clauses and expresses the meaning of 'as soon as the event X happened, the event Y happened'.

(13) **Toboha** tara nana, eve [**he**] tara ahe bene -
    as.soon.as see IMPF:3SG 3SG CONJ see recognise ART
    a moon na hio nana matana, ...
    ART woman TAM sit IMPF:3SG bow
    'As soon as he opened his eyes, he recognised a- a woman was sitting at the bow, ...'
    [Aro. 8.4-86R]

(14) **Kahi ma** [**toboha**] suguna vahabana rori kasuana, e su-
    TAM come as.soon.as arrive again IMPF:3PL beach, ART -
    e roosuu [**he**] tara va- hiki.
    ART giant CONJ see ADV- be.nothing
    'As soon as they arrived again at the beach, the - the giant saw that there was nothing.'
    [Eno. 1.131-132R]

The verb complex of the first clause contains the word *toboha* 'as soon as' in the position of a prenuclear adverb, while the second clause is marked by the conjunction *he*. 

10.8 Clause chaining

Clause chaining constructions consist of clauses that are strung together by an intermediate dependent non-embedded clause. This intermediate clause is not marked for tense or mood, does not have a topic, and its verb is often the same as the verb of the first clause. Constructions that contain the same verb in the intermediate as in the preceding clause are called Tail-Head Constructions in the literature on Papuan languages.

In the first two examples the topic is the subject, in the third one, it is the object.

(1) A otei he tea ya- ba- baitono vai koa.
   ART man CONJ COMPL MULT- RED- listen then just
   Vaa- baitono va- kavara koa, me- paa hua voosu vaan
   MULT.RED1- listen ADV- be.finished just and- TAM paddle go.home village.
   'But the man was just listening. (When he) finished listening, (he) paddled home to the village.'
   [Tah. 5.39-41E]

(2) ... me- paa goroho umee bana koa toon n- a vasu.
   ...and- TAM sleep forget again just top POSS- ART stone
   Goroho nana,
   sleep IMPF:3SG
   a bua roosuu he hae gunaha bana maa bona ruene,
   ART two giant CONJ board go.down again DIR ART river
   '... and (he) fell fast asleep on the stone.
   (While he) was sleeping, the two giants came down the river.' [Viv. 1.41-43E]

(3) Me- ori paa nomaa me- paa ma asun va- mate bene Kurikakaniva
   and- 3PL TAM come and- TAM come kill ADV/CAUS- die ART PN
   Asun va- mate vai ori, me- ori paa nao vaha nao ...
   kill ADV/CAUS die now PRON:3PL and- 2PL TAM go back DIR
   'And they came and killed Kurikakaniva.
   They killed (her), and they went back ...' [Asu. 1.163-165R]

The temporal relation between the intermediate clause and the following clause is expressed by adverbs (vakavara (1), vai (3)) or, in the case of simultaneity by the imperfective aspect (2).

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1 The prefix vaa- seems to be a variant of vaba = va–ba = MULT–RED.
10.9 Reason clauses

Structurally, reason clauses do not differ from independent clauses apart from the fact that they are introduced by *tea tabae* or *ei kou*. They always follow the clause they relate to. It is not clear if there is any semantic difference between *tea-tabae*-clauses and *ei-kou*-clauses. Both kinds of reason clauses can express particular as well as generally valid reasons. The phrase *tea tabae* literally means 'because of what?' and is similar to Tok Pisin *bilong wanem* 'lit. 'for what?' so that it might be a loan translation. The phrase *ei kou* contains the demonstrative *ei* 'this', but we do not know the meaning of *kou* in this context.

Particular reasons expressed by *tea tabae* and *ei kou*:

(1) **Me Horivana paa hoa, me hoa,**
and Hurricane TAM blow and blow
**evehee saka antee haa tea hoa va- kuu ni bene Moogee**
but NEG able NEG COMPL blow CAUS-fall APP ART Monkey
**tea tabae e Moogee na ato va- kikis rakaha te- o naono.**
because ART Monkey TAM hold ADV- strong very PREP- ART tree
'And Hurricane arose and blew, but he was not able to blow Monkey down because Monkey hold very firmly on to the tree.' [Gol. 1.23-26E]

(2) **Evehee ei kou ei, a otei paa tara vareasi vaevuru ni bona subuava,**
But of course DEM ART man TAM see disgusted already APP ART old woman
**ei kou a pirupiruru ae a mata dorodoro**
because ART runny nose and ART eye runny
'But, of course, the man looked with disgust at the woman because she had a runny nose and runny eyes.' [Aro. 8.126-127E]

Generally valid reasons expressed by *tea tabae* and *ei kou*:

(3) **o- re- paa paku bona eve koa a peha,**
3SG- CONJ- TAM go 4SG 3SG just ART one
**tea tabae a kiu n- o potee sa kikis vira haa vo- na- en**
because ART work POSS- ART potee NEG strong very NEG like- IMPF- DEM
te- a kiu n- o sinivi suuna.
PREP- ART work POSS- ART canoe genuine
'... then he does it just by himself because the building of the potee type canoe is not as hard as the building of the sinivi suuna (genuine canoe).’ [Mor. 4.21-24R]

(4) **Eve- hee tea moroko ki- ri bono nahu,**
3SG- CONJ COMPL talk DAT- OBJ:3PL ART pot
**ahiki be ta peha nahu bai tono ei kou sa o aba haa- ri.**
not exist COMPL ART one pot listen because NEG ART people NEG IMPF:3PL
'But when he was talking to the pots, not one of them listened because (pots) are not people.' [Aro. 2.24-26E]