A GRAMMAR OF LENAKEL

by

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1. GENERAL

The Lenakel language is spoken in the central west of the island of Tanna, the most heavily populated island in the Southern District of the New Hebrides Condominium. It is an Austronesian language, whose closest relatives are the other four languages of Tanna and the languages of the neighbouring islands of Eromanga and Aneityum. Its 3,000 speakers speak the language in a number of dialects; that outlined here is spoken natively in the south-west of the Lenakel-speaking area, but for the past century it has gained wider currency as the 'standard' dialect used by the Presbyterian Mission on the island.

Little previous work has been done on this language, and virtually all of it is in manuscript form (Capell Ms.; Paton 1922). However, there are sketch grammars of related languages on Tanna by Codrington (1885), Gray (Macdonald 1891), and Ray (1926). The available material prior to 1968 is summarised in Capell 1962 and Lynch 1967.

I began fieldwork on the languages of the Southern New Hebrides with a month's work in 1968. This was followed by six months in 1970, three months in 1973, and two months in 1975. Most of this period has been

---

The situation is rather more complicated than is stated here. The Lenakel 'language' is in effect a complex of dialects; and this complex forms part of a dialect chain with two other dialect-complexes, the North Tanna complex and the Whitesands complex (see map). Lexicostatistical figures, based on a slightly modified Swadesh 200-word list, are:

North Tanna

73-80% 81-86%

Lenakel—75-81%—Whitesands

The grammars of all three 'languages' are virtually identical, with the same kinds of morphemes being used in the same way in each. The major phonological differences are (1) the lack of the phoneme /w/ in Whitesands and North Tanna, and (2) the presence of prenasalised stops /mpw/, /mp/, and /nt/ in North Tanna.

1.2. AIM AND ORGANISATION

It is hoped that this grammar of Lenakel may be read and understood by both linguists and laymen. I have thus attempted to explain clearly and simply the workings of Lenakel grammar, and have eschewed the use of unnecessarily difficult terminology where possible. This grammar is thus essentially a descriptive account of the Lenakel language, although I have used the footnotes to make points of an explanatory nature when I have felt that these would be of interest to professional linguists.

The following chapter contains a very general introduction to Lenakel phonology; a much more detailed analysis may be found in Lynch 1975. Chapter 3 deals with the morphology of Lenakel. It outlines the various classes of free morphemes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adjuncts, and interjections) and then deals with affixes to verbs, affixes to nouns, and the case-marking prepositions. The fourth chapter deals with the structure of the simple sentence in Lenakel, while Chapter 5 is concerned with complex sentences as expansions of simple sentences or components of simple sentences. This chapter is followed by some illustrative texts in Lenakel.

The orthography is discussed in Chapter 2. Lenakel examples in Chapters 3-6 are presented as follows: first, the way the phrase, sentence or text is written in the suggested orthography; second, a morpheme-by-morpheme breakdown of the Lenakel material; third, morpheme-by-morpheme glosses; and finally, a free English translation.

1.3. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I take great pleasure in acknowledging the assistance I have received from many people in the preparation of this grammar. My debt to my major informant, Tom Hiua, is immense—his unruffled patience and cheerful assistance have been indispensable over the years, and I hope he finds this grammar a just reward. I must also thank John Kalete, Lomhanteni, Iasu, David Nasu, and other Tannese from Loumelapen, Isini, Bethel and Lomtehekel for their help. Père Albert Sacco has also shared his 20 years' experience of the Lenakel language in a most open-handed way, and I owe him a great debt of gratitude for his down-to-earth comments on previous drafts.

The Paul family of Tanna have assisted this work in almost every extralinguistic way possible. I am eternally grateful for their
encouragement and friendship. I must also thank the various British District Agents and the Délégué Française, M. André Pouillet, for their assistance.

My dissertation committee at the University of Hawaii (George Grace, Irwin Howard, Byron Bender, Al Schütz and Bob Krohn) gave me much useful advice, and I have also profited from discussions with a number of colleagues at the University of Papua New Guinea, particularly Ann Chowning, Tom Dutton, and Frans Liefrink.

1.4. ABBREVIATIONS AND CONVENTIONS

The following abbreviations are used in the text:

- morpheme-boundary
: separates English words which together form the gloss for a single Lenakel morpheme

--> is rewritten as

==> is transformed into

1 first person
2 second person
3 third person
A adjective root
Adj adjective (= root + affixes)
appos appositive prefix
benef benefactive marker
conc concurrent tense-aspect prefix
cont continuative prefix
dual

d, D adjunct
dat dative marker
Ddem demonstrative adjunct
Ddesc descriptive adjunct
Dnum grammatical number marking adjunct
Dqty quantifying adjunct
Dvb verbal adjunct

exc exclusive
fut future
inc inclusive
ins instrumental marker
int intentional prefix
itr interrogative prefix
k.o. kind of
lit. literally
loc locative marker
LP  locative phrase
M  modality
N  noun
neg  negative prefix, negative postclitic
Ninal  inalienable noun
NL  locative noun
no.  number-of-subject prefix
nom  nominalising affix
NP  noun phrase
NPinal  inalienable noun phrase
NPsemi  semi-alienable noun phrase
ns  non-singular
NT  temporal noun
P  proposition
perf  perfective prefix
pers  person-of-subject prefix
pl  plural
poss  possessive marker
PP  possessive phrase
PPal  alienable possessive phrase
PPinal  inalienable possessive phrase
PPsemi  semi-alienable possessive phrase
PRO  pronoun
pro:sfx  pronominal suffix
rec  reciprocal suffix
refl  reflexive suffix
rel  relative marker
s  singular
S  sentence
seq  sequential prefix
tns  tense-aspect
TP  temporal phrase
tr  trial
trans  transitive postclitic
V  verb root
Vdir  directional verb
Verb  verb (= root + affixes)
Vintr  intransitive verb
VP  verb phrase
Vsing  singular verb
Vtr  transitive verb
As explained in Chapter 2, the acute accent (') marks either irregular stress, or the fact that a high vowel has not become a glide as expected; in many words it marks both simultaneously.

The asterisk (*) is used with three meanings, each of which is deducible from the context: (1) marks a following sentence as ungrammatical; (2) marks a following word as having been reconstructed as belonging to some proto-language; (3) marks a preceding constituent in a rule as being permitted to occur more than once in a string.
2.0. INTRODUCTION

The sound system of Lenakel is relatively complex as compared with that of other Austronesian languages of Oceania. In this chapter I merely wish to outline some general aspects of Lenakel phonology, and to explain the orthography used (which differs considerably from the early Mission orthography). A fuller account of Lenakel phonology can be found in Lynch 1975.

The following symbols are used to represent the 21 Lenakel phonemes: a, e, f, g, h, i, t, k, l, m, mw, n, o, p, pw, r, s, t, u, v, w. In addition, the acute accent ' is also used; its functions are described in 2.2.2. and 2.4.1. below.

The phonemes /g/, /t/, /mw/ and /pw/ were written as /ŋ/, /α/, /m/ and /p/ respectively in Lynch 1975.

The early mission orthography (1) did not represent the velarised bilabials /pw/ and /mw/, nor the mid central vowel /i/; (2) represented both the voiced and voiceless allophones of /p/ and /t/ (but not of /k/); and (3) represented [w], the glide allophone of /u/ (but not [y], the corresponding glide allophone of /i/).
2.1. CONSONANTS

Lenakel has 15 consonant phonemes, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: LENAKEL CONSONANT PHONEMES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Velarised Bilabial</th>
<th>Simple Bilabial</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Postvelar</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stops</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pw</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>k</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricatives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f</td>
<td>s</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Nasals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mw</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flap</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glides</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w</td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
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2.1.1. OBSTRUENTS

The stops /pw p t k/ are all lenis. In initial position they occur unaspirated and variable as to voicing; in medial position unaspirated and voiced; in final position aspirated and voiceless. This distribution is shown in Table 2.

Table 2: DISTRIBUTION OF STOP ALLOPHONES

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<th></th>
<th>Initial</th>
<th>Medial</th>
<th>Final</th>
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<tr>
<td>/pw/</td>
<td>[pw]</td>
<td>[bw]</td>
<td>[pwh]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>[p]</td>
<td>[b]</td>
<td>[ph]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>[t]</td>
<td>[d]</td>
<td>[th]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/k/</td>
<td>[k]</td>
<td>[g]</td>
<td>[kh]</td>
</tr>
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Some examples follow.

(1) /pwapauk/ [p′wobw Vk k bpobw Vk k] "butterfly"
/paranpaat/ [p′anbāt k p′anbāt k] "k.o. crab"
/takrīn/ [tāgīn k dāgīn k] "a little"

The notion of the phonological word is an important one, as lexical items may be words in certain contexts but only parts of words in others. Consider the following:

a. /kam-lau/ [k′amla u k′amla u] 'we (exc.d.)'
b. /le-kam-lau/ [lāk′mələu lāk′mələu] 'to us (exc.d.)'

In example a., /kam-lau/ is a phonological word, and in word-initial position the stop is variable as to voicing (i.e. [k ~ g]). In example b., however, /kam-lau/ is only part of the phonological word, and thus in word-medial position the stop is voiced.
In addition, /t/ and /k/ occur voiceless and aspirated before /h/, while /p/ becomes the voiceless bilabial fricative [g] in this position; /h/ is lost in both cases.1

(2) /kathel/ [kátʰel] 'we (inc.tr.)'
/t-n-ak-ho/ [tɪnəkʰo] 'you (s.) will hit it'
/t-n-ep-hal-va/ [tɪnədʒalə] 'you (tr.) will come'

The alveolar stop /t/ is palatalised before /i/, becoming [t̪] or [d̪] according to its position within the word.2

(3) /katilum/ [kaddilum] 'five'
/t-ι-ak-ol/ [t̪y̟d̪ol] 'I'll do it'

The velar stop /k/ becomes a fricative intervocally; thus medial intervocalic [g] varies with [γ], while medial intervocalic [kh] (which derives from /k/ + /h/) varies with [x].

(4) /n-ak-am-kɪn/ [naγməŋ] 'you (s.) are eating it'
/i-ak-ha-lol/ [yaγdɪl] 'we (inc.tr.) do it'

The fricative /f/ is phonetically labio-dental [f] in all environments. The fricative /s/ is phonetically labio-dental in word-final position [s] freely varies with [h].

(5) /pukas/ [pʊgas] 'pig'
/r-ɪm-kɪs/ [fɪmgaʃ] 'he bit it'

2.1.2. SONORANTS

All the consonantal sonorants /mw m n g l r/ normally occur voiced: [m̟], [m], [n], [ŋ], [l], [ɾ]. The flap [ɾ] becomes trilled ([ɾ]) in word-final position.

(6) /nohəɾ/ [nɔhaɾ] 'wall'
/r-ɪm-r/ [ɾfmaɾ] 'outrigger float'

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1There are no examples of the sequence /pw/ + /h/. Comparative evidence, however, suggests that this would become f in Lenakel. Note first that surface Ch in Lenakel often corresponds to surface Cah in North Tanna: Lenakel /agh/, North Tanna /agah/, 'to spit'. Now if we compare Lenakel /alfa/, North Tanna /alpwa/, 'to be lazy', we find some confirmation of the suggestion that Lenakel pw + h would become f.

2In some dialects, particularly in the north-west of the Lenakel-speaking area, tɪ or ty becomes s. Thus /t-ι-ak-ɪn/, 'I will say', which in the dialect which forms the basis for this study is phonetically [t̪ʊgəɾɪ] + d̪y̟gəɾɪ], is pronounced [sʊgəɾɪ] in the north-west and some other dialects.
When immediately followed by /h/, however, these sonorants become voiceless: [ʍ], [ʢ], [ʢ], [ʢ], [ʢ], [ʢ]; the /h/ is lost in these cases.

(7) /amwha/ [ʔmʍа] 'to suck'
    /n-tm-ho/ [n妤ʊ] 'you (s.) hit it'
    /r-n-ho/ [rخمس] 'he has hit it'
    /agh/ [ dai] 'to spit'
    /ilhe/ [ʢئی] 'they (tr.)'
    /rho/ [طی] 'he hit it'
    /tınmûrh/ [تینمûرـغ] 'island'

The glide /h/ is always voiceless. The glide /ʍ/ is a voiced high central glide, phonetically [ɻ], which becomes voiceless in the same manner as the consonantal sonorants (i.e. when immediately followed by /h/).

(8) /r-tm-ını/ [的理念] 'he went'
    /kavhevha/ [کاۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەۋەﯚ}}
There appear to be no restrictions as to the nature of consonants which may cluster with one another. Other aspects of consonant clustering are discussed in 2.3. below.

2.2. VOWELS

The six Lenakel vowel phonemes are shown in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>i</td>
<td></td>
<td>u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td></td>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.1. CENTRAL VOWELS

The vowel /a/ is generally low, central and unrounded [a]. It becomes low front unrounded [a] after /v/.

(10) /nîkava/ [nîgája ~ nîgâja] "kava"
/atîvan/ [adYiği] 'to be warm'

When adjacent to a velarised bilabial, /a/ becomes low back rounded [ɒ].

(11) /apwa/ [árophy] 'locative marker'
/epluck/ [ebvoyk] 'to fold'
/namwi-n/ [nömwin] 'his footprints'
/nîmwaata-n/ [nîmwoðán] 'his back'

The mid central vowel /i/ occurs relatively high ([i]) after alveolar consonants (/t s n l r v/) and relatively low ([ə]) in other environments.

(12) /n-îm-kîn/ [nîmgan] 'you (s.) ate it'
/amkîmâk/ [amgeðok] 'dirty'
/rîmîr/ [tîmər] 'outrigger float'
/ tôktîk/ [adfeðok] 'not to know'

2.2.2. HIGH VOWELS

The high vowels /i/ and /u/ occur lax ([i] and [u]) in closed syllables - i.e., before a consonant cluster or a word-final consonant - and tense ([i] and [u]) in other positions - i.e., before a single medial consonant, before a vowel, or in word-final position.
The high vowels /i/ and /u/ become glides ([y] and [w]) when adjacent to vowels. There are two ordered directional rules which account for this.\(^1\)

\[(15)\] \(i, u \rightarrow [y, w] / \_ \_ V\)

\[(16)\] \(i, u \rightarrow [y, w] / V \_ \_\)

Rule (15) begins from the right-hand end of the word and changes any high vowel which is immediately followed by another vowel to a glide. Rule (16) must apply after rule (15); if the reverse order applies, then underlying /uus/ 'man' becomes */[wus] and not the correct [wós].\(^2\)

---

\(^1\)Directional rules in phonology are discussed in Howard 1972.

\(^2\)It follows from the above remarks that certain occurrences of [w] derive from /u/ and certain others from /w/. In many cases, there are no criteria for deciding whether a particular occurrence of [w] derives from /u/ or /w/. In such cases I have consistently assumed that the [w] derives from /u/.
There are certain regular exceptions to these rules. First, in words of the form \#CHV(C)# - i.e., if the word is composed of consonant + high vowel + any vowel + optional consonant - the rules do not apply, and the high vowel remains a high vowel.¹

(20) /pwiw-k/ \[p\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{w}}}fakh} \sim b\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{w}}}fakh}\] 'my older brother'  
   /tui/ \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{t}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{u}}} \sim d\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{u}}}}}\] 'the top of'

Second, if the last vowel in a morpheme is a geminate cluster of high vowels, and if this is preceded by a consonant, neither of the high vowels becomes a glide.²

(21) /auslum/ \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{a}}}us\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{u}}}m}\] 'tabu'  
   /amnuumw/ \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{a}}}mnu\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{u}}}m}\] 'to drink'

There are also a few irregular words in which the high vowel does not become a glide as expected. In these words the appropriate vowel will be marked with an acute accent.

(22) /n\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{a}}}mha/} \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{a}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{m}}}ha}\] 'anger'  
   /el\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{u}}}a/} \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{e}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{y}}}a}\] 'to tell a lie'

2.2.3. MID VOWELS

The mid front and back vowels /e/ and /o/ occur lax ([ɛ] and [ɔ]) before a consonant and tense ([e] and [o]) before a vowel or in word-final position.

(23) /el\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{m}}}as/} \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{e}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{m}}}as}\] 'to frighten'  
   /kathel/ \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{k}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{a}}}h\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{t}}}e}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{l}}}e}]\] 'we (inc.tr.)'  
   /kimelu/ \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{k}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{m}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{e}}}l\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{u}}}m]\] 'k.o. basket'  
   /mweamwea/ \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{m}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{w}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{e}}}m\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{w}}}m\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{e}}}a}\] 'ant'  
   /n\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{f}}}tse/} \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{n}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{f}}}t\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{se}}}d}\] 'taro'

(24) /v\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{i}}}lovlo/} \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{v}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{i}}}l\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{v}}}lo}\] 'k.o. bird'  
   /t\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{k}}}komkom/} \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{t}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{g}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{m}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{m}}}g\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{m}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{m}}}g}\] 'branches'  
   /ot\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{i}}}/} \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{o}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{t}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{i}}}}\] 'to separate'  
   /k\text{\texttt{a}matoa/} \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{k}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{m}}}\text{\texttt{a}d\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{o}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{d}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{d}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{o}}}a}\] 'k.o. taro'  
   /amak\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{o}}}/} \[\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{a}}}\text{\texttt{m\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{a}}}d\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{g}}}o}}\] 'to dance (of a woman)'

¹Note, however, that when lexical items like these are preceded in the same phonological word by one or more syllables, the high vowel regularly becomes a glide. Compare the examples in (20) with those below:

   /to-pwiw-k/ \[t\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{s}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{b}}}yakh} \sim d\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{s}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{b}}}yakh}\] 'to my older brother'  
   /le-tui/ \[l\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{\texttt{d}}}\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{d}}}w\text{\texttt{\textbf{\textit{l}}}}}\] 'on top of'

²Geminate vowel clusters are further discussed in 2.2.4. below.
2.2.4. VOWEL CLUSTERS

Within Lenakel morphemes, certain kinds of clusters of unlike vowels are prohibited: the vowel /i/ only occurs in the clusters /u+i/ and /i+i/; and the clusters /ae/, /ao/, /eo/ and /oe/ do not occur. That is, if the first member of the unlike cluster is /i/ or /u/, the second member may be any vowel; if the first member is /e/ or /o/, then the second member must be higher or lower; if the first member is /a/, the second member must be a high vowel; no unlike vowel clusters with /t/ as the first member occur in Lenakel. The list below shows examples of each of the permissible clusters of unlike vowels.1

(25) /aik/ 'to swim' /kalau/ 'we (inc.d.)'
/eaku/ 'to break off' /oatitsig/ 'behind'
/olkeikei/ 'to like' /koiameta/ 'a political group'
/euk/ 'to stamp' /arou/ 'to hear'
/kiag/ 'a fly' /ua/ 'or'
/nien/ 'ooonut' /ueial/ 'pumice'
/iowanhn/ 'uria' /tui-n/ 'on top of it'
/kiu/ 'two' /uuiou/ 'a boil'
/nimhitiw/ 'k.o. tree' /suir/ 'a grave'

It is apparent that certain of the clusters of unlike vowels which are prohibited within Lenakel morphemes may occur across morpheme-boundaries. Because of the nature of Lenakel minor morphemes, only the cluster /ao/ is commonly observed:

(26) /n-ɪm-ia-ol/ 'you two did it'

Geminate vowel clusters also occur, and all six possible geminate vowel clusters have been observed: /ii/, /uu/, /ee/, /i+i/, /o/o/ and /aa/. These clusters have the following characteristics: they are no longer than single vowels; when in word-final position, the word takes final stress rather than penultimate stress; before word-final consonants front and back vowels occur tense, not lax.

(27) /ansi/ [asís] 'to swell up'
/amnumw/ [amnumw] 'to drink'
/apkeen/ [abgén] 'to be jealous'
/alm+i/ [almól] 'to be insane'
/ielmoou/ [yelmów] 'saltwater eel'
/esuaas/ [εswís] 'small'

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1 We will see below—rule (36) i-FRONTING—that /i/ changes to e when preceded by i or y, in those cases where the i or y is morpheme-final and the /i/ is morpheme-initial.
2.3. MORPHOPHONEMIC RULES

Particular morphophonemic rules which are morphologically conditioned will be noted in the appropriate sections in the chapter on morphology (Chapter 3). Certain other morphophonemic rules are more general, however, and it will be useful to detail these here.

2.3.1. RULES RELATING TO [+] 

As well as phonemic occurrences of the mid central vowel /+/, there are also non-phonemic occurrences which are predictable. In each of the cases to be briefly discussed below, the inserted [+] may receive stress or is in any case regarded as a full-fledged vowel when the rules assigning stress are applied.¹

When two consonants come together at the beginning or the end of a word, [+] is inserted between them provided that neither is a glide.

(28) /t-n-ep-k+n/  [t+nēbgn̥ ~ d+nēbgn̥]  'you will eat it'
/r-t+m-tn/  [f+mən̥an]
 'he was afraid'

The rule inserting [+] is (29):

(29) SCHWA-INSERTION
Ø → +  % # [+cons] ___ [+cons]
(The symbol % indicates that the rule is mirror-image).

When three non-vowels occur together word-internally, [+] is inserted between the second and the third.

(30) /i-s+t-tn-an/  [dəsɪdɔn̥]\(\text{'don't go up there'}\)
/i-ak-ai-alfa/  ==>  /i-ak-ai-lfa/  [yagaylff]  'we (exc.pl.) are lazy'

The rule inserting [+] is (31):

(31) MEDIAL SCHWA-INSERTION
Ø → +  / CC ___ C

When two identical consonants occur together across a morpheme-boundary, [+] is inserted between them.

(32) /i-ak-k+n/  [yagŋən]  'I eat it'
/t-r+r/  [ti+fəfəy ~ d+t+t]  'he will write'

The rule which inserts [+] is (33):

(33) GEMINATE CLUSTER SPLITTING
Ø → +  / C_i ___ C_i

¹ By 'the inserted [+]' I mean [+] or [ə], depending on the previous consonant (see the discussion of the allophones of /+/ in 2.2.1.).
In addition, [+] optionally occurs between any two consonants (as long as the first is not a glide and the following vowel is unstressed). This [+] has no effect on the placement of stress.

(34) /r-am-alfa/ [famalfa ~ famali] 'he is lazy'
     /nimr-n/ [nfmirn ~ nfmafin] 'his eye'

There is one further predictable occurrence of [+] . Especially in fast speech, unstressed /a/ in any position, and unstressed /i/ and /e/ in a closed final syllable, optionally reduce to [+].

(35) /man-ian/ [manwan ~ manwan ~ manwan ~ manwan] 'hidden'
     /liis/ [fliis ~ flis] 'up'
     /eheg/ [ehen ~ ehon] 'to blow the nose'

Finally, /+/- becomes [e] by rule (36):

(36) ː-FRONTING
      +  →  e / ː /

That is, morpheme-initial [+] changes to e when preceded by morpheme-final i or y:

(37) /i-im-kin/ [yemgan] 'I ate it'
     /i-ini/ [yni] 'spokesman'

2.3.2. RULES RELATING TO OTHER VOWELS

The vowel /a/ undergoes a number of changes. One of these is rounding, by the following rule.

(38) A-ROUNDING
      a  →  o / w/

That is, a becomes o before the phoneme /w/ (but not before those cases of phonetic [w] which derive from /u/). This rule is needed to explain why some phonetically ow-initial verbs delete the initial vowel in certain grammatical contexts—a characteristic of a-initial verbs but not of o-initial verbs. Thus what is phonetically [swda], 'to sit', is phonologically /awta/.

Two separate rules change /a/ to e. One is (39):

(39) LOW VOWEL DISSIMILATION
      a  →  e / aa

That is, /a/ is raised to e before the geminate cluster /aa/.

(40) /t-i-ːs-va-aan/ [tesjean ~ djesjean] 'I won't come'
     /n-aklha-aan/ [ndglean] 'theft'

The other is (41):

(41) LOW VOWEL RAISING
      a  →  e / i
That is, /a/ is raised to e before morpheme-initial /l/.

(42) /i-îm-akha-în/ [yêma gj ôn] 'I stole it'
   /etag-pa-în/ [êda ngbe fn] 'look this way!'

Vowels are regularly lost by the following rule:

(43) VOWEL LOSS

\[
\begin{bmatrix} V \\ -\text{rnd} \end{bmatrix}_1 \rightarrow \emptyset / V C_0 - C_0 - h \begin{bmatrix} V \\ -\text{rnd} \end{bmatrix}_1 C_0
\]

Rule (43) states that, if morphemes beginning with C1h1, C1e1, C1h+, or Caha are preceded in the same phonological word by another morpheme, then the first of the two identical vowels flanking the h is deleted (and other changes characteristic of consonant clusters with h also occur). Compare the examples in (44) with those in (45).

(44) /paha/ [pāha ~ bāha] 'westwards'
    /tehe/ [tēhe ~ déhe] 'sea'
    /nihin/ [nifth] 'day before yesterday'

(45) /r-îm-asou-paha/ [rîmasw̃b̃a] 'he went westwards'
    /le-tehe/ [lēthe] 'to the sea'
    /to-nihin/ [tōgīn ~ dōgīn] 'day after tomorrow'

Vowels are inserted before verbs beginning with m by the following rule:

(46) VOWEL INSERTION

\[
\emptyset \rightarrow V_1 / V_1 C - m (C_0 V) O_0 # V
\]

Rule (46) states that, when verbs beginning with m are preceded by a morpheme ending in a consonant - with the exception of the number markers - a vowel identical to the vowel preceding that consonant is inserted between that consonant and verb-initial m.

(47) /t-r-ep-mig/ [tîf̃eb̃emīn ~ dîf̃eb̃emīn] 'he will stay away'
    /r-ak-mis/ [fagāmîs] 'he is sick'
    /r-n-mîr/ [fînmf̃ar] 'it has dried'

2.3.3. RULES RELATING TO CONSONANTS

The glide /h/ metathesises by the following rule:

(48) H-METATHESIS

\[
\begin{bmatrix} V \\ +\text{h} \end{bmatrix} - h \begin{bmatrix} V \\ -\text{hi} \\ -\text{rnd} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow 3, 1, 2, 4
\]

1 2 3 4
Rule (48) states that, given a morpheme which ends in i or u which is followed by a morpheme beginning with he, hi, or ha, then the h metathesises to a position preceding the i or u.¹

(49) /kami-hei/ --> /kamhi-ei/ [kámi'ei ~ gámi'ei] 'you (tr.)'
/ai-hapel/ --> /ahl-pel/ [ahfbel] 'clean it (pl.)!'
/u-har+g/ --> /hu-ar+g/ [yhâ+g] 'close it (pl.)!'

Certain consonants are deleted by the following rule:

(50) CORONAL SIMPLIFICATION
[+cor] --> Ø / ___ - [+cor] CºV

Rule (50) states that, if a morpheme ending in a coronal (alveolar) consonant is followed in the same word by a morpheme beginning with a coronal consonant, then the first of these two consonants is lost.²

(51) /kat-lau/ [ká'law ~ gá'law] 'we (inc.d.)'
/ili-lau/ [fl'aw] 'they (d.)'
/k-hal-r+sín/ [khal'fsín] 'they (tr.) untied it'
/n-Üm-ar-su/ [n'àmàsu] 'you (pl.) planted it'

If two identical consonants come together across a word-boundary, the first is deleted.³

(52) /menuk+#sǐl/ [mēnuk'asǐl ~ mēnug'asǐl] 'three birds'
/nam#miin/ [nà'mın] 'fish (pl.)'

2.4. ACCENT

2.4.1. STRESS

Stress in Lenakel is generally of an alternating pattern, and falls on the vowel as the nucleus of a syllable.

The vowel in a monosyllable receives primary stress, as does the penultimate syllable in a polysyllable.

¹In the second example in (49), /ai-hapel/ first becomes ahl-apel by H-METATHESIS. Since the verb now begins with a, this a is deleted since it is preceded by the plural prefix (see fn.1, p.10 above, and also 3.2.7. below); the verb thus becomes ahl-pel, ultimately [ahfbel].

²CORONAL SIMPLIFICATION does not apply to the verbal prefixes /t-/ 'future', /r-/ 'third person singular subject', /n-/ 'perfective', or /üs-/ 'negative'.

³That it is the first of the two identical consonants which is deleted can be seen from an examination of the first example in (52). There the velar stop is variable as to voicing ([k ~ g]), indicating that it is word-initial; and the vowel preceding it is tense ([u]), indicating that it is word-final. It is thus the k of /menuk/ and not the k of /k+sǐl/ which has been deleted.
In polysyllabic verbs and adjectives of four or more syllables, primary stress falls on the penultimate syllable; secondary stress falls on the initial syllable; and secondary stress also falls on each alternate syllable to the right of the initial syllable, except that the syllable immediately preceding the primary-stressed syllable never receives stress.

In other polysyllables, every alternate syllable to the left of the primary-stressed penultimate syllable receives secondary stress, (and thus the initial syllable is not necessarily stressed, as it is in verbs).

In phrases and sentences, each word maintains its own internal stress pattern, but primary stress occurs only once in the string. Thus the last primary-stressed vowel retains primary stress, while all other occurrences of primary stress reduce to secondary stress, and all occurrences of secondary stress reduce to tertiary stress (symbolized here by ^). The stress pattern for sentence (56a) - in which / marks a phrase-boundary and // a sentence-boundary - is given as (56b).

There are certain regular exceptions to the rules outlined above. Words ending in a geminate vowel cluster followed optionally by a consonant, or in a glide + consonant cluster, or in a glide + h, take final and not penultimate primary stress.

(53) /io/ [yó] 'I'
    /napuk/ [náبوک] 'one' 
    /r-im-augtn/ [ɾɪmáʊŋən] 'he ate' 
    /nelulaglag/ [nɛlʊyɒŋɒŋ] 'twig' 

(54) /r-im-olkeikei/ [ɾɪm oleikɛi] 'he liked it' 
    /n-im-ar-olkeikei/ [nɪməfolgɛgy] 'you (pl.) liked it' 
    /n-im-am-ar-olkeikei/ [nɪmamɪfolgɛgy] 'you (pl.) were liking it' 
    /t-n-ak-am-ar-olkeikei/ [tɪnagdəfolgɛgy] 'you (pl.) will be liking it' 

(55) /kamatoa/ [kɒmadoa] 'k.o. taro' 
    /nɪmwaʃlakɪl/ [nɪmɔgaləgal] 'beach' 
    /tupwalukaluk/ [tʊbɔluglukh] 'lungs' 

(56) a. // leram#ituga / r-olkeikei / maiako#matak //
    'The foreigner likes cooked manioc (cassava)'

(57) /r-am-anuumw/ [ɾadcumw] 'he is drinking' 
    /r-am-elhuai/ [ɾdemɛɥďɛŋ] 'he is hiding it' 
    /r-am-aih/ [ɾämɛ] 'it is flowing'
The transitive postclitic -fn always receives primary stress when in word-final position.

(58) /r-im-akiha-fn/  [%fmg]en] 'he stole it'
/r-im-ign-fn/  [fmafn] 'he was afraid of it'

In polysyllabic verbs which take final stress for one or another of the reasons described above, the antepenultimate syllable receives secondary stress; the initial syllable receives secondary stress; and secondary stress also falls on each alternate syllable to the left of the initial syllable, except that it never falls on the syllable immediately preceding the secondary-stressed antepenult.¹

(59) /n-im-ar-akiha-fn/  [nma]en] 'you (pl.) stole it'
/n-im-am-ar-akiha-fn/  [nmama]en] 'you (pl.) were stealing it'
/t-r-ep-aukran+fn/  [tfebdwga]en] 'he'll subsequently drown it'
/na-t-l-ep-al-aukran+fn/  [ndfebdwga]en] 'we (exc.pl.) will be ready to drown it'

Certain historically complex morphemes also take final stress, but these are indicated by an acute accent on the final vowel: /hnatin/ [hnad'fn] 'to know'; /nimwanar/ [nmw'n] 'leaf-container'. An acute accent also marks antepenultimate primary stress in the few exceptional cases in which this occurs: /nakapun/ [nagabun] 'fishing-net'.

Monosyllabic objects which immediately follow the verb are de-stressed, with the immediately preceding syllable taking primary stress.

(60) /r-am-kin#nam/  [pamg]en] 'he is eating fish'
/r-im-ho#io/  [pi]en] 'he hit me'

Monosyllabic possessors behave identically, losing their stress and transferring primary stress to the immediately preceding vowel.²

(61) /nelu#ki/  [ne]en] 'the flying-fox's tooth'
/taha#nau/  [tah]en] 'belonging to Nau'

Monosyllabic adjuncts in phrase-final position take tertiary, not primary stress.

(62) /maiako#ker/  [maydok]en] 'a manioc'
/pwas#ra/  [pys]en] 'wait on now!'

¹Final-stressed verbs of four syllables take secondary stress on the initial syllable but not on the antepenultimate syllable: /r-n-hnatin/ [fginad'fn] 'he knew it'.

²Monosyllabic objects and possessors undergo this destressing only when they are the sole constituent of the object or possessive phrase. If a monosyllabic object or possessor is followed by another word in the same phrase, destressing does not occur: /r-am-kin#nam#ker/ [famgandm]en] 'he is eating a fish'.


2.4.2. INTONATION

Intonation in Lenakei has not been investigated in any depth. However, certain general patterns of intonation in statements, yes-no questions and information questions have been observed, and these are briefly detailed below. In all the examples which follow, intonation levels are represented by numbers, with 1 representing the lowest pitch and 4 the highest; the numbers indicating pitch-levels are changed only when the pitch-level itself changes (so that in (63), for example, the first two vowels are on level 1, the next six on level 2, and so on).

Statements generally end in a 131 (fall-rise-fall) intonation pattern.

(63) /r-im-aliuok m-vin apwa lenak+1/

\[
\begin{array}{c}
1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\
\end{array}
\]

[ffmallwokh mavin ñb‘wò ñenágal]

'He walked to Lenakei'

Yes-no questions without the sentence-final question-tag ua end in a rising intonation.

(64) /r-im-aliuok m-vin apwa lenak+1?/

\[
\begin{array}{c}
1 & 2 & 4 \\
\end{array}
\]

[ffmallwokh mavin ñb‘wò ñenágal]

'Did he walk to Lenakei?'

Yes-no questions with the sentence-final question-tag ua end in a 43 (rise-fall) intonation pattern.

(65) /r-im-aliuok m-vin apwa lenak+1 ua?/

\[
\begin{array}{c}
1 & 2 & 4 & 3 \\
\end{array}
\]

[ffmallwokh mavin ñb‘wò ñenágal wå]

'Did he walk to Lenakei (or not) ?'

Information questions have the same intonation patterns as statements, except that interrogatives occurring in non-final position have a higher pitch-level than neighbouring words.\(^1\)

(66) /pehe r-im-aliuok m-vin apwa lenak+1?/

\[
\begin{array}{c}
3 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 & 1 \\
\end{array}
\]

[pëhe fffmallwokh mavin ñb‘wò ñenágal]

'Who walked to Lenakei?'

\(^1\)For convenience, only the representation [pëhe] of /pehe/ is given in (66); the variant [bëhe] may, of course, also occur.
3.0. INTRODUCTION

Five classes of free morphemes occur in Lenakel - nouns, verbs, adjectives, adjuncts, and interjections - and each of these will be discussed in turn in section 3.1., where the various subclasses and methods of formation will be examined. The rest of this chapter will be taken up with a discussion of minor morphemes: the complex system of verbal affixes in section 3.2., nominal affixes in 3.3., and the case-marking prepositions in 3.4.

3.1. FREE MORPHEMES

3.1.1. NOUNS

Nouns (N) are words which can never take verbal affixes like those discussed in 3.2. below, and which may stand alone as the sole constituent of a noun phrase (NP).

3.1.1.1. Classes of Nouns

There are a number of different classes of Lenakel nouns.

Locative Nouns (NL) are nouns which may stand alone as the sole constituent of a locative phrase (LP). Some locative nouns are names of places:^1

---

^1A few very common place names, like Isangel and Lenakel in (1), are spelled here in the way they are usually written in Tanna; the phonetically correct forms Isag+ and Lenak+ will not be used.

For orthographic purposes, † will be written wherever it is inserted by the rules discussed in 2.3.1. in the first line of each example, although any case of inserted † will not, of course, appear in the morpheme-by-morpheme transcription.
(1) Isangel 'Isangel (a government station)'
   Isini 'Sydney (a village)'
   Lenakel 'Lenakel (a region)'
   Ifila 'Vila (capital of the New Hebrides)'

Others are locational words:
(2) isîu 'to or at the lake'
    limwa 'homewards, at home'
    lrhe 'to or at the sea'
    lauanu 'to or in the village'

Most locative nouns occur with initial Ŧ or Ŭ, which seem at one time to have been locative prefix.¹

Temporal Nouns (NT) are nouns which may stand alone as the sole constituent of a temporal phrase (TP). Some indicate various times of the day:
(3) lakapnîpin 'morning'
    lalukiaat 'midday'
    lenhaiu 'evening'
    lapîn 'night'
    lalukîn 'midnight'

Others indicate other kinds of time-relationships:
(4) nuhu 'long ago'
    nenav 'yesterday'
    touek 'today'
    tolauk 'tomorrow'

Pronouns (PRO) form another type of Lenakel noun. Free pronouns function as subject and object of verbs, and may also occur after most case-marking prepositions. In the non-singular, Lenakel shows a distinction between inclusive and exclusive first person, and also between dual, trial and plural numbers. The free pronouns are:²

¹The fact that initial Ŧ and Ŭ in these words were at one time prefixes can be seen by comparing some of the words in (2) with the corresponding non-locative nouns nisîu 'lake'; nimwa 'house'; and nauanu 'village'. (The initial Ŧ in these words, and in many others, also seems to have been a prefix, and apparently reflects the Proto-Oceanic reconstructed article *na).

²The morphemic composition of the free pronouns is shown below. The second morpheme in each of the non-singular pronouns represents the number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Trial</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 inc.</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>kat-lau</td>
<td>kat-hel</td>
<td>kat-ar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 exc.</td>
<td>io</td>
<td>kam-lau</td>
<td>kam-hel</td>
<td>kam-ar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>lik</td>
<td>kami-lau</td>
<td>kami-hel</td>
<td>kami-ar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>il-lau</td>
<td>il-hel</td>
<td>il-ar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(cont'd opposite)
(5) | singular | dual | trial | plural |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 inc.</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>kalau</td>
<td>kathel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 exc.</td>
<td>io</td>
<td>kamlaun</td>
<td>kamhelm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>iik</td>
<td>kamilau</td>
<td>kamhiel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>ilaun</td>
<td>ilhel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All other nouns fall into a large residual subclass:

(6) nimwa 'house'
kuri 'dog'
tera'mim 'person'
teha 'sea'
rımın 'his father'

Cross-cutting this classification is another series of classes based on how the noun is possessed. Some nouns are inalienable (Ninal) and, as such, can never occur without some indication as to the possessor:

(7) rım- 'father'; rìmın 'his father'
nele 'tooth'; neluk 'my tooth'
in- 'mother'; in Tom 'Tom's mother'
nele'm 'hand'; nelm nîk 'branch of a tree'

Other nouns do not need to show the possessor, although they may be possessed in a variety of ways which are discussed in 4.1.3.:

(8) nau 'knife'
uikar 'seed'
nien 'coconut'
peravın 'woman, wife'

3.1.1.2. Formation

Nouns can be formed from other words, chiefly verbs (V) and adjectives (A) (but also occasionally from adjuncts (D)), in a number of ways. Certain of these involve affixes, and the use of these affixes is shown in Table 4.

(fn.2 cont'd from previous page)

In comparing these underlying forms with the orthographic forms in (5), note the application of the rule of H-METATHESIS (1.48) in the second person trial, and of the rule of CORONAL SIMPLIFICATION (1.50) in the first person inclusive dual and the third person dual.

Suffixed pronominal forms, which occur in possessive and some other contexts, are discussed in 3.3. below.
Table 4: NOUN FORMATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affix + K.o. root</th>
<th>K.o. noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i- ~ ia-</td>
<td>V, A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pera-</td>
<td>V, A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ir-</td>
<td>A, D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k-</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n-...-aan</td>
<td>V, A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n-</td>
<td>V, A, D</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The prefixing of i- (before vowels) or ia- (before consonants) changes a verb or adjective into a personal or agentive noun:

(9) akłha 'to steal' iakłha 'a thief'
    ahiğäl 'to be old' iahigäl 'old man'
    vinhenap 'senile' lavinhenap 'a senile person'
    rou 'to chase' iarou 'one who chases'

The prefix pera- occurs as a feminine personaliser in a few instances:

(10) ahiğäl 'to be old' perahigäl 'old woman'
     esuaas 'to be small' perasuas 'girl'
     mil 'dual marker' peramil 'two women'

Adjectives may also be nominalised by the prefix ir-, which serves an identificatory function in lists or comparisons. Adjuncts are also nominalised in this way.

(11) esuaas 'to be small' iresuaas 'the small(er) one'
     vi 'new' irvi 'the new(er) one'

The prefixing of k- changes verbs into instrumental nouns:

(12) arai 'to cut' karai 'axe'
     ilîl 'to fan' kilîl 'a fan'
     askîn 'to limp' kaskîn 'walking-stick'

General nominalisation is effected by the discontinuous affix n-...-aan:

---

1 Before verbs beginning with ha and he the prefix is i- and it metathesises with the initial h of the root by H-METATHESIS: thus hapel 'to clean'; hiapel 'a cleaner'. With verbs beginning with ho and hu, the prefix changes from ia- to lo-: thus ho 'to hit'; ioho 'one who hits'.

2 Note also that when pera- is prefixed to a vowel-initial word, that initial vowel is lost: pera- + ahiğäl --> perahigäl.

The word peravîn 'woman', contains the prefix pera- followed by a form vîn which does not occur in isolation with any related meaning.
In a few cases, general nouns are formed from verbs and adjectives solely by the prefixing of n-; no suffix appears. General nouns are also formed from adjuncts in this manner.

Reduplication also plays a small part in the formation of Lenakel nouns, though it is not as common as in some other Oceanic languages. In some cases, the reduplicated form of a noun indicates diminution:

Other reduplicated forms indicate intensity:

A few nouns occur as the first member of a large number of compound nouns. The noun n+mwa- 'leaf', occurs in compounds to do with leaves or coverings:

The noun n+pwa- 'hole', occurs in compounds to do with openings:

There do not seem to be any semantic or phonological grounds on which one might predict which verbs and adjectives take n- instead of n-...aan. In this context, the following are noteworthy: amkimk 'dirty'; namkimk 'dirt'; namkimkaan 'dirty weather'.

The apparent deletion of t in the second member of each compound is explained by the fact that the underlying forms of these words in fact begin with two consonants (thus /nsii-/); when preceded by a vowel-final prefix, these consonants remain as a cluster (thus n+mwansi-); when in isolation, however, t is inserted between the first and the second by rule (1.29) (thus n+sii-).
The noun noua- 'mouth', also occurs in compounds to do with openings:
(19) hiau 'volcano' nouahiau 'crater of volcano'
nimwa 'house' nouanimwa 'room, inside of house'

The noun noua- 'fruit' (which is phonologically identical to noua-
'mouth') occurs in a very large number of compounds, in some of which
the idea of fruit or product of something is present, although in
others there seems to be no observable semantic connection with the
idea of 'fruit':
(20) koupwa 'k.o. tree' nouankoupwa 'fence made of koupwa'
nelmīn 'his hand' nouanelmīn 'his finger'

These nouns also occur in compounds in which the second member is
not (though it may once have been) a freely occurring morpheme in
Lenakel:
(21) nīmwatelg- 'ear'
nīpwagnhag- 'nose, nostril'
nouanmīrhīn 'channel, passage'
nouanoukouk 'kidney'

3.1.1.3. Number

Four numbers - singular, dual, trial, and plural - are recognised in
Lenakel, but number is not generally indicated in the noun itself but by
other words in the sentence or by non-linguistic context. In many cases,
in fact, where it is not felt to be significant, indicators of number
may be omitted altogether: thus rīmknīnu may mean 'he ate a yam', 'he
ate the yam', 'he ate yams', etc. The number of the
subject, however, is reflected in certain verbal prefixes (see 3.2.
below), and all nouns may be marked for number by a following quanti-
fying or grammatical-number-marking adjunct (see 3.1.4. below).

Although most nouns are invariable as regards number, certain nouns
do change in the plural. Personal nouns formed by the prefix i- 'a-
change this to n- 'a-
the plural:
(22) iahigīl 'old man' nahigīl 'old men'
larou 'one who chases' narou 'those who chase'

1I am unable to find an explanation for the intrusive /n/ in words like nouankoupwa.

2Note parenthetically that there are no 'true' articles in Lenakel.

3Thus while the PLURAL of ierǎnf 'person', is nerǎnf, this change applies only to
the plural, not to the non-singular generally: thus ierǎnf kīu 'two people', not
*nerǎnf kīu.
Certain other nouns with initial i, in which this i may formerly have been a prefix but which has since fused with the root, also follow this rule:

(23) ieramím 'person'  neramím 'people'
     ieramwaan 'man'  neramwaan 'men'

Some other nouns have irregular plurals, although the use of the prefix n- is a common feature. The list below is probably complete:  

(24) mwipwín 'his grandchild'  namwipwín 'his grandchildren'
    nerín 'his child'  nererín 'his children'
    peravin 'woman'  nîperavin 'women'
    perasuaas 'girl'  nîperausuos 'girls'
    pehe 'who (s.)?'  nîphe 'who (pl.)?'
    pukas 'pig'  nîpukas 'pigs'
    uusuaas 'boy'  nuosuos 'boys'

3.1.2. VERBS

Verbs (V) are words which must always take the verbal affixes discussed in 3.2. below, and in this form may stand alone as the sole constituent of a verb phrase (VP).  

3.1.2.1. Classes of Verbs

There are three major classes of Lenakel verbs. Transitive verbs (V tr) are verbs which must always be followed by an object and which may never take the transitive postclitic -ín: kín 'to eat', auktiran+mwín 'to sink, drown', atakin 'to destroy' are all transitive verbs.  

    r-îm-am-kîn nuw
    3:s-past-cont-eat yam
    'He was eating yams'

1With most of the words in (24) there exists an alternative, in that the regular plural may also be used: thus both nîpukas and pukas míln are acceptable plural forms of pukas 'pig'.  

2The sole exception to the rule that verbs always take verbal affixes is in the singular imperative, where, since singular number is unmarked, no surface affixes appear: thus va! 'come (sing.)!'. Not all verbs can be used in the imperative; for the sake of simplicity, all verbs have been quoted in their root form, and this has been glossed as an infinitive: thus kín 'to eat'.  

3Recall that the first line of any example is in regular orthography; the second shows morpheme-breaks within words; the third is a morpheme-by-morpheme gloss; and the fourth a free translation.
b. Neřik rînauktîranîmîn tâhâk kûri.
   ner-k r-n-auktîranîmîn tâha-k kûri
   child-1:s 3:s-perf-drown poss-1:s dog
   'My son has drowned my dog'

c. Nîmtaag asuul rîsatakînàan nasumwaan ka.
   nîmtaag asuul r-is-atakîn-àan n-asumw-àan ka
   wind big 3:s-neg-destroy-neg nom-garden-nom that
   'The hurricane did not destroy that garden'

Third person singular pronoun objects are normally deleted after transitive verbs:

(26) 'ieskînàan.
   i-îs-kîn-àan
   1:exc-neg-eat-neg
   'I didn't eat it'

Intransitive verbs are verbs which may never take an object: e.g., araua 'to be mistaken', avîn 'to walk about', and epîn 'to be flat'.

(27) a. Nakamaraua.
   n-ak-am-araua
   2-conc-cont-be:mistaken
   'You (s.) are mistaken'

b. Iemavîn am.
   i-im-avîn am
   1:exc-past-wander just
   'I just wandered around'

c. Nîmojîn tâhâm repîn uà?
   nîmop-în tâha-m r-epîn uà
   ground poss-2:s 3:s-flat or
   'Is your (s.) land flat?'

There are a number of pairs of verbs, one transitive, the other intransitive, which have similar meanings but unrelated phonological forms: e.g., kîn 'to eat (tr.)', and augîn 'to eat (intr.)'; or iî 'to dig (tr.)', and alu 'to dig (intr.)'.

All other verbs are classed as neutral verbs and may be used either transitively or intransitively; when used transitively, they normally take the transitive postclitic -în. Two such verbs are iîgn 'to be afraid', and eiûa 'to tell a lie'.

(28) a. 1. Iakâmîgn akîn.
   i-ak-am-îgn akîn
   1:exc-conc-cont-afraid very
   'I am very frightened'
11. Iakamtni fn uus aan.
   i-ak-am-tgn-fn uus aan
   1:exc-conc-cont-afraid-trans man that
   'I am afraid of that man'

b. 1. Pwiam rimameiúá.
   pwia-m r-im-am-eiúá
   older:brother-2:s 3:s-past-cont-lie
   'Your (s.) older brother was telling lies'

11. Pwiam rimameiúéfn rimam.
   pwia-m r-im-am-eiúa-fn rim-m
   older:brother-2:s 3:s-past-cont-lie-trans father-2:s
   'Your (s.) older brother was lying to your father'

Verbs classed as transitive, intransitive, or neutral according to the criteria above may also belong to one or both of two very limited subclasses: (a) singular verbs, which require that the subject be singular in number, or (b) directional verbs, which obligatorily take directional suffixes (cf. 3.2.10. below). Two singular verbs, the intransitive verb ahan 'to stop raining', and the neutral verb mhan 'be hot, scorch (of the sun)', are exemplified below:

(29) a. Nihin rinahan.
   nihin r-n-ahan
   rain 3:s-perf-stop:raining
   'The rain has stopped', 'It has stopped raining'

   b. Mit rimhan io.
   mit r-mhan io
   sun 3:s-burn I
   'The sun burned/is burning me'

The two commonest directional verbs are asou- 'proceed', and sim- 'come from':

(30) a. Kuri rimasoupìn le nimwaktlakíl.
   kuri r-im-asou-pìn le nimwaktlakíl
   dog 3:s-past-proceed-there loc beach
   'The dog went along to the beach'

   b. Nakamsimhle?
   n-ak-am-sim-hle
   2-conc-cont-come:from-where
   'Where are you (s.) coming from?'
3.1.2.2. Formation

Verbs are not usually formed from nouns; rather, the reverse is the case, as was noted in 3.1.1.2. above. However, a few verbs are derived from nouns by prefixing a:1

(31) temalua 'young man' atemalua 'to be young'
peravin 'woman' aparavin 'to become a woman'
mimwate-lg 'ear' atelg 'to listen to'

Reduplication occurs sporadically in verbs, though it is by no means a productive process in Lenakel. Comparisons of reduplicated verbs with their unreduplicated bases, however, indicate that the semantic range of reduplication includes diminution, as in (32a); intensity, as in (32b); and repetitive action, as in (32c).

(32) a. amel 'to lie down' amelamel 'to bend down'
amnumuw 'to drink' amnumwnnumuw 'to sip'
ho 'to hit' hoho 'to tap'
b. akar 'to talk' akarakar 'to talk a lot'
amig 'to breathe' amigamig 'to pant'
asilis 'to swell' asilsasils 'to be fat'
c. arou 'to chase' arouarou 'to keep on chasing'
kis 'to bite' kiskis 'to soften by biting'
\( \text{\textit{kil}} \) 'to hang onto' \( \text{\textit{kilkil}} \) 'to climb hand over hand'

A number of other verbs do occur reduplicated or partly reduplicated, although no semantically related unreduplicated form has been observed:

(33) apnapin 'not answer when called'
aaua 'to be thirsty'
outkikil 'to tickle'
eloholah 'to drizzle (of the rain)'

A number of compound verbs also occur in Lenakel, but again verb-compounding, like reduplication, is not a productive grammatical process.

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1The majority of Lenakel verbs begin with vowels (and almost all vowel-initial words are verbs); most such verbs have initial a. Historical evidence shows that in many cases these initial vowels are accretions onto reconstructed consonant-initial stems: Proto-Oceanic *maling, *mapo, and *palo, for example, become Lenakel amel inu 'to be calm'; amiv 'to heal'; and avin 'to go', respectively. This view is strengthened by the fact that some verb-initial vowels are deleted in certain contexts (see 3.2.7. below).
Adj ec tives (A) are words which must take verbal affixes in certain syntactic contexts and must not take these affixes in certain other contexts. While the details of this affixation will be discussed below, we can state here that adjectives may occur (with verbal affixes) as the sole verb in a sentence, or they may occur (without verbal affixes) qualifying a noun in a noun phrase or a verb in a verb phrase. Note, for example, the use of the adjective vît 'good', with verbal affixes in (35a), unaffixed in an NP in (35b), and unaffixed in a VP in (35c):

(35) a. Nimwa taham rîvît aîkîn.
    nimwa tâhâ-m r-vît aîkîn
    house poss-2:s 3:s-good very
    'Your house is very nice'

b. Iemaamh nimwa vît ker.
    i-ûm-aamh nimwa vît ker
    1:exc-past-see house good one
    'I saw a nice house'

c. Kuri ka ramâliuok vît touek.
    kûrî ka r-am-alliuok vît touek
    dog that 3:s-cont-walk good today
    'That dog is walking well today'

3.1.3.1. Classes of Adjectives

There are two major classes of adjectives: adjectives of colour and general adjectives. Adjectives of colour generally function like other adjectives: e.g., nar tuân aân 'that white thing'; nar aân rîtuân 'that thing is white'. When they are applied to non-singular nouns representing animals, however, adjectives of colour may only be used impersonally (i.e., with the third person non-singular prefix k- and with no tense or number prefixes); they may not occur with regular person, tense or number prefixes, and they may not occur unaffixed within an NP.¹

¹Thus both *pukas aîn aân kînâlkîmîw and *pukas aîn kâîpîn kînâlkîmîw are ungrammatical variants of (36a).

A number of these adjectives of colour apply ONLY to animals: e.g., k-îlai 'reddish-brown and white, of pigs'; k-âlato 'grey, of pigs'; k-âmîta 'brown, of any animal'.

(34) apul 'to sleep'  
alû 'to be deaf'  
aamh 'to see'  
aâkîr 'to fit, match'  
amel 'to lie down'  
alît 'to wake up'  
apulalû 'to sleep soundly'  
aamhaukiîr 'to measure'  
amelait 'to dream'
(36) a. Pukas aan kapin kinaikimw.
   pukas aan k-apin k-n-ai-akimw
pig that 3:ns-black 3:ns-perf-pl-run:away
'Those black pigs have run away'

b. Iemaamh menuk mil kauhia.
i-im-aamh menuk mil k-auhia
1:exc-past-see bird dual 3:ns-yellow
'I saw two yellow birds'

c. Kuri miin petimw lauanu kituan.
kuri miin petimw lauanu k-tuan
dog pl all loc:village 3:ns-white
'All the dogs in the village are white'

All other adjectives belong to the residual class of general
adjectives.

3.1.3.2. Number

Adjectives normally take the appropriate number prefixes (see 3.2.7.)
when they are predicated:

(37) a. Iakamuamüh am.
i-ak-am-u-amüh am
1:exc-conc-cont-d-alive yet
'We (exc.) are both still alive'

b. Uusuaas mihel ka khaimkimik kinahlva.
uusuaas mihel ka k-hai-amkimik k-n-haλ-va
boy trial that 3:ns-tr-dirty 3:ns-perf-tr-come
'Those three dirty boys have come'

It is quite common for plural nouns, however, to be followed by an
adjective in the singular number, especially if the adjective is one
denoting quantity:

(38) a. Ilar ripwir, karena am ralu.
il-ar r-ripwir, karena am r-alu
they-pl 3:s-many, one only 3:s-deaf
'There are many of them, but only one is deaf'

b. Iemkin nuw miin raukir touek.
i-im-kin nuw miin r-aukir touek
1:exc-past-eat yam pl 3:s-enough today
'I ate enough yams today'
3.1.4. ADJUNCTS

Adjuncts (D) are words which may never take verbal affixes and which normally occur following nouns in NPs and verbs in VPs. There are five classes of adjuncts in Lenakel, and when a member of more than one class occurs in the same phrase they generally occur in the order in which they are discussed here. The verbal adjuncts discussed in 3.1.4.1. only occur in VPs, and the grammatical number markers (3.1.4.3.) only occur in NPs; adjuncts of all other classes may occur in either NPs or VPs, though their presence in NPs is far more common.

3.1.4.1. Verbal Adjuncts

Verbal adjuncts (Dvb) occur only in VPs following a verb. The verbal adjuncts ialtv 'out, outside', ru 'try to', and akimwakimw 'all around', are illustrated below.

(39) a. Nimataag rïtik ialtv kinu tahak.
   nimataag r-ïtik ialtv kinu taha-k
   wind 3:s-spear out canoe poss-1:s
   'The wind spear ed the canoe out to sea'

b. Pwaslakeiúru lan.
   pwas1-ak-eiúru le-n
   let 1:exc-conc-lie try dat-3:s
   'Let me try to deceive him'

c. Karu akimwakimw menuk mlin.
   k-a-ïru akimwakimw menuk mlin
   3:ns-pl-shoot all:around bird pl
   'They (pl.) shot birds all over the place'

3.1.4.2. Descriptive Adjuncts

Descriptive adjuncts (Ddsc) differ little, if at all, from adjectives in the range of meanings they possess, and they also occur in the same position as adjectives in NPs and VPs. Unlike adjectives, of course, descriptive adjuncts may never take verbal affixes.

The majority of descriptive adjuncts can occur in both NPs and VPs. Three such adjuncts are illustrated below in each kind of phrase: petimw 'all, completely', psin 'apart, separate', and akin 'very, very much'.

(40) a. 1. Neramím petimw kînarvin le nimwahuaak.
   n-eramím petimw k-n-ar-vîn le nimwa-ahuaak
   pl-person all 3:ns-perf-pl-go loc house-pray
   'Everyone has gone to the church'
11. Rîmkîn petîmw nerâmîm miîn.
   rîm-kîn petîmw n-erâmîm miîn
   3:s-past-eat all pl-person pl
   'He ate up all the people'

b. 1. Rîmamh kova rakowta, in psîn am.
   rîm-amh kova r-ak-awta, in psîn am
   3:s-past-see child 3:s-conc-sit, he apart just
   'He saw the child sitting down, all by himself'

11. Taniel rîmarîk psîn.
   ta-n-iel rîm-arîk psîn
   poss-3:s-friend 3:s-past-live apart
   'His friend lived apart'

c. 1. Temalua viî akîn ker rîmva touek.
   temalua viî akîn ker rîm-va touek
   youth good very one 3:s-past-come today
   'A very fine young man came today'

11. Mit rîmhan akîn io.
   mit r-mhan akîn io
   sun 3:s-burn very I
   'The sun is really burning me'

A few descriptive adjuncts, like ituga 'foreign, imported', vi 'new', and kalîn 'classificatory (of a kinship relationship)', are normally found only in NPs.

(41) a. Kînairhapîkîn kopwiel ituga.
   k-n-al-arhapîkîn kopwiel ituga
   3:ns-perf-pl-ask-trans stone imported
   'They (pl.) have asked for guns (lit., imported stones)'

b. Nimwa vi ua nimwa owas?
   nimwa vi ua nimwa awas
   house new or house old
   'Is it a new house or an old one?'

c. In uk rîmok kalîn.
   in uk rîm-k kalîn
   he this father-l:s classificatory
   'This is my uncle (father's brother)'

More than one descriptive adjunct may occur in a phrase, and unaffixed adjectives also occur in this position. Descriptive adjuncts follow any other adjunct or adjective which they modify; in the examples below, huaihuie 'quick, quickly', mun 'again, more', and am 'just, only' all modify the preceding adjunct or adjective.
(42) a. Aiml tpus hualhue ntkom!
   ai-ami tpus hualhue ntkom
   pl-urinate extinguished quick fire
   'Piss (pl.) on the fire and put it out quickly!'

b. Rhali ita mun uus ker.
   r-hali ita mun uus ker
   3:s-send away again man one
   'He sent one man away again'

c. Ilau psìn am kamuarik apwa ikìn ka.
   il-lau psìn am k-am-u-arìk apwa ikìn ka
   they-d apart just 3:ns-cont-d-live loc place that
   'The two of them live all alone in that place'

3.1.4.3. Grammatical Number Markers

Grammatical number markers (Dnum) form a third class of adjunct. Unlike the two previous classes, this is a closed class, containing three members: mil 'dual', mihel 'trial', and miín. Members of this class of adjunct occur only in NPs, and mark the number of the head noun in the NP.¹

(43) a. Perasuaas mil kuaamh iarou ker.
   pera-suaas mil k-u-aamh iarou ker
   woman-small dual 3:ns-d-see clam one
   'The two girls saw a clam'

b. Rinìru menuk esuaas mihel.
   r-nìru menuk esuaas mihel
   3:s-perf-shoot bird small trial
   'He shot three small birds'

c. Kuri miin aan kìnarkìn menuk tahak.
   kuri miin aan k-n-ar-kìn menuk taha-k
   dog pl that 3:ns-perf-pl-eat fowl poss-1:s
   'Those dogs have eaten my fowl(s)'

The use of grammatical number markers with non-singular nouns is not obligatory if the number of the noun can be deduced from other parts of the sentence or from the non-linguistic context. Thus in (44a) kova is known to be plural (or at least non-singular) because of the presence of petìmw 'all', in the VP; in (44b), menuk is known to be

¹Although grammatical number markers normally follow descriptive adjuncts, miin 'plural', always precedes petìmw 'all', as in (36c) above.
plural because of the presence of the plural marker ar- in the verb; and in (44c) nuw is indeterminate in number, but the non-linguistic context would usually indicate at least whether it is singular or non-singular.

(44) a. Kuri taham rimignín petímw kova tahak.
   kuri taha-m r-im-ign-ín petímw kova taha-k
   dog poss-2:s 3:s-past-fear-trans all child poss-1:s
   'Your dog is frightened of all my children'

   b. Menuk ka kínavíik ita.
      menuk ka k-n-ar-ivíik ita
      bird that 3:ns-perf-pl-fly away
      'Those birds have flown away'

   c. Inarkín ita nuw aan.
      l-n-ar-kín ita nuw aan
      l:exc-perf-pl-eat already yam that
      'We (exc.pl.) have eaten that yam/those yams'

The grammatical number marker mlín 'plural', is also used after non-singular pronouns - especially the dual pronouns - to denote reflexiveness or reciprocality.

(45) a. Nian ker kimukákar kam ilau mlín.
   nian ker k-im-u-akar kam il-lau mlín
   day one 3:ns-past-d-talk dat they-d pl
   'One day they (d.) spoke to each other'

   b. Kimuieíefín kalau mlín ua?
      k-im-u-eíúa-ínf kat-lau mlín ua
      l:inc-past-d-lie-trans we:inc-d pl or
      'Did we (inc.d.) deceive ourselves?'

   c. Kinamarho illar mlín.
      k-n-am-ar-ho il-ar mlín
      3:ns-perf-cont-pl-fight they-pl pl
      'They (pl.) began to fight one another'

3.1.4.4. Quantifiers

The class of quantifiers (Dqty) includes the numerals, the first five of which are shown below:

(46) karená 'one'
    klu 'two'
    ktsil 'three'
    kuvír 'four'
    katilum 'five'
Numerals between six and nineteen were traditionally derived from the base *katilum* 'five', while each unit of twenty was expressed by *leramfm* 'person', as the following examples show:

(47) *katilum-kisil*
    'eight'
    *katilum-katilum-katilum-kiu* 'seventeen'
    *leramfm* *karena* *rikaka* 'twenty (lit., person one 3:s-not)'
    *leramfm* *kiu* *kuika* *kiu* 'forty-two (lit., person two 3:ns-d-not two)'

The tendency at the present time, however, is for numerals above six - and especially those above ten - to be expressed by terms borrowed from English via Bislama.

Ordinal numerals are formed by prefixing *rol* (= *r-ol* '3:s-make') to the cardinal numeral:

(48) *rolkiu* 'second'
    *rolkisil* 'third'
    *rolkatilum-katilum* 'tenth'

Distributive numerals are formed by reduplicating the cardinal numeral:

(49) *karenakarena* 'one by one'
    *kuvirkuvir* 'four by four'

Other members of the class of quantifier include *rivin* 'some' - whose position within the phrase is not as fixed as that of other quantifiers - *nahuto* 'too much, too many', and *ker*, an indefinite singular quantifier which in various contexts may be translated as 'a', 'some', 'another', etc.¹ (Ker is uniformly glossed here as 'one'.) Certain numerals and other quantifiers are exemplified below.

(50) a. *Ieram limwa Ioualmine kiu k+lnavln Ifila.*
    *i-eram* *l-imwa* *Ioualmine* *kiu* *k-n-la-va'ln* *Ifila*
    *s-the:one* *loc-place:*of *Ioualmine* *two* *3:ns-perf-d-go* *Vila*
    'Two Ioualmine men have gone to Vila'

b. *Tiepaamhie takiel ker rasitu?*
    *t-i-ep-aamh-hie* *ta-k-iel* *ker* *r-asitu*
    *fut-l:exc-seq-see-where* *poss-l:s-friend* *one* *3:s-help*
    'Where will I find a friend to help [me]?'

¹Note that quantifiers can, in certain contexts, function alone as an NP: for example, the use of *ker* as the subject of *rivin* and as the object of *maamh* in (50c). This aspect of pronominalisation will be further discussed in Chapter 5.
c. Nian ker, ker rìvìn maamh ker.
   nian ker, ker r-ìvìn m-aamh ker
   day one, one 3:s-go and-see one
   'One day, one went and saw the other'

d. Neramím ka nìvìn kìnarva lta.
   n-eramím ka nìvìn k-n-ar-va lta
   pl-person that some 3:ns-perf-pl-come already
   'Some of those people have already come'

Although the numerals kìu 'two', and kìsil 'three', convey the same semantic information as the grammatical number markers mil 'dual', and mihel 'trial', it is not unusual to find both being used in the same NP. This is especially true in the dual:
(51) Uus mil kìu ka tìkìa va tolauk.
   uus mil kìu ka t-k-ak-la-va to-lauk
   man dual two that fut-3:ns-conc-d-come tomorrow
   'Those two men will come tomorrow'

3.1.4.5. Demonstrative Adjuncts

There are six demonstrative adjuncts (Ddem) in Lenakel, and they occur in both NPs and VPs. They are:
(52) uk 'this, near speaker'
    hua 'this, near speaker, indicated' 
    un ò u 'this, that, near addressee'
    aan ò aa 'that, yonder'
    apwa ò apwan 'that, indicated, or in a place already referred to'
    ka 'this, that, previously referred to'

These demonstratives are illustrated below:
(53) a. Tiakapul uk lkìn uk.
    t-i-ak-apul uk lkìn uk
    fut-1:exc-conc-sleep this place this
    'I will sleep here'

1 Of the pairs of alternates un ò u, aan ò aa, etc., the second is less commonly used than the first in careful speech, but more commonly used in casual speech. The exception to this rule is the pair apwa ò apwan: the former is far more common in all styles.

   The adjunct ka often occurs after conjunctions with the same sense as English 'then': thus kani ka kìnarvin 'and then they (pl.) went'.

2 Note in particular the fact that a demonstrative is often repeated in the next phrase, especially in equative sentences or in a VP + LP construction: e.g. (53a, b, d, f).
b. Nar hua in hua, lemar\i t lan.
   nar hua in hua, i-im-ar-it le-n
   thing this it this, 1:exc-past-pl-climb 1ns-3:s
   'See this thing here? We (exc.pl.) climbed up on it'

c. Ofa nuw un!
   ofa nuw un
   give:to:speaker yam that
   'Give (s.) me that yam near you!'

d. Rileligpin mun aan ik\i n aan.
   r-leli-gpn mun aan ik\i n aan
   3:s-return-there again that place that
   'He went back there again'

e. Nav\i npin nivin kimal\i s lo marva ik\i n apwa.
   n-av\i npn nivin k-im-a-lis lo m-ar-va ik\i n apwa
   pl-spirit some 3:ns-past-pl-take I and-pl-come place this
   'Some spirits brought me to this place here'

f. Uus ker mine peravin tahak kimiava limwak. Uus ka netg\i n
   ka Tom, kani ka peravin ka netg\i n ka Lisi.
   uus ker mine pera-vin taha-n k-im-ia-va i-imwa-k.
   man one and woman poss-3:s 3:ns-past-d-come loc-place-1:s.
   uus ka netg-n ka Tom, kani ka pera-vin ka
   man that name-3:s that Tom, and that woman that
   netg-n ka Lisi
   name-3:s that Lisi
   'A man and his wife came to my house. The man's name was Tom,
   and the woman's name was Lisi'

While demonstrative adjuncts usually occur phrase-finally, they are
sometimes followed rather than preceded by the descriptive adjunct
petimw 'all', and the quantifier nivin 'some', especially in contexts
when petimw and nivin are emphasised:
(54) a. Pehe rin\i nos ita nouanhal\i n miin petimw?
   pehe r-n-os ita nouanhal-n miin petimw
   who 3:s-perf-take away egg-3:s pl all
   'Who has taken away all the eggs?'

b. Ofa nim\i l\i un nivin!
   ofa nim\i l\i un nivin
   give:to:speaker orange that some
   'Give me some of those oranges (near you)!'
3.1.5. INTERJECTIONS

There are a number of interjections in Lenakel, the most common of which are listed below. Those followed by exclamational marks are able to stand alone as a (verbless) sentence; the others generally introduce a full sentence.

(55) e! 'hey!'
   epweuh! an exclamation of surprise
   ita! 'alright! OK!'
   kapwa! 'no!'
   ouaah! 'yes!'
   rolkamwa 'well ...'
   rolmamwa 'well ...'
   rolpin 'perhaps, maybe'
   siarap! 'shut up!' [English loan].

A brief phonological note on ouaah 'yes', is appropriate here. As well as being the only Lenakel word ending in vowel + h - although words with final s may change this s to h - it also has an unusual intonation: the first syllable has a low-level or low-falling tone, but the second syllable, as well as being very heavily stressed, also has a sharply rising tone.

3.2. VERBAL AFFIXES AND CLITICS

By far the most complex area of Lenakel morphology is the system of affixes and clitics to verbs and predicated adjectives. There are seven strictly ordered ranks of prefixes (indicating, inter alia, tense, aspect, and person and number of the subject), a number of less strictly ordered ranks of suffixes (indicating, inter alia, direction, reflexiveness, reciprocality), and two postclitics. The structure of the verb is shown below:

(56) Verb → ((int) fut) pers + tns (cont) (itr) no + V (suffixes).

The structure of the adjective is:

(57) Adj → (fut) pers + tns + no. + A (suffixes).

In each case the categories of person, tense, and number are obligatory, except that person and tense are omitted in imperatives, and tense may be omitted in certain other circumstances detailed below. The categories of future and the various suffixes and postclitics may occur with both verbs and adjectives, while prefixes marking intentional, continuative, and interrogative occur with verbs only.
3.2.1. INTENTIONAL PREFIX

The intentional prefix (int) is na-, and it occurs with verbs but not with predicated adjectives. It indicates that the actor is about to or ready to perform the action, and cannot be used without being immediately followed by the future prefix t-. Almost all occurrences of na- observed so far - and these have been few - have been in narrative texts; it appears extremely rarely in conversation.

(58) a. Natiakamis.
   na-t-i-ak-mis
   int-fut-1:exc-conc-die
   'I'm about to die'

b. Ilar kinarva natakallipin menuk.
   il-ar k-n-ar-va na-t-k-ak-al-pin menuk
   they-pl 3:ns-perf-pl-come int-fut-3:ns-conc-pl-exchange bird
   'They (pl.) had come intending to exchange the birds'

3.2.2. FUTURE PREFIX

The future prefix (fut) t- indicates that all or part of the action will occur or be completed at some future time. This prefix must be used in conjunction with one of the tense prefixes ak- or ep-, the latter combination (t-...ep-) indicating a more remote future than the former (t-...ak-).

(59) a. Tiakapul uk ikin uk.
   t-i-ak-apul uk ikin uk
   fut-1:exc-conc-sleep this place this
   'I will sleep here'

b. Tinakiakin nuw.
   t-n-ak-la-kin nuw
   fut-2-conc-d-eat yam
   'You two will eat yams'

c. Rolkeikei mamwa tirvin Ifila.
   r-olkeikei mamwa t-r-vin Ifila
   3:s-like that fut-3:s-go Vila
   'He wants to go to Vila'

d. Tiepaamhie takiel ker rasitu?
   t-i-ep-aamh-hie ta-k-iel ker r-asitu
   fut-1:exc-seq-see-where poss-1:s-friend one 3:s-help
   'Where will I find a friend to help [me]?'
A number of morphophonemic changes are associated with the future prefix. First, the first person inclusive prefix \( k^- \) and the third person non-singular prefix \( k^- \) are deleted after \( t^- \); thus:

\[(60)\]  
\[t-k-ak- \rightarrow \text{tak}\]  
\[t-k-ep- \rightarrow \text{tep}\]

Second, in the future dual in all persons except second person, the vowel of the concurrent prefix \( \text{ak}^- \) assimilates to the vowel of the dual prefix \( \text{ia}^- \) or \( u^- \); thus:

\[(61)\]  
\[t-i-ak-ia- \rightarrow \text{tikia}\]  
\[t-i-ak-u^- \rightarrow \text{tiuku}\]  
\[t-k-ak-ia- \rightarrow \text{t-ak-ia-} \rightarrow \text{tikia}\]  
\[t-k-ak-u^- \rightarrow \text{t-ak-u-} \rightarrow \text{tuku}\]

Some examples of these changes are given below.

\[(62)\]  
a. Pwas tikialpwr.  
\[\text{pwas t-k-ak-ia-lpwir}\]  
\[\text{let fut-3:ns-conc-d-big}\]  
'Wait until they (d.) grow up'

b. Uus ka m\(\text{ine pera-vin tahan tepiava.}\)  
\[\text{uus ka m\(\text{ine pera-vin taha-n t-k-ep-ia-va}\) man that and woman poss-3:s fut-3:ns-seq-d-come}\]  
'That man and his wife will come later'

c. Tiukualiuk miav\(\text{in apwa le tui touar.}\)  
\[\text{t-i-ak-u-alluok m-ia-vin apwa le tui touar fut-1:exc-conc-d-walk and-d-go loc loc top mountain}\]  
'We (exc.d.) will walk to the top of the mountain'

The future prefix \( t^- \) is normally omitted if the verb is preceded by a future temporal phrase.

\[(63)\]  
a. Tola\(\text{uk nihin rip.}\)  
\[\text{to-lauk nihin r-ip}\]  
\[\text{to-morrow rain 3:s-rain}\]  
'Tomorrow it will rain'

b. Takamwa riva, iakuaug\(\text{inuas.}\)  
\[\text{takamwa r-va, i-ak-u-augin-uas}\]  
\[\text{if:s fut 3:s-come, 1:exc-conc-d-eat-together}\]  
'If he comes, we (exc.d.) will eat together'
3.2.3. PERSON PREFIXES

There are six prefixes which indicate the person of the subject (pers):

(64) k- 'first inclusive'
i- 'first exclusive'
n- 'second'
r- 'third singular'
k- 'third non-singular'
m- 'subject has already been mentioned'

The first five of these present no problems, apart from the homophony between k- 'first inclusive', and k- 'third non-singular'; which of these is actually present is almost always determined by the context. Each of these five person prefixes is illustrated below.

(65) a. Kalau kîmiavnîn apwa ipaat.
   kat-lau k-îm-ia-vîn apwa l-paat
   we:inc-d 3:ns-past-d-go loc loc-shore
   'We (inc.d.) went towards the shore'

b. Iemarît le netpîmar.
   l-îm-ar-it le netp-m-ar
   l:exc-past-pl-climb ins belly-l:exc:ns-pl
   'We (exc.pl.) climbed up on our bellies'

c. Tînakîgnîn nanmwok ua?
   t-n-ak-îgn-în nanmw-k ua
   fut-2-conc-fear-trans spirit-l:s or
   'Will you (s.) be afraid of my ghost?'

d. Mwatiktîk rîmarhapîk to îlar ...
   Mwatiktîk r-îm-arhapîk to îl-ar ...
   Mwatiktîk 3:s-past-ask dat they-pl ...
   'Mwatiktîk asked them (pl.) ...'

e. Peramîl kiu kîmuwota.
   pera-mîl kiu k-îm-u-awta
   woman-dual two 3:ns-past-d-sit
   'Two women were sitting down'

The person prefix m-, which will be glossed here as 'and', indicates that the subject of the verb is an identifiable NP which occurred in an earlier part of the sentence or discourse. Tense, continuative and interrogative prefixes may be deleted under identity after m-, and the intentional and future prefixes never occur with it. Number prefixes, however, must always appear after m-.
Most normally, \( m- \) is used when the subject of the verb is the same as the subject of the previous verb:

(66) Ke\( r o l \) \( v^l + v^l \) ma\( i l \)haau\( p^l \)in pera-hig\( l \) lan, ma\( l i t s \) ma\( m a i k^i mw \) mar\( l e r \)
    i\( a i t v \) ma\( k i m w \), ma\( r v^l n \) ma\( l u l u \) le u\( a i a \).
    k-ar\( o l \) \( v^l + v^l \) m-ai-alhauu-pn pera-ahig\( l \) le-n,
    3:n-s-pl-\text{make} stretch\( e r \) and-pl-\text{put-there} woman-old loc-3:s,
    m-a-l\( i t s \) m-\text{am-ai-ak}imw m-ar-ier i\( a i t v \)
    and-pl-\text{take and-cont-pl-go:away and-pl-go:out out}
    m-ai-akimw, m-ar-v\( n \) m-ai-aulu le u\( a i a \)
    and-pl-go:away, and-pl-go and-pl-go:through loc wire

'They (pl.) made a stretcher and put the old woman on it, and took her away and went off with her, and they went on and went through a barbed-wire fence'

The prefix \( m- \) may, however, also refer to any NP other than the subject of the previous verb under certain conditions. These conditions are (i) that the NP to which \( m- \) refers has been previously mentioned; (ii) that the NP to which \( m- \) refers is of a different number from the subject of the previous verb or, if of the same number, that the verb with \( m- \) is semantically such that it could not take as subject the subject of the previous verb. In (67a, b) we find that the verbs with \( m- \) have as subject both the subject and object of the previous verb; in (67c) the referent of each occurrence of \( m- \) is identifiable from the accompanying number prefix; and in (67d) the verb \text{pwalhepwalhe} 'spatter', may only take an inanimate subject, and the subject of the previous verb, being animate, cannot be the subject of \text{pwalhepwalhe}.

(67) a. N\( i a n \) ker, ker r\( i v i n \) ma\( a m h \) ker, m\( u a i r k \) mu\( a m n u u m \)w \( n i k a v a \).
    n\( i a n \) ker, ker r-v\( i n \) m-a\( a m h \) ker, m-u-ar\( k \) m-u-am\( n u u m \)w \( n i k a v a \)
    day one, one 3:s-go and-see one, and-d-stay and-d-drink kava
    'One day, one went and saw the other, and the two of them stayed on and drank kava'

b. U\( u s u a a s \) k\( i u \) k\( i a r o u \) k\( u r i \) ker m\( h a i l s o u h i u \).
    u\( u s - s u a a s \) k\( i u \) k-i-a-\( r o u \) k\( u r i \) ker m-hai-as\( o u -h i u \)
    man-small two 3:\( n s - \text{d-chase} \) dog one and-tr-proceed-north
    'Two boys chased a dog and all three headed north'

c. U\( u s \) k\( i u \) k\( i m u a a m h \) n\( t p e r a u o s u o s \) n\( i v i n \) m\( u l t h i e i l h \) le i\( l a r \) ma\( k i m w \).
    u\( u s \) k\( i u \) k-i\( m -u -a a m h \) n-p\( e r a -u o s u o s \) n\( i v i n \) m-u-\( t l h i e i l h \)
    man two 3:\( n s - \text{past-d-see pl-woman-small some and-d-laugh} \)
    le i\( l a r \) m-ai-ak\( i m w \)
    loc they-pl and-pl-go:away
    'Two men saw some girls and they (d.) [i.e. the men] laughed at them (pl.) and they (pl.) [i.e. the girls] ran away'
d. Iemalakhaavín kesl mìwalhepwalhe.
i-i-m-alak-hiaav-fín kesl m-pwalhepwalhe
l:exc-past-throw-down-trans pawpaw and-splatter
‘I dropped a pawpaw and it splattered’

All the examples given so far are of underlying co-ordinate sentences. The prefix m- cannot be used to denote an identifiable NP when one occurrence of that NP is in a matrix sentence and the other occurrence is in an embedded sentence (e.g. relative clause, conditional clause, etc.). Thus in (68a), mìmaamh cannot be used instead of lemaamh, nor can mepaamh be used in place of repaamh in (68b).

(68) a. Iesolkelkeaan peravan ka leram lemaamh nenav.
i-i-s-oleikeiel-aan pera-vín ka leram i-i-m-aamh nenav
l:exc-neg-like-neg woman that rel l:exc-past-see yesterday
‘I don’t like that woman whom I saw yesterday’

b. Takamwa rinya, repaamh ilk.
takamwa r-va, r-repaamh ilk
if:fut 3:s-come, 3:s-seq-see you:s
‘If he come, then he will look you up’

3.2.4. TENSE/ASPECT PREFIXES

There are five prefixes which indicate the time of the action, its completion or incompleteness, and negativity. Properly, these prefixes have functions which can be described as partly covered by the label 'tense' and partly 'aspect'; for convenience, I will refer to them as tense (tns) prefixes. The five prefixes are:

(69) ak- present, habitual, concurrent (conc)
i-past
n- stative, perfective (perf)
ep- sequential (seq)
i-s- negative with no specific time-orientation (neg)

The tense prefix ak- indicates that part or all of the action is occurring at the time of speaking or in the narrative present, or that the action is habitual; it is referred to herein as the concurrent tense prefix.

(70) a. Iakamol kínu.
i-ak-am-ol kínu
l:exc-conc-cont-make canoe
‘I am making a canoe’
The concurrent prefix is also used in verbs which follow pwas (or pwah) 'let', in hortative expressions:
(72) a. Pwah iakol.
   pwah i-ak-ol
   let 1:exc-conc-do
   'Let me do it'

b. Pwas iakiaviv apwa le sitioa.
   pwas i-ak-ia-viv apwa le sitioa
   let 1:exc-conc-d-go loc loc store
   'Let us both go to the store'

Occasionally, ak- occurs reduplicated in verbs with singular subjects under conditions I have not been able to determine:
(73) a. Iakakamis.
   i-ak-ak-mis
   1:exc-conc-conc-ill
   'I am sick'
b. Nakakavīn apwa ihie?
   n-ak-ak-avīn apwa i-hie
   2-conc-conc-go loc loc-where
   'Where are you (s.) going?'

The past tense prefix tm- indicates that the action occurred before the time of speaking or before the narrative present.

(74) a. Iarmīs asuul ker rīmkīn petīmw neraṁīm miin.
   iarmīs asuul ker r-īm-kīn petīmw n-eramīm miin
devil big one 3:s-past-eat all pl-person pl
   'A big devil ate up all the people'

b. Nīmeiūa lak.
   n-īm-eiūa le-k
   2-past-lie dat-1:s
   'You (s.) lied to me'

c. Rīmva nenav mīru menuk.
   r-īm-va nenav m-īru menuk
   3:s-past-come yesterday and-shoot bird
   'He came yesterday and shot birds'

The tense prefix n- has both perfective and stative functions; it will be referred to herein as the perfective tense prefix. In its perfective use, it indicates that the action of the verb has been completed.

(75) a. Nīkava rīnīka, kīnuītīktīk nīkava tukuamnumw.
   nīkava r-n-īkka, k-n-u-tīktīk nīkava
   kava 3:s-perf-not:to:be, 3:ns-perf-d-not:know kava
t-k-ak-u-amnumw
   fut-3:ns-conc-d-drink
   'The kava had run out, and they (d.) did not know of any more kava that they could drink'

b. Inva le tehe makowta, nīnapwas makowta ipaat.
   i-n-va le tehe m-ak-awta, n-n-apwas
   1:exc-perf-come loc sea and-conc-sit, 2-perf-refuse
   m-ak-awta i-paat
   and-conc-sit loc-shore
   'I have come into the sea and am sitting [here], while you (s.) have refused to come and are sitting on the shore'

c. Neraṁīm kīnaihuaak lta, mār-lēr iātīv.
   n-eramīm k-n-ai-ahuak lta, m-ar-lēr iātīv
   pl-person 3:ns-perf-pl-pray already, and-pl-go:out outside
   'When the people had finished praying, they went outside'
The perfective prefix also occurs with a stative function in both stative intransitive verbs (as in (76a, b)) and with adjectives (as in (76c, d)).

(76) a. Tamiel riñimis ua?
   ta-m-iel r-n-mìs ua
   poss-2:s-friend 3:s-perf-die or
   'Is your (s.) friend dead?'

b. Nìmrìn rinou.
   nìmr-n r-n-ou
   eye-3:s 3:s-perf-blind
   'He is blind'

c. Uus aa rinasil pik.
   uus aa r-n-asilis pik
   man that 3:s-perf-fat much
   'That fellow is very fat'

d. Iemasumw masumw minapou.
   i-ìn-asumw m-asumw m-n-apou
   l:exc-past-garden and-garden and-perf-tired
   'I worked and worked in the garden and now I'm tired'

The sequential tense prefix ep- indicates either that the action occurs later than the time of speaking, or that it occurs later than the previous action.

(77) a. Tiakamamel mamwa iakarou rivit esuaas takrìn am, lepalluok
   taat am mívìna mowta.
   t-i-ak-am-amel mamwa i-ak-arou r-vìt esuaas
   fut-1:exc-conc-cont-lie that 1:exc-conc-feel 3:s-good small
   takrìn am, i-ep-alluok taat am m-vìna m-awta
   a:bit just, 1:exc-seq-walk bad just and-go:to-hearer and-sit
   'I'll stay lying down so that I'll feel just a bit better, and
   then I'll just limp off and come and sit with you'

b. Lauk ka, repakavin.
   lauk ka, r-ep-akavin
   next:day that, 3:s-seq-go:off
   'Then on the next day he went off'

c. Kìmání petìmwa netgìnllar miln ka, mepalìs io.
   k-ìm-a-ìni petìmwa netg-nil-ar miln ka, m-ep-a-lìs io
   3:ns-past-pl-say all name-3:ns-pl pl that, and-seq-pl-take I
   'They (pl.) told me all their names, and then they took me away'
When used in conjunction with the future prefix t-, ep- signifies a future more remote than that signified by ak- in conjunction with t-. (78) a. Tnakofo kopwi el ituga ker toue, kan ti epofina menuk nivin.
   t-n-ak-ofa kopwi el ituga ker toue,
   fut-2-conc-give:to:speaker stone imported one today,
   kan ti-ep-ofina menuk nivin
   and fut-1:exc-seq-give:to:hearer bird some
   'You lend me a gun today, and later on I'll give you some birds'

b. Ti epaamhie iahigil Natou?
   t-I-ep-aamh-hie i-ahigil Natou
   fut-1:exc-seq-see-where nom-old Natou
   'Where might I find old man Natou?'

The negative tense prefix ts- differs from the four discussed above in that it does not indicate any specific time-relationship. Thus Lenakel only has future negatives (t-.ts-) and non-future negatives (without t-), since ts- is mutually exclusive with the four tense prefixes discussed above. Verbs with the negative prefix must also take the negative postclitic -aan (see 3.2.11. below).

(79) a. Merou tukuait, tinisofinaan netg-nil-lau!
   merou t-k-ak-u-ait, t-n-ts-ofin-aan netg-nil-lau
   but fut-3:ns-conc-d-born, fut-2-neg-give-neg name-3:ns-d
   'But when they (d.) are born, don't you (s.) give them their names!'

b. Toko riskinaan iik.
   toko r-ts-kin-aan iik
   maybe 3:s-neg-eat-neg you:s
   'It's unlikely that he will eat you (s.)'

c. Nimarho io, misarhoapwninaan io
   n-tm-ar-ho io, m-tm-ar-hoapwn-in-aan io
   2-past-pl-hit I, and-neg-pl-kill-neg I
   'You (pl.) beat me up, but you didn't kill me'

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In the Launio area the form of this prefix is iinh-.
Negatives do not occur with as great a frequency in Lenakel as in some other languages, largely because of the frequent occurrence of the common negative verbs apwas 'not to want'; itiktitk 'not to know'; ika 'not to be, not to be there', and other less common verbs like these.
Certain tense prefixes may be omitted under certain conditions. The markers ak- and im- may be omitted in verbs with third person subjects when the context makes the time of action quite clear. That is, the presence of time-words, the nature of previous parts of the discourse, or other circumstances of interpersonal communication may make the use of the tense prefixes redundant. The prefixes n-, ep-, and is-, however, may not be omitted in these contexts.

(80) a. Riva nenav.
   r-va nenav
   3:s-come yesterday
   'He came yesterday'

b. Iakamaamh karol nimwa.
   i-ak-am-aamh k-ar-ol nimwa
   l:exc-conc-cont-see 3:ns-pl-make house
   'I'm looking at them (pl.) making a house'

All the tense prefixes except is- may also be deleted under identity if preceded by the person prefix m-; n- and ep-, however, are only rarely omitted in this context. (See examples (66) through (68) above.)

The tense prefixes ak- and n- may combine to form two additional tense-aspects:

(81) ak-n- recent completive: 'have just finished doing'
     n-ak- inceptive: 'have just begun doing'

These combinations are illustrated below:

(82) a. Iaknit le nik.
   l-ak-n-it le nik
   l:exc-recent:completive-climb loc tree
   'I have just climbed the tree'

b. Hiau rnakowta.
   hiau r-n-ak-awta
   volcano 3:s-inceptive-sit
   'Volcanic ash has begun to cover everything'

3.2.5. CONTINUATIVE PREFIX

The continuative prefix am- (cont) indicates that the action is progressive or continuous.
(83) a. Rímwa, 'Neta un nakamarol?' Kani kamwa, 'Iakamaivikil'.
   r-ímwa, 'neta un n-ak-am-ar-o1' kani k-a-ímwa,
   3:s-say, 'what this 2-conc-cont-pl-do' and 3:ns-pl-say,
   '1-ak-am-ai-avikil'
   1:exc-conc-cont-pl-play
   'He said, "What are you (pl.) doing here?" And they (pl.)
   replied, "We (exc.pl.) are playing".'

b. Nar uk neta katar kínamalhauak mairou?
   nar uk neta kat-ar k-ím-am-ai-ahuaak m-ai-arou
   thing this what we:inc-pl l:inc-past-cont-pl-pray and-pl-hear
   'What was this we (inc.pl.) heard while we were praying?'

The combination of the perfective prefix n- with am- has an inceptive sense:
(84) Kahau rímeai mímeai merou mínamapou.
   kahau r-ím-eai m-îm-eai merou m-n-am-apou
   rat 3:s-past-swim and-past-swim and-past-cont-tired
   'Rat swam and swam, but then he began to tire'

3.2.6. INTERROGATIVE PREFIX

The prefix etu- has an interrogative function (itr), translating
'how?', 'why?', or 'in which way?'.
(85) a. Takiel miin kímarva mînetuarvîn?
   ta-k-îel miin k-ím-ar-va m-n-etu-ar-vîn
   poss-l:s-friend pl 3:ns-past-pl-cope and-perf-itr-pl-go
   'My friends came here but how did they go from here?'

b. Tiaketuarkîn nar uk?
   t-i-ak-etu-ar-kîn nar uk
   fut-l:exc-conc-itr-pl-eat thing this
   'How do we (exc.pl.) eat this?'

c. Rímwa, 'E, Nau rînetuvîn?'
   r-ímwa, 'e, Nau r-n-etu-vîn'
   3:s-say, 'hey, Nau 3:s-perf-itr-go
   'He said, "Hey, why has Nau gone?".'

1 The use of etu- in questions is further discussed in Chapter 4.

With a few common verbs, etu- is often shortened to et-. With the verb ol 'to do,
make', in addition to et-o1 (from et-o1) 'how to do it', there is a related verb
atol 'to do what?'. (This is found as etao1 in the northern dialect.)
3.2.7. NUMBER PREFIXES

These prefixes indicate the number of the subject of the verb (no.), and occur obligatorily. Most of them vary in phonological form, and some of them condition phonological changes in the verb root itself.

3.2.7.1. Singular

Singular number (s) is not overtly marked.

(86) a. Kanî rînîpîn to tahan peravîn mîmwa, 'Nîmeliûa iak'.
    kanî rînî-pn taha-n pera-vîn mîmwa, 'nîmeliûa le-k'
    and 3:s-say-there dat poss-3:s woman and-say, '2-past-lie dat-1:s'
    'And he said to his wife, "You (s.) lied to me".'

b. Takamwa taham peravîn rîsinîn, nakhinatîn mamwa mwîmîrlî.
    takamwa taha-m pera-vîn r-sînîn, n-ak-hinatîn mamwa mwîmîrlî
    if: fut poss-2:s woman 3:s-pregnant, 2-conc-know that twin
    'If your (s.) wife becomes pregnant, you will know that it
    will be twins.'

3.2.7.2. Dual

The most common form of the dual prefix (d) is ia-, but it also occurs as u- depending on the nature of the initial segment or segments of the root. The environments in which each form of the prefix occurs are detailed in Table 5 below.

Table 5: DUAL PREFIX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb root begins with</th>
<th>Dual Prefix is</th>
<th>Other changes</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a, e, t, ou, ow</td>
<td>u-</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>arâk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ua</td>
<td>u-</td>
<td>u + ua + uîua</td>
<td>ual</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ha, he</td>
<td>u-</td>
<td>u + ha + hua</td>
<td>hâl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>any other segment</td>
<td>ia-</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>kîn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some examples of the dual prefix are given below.

1The only context in which number-markers must not be used is in impersonal constructions, which are discussed in 3.2.7.4.
The following are exceptions to the rules given in Table 5:

(88)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pkom</td>
<td>uapkom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vit</td>
<td>uavít</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

'heavy'
'good'

3.2.7.3. Trial and Plural

The trial prefix varies in exactly the same manner as the plural prefix, and both will be treated together here. The variations undergone by the trial and plural prefixes, however, are quite different - and occur in quite different contexts - from the variations undergone
by the dual prefix. The most common forms of these prefixes are hai- (trial) and ar- (plural); in environments detailed in Table 6, however, these change to hai- and ai-, and to ha- and a-.\(^1\)

**Table 6: TRIAL AND PLURAL PREFIXES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb root begins with</th>
<th>Trial Prefix is</th>
<th>Plural Prefix is</th>
<th>Other changes</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ua</td>
<td>hai-</td>
<td>ai-</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>uai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a (not ai)</td>
<td>hai-</td>
<td>ai-</td>
<td>hai- + a + hai ai- + a + ai</td>
<td>ar+k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ow</td>
<td>hai-</td>
<td>ai-</td>
<td>hai- + o + hai ai- + o + ai</td>
<td>owta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ha</td>
<td>hai-</td>
<td>ai-</td>
<td>hai- + ha + hahi ai- + ha + ahi</td>
<td>hai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alveolar consonant</td>
<td>ha-</td>
<td>a-</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>síg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i- + alveolar (in a poly-syllable)</td>
<td>ha-</td>
<td>a-</td>
<td>hai- + i + ha a- + i + a</td>
<td>ini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ai</td>
<td>hai-</td>
<td>ar-</td>
<td>hai- + ai + hai ar- + ai + ari</td>
<td>aik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>any other segment</td>
<td>hai-</td>
<td>ar-</td>
<td>none</td>
<td>kín</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Examples**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trial</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sing.</td>
<td>trial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uai</td>
<td>hauai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ar+k</td>
<td>hai+k</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>owta</td>
<td>haiwta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hai</td>
<td>hahil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>síg</td>
<td>hasíg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ini</td>
<td>hani</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aik</td>
<td>halik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kín</td>
<td>haikín</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of special interest here are verbs beginning with i-. Monosyllabic i-initial verbs take the prefixes hai- and ar-; polysyllabic i-initial verbs whose second segment is an alveolar consonant take ha- and a- and delete the initial i; while polysyllabic i-initial verbs whose second segment is not an alveolar consonant take hai- and a-.\(^2\) For example:

---

\(^1\)No Lenakel verbs have been found beginning with ū, but for various reasons it appears that such verbs, if found, would behave like those with initial he.

Verbs which begin with orthographic ow, which represents underlying /aw/, are treated in this and other tables in this section as a-initial verbs. Thus orthographic owta (underlying /awta/) takes u- as the dual prefix, hai- as the trial, and ai- as the plural, and deletes the initial vowel in the trial and plural; the three forms, orthographically, are owta, haiwta, and aiwta.

\(^2\)The situation is in fact simpler than it appears at first glance, since ha- and a- occur only when the next consonant is an alveolar (or an alveolar preceded by ū). These two prefixes can thus be derived from hai- and ar- since, if the rule deleting initial ū applies first, hai- and ar- will then become ha- and a- by CORONAL SIMPLIFICATION (rule (1.50)).
Some examples of the trial prefix in its various forms are given below.

(90) a. Kapamwā kinhalugīn ita, kephaiwīta takrīn am.
kapamwā k-n-hai-augīn ita, k-ep-hai-awta takrīn am
if:past 3:ns-perf-tr-eat already, 3:ns-seq-tr-sit a:bit just
'If they (tr.) have already eaten, they will just sit for a while'

b. Uus mihei kinhalelīg iimwa.
 uus mihei k-n-ha-leiīg i-imwa
man trial 3:ns-perf-tr-return loc-house
'The three men have returned home'

c. Kímhaialaau pukas mhailīis.
k-ím-hai-alhaau pukas m-ha-ílis
3:ns-past-tr-put pig and-tr-tie
'They (tr.) put down the pig and tied it up'

d. Kínhaial u nǐk mīnhalik.
k-n-hal-hau nǐk m-n-hal-alk
3:ns-perf-tr-plant tree and-perf-tr-swim
'They (tr.) planted the tree and went swimming'

e. Peramihel aan kímhalos nuw mhaller iatīv.
pera-mihel aan k-ím-hal-os nuw m-ha-l-er iatīv
woman-tr that 3:ns-past-tr-take yam and-tr-go:out outside
'Those three women took the yams and went outside'

f. Kuri kísil ka kímhalkís io mhaivīn lauanu.
kuri kísil ka k-ím-hal-kís io m-hai-vīn l-auanu
dog three that 3:ns-past-tr-bite I and-tr-go loc-village
'Those three dogs bit me and then went to the village'

As was pointed out above, the plural prefix undergoes phonological changes similar to those undergone by the trial prefix. The few examples given below should be sufficient to illustrate this.

(91) a. Ilar petīmw kínaiiliuok marvīn apwa Lenakel.
il-ar petīmw k-n-ai-aliuok m-ar-vīn apwa Lenakel
they-pl all 3:ns-perf-pl-walk and-pl-go loc Lenakel
'They have all walked to Lenakel'
b. Takahili ner-nil-ar apwa Ifila.
   t-k-ak-ai-hali ner-nil-ar apwa Ifila
   fut-3:ns-conc-pl-send child-3:ns-pl loc Vila
   'They (pl.) will send their children to Vila'

c. Ni-nasu ita uikar mlin ka ua?
   n-n-a-su ita uikar mlin ka ua
   2-perf-pl-plant already seed pl that or
   'Have you (pl.) planted those seeds yet?'

d. Iemamarik nenav.
   i-im-am-ar-aik nenav
   l:exc-past-cont-pl-swim yesterday
   'We (exc.pl.) were swimming yesterday'

The following are exceptions to the rules given in Table 6:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(92)</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Trial</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ail</td>
<td>hallil</td>
<td>aillil</td>
<td>'to stand'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amnuumw</td>
<td>halamnuumw</td>
<td>aramnuumw</td>
<td>'to drink'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elhualig</td>
<td>elhilualig</td>
<td>elhilualig</td>
<td>'to hide'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elue</td>
<td>haluelue</td>
<td>arealue</td>
<td>'to be lost'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>esuaas</td>
<td>halusaas</td>
<td>areusaas</td>
<td>'small'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-mwa</td>
<td>hamwa</td>
<td>amwa</td>
<td>'to say'</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.7.4. Deletion of Number Prefixes: the Impersonal Construction

There is one important environment in which number prefixes are not used. This is the impersonal construction, which uses the third person non-singular prefix k- without any number prefix. These constructions are often translatable as a passive with unspecified agent (there being no passive in Lenakel). Another feature of these constructions is that the object frequently precedes the verb, although it normally follows the verb in other constructions.¹

(93) a. Kos ilau kavin kirenim ilau.
   k-os il-lau k-avim k-renim il-lau
   3:ns-take they-d 3:ns-go 3:ns-bury they-d
   'The two of them were taken away and buried'

¹ Note also that the person prefix m- is not used in these constructions; thus, in (93a and b), all three verbs have the prefix k-, although in non-impersonal constructions of a similar type the second and third verbs would normally take m-. This is presumably because the subject of each verb, being unidentified or non-specific, cannot be equated with the subject of any other verb in the sentence.
b. Nakamuapui lenhaiu miin, mamuarou nakaraan kol kiva kamavin
irhe ua kapwa?
n-ak-am-u-apul l-enhaiu miin, m-am-u-arou
2-conc-cont-d-sleep loc-evening pl, and-cont-d-hear
n-akar-aan k-ol k-va k-am-avín irhe ua kapwa
nom-speak-nom 3:ns-do 3:ns-come 3:ns-cont-go loc:sea or no
'While you two are sleeping in the evenings, do you hear talking
and people doing things and coming and going to and from the
sea?'

c. Ník ka kínaral ita.
ník ka k-n-aral ita
tree that 3:ns-perf-out already
'That tree has already been cut down'

d. Kamkín ua?
k-am-kín ua
3:ns-cont-eat or
'Is it edible?,' 'Does one eat it?'

Since k- is deleted after the future prefix t- (see (60) above),
future impersonal constructions show merely t- + tense + verb:
(94) a. Tepol.
t-k-ep-oí
fut-3:ns-seq-do
'It will be done'

b. Nuw uk takamkin.
nuw uk t-k-ak-am-kín
yam this fut-3:ns-conc-cont-eat
'This yam (or these yams) will be eaten'

3.2.8. RECIPROCAL/REFLEXIVE SUFFIX

The suffix -atu indicates reciprocity (rec): in a verb with a non-
singular subject, each of the individuals involved performs the action
on at least one of the others.
(95) a. Pwas tiklalpwr, muuninatu netgínilaun miin.
pwas t-k-ak-ia-lpwír, m-u-aunfn-atu netg-nil-lau miin
let fut-3:ns-conc-d-big, and-d-call-rec name-3:ns-d pl
'Wait until they (d.) grow up, and they will name each other'

b. Kìmamkaratupín kam illar miin.
k-im-am-ai-akar-atu-pn kam il-ar miin
3:ns-past-cont-pl-talk-rec-there dat they-pl pl
'They (pl.) were talking to each other'
The suffix -atu also indicates reflexiveness (refl): the subject is also the goal of the action.

(96) a. Mîran rîmhoatu.
   mîrâ-n rî-m-ho-atu
   mother's:brother-3:s 3:s-past-kill-refl
   'His (maternal) uncle killed himself'

   b. Nînaraiatu ua?
   n-n-arai-atu ua
   2-perf-cut-refl or
   'Have you (s.) cut yourself?'

   Note also the use of -atu in the following example, indicating an accidental happening.

(97) Rîmolatu am.
   rî-m-ol-atu am
   3:s-past-do-refl just
   'It just happened on its own'

3.2.9. ASSOCIATIVE SUFFIX

The associative suffix -uas (assoc) indicates that those involved in performing the action do so together; in some, though not all, cases, the suffix implies concerted action.

(98) a. Kîmu•niuas to nahuto.
   kî-m-u•ini-uas to nahuto
   3:ns-past-d-say-assoc dat many
   'They were both talking at once to the crowd'

   b. Nîkîïk rho namnuumwuasaan tîlau.
   nîkîi-k r-ho n-amnuumw-uas-aan taha-t-lau
   mind-1:s 3:s-hit nom-drink-assoc-nom poss-1:inc-d
   'I remember that we (inc.d.) used to drink together'

3.2.10. DIRECTIONAL SUFFIXES

Suffixes which indicate the direction of the action and/or the location of the participants are obligatorily suffixed to directional verbs and optionally suffixed to certain other verbs. There are three types of directional suffixes: personal, specific, and general.
3.2.10.1. Personal Directionals

These suffixes indicate the direction of the action with respect to the participants. There are three of these:

(99) -pa in the direction of the speaker (glossed 'to:speaker')
-pna in the direction of the addressee (glossed 'to:addresssee')
-pn away from speaker and addressee (glossed 'there')

Personal directional suffixes do not normally occur suffixed to verbs of motion, although they may occur with directional verbs of motion like *asou- 'to proceed', and *sim- 'to return from'. They do occur, however, with a large number of other verbs, particularly verbs of saying, giving, and looking.

(100) a. Ieramira rarmwig m-nilpa to kalau ...
   Ieramira r-armwig m-nil-pa to kai-lau ...
   chief 3:s-get:up and-say-to:speaker dat we:inc-d ...
   'The chief got up and said to us (inc.d.) ...'

b. Semusemu rimail Ikiamu metagpefn nhankom apwa le T+in.
   Semusemu r-im-ail Ikiamu m-tag-pa-fn
   Semusemu 3:s-past-stand Aneityum and-look-to:speaker-trans
   nha-nilkom apwa le T+in
   smoke-fire loc loc Tanna
   'Semusemu stood up in Aneityum and looked over this way and saw smoke in Tanna'

1 Note the phonological similarity between the directional suffixes in (99) and the verbs of motion va 'to ome'; vina 'to go in the direction of the addresssee'; and vfn 'to go (yonder)'. Note also that a similar relationship obtains between the last three specific directionals in (101) and the verbs viis 'to go south'; vaa 'to go east or shorewards'; and vaha 'to go west or seawards'. Obviously, a now non-productive process generated one set from the other.

2 The verb *sim- 'to return from', becomes *i- before a directional suffix beginning with p, as can be seen from the orthographic representation of (100d).
   In the northern dialect this verb is consistently *i- (Père A. Sacco, personal communication).

3 Compare the two major verbs of giving with the personal directions in (99):
   ofa  lifa     'to give to speaker'
   ofina lifina     'to give to addresssee'
   ofi'n lifin     'to give to a third person'

These verbs appear to derive, phonologically and semantically, from os 'to take', and *i's 'to carry', plus personal directional suffix.
c. Iemhalipna taham nisa.
   l-i-m-hall-pna taha-m nisa
   l-exc-past-send-to:addresse poss-2:s bushknife
   'I sent your bushknife back to you (s.)'

d. Uus aa rimsipin Ifila.
   uus aan r-i-m-sim-pn Ifila
   man that 3:s-past-return:from-there Vila
   'That man came back from Vila'

e. Franis karosipin loto nivin kam neram le Tin.
   Franis k-ar-os-fn-pn loto nivin kam n-eram
   France 3:ns-pl-take-trans-there vehicle some dat pl-the:one
   le Tin
   loc Tanna
   'The French gave some trucks to the Tannese people'

3.2.10.2. Specific Directionals

These suffixes refer to the points of the compass, and indicate the
direction in which or from which the action is proceeding. There are
four of these suffixes:¹

(101)  
   -hiu  'north, northwards'
   -pils 'south, southwards'
   -paat 'east, eastwards'
   -paha 'west, westwards'

Specific directionals usually only occur suffixed to directional verbs:

(102)  
   a. Tehe r-sim-pils, misimhiu, misipha, miva mamep io.
       tehe r-sim-pils, m-sim-hiu, m-sim-paha,
       see 3:s-come:from-south, and-come:from-north, and-come:from-west,
       m-va m-am-ep io.
       and-come and-cont-slap I
       'The sea comes from the south, from the north, from the west,
       and comes and slaps against me'

   b. Rimasua le kinu mamasoupaat.
       r-im-asua le kinu m-am-asou-paat
       3:s-past-travel loc canoe and-cont-proceed-east
       'He sailed eastwards in his canoe'

¹Specific directionals were termed 'compass directionals' in Lynch 1975.
Locative nouns may be formed by prefixing l- to the specific directionals: thus
l-hiu 'the north'; l-paat 'the east, the shore'; etc.
The directional suffix -pils 'south', is also used to indicate the direction one
travels from Lenakel to reach Whitesands, the mission centre on the east coast - a
direction which is almost due east. I cannot account for this usage.
3.2.10.3. General Directionals

These suffixes further elucidate the direction of the action. There are three of these: 1

(103) -it ~ -ft 'up, upwards'
    -hiaav 'down, downwards'
    -hie 'where?'

These suffixes have probably the widest range of use:

(104) a. Karol v-li-vla ton maros-f t malihaup-fin.
    k-ar-ol v-li-vla to-n m-ar-os-ft m-ai-alhau-pn
    3:ns-pl-do stretcher dat-3:s and-pl-take-up and-pl-put-there
    'They made a stretcher for her, and picked her up and put her on it'

b. Alakhiaav-f kipaas!
    alak-hiaav-fn kipaas
    throw-down-trans axe
    'Throw (s.) down the axe!'

c. Iakamkin menuk nian miin, tiakoshle nikan nivin?
    i-ak-am-kin menuk nian miin, t-i-ak-os-hie
    l:exc-conc-cont-eat bird day pl, fut-l:exc-conc-take-where
    nikan nivin
    poss:to:eat-2:s some
    'I eat birds every day, but where will I get some for you (s.) to eat?'

3.2.10.4. Combinations of Directionals

Directional suffixes admit of certain limited combinations. Specifically, a general directional suffix may precede a personal directional. 2 Thus:

(105) Alakhiaavpefin!
    alak-eriaav-pa-fin
    throw-down-to: speaker-trans
    'Throw (s.) it down to me!'

Such combinations, however, are exceedingly rare in conversations observed or texts recorded.

1Of the two allomorphs -ft and -ft, the former occurs after directional verbs and the latter elsewhere.
Note also that -it ~ -ft may mean 'south' as well as 'upwards', and -hiaav may mean 'north' as well as 'downwards'.

2Specific directionals may follow general directionals; the following is a possible, though not a normally used, Lenakel sentence: l+stpaha! 'take it up there to the west!'
3.2.11. THE NEGATIVE POSTCLITIC

The negative postclitic -aan obligatorily occurs when the negative tense-prefix is- is used. It follows all other suffixes in the verb:

(106) a. Rîsveaan apwa Ifila.
   r-îs-va-aan apwa Ifila
   3:s-neg-come-neg loc Vîlaha
   'He didn't come to Vîla'  

b. Ilau tahan peravîn kîsamuakaratupnaan kam ilau miin.
   il-îlau taha-n peravîn k-îs-am-u-akar-atu-pn-aan
   they-d poss-3:s woman 3:ns-neg-cont-d-talk-rec-there-neg
   kam il-lau miin
   dat they-d pl
   'He and his wife are not speaking to each other'

c. Kîsarasitaan nau tenîlar.
   k-îs-ar-os-it-aan nau taha-nil-ar
   3:ns-neg-pl-take-up-neg knife poss-3:ns-pl
   'They (pl.) did not pick up their knives'

The postclitic -aan may also follow verbal adjuncts which themselves follow the verb:

(107) a. Tieslelîgpa munaan apwa le Tîn.
   t-i-îs-leîg-pa mun-aan apwa le Tîn
   fut-1:exc-neg-return-to:speaker again-neg loc loc Tanna
   'I will not be returning here to Tanna again'

b. Iesau9în ìneaan.
   i-îs-augîn ìna-aan
   1:exc-neg-eat not:yet-neg
   'I haven't eaten yet'

c. Uusuaas aa rîskîn akînaan.
   uus-suaas aan r-îs-kîn akîn-aan
   man-small that 3:s-neg-eat very-neg
   'That boy did not eat very much'

However, -aan may also occur suffixed to verbs in VPs which contain adjuncts; the differences in meaning appear to be that, if -aan immediately follows the verb, then the verb is negated, while if it follows the adjunct it negates the adjunct:

(108) a. Rîsowteaan suun lan.
   r-îs-awta-aan suun le-n
   3:s-neg-sit-neg covering loc-3:s
   'He didn't sit on it and cover it up'
b. Rísowta suunaan lan.
   r-îs-owta suun-aan le-n
   3:s-neg-sit covering-neg loc-3:s
   'He didn't cover it by sitting on it'

Because of the distribution of -aan - i.e., because it may occur both
verb-finally and verb-phrase-finally - it cannot be truly called either
a suffix or a clitic. I am using the term clitic here in the sense of
a morpheme which may occur in phrase-final position, to distinguish -aan
(and also -fn, which is discussed in the next section) from 'true'
suffixes.

3.2.12. THE TRANSITIVE POSTCLITIC

The transitive postclitic - which is the same kind of 'clitic' as the
negative - occurs with neutral verbs to indicate that they are used
transitively; it never occurs attached to transitive verbs. This post-
clitic appears as -fn before vowels and glides, as -f or -fn in free
variation before alveolar consonants (l, n, r, s, and t), and as -f
before other consonants. It is always stressed if it occurs word-
finally.\(^1\)

Neutral verbs fall into two classes based on their use of the trans-
itive postclitic. Some, like eiúa 'lie, deceive', optionally take the
postclitic; they may also take a prepositional phrase instead:
(109) a. Kímueíúef kalau miín ua?
   k-îm-u-eiúa-fn kat-lau miín ua
   l:inc-past-d-lie-trans we:inc-d pl or
   'Did we (inc.d.) deceive each other?'

b. Io apwa iakameíúa am lam.
   io apwa i-ak-am-eiúa am le-m
   I loc l:exc-conc-cont-lie just dat-2:s
   'I'm just having you (s.) on'

Other verbs, like ügn 'fear', or alak 'throw', obligatorily take the
transitive postclitic when used transitively:

\(^1\)It was shown in Lynch 1975 that there exists a special boundary intermediate between
the morpheme- and the word-boundary, symbolised as =, which, among other functions,
causes primary stress to be assigned to the final syllable of a word if that syllable
is immediately preceded by =. The transitive postclitic -fn is, in fact, phonologic-
ally */-in/; i.e., it is the presence of the boundary = which causes the postclitic to
take final stress. For the sake of simplicity, however, this boundary will be dis-
pensed with here.
(110) a. Tfnakgnfn nanmwok ua?
t-n-ak-ign-ln nanmw-k ua
fut-2-conc-fear-trans spirit-1:s or
'Will you (s.) be afraid of my ghost?'

b. Rimalakhiaaví toula.
r-im-alak-hiaav-ln toula
3:s-past-throw-down-trans rope
'He threw down a rope'

A number of verbs appear to have permanently fused the transitive postclitic, and can never appear without it (even if used intransitively); e.g., hinatín 'know'; agritfn 'push into a heap'; amlitfn 'blow hard'; and etanfn 'wait (for)'. Needless to say, these verbs take no further postclitic when used transitively.

The position of the transitive postclitic is quite variable. It normally follows the directional suffixes, though it occasionally precedes the personal directionals. It normally precedes the negative postclitic -aan if the object is not expressed, but may precede or follow it if the object is expressed. The following give some idea of the variable position of the transitive postclitic.

(111) a. Osipa!
    os-fn-pa
take-trans-to:speaker
'Bring it here!'

b. Alakhiaavpefn!
alak-hiaav-pa-ln
throw-down-to:speaker-trans
'Throw it down to me!'

c. Rsigninaan.
r-ts-ign-ln-aan
3:s-neg-fear-trans-neg
'He is not afraid of him'

d. Rsigninaan kuri ka.
r-ts-ign-ln-aan kuri ka
3:s-neg-fear-trans-neg dog that
'He is not afraid of that dog'

e. Rsignanaani kuri ka.
r-ts-ign-aan-ln kuri ka
3:s-neg-fear-neg-trans dog that
'He is not afraid of that dog'
3.3. NOMINAL AFFIXES

Apart from the affixes which form nouns from other word-classes (see 3.1.1.2.) certain other affixes occur on nouns. Of these the most important are the possessive pronominal suffixes.¹

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Dual</th>
<th>Trial</th>
<th>Plural</th>
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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>inc.</td>
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<td>-lau</td>
<td>-thel</td>
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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>exc.</td>
<td>-k</td>
<td>-mlau</td>
<td>-mhel</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
<td>-m</td>
<td>-milau</td>
<td>-miel</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td>-n</td>
<td>-nilau</td>
<td>-nilhel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The syntax of possession will be discussed in detail in the next chapter. The following examples, however, are useful in showing how these suffixes are used:

(113) a. Rìmok rìshinatìnaan pwiam.
   rìm-k r-ìs-hìnàtì�-an pwìa-m
   father-1:s 3:s-neg-know-neg older:brother-2:s
   'My father doesn't know your (s.) older brother'

b. Intìnilau rìmho nìmwansìlimar le nouànk.
   in-nil-lau r-ìm-hò nìmwànslì-m-ar le nouà-nìk
   mother-3:ns-d 3:s-past-hit buttocks-1:exc-pl ins stick
   'Their (d.) mother smacked our (exc.pl.) backsides with a stick'

The only nominal prefix so far located is nìkı-, which has a kind of locative function not accurately identified as yet.² Note the following examples:

(114) a. Ramàrìk le nìkìtìhe.
   r-am-arìk le nìkì-tehe
   3:s-cont-live loc loc-sea
   'It is underwater', 'It lives underwater'

b. Rìmìtru nouànk ker apwa le nìkìkopwìel.
   r-ìm-tru nouà-nìk ker apwa le nìkì-kopwìel
   3:s-past-throw stick one loc loc loc-stone
   'He threw a stick at/towards the rock(s)'

¹These proun suffixes do occur affixed to one or two verbs, which are historically compounds of verb + inalienable noun: e.g., avîntaa- 'to go backwards'; ahlìmr- 'to keep out of sight of'.

²Note in 3.4.2., however, the use of the preposition to as a future prefix to some temporal nouns.
3.4. PREPOSITIONS

Although a discussion of the function of the case-marking prepositions properly belongs to the chapters on sentence structure, it is appropriate to illustrate some of the uses of the four prepositions le, to, kam, and taha before that discussion.

3.4.1. THE PREPOSITION /le/

The preposition le has the widest semantico-syntactic range of all the Lenakel prepositions, being very similar in function to the Melanesian Pidgin preposition long. The major function of le is to introduce that type of locative or directional phrase which does not contain a locative noun:

(115) a. Ramařik le touar.
   r-am-arik le touar
   3:s-cont-live loc mountain
   'He lives on the mountain'

b. Iemarit le nîk.
   i-im-ar-it le nîk
   l:exc-past-pl-go:up loc tree
   'We (exc.pl.) climbed up the tree(s)'

c. Ralluok mîvin le nîmwaktlakîl.
   r-alluok m-vin le nîmwaktlakîl
   3:s-walk and-go loc beach
   'He walked to the beach'

d. Iemsîpîn le tinmûrh ker.
   i-im-sîm-pn le tin-murh ker
   l:exc-past- come: from-there loc island one
   'I came (back) from an island'

Another major function of le is as an introducer of instrumental phrases:

(116) a. Rîmho pukas ka le nouatavha.
   r-im-ho pukas ka le noua-tavha
   3:s-past-kill pig that ins club
   'He killed that pig with a club'

---

1 The preposition le becomes la (1) obligatorily before the singular pronoun suffixes -k, -m, and -n; and (2) optionally before a word whose first vowel is a or o.

2 Note the rather wide interpretation of 'instrumental' in the case of (116c).
b. Uusuaas uk r-imarai nık le kípaas.
   uus-suas uk r-im-arai nık le kípaas
   man-small this 3:s-past-out tree ins axe
   'This boy cut down a tree with the axe'

c. Rímok rakamís le mumuk.
   rím-k r-ak-mís le mumuk
   father-1:s 3:s-conc-sick ins mosquito
   'My father is sick with malaria'

A third function of le is as the equivalent of English 'than' in comparisons (which are more fully discussed in Chapter 5 below):

(117) a. Kopwiel uk ripwir mun le ieram aan.
   kopwiel uk r-ipwir mun le l-eram aan
   stone this 3:s-big again than s-the:one that
   'This stone is bigger than that one'

b. In uk ripwir pik mun le petimw.
   in uk r-ipwir pik mun le petimw
   it this 3:s-big more again than all
   'This one is the biggest of all'

With certain verbs, which are so marked in the lexicon, le indicates the semantic goal (which is more normally unmarked or marked by the transitive postclitic):

(118) Inhepus le nuw.
   l-n-hepus le nuw
   l:exc-perf-eat:enough goal yam
   'I have eaten enough yam(s)'

With a few other verbs, le marks the dative (which is more normally marked by to or kam):

(119) Nímeiúá le peravin taham.
   n-im-eiúá le pera-vin taha-m
   2-past-lie dat woman poss-2:s
   'You (s.) lied to your wife'

3.4.2. THE PREPOSITION /to/

The preposition to - which becomes ton before singular pronouns1 - is also multifunctional. Its primary function is to mark the dative:

---

1 The third person singular pronoun in is deleted after ton.
Another primary function of to is as a causative preposition, translating roughly 'because of' in English:

(121) a. Iakameukpìn to pukas miin.
i-ak-am-eukpìn to pukas miin
l:exc-conc-cont-hunt dat pig pl
'I am hunting for pigs'

b. Navänpìn kimarelməs to 10.
n-avän-pn k-im-ar-elmas to 10
pl-evil:spirit 3:ns-past-pl-frighten dat I
'The evil spirits frightened me'

c. Rimeal pik to kalhiavin.
r-im-eal pik to kalhiavin
3:s-past-swim more cause shark
'He swam fast because of the shark'

The preposition to also occasionally functions as a locative or directional marker in circumstances which are not exactly clear. A few verbs require to instead of le; while a few others allow a locative phrase - including a locative phrase already introduced by le - to be preceded by to nar (lit., 'to the thing'):

(122) a. Naias r-viliŋk mamowtə to 1n.
Naias r-viliŋk m-am-awta to in
Naias 3:s-make:bird:trap and-cont-sit loc it
'Naias made a bird-trap and was sitting in it'
b. Iemaliiuok to nar Lenakel.
   i-’im-aiiuok to nar Lenakel.
   1:exc-past-walk loc thing Lenakel
   ‘I walked to Lenakel’

c. Uus aan r-imvín to nar le tui touar.
   uus aan r-’im-vín to nar le tui touar
   man that 3:s-past-go loc thing loc top mountain
   ‘That man went to the top of the mountain’

Mention should also be made here of the use of to as a prefix to certain temporal nouns to indicate the future:¹

(123) lauk ‘the next day’ + tolauk ‘tomorrow’
   nihin ‘two days ago’ + tonhî ‘two days hence’
   nahan ‘when (past)?’ + tonhan ‘when (future)?’

3.4.3. THE PREPOSITION /kam/

The preposition kam is normally a dative. Certain verbs, especially those of giving, require kam rather than to, but there appears to be no simple way of distinguishing on semantic grounds which verbs take to and which take kam: thus akar ‘speak’, takes kam, but ini ‘say, speak’, takes to. Some examples of the dative use of kam are:

(124) a. Kîmuakar kam ilau mlîn.
   k-’im-u-akar kam il-lau mlîn
   3:ns-past-d-speak dat they-d pl
   ‘They (d.) talked to each other’

b. Rîmîl kaluk kam tahan leramwaan.
   r-’im-ol kaluk kam taha-n 1-eramwaan
   3:s-past-make coconut:oil dat poss-3:s s-man
   ‘She oiled her husband’s body with coconut oil’

c. Uus uk rîmofîn nuw mlîn kam pwîan.
   uus uk r-’im-ofîn nuw mlîn kam pwîa-n
   man this 3:s-past-give yam pl dat older:brother-3:s
   ‘This man gave the yams to his older brother’

¹Tonhî derives from to-nihin by the rule of VOWEL LOSS (1.43) and unexplained loss of final n; while tonhan derives regularly from to-nahan by the VOWEL LOSS rule.

There is a strong probability, reinforced by an examination of comparative data, that to and the future prefix to verbs t- are historically related.
d. Inin ramako kam tahan kova.
   in-n r-amako kam taha-n kova
   mother-3:s 3:s-dance dat poss-3:s child
   'The mother dandled her child'

   Occasionally, kam functions as a benefactive:
   (125) Rîmhatîkpîn nauginaan kam kova ka.
   r-îm-hatîk-pn n-augin-aan kam kova ka
   3:s-past-lay:down-there nom-eat-nom benef child that
   'He laid down food for that child'

3.4.4. THE PREPOSITION /taha/

   The primary function of taha is as the marker of neutral alienable
   possession, and its use in this context as well as its morphophonemic
   variants will be discussed in the next chapter. This preposition also
   functions, however, as an introducer of benefactive phrases; and in
   this environment, when the beneficiary is a pronoun, the pronoun occurs
   in its suffixed and not its free form.
   (126) a. Kamilau ker tîros nîvin tîmilau.
      kamî-lau ker t-r-os nîvin taha-mî-lau
      you:ns-d one fut-3:s-take some benef-2:ns-d
      'One of you (d.) will get some for you both'

   b. Iakamasumw taha rîmok.
      i-ak-am-asumw taha rîm-k
      l:exc-conc-cont-garden benef father-1:s
      'I am gardening for my father'
CHAPTER 4

SIMPLE SENTENCE STRUCTURE

4.0. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the structure of Lenakel simple sentences will be examined in some detail. A simple sentence in Lenakel is one which contains:

(a) Not more than one verb phrase (VP).\footnote{There are Lenakel sentences with no VP at all - see 4.2.5. - but these may be conceived as containing an underlying performative verb which has no phonological representation.} For the purposes of exposition, adjectives without verbal affixes, and possessive constructions, are taken not to be derived from underlying verbs, even though there is considerable evidence that they in fact are.

(b) A variable number of noun phrases (NPs) of various cases, some of which are preceded by case-marking prepositions. No NP in a simple sentence is co-ordinate with any other NP, nor does any NP contain an embedded sentence. Simple sentences do occur without any surface NP at all, but these will be shown to be the result of general deletion rules which will be discussed below.

This chapter is restricted to a discussion of sentences of this type in order to provide a basic framework for the understanding of Lenakel syntax. Complex sentence-types, which are discussed in Chapter 5, can be conceived of in terms of the notion of the simple sentence discussed in this chapter: either as strings of simple sentences in co-ordination, or as simple sentences embedded within other simple sentences.

The discussion of the structure of the Lenakel sentence in 4.2. below will be preceded by an examination of the kinds and structure of Lenakel phrases.
4.1. PHRASES

In this section we will examine the structure of simple noun phrases, locative phrases, possessive phrases, verb phrases, and temporal phrases.

4.1.1. THE SIMPLE NOUN PHRASE

The simple NP is a phrase whose head is a noun and which contains no embedded sentence. Lenakel simple sentences contain simple NPs, some of which may be preceded by prepositions. The structure of the simple NP is outlined in rule (1):

\[(1) \quad NP \rightarrow N ((A_{Ddsc})^* (Dnum) (Dqty) (Ddem))\]

Rule (1) states that an NP must contain a noun, which is optionally followed by one or more constituents. The first of these optional slots is usually filled by an adjective without verbal affixes, or by a descriptive adjunct; the asterisk following this constituent in rule (1) indicates that more than one item may be chosen. The next three slots are filled by adjuncts of the other three classes: grammatical number markers, adjuncts of quantity, and demonstrative adjuncts respectively. Some examples of simple NPs in simple sentences are given below, and the structure of the NP in each case is outlined within parentheses at the right of the sentence. Slashes in these and all other examples in this chapter indicate phrase-boundaries.

(2) a. Uus asuul uk ríva.
   uus asuul uk / r-va (N + Ddsc + Ddem)
   man big this / 3:s-some
   'This big man came'

b. Nau rímaamh ník mil kiu.
   Nau / r-ím-aamh / ník mil kiu (N); (N + Dnum + Dqty)
   Nau / 3:s-past-see / tree dual two
   'Nau saw two trees'

c. Pukas esuaas miín aan kínaikímw.
   pukas esuaas miín aan / k-n-ai-akímw (N + A + Dnum + Ddem)
   pig small pl that / 3:ns-perf-pl-run:away
   'Those small pigs have run away'

1 NPs which do not contain nouns - e.g., as a result of pronominalisation - will be discussed in the next chapter.

2 See the discussion in 3.1.4. regarding the idiosyncratic changes in the ordering of particular adjuncts.
d. Nīnaamh neram ituga petимв ka?

n-n-aamh / n-eram ituga petимв ka (N + Ddsc + Ddsc + Ddem)
2-perf-see / pl-the:one foreign all that
'Did you (s.) see all those foreigners?'

e. Iakhinatīn nimwa esuaas vi mil kiu ka.

i-ak-hinatīn / nimwa esuaas vi mil kiu ka (N + A + Ddsc + Dnum + Dqty + Ddem)
l:exc-conc-know / house small new dual two that
'I know of those two small new houses'

4.1.2. THE SIMPLE LOCATIVE PHRASE

Locative phrases (LP) may be either situational or directional.1 Whether an LP is situational or directional, however, is determined not by its internal structure but by the nature of the preceding verb. When an LP follows a verb or directional motion (e.g., vin 'to go'; lelig 'to return'; or eai 'to swim to'), or a directional verb (like asou- 'to proceed', or sim- 'to return from'), or a verb of giving (like ofin 'to give'), then that LP is always directional. For example:

(3) Iemvin apwa Ifila.

i-i-m-vin / apwa Ifila
1:exc-past-go / loc Vila
'I went to Vila'

When an LP follows any other verb, including verbs of non-directional motion (like aliuok 'to walk', or avin 'to wander'), it is always situational.2 For example:

(4) Iemaliuok apwa Ifila.

i-i-m-aliuok / apwa Ifila
1:exc-past-walk / loc Vila
'I walked around in Vila'

---

1 A situational locative is one which, in English, follows the verb 'to be': thus 'He is in the house'. A directional locative implies motion: 'He went to the house'.

2 For a directional LP to be used in conjunction with a verb of non-directional motion, a complex sentence involving the co-ordination of a directional verb with the non-directional verb must be used; contrast the example below with example (4):

Iemaliuok mivin apwa Lenakel

i-i-m-aliuok / m-vin / apwa Lenakel
1:exc-past-walk / and-go / loc Lenakel
'I walked to Lenakel'
Lenakel LPs show greater structural variation than do NPs. The following rule generates the large majority of LP-types found in simple sentences:

\[
(5) \quad \text{LP } \rightarrow \text{ (apwa) } + \begin{cases} \text{NL} \\ \text{ikín-NP} \\ \text{loc + NP} \end{cases}
\]

Rule (5) states that an LP consists of either a locative noun (NL), or an NP with the noun ikín 'place', as its head, or an NP introduced by a locative preposition - usually le, but occasionally to. Each of these types may optionally be preceded by the LP-introducer apwa, whose use appears to be entirely optional: that is, no semantic distinctions appear to attach to its presence or absence, as the following semantically identical sentences indicate:

(6) a. Kînarvin apwa le nimwa klakil.
   k-n-ar-vîn / apwa le nimwa klakil
   3:ns-perf-pl-go / loc loc beach
   'They (pl.) went to the beach'

b. Kînarvin le nimwa klakil.
   k-n-ar-vîn / le nimwa klakil
   3:ns-perf-pl-go / loc beach
   'They (pl.) went to the beach'

As rule (5) shows, one kind of LP which follows optional apwa consists solely of a locative noun:

(7) a. Kîmarvaat apwa Lenîmtehin.
   k-îm-ar-vaat / apwa Lenîmtehin
   3:ns-past-pl-land / loc Lenîmtehin
   'They (pl.) landed at Lenîmtehin'

b. Kîmhalvin iikhu.
   k-îm-hal-vîn / iikhu
   3:ns-past-tr-go / loc: north
   'They (tr.) went up north'

c. Iakharrîk Imlau.
   i-ak-am-ârk / Imlau
   l:exc-conc-cont-live / Imlau
   'I live at Imlau'

A second type of LP consists of an NP whose head noun is the locative noun ikín 'place, location'. This kind of LP is used especially in translating demonstrative locatives like 'here' and 'there' which, in Lenakel, consist of ikín followed by the appropriate demonstrative adjunct.
(8) a. Tiakapul uk ikën uk.
   t-l-ak-apul uk / ikën uk
   fut-l:exc-conc-sleep this / place this
   'I will sleep here'

b. Vin aan ikën aan!
   vin aan / ikën aan
   go that / place that
   'Go (s.) over there!'

c. Uus aan ramařik ikën petuen?
   uus aan / r-am-arik / ikën petuen
   man that / 3:s-cont-live / place which
   'Where does that fellow live?'

d. Rìmahum iatiw apwa ikën taat.
   r-ìm-ahum iatiw / apwa ikën taat
   3:s-past-dive out / loc place bad
   'He dived out into a bad place'

The third type of LP is the only one which uses a case-marking preposition. This type consists of an NP preceded by le or, occasionally, to (see 3.4.2. above).

(9) a. Uusuas ka rit le tuï nìk ker.
   uus-suus ka / r-it / le tuï nìk ker
   man-small that / 3:s-go:up / loc top tree one
   'That boy climbed to the top of a tree'

b. Kimasìpin apwa le touar.
   k-ìm-a-sìm-pn / apwa le touar
   3:ns-past-pl-come:from-there / loc loc mountain
   'They (pl.) came from the mountain'

c. Kreñìm ilau le nìmil karena.
   k-renìm / il-lau / le nìmil karena
   3:ns-bury / they-d / loc hole one
   'The two of them were buried in the same grave'

d. Rìmowta to nìkom ka.
   r-ìm-awta / to nìkom ka
   3:s-past-sit / loc fire that
   'He sat at that fire'

4.1.3. THE SIMPLE POSSESSIVE PHRASE

As pointed out in Lynch 1973a, 1973b, possessive phrases (PP) should properly be considered as expansions of a simple NP. However, it is not
only convenient to deal with PPs here, but it is also somewhat pedantic in a grammar of this kind to treat, for example, possessive pronominal suffixes - some of which consist of but a single consonant - as being the phonological representation of an embedded sentence.

Possessive phrases are generally of the following structure:

(10) PP $\rightarrow$ NP + poss + NP

where the first NP is possessed and the second is the possessor, with 'poss' indicating a possessive-marking morpheme of some kind. There are, however, three subtypes of PP in Lenakel, and it is useful to discuss each separately.

4.1.3.1. Inalienable Possessive Phrases

Certain possessive phrases in Lenakel, as in most other Oceanic languages, are said to be inalienable. Such constructions are used when an intimate relationship obtains between the possessor and the possessed - so intimate, in fact, that the term 'possession' seems inappropriate. Kinship terms and most parts of the body or of a whole are normally inalienably possessed, although certain other nouns representing things intimately involved with the possessor are also possessed inalienably.

The structure of the inalienable possessive phrase (PPinal) is shown in rule (11):

(11) PPinal $\rightarrow$ NPinal + NP

An inalienable PP consists, in other words, of a (possessed) NP whose head is an inalienable noun, followed immediately by the NP acting as possessor. Some examples follow:

(12) a. Pwia uus aan rakamîs.
    pwia uus aan / r-ak-mîs
    older:brother man that / 3:s-conc-sick
    'That man's older brother is sick'

b. Ramkîn nelkî pukas.
    r-am-kîn / nelk pukas
    3:s-cont-eat / leg pig
    'He is eating the pig's leg'

c. Ieshinatinaan netgî peravîn mil uk.
    i-îs-hinatîn-aan / netg pera-vîn mil uk
    1:exc-neg-know-neg / name woman dual this
    'I don't know the names of these two women'

When the possessor is a noun or a noun phrase - but NOT a pronoun - any adjectives or adjuncts contained in the inalienable possessed NP are moved into a following appositive phrase (AP) by rule (13):
Although apposition is discussed in detail in 4.2. below, a few examples are appropriate here:

(14) a. Ner uus aan ir'esuaas r+sveaan ãna.
    Ner uus aan / ir-esuaas / r-îs-va-aan ãna
    child man that / appos-small / 3:s-neg-come-neg not:yet
    'That man's small son has not yet come'

b. Pehe rînarai nouanu kova irîpwm h?
    pehe / r-n-arai / nouanu kova / ir-îpwm h
    who / 3:s-perf-out / hair child / appos-long
    'Who cut the child's long hair?'

When the possessor NP is a pronoun (PRO), the possessive pronominal suffixes (pro:sfx) listed in (3.112) above are affixed directly to the inalienable noun by rule (15):¹

(15) \[ PP \left[ NP \text{Ninal} + X \right]_{NP} + \left[ NP \text{PRO} \right]_{NP} \] PP
    \[ \Rightarrow \left[ PP \left[ NP \text{Ninal} + \text{pro:sfx} + X \right]_{NP} \right] PP \]

Note in rule (15), as well as in examples (16b) and (16c) below, that adjectives or adjuncts modifying the inalienable noun occur after the pronominal suffix.

(16) a. Rîmîmar rînva ita.
    rîm-m-ar / r-n-va ita
    father-1:exc-pl / 3:s-perf-come already
    'Our (exc.pl.) father has already come'

b. Nerîk miîn petîmw kînarvin Ifiîa.
    ner-k miîn petîmw / k-n-ar-vîn / Ifiîa
    child-1:s pl all / 3:ns-perf-pl-go / Vîla
    'All my children have gone to Vîla'

c. Inho le nelmok kîu.
    l-n-ho / le nelm-k kîu
    1:exc-perf-hit / ins hand-1:s two
    'I hit it with two hands'

¹When the possessed noun (or the possessive morphemes discussed in 4.1.3.2.) ends in a consonant and the possessor begins with a consonant, \( \# \) is inserted between the two consonants. This \( \# \) changes to 0 before -k 'my', and to a before -m 'your (s.)'.

d. Pehe netgam?
   pehe / netg-m
   who / name-2:s
   'What is your (s.) name?'

4.1.3.2. Alienable Possessive Phrases

Certain other types of possessive constructions are said to be alienable. In these cases there is generally no intimate relationship between possessor and possessed; thus, 'possession' is a more appropriate term in this case than in the case of inalienable constructions.

The structure of the alienable possessive phrase (PPal) is shown in rule (17):

\[
PPal \rightarrow NP + \begin{cases} 
\text{n+k-} \\
\text{n+mw-} \\
\text{ne-} \\
\text{limwa-} \\
\text{taha-}
\end{cases} + NP
\]

That is, an alienable PP consists of the possessed NP, followed by one of the five possessive morphemes shown in (17), followed by the possessor. As is the case in inalienable possession, a pronoun possessor becomes a pronominal suffix attached to the possessive morpheme by rule (18):

\[
NP + \text{poss} + [NP \text{ PRO}]NP \Rightarrow 1, 2, \text{pro:sfx}
\]

It is important in alienable constructions to know whether the possession is to be eaten, drunk, or planted, or whether it has to do with one's home, or whether it is conceived of only as a general possession. The form of the possessive morpheme is different in each case.1

If the possession is to be eaten, the possessive morpheme is n+k-:

(19) a. Iesaamhahaa n+tte n+k+ uusuaas uk.
   i-+s-aamh-aan / n+tte n+k uus-suaas uk
   l:exc-neg-see-neg / taro poss:to:eat man-small this
   'I haven't seen this boy's taro (for eating)'

b. Nuw miin n+kok l+hie?
   nuw miin n+k-k / l-hie
   yam pl poss:to:eat-1:s / loc-where
   'Where are my yams (to eat),'

---

1The phrases 'to be eaten', 'to be drunk', etc., do not imply only that the possessor intends to eat or drink the possession; in context, they also refer to a possession which is being or has been eaten, drunk, etc. They do not imply merely that the possession is edible or drinkable.
If the possession is to be drunk, then the possessive morpheme nîmwa- is used:

(20) a. Nu nîmwa kuri rtaat.
   nu nîmwa kuri / r-taat
   water poss:to:drink dog / 3:s-bad
   'The dog's water (to drink) is bad/spoiled'

b. Nîkava ituga nîmw mâpwa ikîn aan.
   nîkava ituga nîmwa-m / apwa ikîn aan
   kava foreign poss:to:drink-2:s / loc place that
   'Your (s.) liquor is over there'

If the possession is to be planted, the possessive morpheme ne- is used:

(21) a. Inaral ita nîktîlv owas ne mîsî.
   i-n-arai ita / nîktîlv owas ne mîsî
   1:exc-perf-out already / hibiscus old poss:to:plant missionary
   'I have cut down the missionary's old hibiscus (which he planted)'

b. Kînahiu nîk nenîlar.
   k-n-ai-hau / nîk ne-nil-ar
   3:ns-perf-pl-plant / tree poss:to:plant-3:ns-pl
   'They (pl.) have planted their trees'

If the possession is a location, then the possessive morpheme ilmwa-MAY be used; its use, however, is not obligatory (as is the use of nîk-, nîmwa-, and ne-), and the general possessive morpheme taha- may be used instead of ilmwa-.

(22) a. Ieram ituga ker ramarîk le nauanu ilmwa Nasu.
   i-eram ituga ker / r-am-arîk / le nauanu
   s-the:one foreign one / 3:s-cont-live / loc village
   ilmwa Nasu
   poss:place Nasu
   'There is a foreigner living in Nasu's village'

b. Kînaleleîg apwa le tîn ilmwanilau.
   k-n-la-leîg / apwa le tîn ilmwa-nil-lau
   3:ns-perf-d-return / loc loc land poss:place-3:ns-d
   'The two of them have returned to their homeland'

If the possession cannot be eaten, drunk, or planted; or if the possessor has no specific intention at the time of speaking of eating, drinking, or planting the possession; or if the speaker does not wish
to make his intentions known - then the general possessive morpheme taha- is used.¹

(23) a. Kuri mlín taha uus mil aan kínaikìmwa ìta.
   kuri mlín taha uus mil aan / k-n-ai-a-kìmwa ìta
   dog pl poss man dual that / 3:ns-perf-pl-run:away already
   'Those two men's dogs have run away'

b. Nimwa vi tahak ikìn aan.
   nimwa vi taha-k / ikìn aan
   house new poss-l:s / place that
   'My new house is over there'

The possessive morpheme taha- is also used in cases of non-possessive attribution:

(24) a. In uk nouanìk taha nìkìnaan.
   in uk / noua-nìk taha n-kìn-aan
   it this / fruit-tree poss nom-eat-nom
   'This fruit is for eating'

b. Nouanvirìn taha napulaan ihie?
   nouan-virìn taha n-apul-aan / l-hie
   place poss nom-sleep-nom / loc-where
   'Where is there a place to sleep?'

When the possessor is a pronoun, the possessive-morpheme-plus-pronominal-suffix constituent optionally precedes the possessed noun.²

In such a case, adjuncts of quantity also precede the possessed noun, although all other adjuncts remain in their regular position following the noun. These changes are brought about by rule (25):

(25) \[ \text{PP} \left[ \text{NP} N + X + (Dqty) + Y \right] \text{NP} \text{poss + pro:sfx} \text{PP} \]

\[ \text{OPT} \left[ \text{PP} \text{poss + pro:sfx + (Dqty)} \left[ \text{NP} N + X + Y \right] \text{NP} \right] \text{PP} \]

For example:

(26) a. Ofa nìkok ker nuw!
   ofa / nìk-k ker nuw
   give:to:speaker / poss:to:eat-l:s one yam
   'Give me a yam (to eat)!'

¹The possessive morpheme taha - which is identical to the benefactive preposition - undergoes a number of phonological changes in various environments. Before non-singular pronominal suffixes, taha becomes ì: thus tìmìâr 'your (pl.)', is morphemically taha-mi-ar. In valued possession (see below), taha contracts to ta. Finally, in certain idiomatic constructions with noun possessors, taha contracts to te: e.g., nouanurìk-te-ìatl 'k.o. round yam' (said to have been introduced to Tanna by a man named ìatl).

²I have not, however, observed this taking place with the locative-possessive morpheme ìmwa-.
b. Inos ita nimwam pia.
   l:exc-perf-take already / poss:to:drink-2:s beer
   'I have taken away your (s.) beer'

c. Ne-nil-ar nieh / i-hie
   poss:to:plant-3:ns-pl coconut / loc-where
   'Where are their (pl.) coconut trees (which they planted)?'

d. Rin-itkivin tahak ker nimwa.
   l:exc-perf-build / poss-1:s one house
   'He has built me a house'

When the possessor is a noun, the possessive-morpheme-plus-NP constituent may also precede the noun, but only in cases of emphasis. Such occurrences are, however, extremely rare. Thus (27b) is an emphatic version of (27a):

(27) a. Iemaamh peravin tahaa Tom.
   l:exc-past-see / woman poss Tom
   'I saw Tom's wife'

b. Iemaamh tahaa Tom peravin!
   l:exc-past-see / poss Tom woman
   'It was TOM'S wife that I saw!'

When the speaker wishes to indicate that the possessor places a high value on his possession, the possessive-morpheme-plus-pronominal-suffix obligatorily precedes the possessed noun, and if this noun begins with n then this n is deleted.¹ (This deleted n is represented as (n) in the morpheme-by-morpheme representation.) The possessive morpheme tahaa- contrasts to ta- in this context.

(28) a. Tiakofina nimwam ikava ker.
   fut-l:exc-conc-give:to:addressee / poss:to:drink-2:s kava one
   'I'll give you (s.) some of your favourite kind of kava'

¹There is no deletion if the noun begins with any segment other than n. This supports the claim that this n in Lenakel probably derives from the reconstructed Proto-Oceanic article *na.

Note that the adjunct of quantity follows the noun, as in (28a); compare rule (25) and the examples in (26).

I have no examples of this construction being used with the locative-possessive morpheme limwa-.
b. Ilar uk nǐkok uw.
   il-ar uk / nǐk-k (n)uw
   they-pl this / poss:to:eat-1:s yam
   'These are my most valued yams (to eat)'

If in the context of 'valued possession' the possessor is a noun, then
the possessive morpheme with the appropriate pronominal suffix precedes
the possessed noun, while the noun possessor follows it:
(29) a. Tan au Magau ihie?
   taha-n (n)au Magau / i-hie
   poss-3:s knife Magau / loc-where
   'Where is Magau's favourite knife?'

   b. Rīmatakin nenilar ṣpin uus miin aan.
   r-īm-atakīn / ne-nil-ar (n)ṣpin uus miin aan
   3:s-past-destroy / poss:to:plant-3:ns-pl banana man pl that
   'He destroyed those men's special planting-bananas'

Many nouns, of course, may be possessed by more than one possessive
morpheme, depending on the possessor's intentions at the time. Thus a
noun like nien 'coconut', may be possessed with nĩk- if thought of as
food, nĩmw- if thought of as something to be drunk, ne- if thought of
as a plant, or taha- if thought of in other ways, or if the possessor
is unspecific. Further, nien will become ien in any of these four
constructions if it is highly valued by the possessor. A few examples
only illustrate this:
(30) a. Pehe rīnos nĩkok nien?
   pehe / r-n-os / nĩk-k nien
   who / 3:s-perf-take / poss:to:eat-1:s coconut
   'Who took my (eating-)coconut?'

   b. In uk nĩmwĩn ien rīmok.
   in uk / nĩmw-n (n)ien rīm-k
   it this / poss:to:drink-3:s coconut father-1:s
   'This is my father's favourite kind of drinking-coconut'

   c. Taham nien ihie?
   taha-m nien / i-hie
   poss-2:s coconut / loc-where
   'Where is your (s.) coconut?'

4.1.3.3. Semi-alienable Possessive Phrases

Lenakel has a third type of possessive phrase which I have termed
semi-alienable. In these constructions, the nouns possessed often
represent parts of wholes which are in some way removable: e.g.,
nepwka 'coconut husk'; nimraau 'ashes'; or uikar 'seed'. Other nouns possessed semi-alienably do not, however, seem to involve the idea of removability, and some, in fact, are body parts: nau 'backbone'; uulpis 'heel'; and nfmaha 'anger'. Thus no satisfactory basis for deciding the semantic range of semi-alienable possession has as yet been discovered.

The structure of the semi-alienable possessive phrase (PPsemi) is shown in rule (31):

(31) PPsemi \(\rightarrow\) NPsemi + \{taha-\} + NP

That is, a semi-alienable PP consists of a semi-alienable NP - an NP with a semi-alienable noun as its head - followed by taha-, le, or -fn, followed by the possessor NP. Pronominal possessors are manifested as pronominal suffixes after taha and, in the singular, after le (which in this context becomes la); otherwise, pronoun possessors occur in their free forms (see (3.5) above).

There is no readily discernible semantic distinction between the use of the three possessive morphemes since, with a few minor exceptions, any noun that can be possessed semi-alienably may be possessed in any of these three ways. One kind of semi-alienable construction uses the regular neutral alienable possessive morpheme taha-, which functions in the same way as it does in alienable possessive phrases:

(32) a. Ulouou ker le uulpis tahak. (OR Ulouou ker le tahak uulpis)
   ulouou ker / le uulpis tahak
   sore one / loc heel poss-1:s
   'There is a sore on my heel'

b. Isamnuumwaan nigis taha nien aan!
   is-amnuumw-aan / nigis taha nien aan
   neg-drink-neg / coconut:water poss coconut that
   'Don't (s.) drink the water of that coconut!'

The second kind of semi-alienable construction uses the locative case-marking preposition le:

(33) a. Ulouou ker le uulpis lak.
   ulouou ker / le uulpis le-k
   sore one / loc heel loc-1:s
   'There is a sore on my heel'

b. Isamnuumwaan nigis le nien aan!
   is-amnuumw-aan / nigis le nien aan
   neg-drink-neg / coconut:water loc coconut that
   'Don't (s.) drink the water of that coconut!'
The third kind of semi-alienable construction uses the transitive post-clitic -fn:

(34) a. Uiuou ker le uulpīs fn io.
   uiuou ker / le uulpīs fn io
   sore one / loc heal trans I
   'There is a sore on my heel'

b. İsamnumwaaan nīgīs fn nien aan!
   ỉs-amnumw-ään / nīgīs fn nien aan
   neg-drink-neg / coconut:water trans coconut that
   'Don't (s.) drink the water of that coconut!'

A few nouns may be possessed both alienably and semi-alienably. In each case, the use of taha- unambiguously indicates alienable possession, and suggests a relationship between possessor and possessed less close than the corresponding semi-alienable relationship indicated by le or -fn. Note the examples below:

(35) a. i. Nīnarou nouanage taha Titoga ua?
   n-n-arou / nouanage taha Titoga / ua
   2-perf-hear / story poss Titoga / or
   'Have you (s.) heard Titoga's story (the one he told)?'

   ii. Nīnarou nouanage ỉ Titoga ua?
    n-n-arou / nouanage fn Titoga / ua
    2-perf-hear / story trans Titoga / or
    'Have you (s.) heard the story about Titoga?'

b. i. Iakamaamh nau taham. (OR Iakamaamh taham nau)
   i-ak-am-aamh / nau taha-m
   l:exc-conc-cont-see / blade poss-2:s
   'I can see your (s.) knife'

   ii. Iakamaamh nau lam.
    i-ak-am-aamh / nau le-m
    l:exc-conc-cont-see / blade loc-2:s
    'I can see your (s.) backbone'

4.1.3.4. Irregularities

In locative attributive phrases, such as 'a man of Tanna', the two nouns may either stand together with no intervening possessive morpheme, or else they are separated by taha nar, literally 'of the thing':

1Note the parallel here with the use of to nar as a locative, described in 3.4.2. above.
(36) a. Ieram Imlau kiu kimlava nenav.
   i-eram Imlau kiu / k-im-la-va / nenav
   s-the:one Imlau two / 3:ns-past-d-come / yesterday
   'Two men from Imlau came yesterday'
b. Nipukas taha nar Lounelapin ripwir.
   n-pukas taha nar Lounelapin / r-ipwir
   pl-pig poss thing Lounelapin / 3:s-many
   'The pigs of Lounelapin are numerous'

A few words are possessed in an irregular fashion: they are inalienable, in that they must always be possessed, but the method of possession is more reminiscent of valued alienable possession. Some of these nouns occur with ta + pronominal suffix prefixed to them: -iel 'friend, brother-in-law'; -kapwa 'head'; -mwanilp 'dorsal fin'; -uua 'vagina'.

(37) a. Rímho takkapwa.
   r-im-ho / ta-k-kapwa
   3:s-past-hit / poss-l:s-head
   'He hit my head', 'He hit me on the head'
b. Iesaamhaan taniel Magau.
   i-ías-aamh-aan / ta-n-iel Magau
   l:exc-neg-see-neg / poss-3:s-friend Magau
   'I didn't see Magau's friend'

Other nouns in this category are prefixed by ne + pronominal suffix:
   -kauga 'jaw'; -rou 'neck'.

(38) Nar ker ríkis Iasu le nenrou.
   nar ker / r-kis / Iasu / le ne-n-rou
   thing one / 3:s-bite / Iasu / loc poss-3:s-neck
   'Something bit Iasu on the neck'

4.1.4. THE SIMPLE VERB PHRASE

A simple Lenakel verb phrase (VP) has the following structure:¹

\[
\text{VP} \rightarrow \begin{cases} 
\text{Verb + (Dvb)* + (\{A_{Ddsc}\})* + (Ddem)} \\
\text{Adj + (Dvb)* + (Ddsc)*}
\end{cases}
\]

Rule (39) states that there are two kinds of VPs. One kind must contain a verb - i.e., a verb root with prefixes and suffixes as appropriate - and may contain one or more verbal adjuncts, one or more adjectives or descriptive adjuncts, and a demonstrative adjunct. For example:

¹Since this grammar is, albeit tenuously, following the Fillmorian rather than the Chomskyan model, the VP does not include the NP object.
(40) a. Rìmkin mun akín.
   r-im-kín mun akín (Verb + Dvb + Ddsc)
   3:s-past-eat again very
   'He ate a lot again'

b. Tiakvin ru aan.
   t-i-ak-vín ru aan (Verb + Dvb + Ddem)
   fut-l:exc-conc-go try that
   'I'll try and go there'

c. Rimaliuok taat am.
   r-im-aliuok taat am (Verb + A + Ddsc)
   3:s-past-walk bad just
   'He just limped'

d. Kinaimi ru apus am.
   k-nai-ami ru apus am (Verb + Dvb + A + Ddsc)
   3:ns-perf-pl-urinate try extinguished just
   'They (pl.) just tried to put it out by urinating on it'

The other kind of VP must contain an adjective (with appropriate affixes) and may contain one or more verbal adjuncts and one or more descriptive adjuncts:
(41) a. Resuaas am.
   r-esuaas am (Adj + Ddsc)
   3:s-small just
   'It's quite small'

b. Karipwir akín.
   k-ar-ipwir akín (Adj + Ddsc)
   3:ns-pl-big very
   'They (pl.) are very big'

c. Ramkímík mun akín.
   r-amkímík mun akín (Adj + Dvb + Ddsc)
   3:s-dirty again very
   'He is very dirty again'

4.1.5. THE SIMPLE TEMPORAL PHRASE

The simple temporal phrase (TP) has the following structure:
(42) TP \rightarrow \{_{le}^{NT} + _{NP}\}

Some TPs consist solely of a temporal noun (NT):
(43) a. Tolauk lepvin Ifila.
   to-lauk / l-ep-vin / Ifila
   tomorrow / l:exc-seq-go / Vila
   'Tomorrow I'll go to Vila'

b. Rînvi nam miin nenav.
   r-n-vi / nam miin / nenav
   3:s-perf-pull / fish pl / yesterday
   'He caught some fish yesterday'

c. Nîmva nahan?
   n-îm-va / nahan
   2-past-come / when:past
   'When did you (s.) come?'

Other TPs consist of the case-marking preposition le followed by an NP whose head noun denotes something to do with time; le may be deleted if the head of the NP is nian 'time':

(44) a. Kamairîk le nauohueaan.
   k-am-ai-ark / le n-auohue-aan
   1:inc-cont-pl-live / loc nom-troubled-nom
   'We (inc.pl.) are living in troubled times'

b. Rîmasouhiu le nian petuen?
   r-îm-asou-hiu / le nian petuen
   3:s-past-proceed-north / loc time which
   'When did he go north?'

c. Uus aan rîmîmsîs nian miin.
   uus aan / r-mîmsîs / nian miin
   man that / 3:s-sick-sick / time pl
   'That fellow is sick all the time'

4.2. SIMPLE SENTENCES

According to certain versions of the case-grammar model of linguistic description (e.g., Fillmore 1968), each Sentence (S) in a language is composed of a Modality Element (M) and a Proposition (P). Thus the first rule of Lenakel grammar is (45):

(45) S \(\rightarrow\) M + P

In Lenakel, M is manifested in surface structures by the intentional, future, tense-aspect and continuative prefixes; by the negative post-clitic; by certain verbal adjuncts; and by temporal phrases.

The Proposition, in the case-grammar model, consists of a VP and a number of cases:

(46) P \(\rightarrow\) VP + C_1 + ... + C_n
These cases represent the relationship between the participants and between each participant and the action. A number of such cases are recognised, among them Agentive, Goal, Dative, Benefactive, Instrumental, and Locative. Each case is composed of the appropriate case-marker (K) and an NP:

\[(47) \quad C_j \rightarrow K_j + NP\]

In Lenakel, the Agentive case is always unmarked. The Goal case is also normally unmarked, although certain verbs mark the Goal with the transitive postclitic -fn (see 3.2.12. above) while a few others mark it with the preposition le (see 3.4.1. above). All other cases are overtly marked by one of the four prepositions le, to, kam, or taha; their precise functions will be examined in 4.2.2. below.

4.2.1. SENTENCE-NUCLEUS

In regular Lenakel sentences,\(^1\) one of the cases, usually the Agentive, immediately precedes the VP, and in most regular sentences this is the only case which precedes the VP. This case is the grammatical subject, and it conditions the person and number prefixes of the verb. In transitive sentences there is also a grammatical object: this is usually the Goal case, which generally immediately follows the VP. Subject + verb in intransitive sentences, and subject + verb + object in transitive sentences, form a kind of unit into which no other case may normally be inserted. This unit will be termed the sentence-nucleus. Some examples of sentence-nuclei are given below: (48a, b) show nuclei of intransitive sentences, and (48c, d) show nuclei of transitive sentences.

   Nakankip / r-im-am-apul (Subject + VP)
   'Nakankip was sleeping'

b. Pukas miln petimw tahak kinaikimw ita.
   pukas miln petimw taha-k / k-n-ai-akimw ita (Subject + VP)
   pig pl all poss-1:s / 3:ns-perf-pl-run:away already
   'All my pigs have already run away'

c. Iarmis asuul ker rimkin petimw neramim miln.
   i-armis asuul ker / r-im-kin petimw / n-eramim miln (Subject + VP + Object)
   s-devil big one / 3:s-past-eat all / pl-person pl
   'A big devil ate up all the people'

---

\(^1\) Verbless sentences are discussed in 4.2.5. below.
d. Uusuaas uk rînkîn ita nuw mil kiu.
   uus-suaas uk / r-n-kîn ita / nuw mil kiu (Subject + VP + Object)
   man-small this / 3:s-perf-eat already / yam dual two
   'This boy has already eaten two yams'

Pronoun subjects, and third person singular pronoun objects, do not
normally occur in Lenakel surface structures unless they are emphasised.
It follows that there are also sentence-nuclei without surface subjects,
and transitive sentence-nuclei without surface objects:
(49) a. Nîmamaliuok mîruk akîn.
   n-îm-am-aliuok mîruk akîn (VP)
   2-past-cont-walk slow very
   'You (s.) were walking very slowly'

b. Magau rînos.
   Magau / r-n-os (Subject + VP)
   Magau / 3:s-perf-take
   'Magau has taken it'

If the object is emphasised, it may be moved to sentence-initial
position, although it never intervenes between the subject and the VP:
(50) a. Naramnár miin petîmw nîmataagasuul rîmataakan!
   nar-am-nar miin petîmw / nîmataag-asuul / r-îm-ataakan
   (Object + Subject + VP)
   thing-just-thing pl all / wind-big / 3:s-past-destroy
   'ALL OUR HOUSEHOLD GOODS were destroyed by the hurricane!'

b. Nau ka iesosaan!
   nau ka / l-is-os-aan (Object + VP)
   knife that / 1:exc-neg-take-neg
   'I didn't take THAT KNIFE!'

In impersonal constructions (see 3.2.7.4. above), however, the object
occurs sentence-initially more often than not:
(51) a. Nîk ka kînaral ita.
   nîk ka / k-n-aral ita (Object + VP)
   tree that / 3:ns-perf-out already
   'That tree has already been cut (down)'

b. Nuw ka kîmkîn.
   nuw ka / k-îm-kîn (Object + VP)
   yam that / 3:ns-past-eat
   'That yam was eaten'
4.2.2. SENTENCE-PERIPHERY

Dative, Benefactive, Locative, Temporal, and Instrumental phrases make up the periphery of the sentence. Apart from Temporal phrases, which will be discussed later, all other peripheral phrases occur outside and following the sentence-nucleus. In addition, each of these phrases is always marked by a case-marking preposition – except, of course, those LPs composed solely of locative nouns and TPs composed solely of temporal nouns. The examples in (52a-c) show respectively a dative, benefactive, and locative phrase occurring in the periphery.

(52) a. Rimofin pukas to pehe?
   r-im-ofin / pukas / to pehe
   3:s-past-give:to:third:person / pig / dat who
   'Who did he give the pig to?'

b. Os nuw nivin taha rimam!
   os / nuw nivin / taha rim-m
   take / yam some / benef father-2:s
   'Take some yams for your (s.) father'

c. Iemaamh nerim le nimwaktläkl.
   i-im-aamh / ner-m / le nimwaktläkl
   l:exc-past-see / child-2:s / loc beach
   'I saw your (s.) child on the beach'

Phrases within the periphery are not specifically ordered relative to one another, although Dative, more often than not, occurs at the beginning of the periphery. As a simple example, (53a) shows Dative + Locative, (53b) Locative + Instrumental, and (53c) Instrumental + Locative:

(53) a. Rimakar kam lo le nimwaktläkl.
   r-im-akar / kam lo / le nimwaktläkl
   3:s-past-speak / dat I / loc beach
   'He spoke to me on the beach'

b. Iemarai nik ker le nikinhamra le kipas taham.
   i-im-arai / nik ker / le nik-nhamra / le kipas tah-a-m
   l:exc-past-out / tree one / loc loc-bush / ins axe poss-2:s
   'I cut down a tree in the bush with your (s.) axe'

c. Uus aan rimho kuri ker le kopwiel iuokit to nimwahuuak.
   uus aan / r-im-ho / kuri ker / le kopwiel / iuokit to nimwa-ahuuak
   man that / 3:s-past-hit / dog one / ins stone / near loc house-pray
   'That man hit/killed a dog with a stone near the church'
The ordering of Benefactive phrases marked by taha is also not fixed; these phrases normally come towards the beginning of the periphery (as in (54a)), but may be moved further to the right if they could be interpreted as inalienable possessive phrases (54b)).

(54) a. Uusuaas ka rimamasumw taha rimin iuokit to nimwa tahak.
   uus-suuaas ka / r-im-am-asumw / taha rim-n /
   man-small that / 3:s-past-cont-garden / benef father-3:s /
   iuokit to nimwa taha-k
   near loc house poss-1:s
   'That boy was gardening for his father near my house'

b. Iem+lh nIm ker le nikihamra taham.
   i-im+lh / nim ker / le niki-nhamra / taha-m
   1:exc-past-pick / breadfruit one / loc loc-bush / benef-2:s
   'I picked a breadfruit for you (s.) in the bush'

Note in (54b) that if the Benefactive Phrase occurred at the beginning of the periphery - Iem+lh nIM ker taham le nikihamra - a possessive interpretation is more likely, viz., 'I picked your (s.) breadfruit in the bush'.

As in many languages, Temporal Phrases are more freely permutable than other phrases in the periphery. TPs occur most frequently as either the first or the last phrase in the sentence:

(55) a. Lenhalu k'imamuapul am ka apwa le nImwak+la+kl.
   l-enhalu / k-im-am-u-apul am ka / apwa le nImwak+la+kl
   loc-evening / 3:ns-past-cont-d-sleep just that / loc loc beach
   'In the evening the two of them were just sleeping there on the beach'

b. Lauk ka uus ka repakavi+n.
   lauk ka / uus ka / r-ep-akavi+n
   morrow that / man that / 3:s-seq-go:off
   'On the next day the man set off'

c. Tiakaiwakin ikIn aan tolauk.
   t-i-ak-ai-aluakin / ikIn aan / to-lauk
   fut-1:exc-conc-pl-war / place that / to-morrow
   'We (exc.pl.) will go to war over there tomorrow'

d. Ramkin menuk iuokit to nikom nian miin.
   r-am-ktIn / menuk / iuokit to nikom / nian miin
   3:s-cont-eat / fowl / near loc fire / time pl
   'He always eats chicken near the fire'
Very occasionally, TPs occur other than sentence-initially or sentence-finally:

(56) a. Nhina tin a n ka kınamol toue le Tín.
   n-hina tīn-a n ka / k-n-am-ol / toue / le Tín
   nom-know-nom that / 3:ns-perf-cont-do / today / loc Tanna
   'That knowledge is still used today in Tanna'

b. Ramasitu le rímīn nian mīn le nasumwaan.
   r-am-asitu / le rīm-n / nian mīn / le n-asumw-aan
   3:s-cont-help / dat father-3:s / time pl / loc nom-garden-nom
   'He always helps his father in the garden'

Notice that in both examples there is a certain amount of emphasis on the TP; this probably explains the shift of position. I have no explanation, however, for the following example, which is the only one I have observed where a TP is inserted within the sentence-nucleus itself:

(57) Kova tahak rīmho nenav tahak mēnu k mīn petīmw.
   kova taha-k / r-īm-ho / nenav / taha-k mēnu k mīn petīmw
   ahīd poss-1:s / 3:s-past-kill / yesterday / poss-1:s fowl pl all
   'My child yesterday killed all my chickens'

4.2.3. IMPERATIVES

Imperative sentences do not differ in any significant way from regular simple sentences except in the fairly frequent occurrence of vocatives.

In positive commands, the only prefixes the verb may take are the continuative am- and those marking the number of the (understood) subject; the full range of suffixes, however, may occur.

(58) a. Perahigìl, va!
   pera-ahigìl / va
   woman-old / come
   'Old woman, come!'

b. Kamiar, aikìmw!
   kami-ar / ai-akìmw
   you:ns-pl / pl-go:away
   'Go away, all of you!'

c. Osipìn nar aān!
   os-in-pn / nar aān
   take-trans-there / thing that
   'Take (s.) that thing over there!'
d. Amuail un!
   am-u-ail un
   cont-d-stand there: près: addresses
   'Just keep standing there, you two!'

In negative commands, of course, the verb takes the negative tense prefix and the negative postclitic as well:

(59) a. īskīnaan nam aan!
   īs-kīn-aan / nam aan
   neg-eat-neg / fish that
   'Don’t (s.) eat that fish!'

b. Kamilau īsuālakhiaavlnaan kīpaas ka!
   kami-lau / īs-u-alak-hiaav-ln-aan / kīpaas ka
   you:ns-d / neg-d-throw-down-trans-neg / axe that
   'Don’t you two drop that axe!'

In polite imperatives, the verbal adjunct ru 'try to', is placed after the verb:

(60) a. Iatīv, akīmw ru!
   Iatīv / akīmw ru
   Iatīv / go:away try
   'Iatīv, please go away!'

b. īsarolaan ru!
   īs-ar-ol-aan ru
   neg-pl-do-neg try
   'Would you (pl.) mind not doing that?'

Often a polite imperative may be expressed by the second person future:

(61) a. Tīnakva uk ikīn uk!
   t-n-ak-va uk / ikīn uk
   fut-2-conc-come this / place this
   'Please come (s.) here!'

b. Takiel, tīnīsarolaan nar aan!
   ta-k-iel / t-n-īs-ar-ol-aan / nar aan
   poss-l:s-friend / fut-2-neg-pl-do-neg / thing that
   'Please don’t do that, my friends!'

First person imperatives are complex sentences, which use the singular imperative of the verb pwas 'to let, allow', followed by a verb with regular affixes:
a. Pwas karofin ïna netginilau!
   pwās / k-ar-ofin ïna / netg-nil-lau
   let / 1:inc-pl-give:to:third:person correct / name-3:ns-d
   'Let us (inc.pl.) give them (d.) their right names!'

b. Pwas ru iaakalminsigivin ru takiel!
   pwās ru / i-ak-almin-sigivin ru / ta-k-iel
   let try / 1:exc-conc-try-imitate try / poss-1:s-friend
   'Let me try and trick my friend!'

When two or more imperatives follow each other, all except the first take the person prefix m- (see 3.2.3. above):

a. Vin mini to tamiel!
   vin / m-ini / to ta-m-iel
   go / and-say / dat poss-2:s-friend
   'Go (s.) and tell it to your (s.) friend!'

b. Amuail uk miahañatin timilau!
   am-u-all uk / m-ia-hañatin / taha-mi-lau
   cont-d-stand this / and-d-know / poss-2:ns-d
   'Just stand here, you two, and think about your actions!'

4.2.4. QUESTIONS

Questions may be asked in three different ways in Lenakel. One of these has already been discussed in 2.4.2. above: it merely involves a change from statement intonation (sentence-final fall-rise-fall) to sentence-final rising intonation, with no other changes to the sentence. Examples (2.63) and (2.64) illustrate this clearly.

Questions may also be asked by adding ua kapwa 'or no', to the end of a statement:

(64) Kamilau ker tirva ua kapwa?
    kami-lau ker / t-r-va / ua kapwa
    you:ns-d one / fut-3:s-come / or no
    'Will one of the two of you come (or not)?'

More normally, however, ua kapwa is contracted to ua, which then functions as a question-tag. The intonation patterns for sentences containing the question-tag ua are illustrated in (2.65) above. Some examples:

(65) a. Ninho ua?
    n-n-ho / ua
    2-perf-hit / or
    'Did you (s.) hit it?'
b. Ieram ituga rinva ua?
   i-eram ituga / r-n-va / ua
   s-the:one foreign / 3:s-perf-come / or
   'Has the foreigner come?'

c. Kimuetüèfn kalau miin ua?
   k-ìm-u-eiú-a-fn / kat-lau miin / ua
   l:inc-past-d-lie-trans / l:inc-d pl / or
   'Did we (inc.d.) deceive ourselves?'

The third method of asking questions in Lenakel employs interrogative words. The interrogative verbal affixes etu- 'how?, why?', and -hie 'where?', were discussed in 3.2.6. and 3.2.10.3. above respectively. Other interrogatives are the general nouns in (66a), the temporal nouns in (66b), the locative noun in (66c), and the adjunct in (66d):

(66) a. pehe   'who?'
    neta    'what?'
    tonha   'why?'

b. nanhan 'when (past)?'
    tonhan 'when (future)?'\(^1\)

c. ihie    'where?'

d. petuen 'which?, where?'\(^2\)

Some examples of these interrogatives follow:

(67) a. Pehè rìmos nau tahak?
    pehe / r-ìm-os / nau taha-k
    who / 3:s-past-take / knife poss-1:s
    'Who took my knife?'

b. Nìnakhèfn menuk taha pehe?
    n-n-ałka-fn / menuk taha pehe
    2-perf-steal-trans / fowl poss who
    'Whose chickens have you (s.) stolen?'

c. Nìmaamh neta?
    n-ìm-aamh / neta
    2-past-see / what
    'What did you (s.) see?'

\(^1\)Tonhan is morphemically to-nahan 'future-when'. Note also that tonhan almost always occurs sentence-initially, while nahan rarely occurs in that position.

\(^2\)Petuen occurs most frequently after the nouns ikin 'place', and nian 'time', to translate 'where?' and 'when?' respectively.
d. Nakamarol tonha?
   n-ak-am-ar-ol / tonha
   2-conc-cont-pl-do / why
   'Why are you (pl.) doing it?'

e. Rimín rímasoupín nahan apwa Ifila?
   rím-n / r-ím-asou-pn / nahan / apwa Ifila
   father-3:s / 3:s-past-proceed-there / when:past / loc Vila
   'When did his father go to Vila?'

f. Tonhan kepasu nuw?
   to-nahan / k-ep-a-su / nuw
   fut-when / l:inc-seq-pl-sow / yam
   'When will we (inc.pl.) plant yams?'

g. Nakamavín ihie?
   n-ak-am-avin / i-hie
   2-conc-cont-go / loc-where
   'Where are you (s.) going?'

h. Uus aan ramarík apwa ikín petuen?
   uus aan / r-am-arík / apwa ikín petuen
   man that / 3:s-cont-live / loc place which
   'Where does that man live?'

i. Nían petuen uusuaas ka rímaamh kínu tahak?
   nian petuen / uus-suaas ka / r-ím-aamh / kínu taha-k
   time which / man-small that / 3:s-past-see / canoe poss-1:s
   'When did that boy see my canoe?'

The behaviour of the verb ol 'to do, make', in questions deserves comment. When ol is preceded by the interrogative prefix etu- the whole verb translates 'how?' or 'why?', as in (68a). This is often shortened to at-ol, as in (68b); while there is also a related compound verb atau-ol 'to do what?', which is illustrated in (68c).1

(68) a. Tiaketuol mígfnîn ilk?
   t-i-ak-etu-ol / m-ígfn-în / ilk
   fut-l:exec-conc-itr-do / and-fear-trans / you:s
   'How could I be frightened of you (s.)?', 'Why should I be frightened of you (s.)?'

1 Although the verb atau-ol appears to be a compound, the first element has not been identified (unless it is a phonological variant of neta 'what').
b. Takiel, nakamarou ratol?
   ta-k-iel / n-ak-am-arou / r-at-ol
   poss-1:s-friend / 2-conc-cont-perceive / 3:s-itr-do
   'My friend, how do you feel?'

c. Rimamarik lauanu mamatauol?
   r-im-am-arik / l-auanu / m-am-atau-ol
   3:s-past-cont-stay / loc-village / and-cont-what-do
   'What did he do while he was staying in the village?'

4.2.5. VERBLESS SENTENCES

   Because of the absence of verbs like English 'have' and 'be' in
   Lenakel, sentences without verbs occur quite frequently. These verb-
   less sentences are usually identificatory in nature.

   Many verbless sentences are equational, and virtually all Lenakel
   equational sentences are verbless:

   (69) a. Netgin ka Lomal.
      netg-n ka / Lomal
      name-3:s that / Lomai
      'His name is Lomai'

   b. In uk Misak.
      in uk / Misak
      he this / Misak
      'He is Misak', 'This is Misak'

   c. Pehe ieramasuul?
      pehe / i-eram-asuul
      who / s-the:one-big
      'Who is the headman?'

   Other identificatory sentences consist of an NP followed by a tem-
   poral, locative, or possessive phrase. Identificatory sentences also
   occur with temporal or possessive phrases preceding the NP:

   (70) a. Norhimilau ihie?
      norhmi-lau / i-hie (NP + LP)
      younger:brother-2:ns-d / loc-where
      'Where is your (pl.) younger brother?'

   b. Nimwa kiu apwa le touar aan.
      nimwa kiu / apwa le touar aan (NP + LP)
      house two / loc loc mountain that
      'There are two houses on that mountain'
c. Nîpin miin nîvin nenav.  
\[\text{Nîpin miin nîvin} / \text{nenav} \quad (\text{NP + TP})\]  
banana pl some / yesterday  
'There were some bananas yesterday'  


d. Tolauk nîhin asuul.  
\[\text{to-lauk / nîhin asuul} \quad (\text{TP + NP})\]  
to-morrow / rain big  
'Tomorrow there will be a lot of rain'  


e. Nar uk nîkîn.  
\[\text{nîr uk / nîk-n} \quad (\text{NP + PP})\]  
thing this / poss:to:eat-3:s  
'This is his (to eat)', 'He has this to eat'  


f. Tahak un ilk!  
\[\text{taha-k un / ilk} \quad (\text{PP + NP})\]  
poss-1:s this:near:addresses / you:s  
'You (s.) there belong to me!'  

When a verbless sentence is negated it loses its verbless character. In such cases, the negative verb i-ka 'not to be, not to be there', or the third person singular negative of ol 'to do, make', are used:  

(71) a. Nuw rîka apwa ikîn uk.  
\[\text{nuw / r-îka / apwa ikîn uk}\]  
yam / 3:s-not:to:be / loc place this  
'There are no yams here'  

b. Nimwa aan rîsolaan tahak.  
\[\text{nimwa aan / r-îs-oî-aan / taha-k}\]  
house that / 3:s-neg-do-neg / poss-1:s  
'That house is not mine'  

c. Nîkîn nar ker rîka.  
\[\text{nîk-n nar ker / r-îka}\]  
poss:to:eat-3:s thing one / 3:s-not:to:be  
'He doesn't have anything to eat'

\[\text{Sentences like the following include what appears to be a negative verbless sentence:}\]  

Rîmho ru pukas merou kapwa.  
\[\text{r-îm-ho ru / pukas / merou / kapwa}\]  
3:s-past-kill try / pig / but / not  
'He tried to kill the pig, but he couldn't'  

These will be discussed in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 5

COMPLEX SENTENCES

5.0. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I will briefly discuss the more important kinds of complex sentences which occur in Lenakel. I will not attempt to delve deeply into linguistic theory in this discussion, but will, in general, confine myself to a descriptive account. Certain kinds of complex sentences can be viewed as involving an expansion of the NP, and these will be treated in section 5.1. Other types of expansions will be dealt with in 5.2., while some brief notes on pronominalisation and other features of discourse will be given in 5.3.

5.1. NP EXPANSIONS

Rule (1) in the previous chapter, which is repeated below, gives only the simplest expansion of NP:

\[
\text{(1) NP} \rightarrow \text{N} \left( \text{A} \left( \text{Ddsc} \right) \right) \ast (\text{Dnum}) (\text{Dqty}) (\text{Ddem})
\]

In this section, other expansions - co-ordination, relativisation, expansion of TPs and LPs, and complementation - will be examined.

5.1.1. CO-ORDINATION

One expansion of NP is shown in the following rule:

\[
\text{(2) NP} \rightarrow \text{NP} + \left\{ \text{\textit{m\textit{\AE}ne}} \right\}_{\text{ua}} + \text{NP}
\]

Co-ordinate NPs are joined by \textit{m\textit{\AE}ne} 'and'. If such an NP occurs in subject position, then the number prefix to the verb reflects the number of the whole subject; i.e., if two singular nouns occur as a co-ordinate NP subject, the verb takes the dual prefix.
When two conjoined NPs are thought of as being almost inseparable as the legendary twin brothers Kati and Koukau in the example below mine usually contracts to m:

When more than two NPs occur in co-ordination, each occurrence of mine usually contracts to ne. In addition, mine also usually occurs after the last of the co-ordinate NPs.

If a co-ordinate NP is the possessor in a PP, whether alienable, inalienable, or semi-alienable, then either of two structures may occur. In one case (as in (6a) below), the appropriate pronominal suffix is attached to the possessed inalienable noun or the possessive morpheme, and the co-ordinate NP immediately follows; in the other case (as in (6b) below), the pronominal suffix is omitted, the resulting construction being ambiguous:

i-im-aamh in-nil-lau Kasasaau mine Kaniapniin  
I exc-past-see mother-3:ns-d Kasasaau and Kaniapniin  
'I saw Kasasaau's and Kaniapniin's mother'
b. Iemaamh in ı̂ Ka sasaau mıne Kaniapniin.
   i-ı̂m-aamh in Ka sasaau mıne Kaniapniin
   l:exc-past-see mother Ka sasaau and Kaniapniin
   'I saw Ka sasaau's and Kaniapniin's mother', or 'I saw
   Ka sasaau's mother and Kaniapniin'

When one of the NPs in co-ordination is a pronoun, then, except in
cases of possession, the rules noted above normally apply:

(7) a. Io mıne rımok tikiava tolauk.
   io mıne rım-k t-i-ak-ıa-va to-lauk
   I and father-ı: sı fut-ı:exc-conc-d-come to-morrow
   'My father and I will come tomorrow'

b. Tiesofı̂neaan kam ı̂lk mıne pwı̂am.
   t-i-ı̂s-ofı̂na-ı̂aan kam ı̂lk mıne pwı̂am
   'I will not give it to you (ı.) and your older brother'

However, it is also possible to replace the free pronoun, which rep­
resents one of the co-ordinate NPs, with a free pronoun whose person
and number is appropriate to all the co-ordinated NPs. The conjunc­
tion mıne is not used, and the nouns immediately follow the pronoun. Thus
the examples in (8) are acceptable alternatives to those in (7):

(8) a. Kamlau rımok tikiava tolauk.
   kam-lau rım-k t-i-ak-ıa-va to-lauk
   we:exc-d father-ı: sı fut-ı:exc-conc-d-come to-morrow
   'My father and I will come tomorrow'

b. Tiesofı̂neaan kam kamı̂lau pwı̂am.
   t-i-ı̂s-ofı̂na-ı̂aan kam kamı̂lau pwı̂am
   fut-ı:exc-neg-give:to:addressee-neg dat you:ı:ı and older-brother-ı:ıı
   'I will not give it to you (ı.ı) and your older brother'

In possessive constructions, when the possessor is one or more NPs co­
ordinated with a pronoun, this second pattern is almost always used.¹

¹It is possible not to use the free pronoun of a person and number appropriate to all
the co-ordinated NPs; e.g.:

i. Rımok mıne rı̂m Tı̂on.
   rım-k mıne rı̂m Tı̂on
   father-ı: sı and father John
   'John's and my father', or 'My father and John's father'

ii. Nimwa tahak mıne taha Tı̂on.
   nimwā taha-k mıne taha Tı̂on
   house poss-ı: sı and poss John
   'John's and my house', or 'My house and John's house'

Such constructions, however, are felt to be not only rather clumsy, but also to contain
potential ambiguities.
The pronominal suffix reflects the person and number of all the co-ordinated NPs, while the nouns follow the suffix; the free pronoun does not appear on the surface but its person and number can be deduced from the nature of the pronominal suffix and the noun possessors. Thus, in (9a), the suffixed pronoun is first exclusive trial, and two singular nouns occur as possessors; therefore the free pronoun omitted must be first singular. Similarly, in (9b), the suffixed pronoun is second trial, and one singular noun occurs as a possessor; therefore the free pronoun omitted must be second dual.

(9) a. Kuri miin tîmhel Tom mîne Titoga kîmaitakîn nasumwaan.
   kuri miin taha-m-hel Tom mîne Titoga k-im-al-atakîn
dog pl poss-1:exc-tr Tom and Titoga 3:ns-past-pl-destroy
   n-asumw-aan
nom-garden-nom
'Tom's, Titoga's and my dogs destroyed the garden'

b. Kînu tîmhel rîmîmilau ramarîk ihle?
   kînu taha-m-hel rîm-mi-lau r-am-arîk i-hie
canoe poss-2:ns-tr father-2:ns-d 3:s-cont-stay loc-where
'Where is the canoe belonging to you two and your father?'

While mîne in rule (2) links co-ordinate NPs, ua 'or', links disjunctive NPs:

(10) a. Tînakolkeikei i n uk ua in aan?
   t-n-ak-olkeikei in uk ua in aan
fut-2-conc-want it this or it that
'Do you (s.) want this one or that one?'

b. Uus ka ua rîmîn rînos ita.
   uus ka ua rîm-n r-n-os ita
man that or father-3:s 3:s-perf-take already
'That man or his father has taken it', 'That man or his father must have taken it'

(Note especially in (10b) that Lenakel, like English, uses a singular verb when two singular NPs are disjoined by ua 'or').

In many sentences, ua may also precede the first of the two disjunctive NPs, similar to the use of English 'either':

(11) Ua Iâtiv ua pwia n tîrva tolauk.
   ua Iâtiv ua pwia-n t-r-va to-lauk
or Iâtiv or older:brotber-3:s fut-3:s-come to-morrow
'Either Iâtiv or his older brother will come tomorrow'
5.1.2. RELATIVISATION

The introducer of a Lenakel relative clause is *ieram* 'the one who', which is invariable for person, number, and case. The use of *ieram* is optional in all contexts in which it appears, unless the verb in the relative clause is an adjective, in which case it is very rarely omitted.

Before proceeding to an analysis of relatives in Lenakel, consider the following examples, where the optional occurrence of *ieram* is indicated by parentheses, and the relative clause itself is enclosed in square brackets:

(12) a. Peravin *(ieram) rimva nenav rakamis.*
   pera-vin [(ieram) r-im-va nenav] r-ak-mis
   woman [(rel) 3:s-past-come yesterday] 3:s-conc-sick
   'The woman who came yesterday is sick'

b. Uus ka *(ieram) iakolkeikei mamwa tiakaamh tolaulk tirisveaan.
   uus ka [(ieram) i-ak-olkeikei mamwa t-i-ak-aamh
   man that [(rel) 1:exc-conc-want that fut-1:exc-conc-see
to-lauk] t-r-is-va-aan
to-morrow] fut-3:s-neg-come-neg
   'The man whom I want to see tomorrow will not come'

c. Nien *(ieram) rimok rimhau kimarai.
   nien [(ieram) r-im-k r-im-hau] k-im-arai
   coconut [(rel) father-1:s 3:s-past-plant] 3:ns-past-cut
   'The coconut tree which my father planted was cut down'

d. Pwiam rimho pukas *(ieram) rimkin nuw taham.
   pwiia-m r-im-ho pukas [(ieram) r-im-kin
   nuw taham]
   yam poss-2:s]
   'Your (s.) older brother killed the pig which ate your yams'

e. Iemaamh peravin ka *(ieram) ilk nisolkeikeiaan.
   i-im-aamh pera-vin ka [(ieram) ilk n-is-olkeikei-aan
   1:exc-past-see woman that [(rel) you:s 2-neg-like-neg]
   'I saw that woman whom YOU (s.) don't like'

1When functioning as a noun (as in *ieram ituga* 'foreigner'), the change of *i* to *n* indicates a plural (neram ituga *foreigners*). This change does NOT take place when *ieram* functions as a relative clause introducer.
The following rules are necessary to explain the Lenakel relative clauses in (12), and most other such clauses. Firstly, yet another expansion of NP is needed:

(13) \[ NP \longrightarrow NP + S \]

If the embedded sentence contains an NP co-referential with the NP in the matrix, then that embedded NP is replaced by ieram:

(14) \[ [NP \; NP_1 \; [S \; X + NP_1 + Y]_S]_NP \implies 1, 2, ieram, 4 \]

1 2 3 4

Ieram is then obligatorily moved to the beginning of the embedded sentence:

(15) \[ [S \; X + ieram + Y]_S \implies 2, 1, 3 \]

1 2 3

Finally, ieram may be optionally deleted:

(16) \[ ieram \; OPT \implies \emptyset \]

The derivation of a sentence like (12c) would thus proceed as follows:

(17) \[ [S \; [NP \; nienn [S \; rîmok \; rîmhaus [NP \; nienn]_NP]_NP \; kîmarals]_S \implies [S \; [NP \; nienn [S \; rîmok \; rîmhaus \; ieram]_NP \; kîmarals]_S] \; RULE (14) \]

\[ \implies [S \; [NP \; nienn [S \; ieram \; rîmok \; rîmhaus]_NP \; kîmarals]_S] \; RULE (15) \]

Ieram may then be optionally deleted by rule (16).

Consider now examples of sentences where the relativised noun is a possessor (18a, b) or is otherwise marked by a case-marking preposition (18c-e):

(18) a. Iahigîl (ieram) rîmîn rînmîs rînvîn Iffila.

\[ i-ahigîl \; [(ieram) \; rîm-n \; r-n-mîs] \; r-n-vîn Iffila \]


'The old man, whose father has died, has gone to Vila'

\[ \text{Ieram is obligatorily deleted if it is the subject of an adjective. Thus uus rîvît rîva 'the man who is good came', and (normally) not *uus ieram rîvît rîva.} \]

\[ \text{The actual procedure for attaching person and tense prefixes to verbs and possessive suffixes to inalienable nouns has been ignored in this example.} \]
b. Iesolkeikeiaan uus ka (ieram) tahan menuk kamarva apwa ilmwak.
i-[s-olkeikel-aan uus ka [(ieram) tahan-n menuk
l:exc-neg-like-neg man that [(rel) poss-3:s foul
k-am-ar-va apwa i-imwa-k]
3:ns-cont-pl-come loc loc-house-1:s]
'I don't like that man whose chickens keep on coming into my house'

c. In uk k'paas (ieram) iemarate nîk ka lan.
in uk k'paas [(ieram) i-im-arate nîk ka le-n]
it this axe [(rel) 1:exc-past-chop tree that ins-3:s]
'This is the axe with which I chopped the tree'

d. Kova ka (ieram) iemamalkîk ton rînelhualg.
kova ka [(ieram) i-im-am-alkîk to-in]
child that [(rel) 1:exc-past-cont-look:after dat-it]
r-n-elhualg
3:s-perf-hide
'The child that I was looking after is hiding'

e. Peravisn ka (ieram) iemofîn nuw kam in rînkîn ita.
peravisn ka [(ieram) i-im-ofîn nuw kam in]
woman that [(rel) 1:exc-past-give:to:third:person yam dat she]
r-n-kîn ita
3:s-perf-eat already
'The woman to whom I gave the yam has already eaten them'

In each of the examples in (18) the co-referential NP is replaced by ie ram by rule (14), and ieram is then fronted by rule (15) and optionally deleted by rule (16). Where this co-referential NP is a possessor in a PP or is preceded by a case-marking preposition, however, a pronoun of the same person and number as the NP, and of a form determined by the nature of the PP or case-marking preposition, remains in the embedded sentence in the same position as the NP to which it refers. Rule (14) must thus be modified as (19), where K indicates a case-marking preposition.
By rule (19), an appropriate pronoun is 'left behind' at the same time as the co-referential NP is changed to the relative pronoun.

5.1.3. COMPLEX TEMPORAL AND LOCATIVE PHRASES

Complex temporal and locative phrases in Lenakel might have been considered along with relativisation, but they show sufficient differences — principally the absence of ieram — to warrant separate treatment.

5.1.3.1. Complex Temporal Phrases

One expansion of TP is:

\[
\text{(20) } TP \rightarrow \left[ TP \left[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{NP} \\
\text{X}
\end{array} \right] \text{NP} + \text{nian} + X \right] \text{NP} + S \right]_TP
\]

That is to say, a complex TP is made up of an NP with nian 'time', as its head — optionally preceded by the preposition le — this NP being followed by a sentence. This is basically the same rule as (13) above; the major difference is that the transformations (14) through (16) do not apply to such phrases, as the examples below illustrate:

(21) a. Nian io apwa Lenakel, pwiak rîva.
   nian io apwa Lenakel, pwiak-k r-va
   'While I was in Lenakel, my older brother came'

b. Nerîf rîsveaan le nian inîn rîmaunîn.
   ner-n r-îs-va-aan le nian in-n r-îm-aunîn
   'The child didn't come when his mother called him'

c. Nian miin iakvîn Ifila, pukas tahak rakamîs.
   nian miin i-ak-vîn Ifila, pukas taha-k r-ak-mîs
   'Whenever I go to Vila, my pig gets sick'
5.1.3.2. Complex Locative Phrases

One expansion of LP is:

\[ LP \longrightarrow [\text{LP} \ (\text{apwa}) \ [\text{NP} \ i\kappa n + X]\text{NP} + S + i\kappa n + (TP)]_{\text{LP}} \]

That is, a complex LP is made up of an NP with the noun \( i\kappa n '\text{place}' \), as its head, followed by a sentence; \( i\kappa n \) is then repeated after the sentence. The whole may be optionally introduced by the locative-introducer apwa.

(23) a. Titoga rîmamasumw (apwa) ikîn rîmîn rîmîn i\kappa n.
   Titoga r-îm-am-asmus (apwa) ikîn rîm-n
   Titoga 3:s-past-cont-garden (loc) place father-3:s
   r-îmîn i\kappa n
   3:s-past-say place
   'Titoga was gardening where his father told him to'

b. Iemvîn (apwa) ikîn nam rîka i\kappa n.
   i-îm-îvîn (apwa) ikîn nam r-îka ikîn
   1:exc-past-go (loc) place fish 3:s-not:to:be place
   'I went to (a place) where there are no fish'

c. Uus aan rîmsîpîn (apwa) ikîn aan tînakvîn i\kappa n tolauk.
   uus aan r-îm-sîm-pan (apwa) ikîn aan
   man that 3:s-past-some:from-there (loc) place that
   t-n-ak-vîn ikîn to-lauk
   fut-2-conc-go place to-morrow
   'That man came from where you (s.) are going tomorrow'

In normal conversation, however, one of the two occurrences of \( i\kappa n \) is frequently omitted; there appear to be no semantic or syntactic conditions requiring one rather than the other occurrence of \( i\kappa n \) to be deleted. However, both occurrences of \( i\kappa n \) may not be omitted. Thus, in the examples below, (24b) and (24c) are both perfectly acceptable variants of (24a), but (24d) is ungrammatical:

(24) a. Iakamarîk (apwa) ikîn nien miln rlpwîr ikîn.
   I-ak-am-arak (apwa) ikîn nien miln r-rlpwîr ikîn
   1:exc-conc-cont-live (loc) place coconut pl 3:s-many place
   'I am living where there are many coconuts'

b. Iakamarîk (apwa) ikîn nien miln rlpwîr.

c. Iakamarîk (apwa) nien miln rlpwîr ikîn.

d. *Iakamarîk (apwa) nien miln rlpwîr.
5.1.4. COMPLETION

In addition to the various expansions of NP given above, there is another expansion which is given below:

(25) \[ NP \rightarrow S \]

That is, a noun phrase may be made up a sentence, these sentences occurring most frequently in object position.\(^1\)

The regular complementiser in Lenakel is mamwa 'that', which is placed immediately before the complement sentence by rule (26):

(26) \[ X + [\text{NP } S]_\text{NP} + Y \rightarrow 1, \text{mamwa} + 2, 3 \]

Mamwa is optionally deleted under conditions discussed below. In the examples in this section, cases where mamwa may be deleted are marked by placing it within parentheses.

5.1.4.1. Subject Complements

Some examples of subject complements generated by rules (25) and (26) are given below; in each case, the complement is enclosed within square brackets in the second and third lines of the examples.\(^2\)

(27) a. (Mamwa) tiakaik apwa Lenakel rivit.

\[ [\text{mamwa) t-i-ak-ai\k apwa Lenakel}] r-v\it \]
\[ [(\text{that) fut-l:exc-conc-swim loc Lenakel}] 3:s-good \]
\[ 'It \ is \ good \ that \ I \ swim \ at \ Lenakel' \]

b. (Mamwa) tiakamairik le naunu uk risetuatuana.

\[ [\text{mamwa) t-i-am-ai-ar\k le naunu uk}] \]
\[ [(\text{that) fut-l:exc-conc-cont-pl-stay loc village this}] \]
\[ r-is-etuatu-aan \]
\[ 3:s-neg-correct-neg \]
\[ 'It \ is \ not \ right \ that \ we \ (exc.pl.) \ stay \ on \ in \ this \ village' \]

Where the complement is the subject of the sentence, a 'flip' rule may optionally operate, whereby the complement is moved to the end of the sentence. This rule is (28):

(28) \[ [S [\text{NP mamwa} + S]_\text{NP} + X]_S \rightarrow \text{OPT} 2, 1 \]

The examples below show sentences (27a, b) after the operation of rule (28). Note particularly that the presence of mamwa in these sentences is obligatory.

\(^1\)The verb of which this sentence is the subject always takes the third person singular person prefix r-. Apart from specifying that sentences are third person singular, it does not seem necessary to include the dummy element it in this rule, as has been done in some analyses of English.

\(^2\)Subject complements occur much more rarely in Lenakel than object complements.
(29) a. Rívt mamwa tiakaik apwa Lenakel.  
   r-vít [mamwa t-i-ak-ai̱k apwa Lenakel]  
   3:s-good [that fut-1:exc-conc-swim loc Lenakel]  
   'It is good that I swim at Lenakel'  

b. Rísetuatuuaan mamwa tiakamairîk le nauanu uk.  
   r-îs-etuatu-aan [mamwa t-i-ak-am-ai̱rîk  
   3:s-neg-correct-neg [that fut-1:exc-conc-cont-pl-stay  
   le nauanu uk]  
   loc village this]  
   'It is not right that we (exc.pl.) stay on in this village'

In such flipped sentences, the preposition to plus the free pronoun subject may optionally occur between the verb or adjective and the complement introduced by mamwa:¹

(30) a. Rívt toin io mamwa tiakaik apwa Lenakel.  
   r-vít to io [mamwa t-i-ak-ai̱k apwa Lenakel]  
   3:s-good dat I [that fut-1:exc-conc-swim loc Lenakel]  
   'It is good for me to swim at Lenakel'  

b. Rísetuatuuaan to kamar mamwa tiakamairîk le nauanu uk.  
   r-îs-etuatu-aan to kam-ar [mamwa  
   3:s-neg-correct-neg dat we:exc-pl [that  
   t-i-ak-am-ai̱rîk le nauanu uk]  
   fut-1:exc-conc-cont-pl-stay loc village this]  
   'It is not right for us (exc.pl.) to stay on in this village'

In cases where a sentence is not flipped, it undergoes a nominalisation transformation, the form of which need not concern us here. Effectively, the verb of the complement is nominalised by the affix n-..-aan, while the subject becomes a possessive phrase introduced by taha. Mamwa is obligatorily deleted.

(31) a. Nálkaan tahak apwa Lenakel rívt.  
   [n-aik-aan taha-k apwa Lenakel] r-vít  
   [nom-swim-nom poss-1:s loc Lenakel] 3:s-good  
   'My swimming at Lenakel is good'  

b. Nárkaan tîmar le nauanu uk rîsetuatuuaan.  
   [n-arîk-aan taha-m-ar le nauanu uk] r-îs-etuatu-aan  
   [nom-stay-nom poss-1:exc-pl loc village this] 3:s-neg-correct-neg  
   'Our (exc.pl.) staying in this village is not right'

¹This is equivalent to for-to complementation in English, except that no element equivalent to for is inserted to replace mamwa.
5.1.4.2. Object Complements

Some examples of object complements generated by rules (25) and (26) are given below:

(32) a. ṭīmīni mamwa lnīn tīrva tolauk.
   ṭī-[mamwa lnīn tīrva tolauk]
   3:s-past-say [that mother-3:s fut-3:s-come to-morrow]
   'He said that his mother would come tomorrow'

b. Ḳatīv ṭīmāah ṭīnān rīmānīk.
   Ḳatī-[tm-āah ṛn-ān r-īm-ānīk]
   Ḳatī 3:s-past-see [that child-3:s 3:s-past-cont-swim]
   'Ḳatīv saw that his son was swimming'

c. Ḳahkinatīn ṭīnākīkīn nar ka.
   Ḳah-[hinatīn n-āk-kīkīn nar ka]
   1:exc-conc-know [that fut-2-conc-eat thing that]
   'I know that you (s.) will eat that'

For verbs like aamh in (32b) and hlnatīn in (32c) which may also take noun objects, there are two possible permutations which may occur; these may not occur in sentences like (32a) whose verb, ṭīni, may not take a noun object. One of these permutations involves emphasising the subject of the complement sentence by moving it out of that sentence into a position where it is the surface object of the matrix sentence. Thus (33a, b) are variants of (32b, c) to which this rule has applied:

(33) a. Ḳatīv ṭīmāah ṭīnān rīmānīk.
   Ḳatī [tm-āah ṛn-ān r-īm-ānīk]
   Ḳatī 3:s-past-see child-3:s [that 3:s-past-cont-swim]
   'Ḳatīv saw his son swimming'

b. Ḳahkinatīn ṭīnākīkīn nar ka.
   Ḳah-[hinatīn n-āk-kīkīn nar ka]
   1:exc-conc-know you:s [that fut-2-conc-eat thing that]
   'I know you (s.) to be going to eat that'

The other permutation involves nominalisation; this occurs when stress is placed on the action, and is often used to draw attention to the particular way in which the action was performed.

(34) a. Ḳatīv ṭīmāah naikaan tāha ṭīnān.
   Ḳatīv [tm-āah n-āk-aan tāha ṛn-ān]
   Ḳatī 3:s-past-see [nom-swim-nom poss child-3:s]
   'Ḳatīv saw his son's swimming'
b. Iakhinatín taham nįkinaa nar ka.
i-ak-hinatín [taha-m n-kin-aan nar ka]
l:exc-conc-know [poss-2:s nom-eat-nom thing that]
'I know you (s.) ate that'

5.1.4.3. Deletion of Complementiser

The complementiser mamwa is normally obligatory. However, it may be deleted when introducing a subject complement which has not undergone the flip rule (rule (28)), and it must be deleted when the nominalisation rule applies — see sentences (31) and (34).

5.2. OTHER TYPES OF EXPANSIONS

Three other types of expansion must also be examined: co-ordinate sentences, which are discussed in 5.2.1.; conditional sentences, examined in 5.2.2.; and comparative sentences, which are briefly explained in 5.2.3.

5.2.1. CO-ORDINATE SENTENCES

One possible expansion of S is:
(35) S ⟷ S + conj + S
That is, a sentence may consist of two (or more) sentences joined by a conjunction. The major conjunctions in Lenakel are:¹
(36) kani 'and'
merou 'but'
merou-in-ka 'because'
ua 'or'

5.2.1.1. Connection: kani and m-

Two or more sentences in which the action is connected may be joined by the conjunction kani 'and':
(37) a. Nasu rívín apwa Lenakel kani nerín rímaroupín.
Nasu r-vín apwa Lenakel kani ner-n r-im-arou-pn
Nasu 3:s-go loc Lenakel and child-3:s 3:s-past-follow-there
'Nasu went to Lenakel and his son followed him there'

¹Note that kani translates English 'and' when joining sentences, although mîne translates 'and' when joining NPs.

The conjunction merou-in-ka 'because', seems to be composed of three morphemes: merou 'but'; in 'it'; and ka 'that'.


b. Iemkîn nuw nenav kani tînakîkîn nuw nîvin tolauk.
   i-îm-kîn nuw nenav kani t-n-ak-kîn nuw nîvin
   l:exc-past-eat yam yesterday and fut-2-conc-eat yam some
to-lauk
to-morrow
'I ate yams yesterday and you (s.) will eat some tomorrow'

c. Iemwîn apwa iauanu, kani io mîne Tion kiaier iâtîv, kani
nîamha asuul rîktîs rîmîn.
   i-îm-wîn apwa i-auanu, kani io mîne Tion k-ia-ler iâtîv,
   l:exc-past-go loc loc-village, and I and John l:inc-d-go:out out,
   kani nîamha asuul r-kîs rîm-n
   and anger big 3:s-bite father-3:s
'I went to the village, and John and I went off, and his
father was very angry'

It is quite common for the demonstrative adjunct ka 'that, referred to
previously', to follow kani, in which case the conjunction implies
that the actions are sequential:

(38) a. Iemwîn Ifila nian kîsîl, kani ka rîmîn rîva.
   i-îm-wîn Ifila nian kîsîl, kani ka rîm-n r-va
   l:exc-past-go Vîla day three, and that father-3:s 3:s-come
   'I went to Vîla for three days, and then his father came'

b. Nîko rîva, kani ka neramîm milîn petîmw kîmaisoupaat.
   nîko r-va, kani ka n-eramîm milîn petîmw
   boat 3:s-come, and that pl-person pl all
   k-îm-ai-asou-paat
   3:nS-past-pl-proceed-east
   'The boat arrived, and then all the people came ashore'

In cases where the person prefix m- is used (see 3.2.3. above), the
use of kani (or kani ka) is optional:

(39) a. Iemakar kam inîn (kani ka) mîvin ilîmwa.
   i-îm-akar kam in-n (kani ka) m-îvin i-îmwa
   l:exc-past-speak dat mother-3:s (and that) and-go loc-house
   'I spoke to his mother and then went home'

b. Kuri ka rîmkîs lo (kani ka) makîmw.
   kuri ka r-îm-kîs lo (kani ka) m-akîmw
   dog that 3:s-past-bite I (and that) and-run:away
   'That dog bit me and then ran away'
5.2.1.2. Adversative Connection: merou

Adversative sentences are joined by the conjunction merou 'but':

(40) a. Siak rîvin apwa Kwamera, merou pwîan rîmarîk limwa.
    Siak r-vin apwa Kwamera, merou pwia-n r-im-arîk
    Siak 3:s-go loc Kwamera, but older:brother-3:s 3:s-past-stay
    i-1mwa
    loc-house
    'Siak went to Kwamera, but his older brother stayed at home'

b. Iemkin nuw, merou nîmkîn nîte am.
    i-im-kîn nuw, merou n-im-kîn nîte am
    1:exc-past-eat yam, but 2-past-eat taro just
    'I ate yam, but you (s.) ate only taro'

If the adversative sentence is the negated version of the one preceding it, the sentence is normally not repeated after merou. Instead, kapwa 'no', is used in place of the sentence:

(41) a. Iemaugin maugin ru, merou kapwa.
    i-im-augin m-augin ru, merou kapwa
    1:exc-past-eat and-eat try, but no
    'I tried and tried to eat, but I couldn't'

b. Rîmolkeikel mîvin Ifîla, merou kapwa.
    r-im-olkeikel m-vin Ifîla, merou kapwa
    3:s-past-want and-go Vîla, but no
    'He wanted to go to Vîla, but he didn't'

If the adversative sentence is thought to form part of a sequence with the preceding sentence, then both kani and merou are used:

(42) a. Rîvin le nîmwakîlakîl kani merou kînu tahan rîka.
    r-vin le nîmwakîlakîl kani merou kînu taha-n rîka
    3:s-go loc beach and but canoe poss-3:s 3:s-not:to:be
    'He went to the beach but his canoe was not there'

b. Kapman rolkeikel maamh lo kani merou lo lemakîmw melhualig.
    kapman r-olkeikel m-aaamh lo kani merou lo l-im-akîmw
    government 3:s-want and-see I and but I 1:exc-past-run:away
    m-elhualig
    and-hide
    'The government official wanted to see me, and I ran away and hid'

There appears to be some historical connection between the word for 'but' (Lenakel merou) and the verb 'to hear' (Lenakel arou) in Tanna: compare Nîvaal âl lg 'to hear', with mâlîg 'but'; or Kwamera aregi 'to hear', with maregi 'but'.
5.2.1.3. Reason: merou-in-ka

Reason sentences are introduced by merou-in-ka:

(43) a. Iakamolkei kei mivin Ifila merou-in-ka io lakamis.
   i-ak-am-olkei kei m-vin Ifila merou-in-ka lo i-ak-mis
   1:exc-conc-cont-want and-go Vila because I 1:exc-conc-sick
   'I want to go to Vila because I am sick'

b. Tirarik iimwa merou-in-ka nihin ripwir.
   t-r-arik i-imwa merou-in-ka nihin r-ripwir
   fut-3:s-stay loc-house because rain 3:s-big
   'He will stay home because it is raining heavily'

c. Inn rinimis merou-in-ka rimoluok akin.
   in-n r-n-mis merou-in-ka r-im-ol-uok akin
   mother-3:s 3:s-perf-die because 3:s-past-do-work very
   'His mother died because she used to work too hard'

5.2.1.4. Alternation: ua

Alternative or disjunctive questions are linked by the conjunction ua 'or':

(44) a. In uk sefentei ua tirkin pukas?
   in uk sefentei ua t-r-kin pukas
   he this Seventh:Day:Adventist or fut-3:s-eat pig
   'Is he a Seventh Day Adventist or will he eat pork?'

b. Rivin Ienitim ua rartk am?
   r-vin Ienitim ua r-artk am
   3:s-go Anityum or 3:s-stay just
   'Did he go to Anityum or did he just stay?'

When the sentence contains two disjunctive statements, both are
normally introduced by ua:

(45) a. Ua tirva to-lauk, ua tiakvin apwa ilimwan.
   ua t-r-va to-lauk, ua t-l-ak-vin apwa i-imwa-n
   or fut-3:s-come to-morrow, or fut-1:exc-conc-go loc-house-3:s
   'Either he will come tomorrow, or I'll go to his house'

b. Ua nihin tirip, ua noroaan ripwir.
   ua nihin t-r-ip, ua n-or-aan r-ripwir
   or rain fut-3:s-rain, or nom-mist-nom 3:s-big
   'Either it will rain, or else it will be very misty'
5.2.1.5. Repeated Action: the Verb *aroatis*

The verb *aroatis* 'to arrive', when used with the person prefix *m-* and appropriate number prefixes, denotes the termination of a repeated action and thus translates 'until':

(46) a. R*vín* m*vín* maroatis lakapn*pín.*
   r-*vín* m-*vín* m-*aroatis* lakapn*pín
   3:s-go and-go and-arrive morning
   'He went on and on until morning'

b. K*ímuaugín* muaugín muaroatis inínilau *r*ív*a.*
   k-*ím-u-augín* m-*u-augín* m-*u-aroatis* in-nil-lau *r*-va
   3:ns-past-d-eat and-d-eat and-d-arrive mother-3:ns-d 3:s-come
   'They (d.) ate and ate until their mother arrived'

5.2.1.6. Purpose: *mamwa*

Purpose clauses are introduced by *mamwa*, which often contracts to *mwa:*

(47) a. Arho huaihue pukas *mamwa* takamarin iimwa pwipwom.*
   ar-*ho* huaihue pukas *mamwa* takar-*vin*
   pl-kill quick pig purpose fut-l:inc-conc-cont-pl-go
   i-*imwa* pwipwom
   loc-house soon
   'Kill (pl.) the pig quickly so that we (inc.pl.) can all be going home soon'

b. Peravin tahak ramviiin nuw *mamwa* takarkin.*
   pera-*vín* taha-*k* r-am-viin nuw *mamwa* t-k-ak-ar-*kin*
   woman poss-1:s 3:s-cont-cook yam purpose fut-l:inc-conc-pl-eat
   'My wife is cooking yams for us (inc.pl.) to eat'

c. R*ímasouhiu* mwa tirasumw.*
   r-*ím-asou-hiu* mwa t-r-asumw
   3:s-past-proceed-north purpose fut-3:s-garden
   'He went north to do some gardening'

A purpose clause may stand alone in a sentence, in which case it functions as an exhortation. Only the contracted form *mwa* appears to be used in this context.

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*Mamwa does not, however, normally become *mwa* when it introduces a complement.*
(48) a. Mwa ri••••• mił!
   mwa r-vfn m-il
purpos e 3:s-go and-dig
'Let him go and dig it!'

b. Mwa takarol nar ka!
   mwa t-k-ak-ar-ol nar ka
purpose fut-1:inc-conc-pl-do thing that
'Let's (inc.pl.) get that done!'

5.2.2. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

There are two conjunctions which introduce conditions: takamwa, which indicates future conditions, and kapamwa, which introduces past conditions.\(^1\)

When takamwa is used, the verbal prefix t- 'future', is normally omitted (see 3.2.2. above):

(49) a. Takamwa ri•••a, iepaamh.
   takamwa r-va, i-ep-aamh
   if:fut 3:s-come, l:exc-seq-see
   'If he comes, I will see him'

b. Takamwa risveaan, iepva laanu iimwam.
   takamwa r-is-va-aan, i-ep-va l-aaanu
   if:fut 3:s-neg-come-neg, l:exc-seq-come loc-village
   i-imwa-m
   loc-poss:place-2:s
   'If he does not come, I will come to your (s.) village'

c. Takamwa nihin r••p, iesasumwaan.
   takamwa nihin r-tp, i-is-asumw-aan
   if:fut rain 3:s-rain, l:exc-neg-garden-neg
   'If it rains, I will not work in the garden'

\(^1\)A certain amount of overlap has been noticed, in that informants will accept, and occasionally use, a future condition with kapamwa or a past condition with takamwa. The normal usage, however, is as given here. Note particularly the frequent use of the sequential tense prefix ep- in the apodosis of conditional sentences.

It is possible that these two conjunctions derive from a verb amwa, takamwa being morphemically t-k-ak-amwa and kapamwa coming from k-ep-amwa (both impersonal verbs). The connection with mamwa is also interesting: Further research may shed some light on this matter.
Kapamwa is used for past conditions:

(50) a. Kapamwa riva, iepaamh.
   kapamwa r-va, i-ep-aamh
   if:past 3:s-come, 1:exc-seq-see
   'If he had come, I would have seen him'

b. Kapamwa rísveaan, lepva lauanu limwam.
   kapamwa r-ís-va-aan, i-ep-va l-auanu
   if:past 3:s-neg-come-neg, 1:exc-seq-come loc-village
   i-imwa-m
   loc-poss:place-2:s
   'If he had not come, I would have come to your (s.) village'

c. Kapamwa nihin ríp, iesasumwaan.
   kapamwa nihin r-íp, 1-ís-asumw-aan
   if:past rain 3:s-rain, 1:exc-neg-garden-neg
   'If it had rained, I would not have worked in the garden'

5.2.3. COMPARATIVE SENTENCES

There are basically two types of comparative sentence. One merely contrasts the qualities of the two things being compared in two coordinate sentences, which may optionally be linked by merou 'but':

(51) a. In uk ripwír, (merou) iérám aan resuaas.
    in uk r-ipwír, (merou) i-érám aan r-esuaas
    it thi8 3:s-big, (but) s-the:one that 3:s-small
    'This one is bigger than that one'

   uus-suuaas ka r-asanín, (merou) ner-m r-avatar
   man-small that 3:s-strong, (but) child-2:s 3:s-weak
   'That boy is stronger than your (s.) son'

The other type of sentence uses the verbal adjunct mun 'more, again' after the adjective, with the second NP in the comparison being introduced by the preposition le; thus the examples in (52) are synonymous with those in (51):

(52) a. In uk ripwír mun le iérám aan.
    in uk r-ipwír mun le i-érám aan
    it thi8 3:s-big more than s-the:one that
    'This one is bigger than that one'

b. Uusuaas ka rasanín mun le nerím.
   uus-suuaas ka r-asanín mun le ner-m
   man-small that 3:s-strong more than child-2:s
   'That boy is stronger than your (s.) son'
A superlative sense is achieved by using the quantifier *petimw* 'all', as the head of the second NP in the comparison:

(53)  
\[ \text{Nam uk resuaas le petimw.} \]
\[ \text{nam uk r-esuaas le petimw} \]
\[ \text{fish this 3:s-small than all} \]
\[ \text{'This fish is the smallest (of all)'} \]

5.3. PRONOMINALISATION AND OTHER FEATURES OF DISCOURSE

5.3.1. PRONOMINALISATION

As in most languages, nouns are not normally repeated after they have been mentioned once in a sentence; instead, pronouns or pronominal elements of some kind usually replace them. Since Lenakel pronouns are often omitted, especially in subject position, much of the weight of pronominalisation is borne by the person prefixes to the verb.

The contrasting use of \( r- \) and \( m- \) was discussed above in 3.2.3. This contrast is further illustrated below:

(54) a. Tom r-imakar kam Misak kani mepakavin Lenakel.  
\[ \text{Tom r-\text{-im-akar kam Misak kani m-ep-akavin Lenakel} } \]
\[ \text{Tom 3:s-past-speak dat Misak and and-seq-go Lenakel} \]
\[ \text{'Tom spoke to Misak and then he (Tom) went to Lenakel'} \]

b. Tom r-imakar kam Misak kani repakavin Lenakel.  
\[ \text{Tom r-\text{-im-akar kam Misak kani r-ep-akavin Lenakel} } \]
\[ \text{Tom 3:s-past-speak dat Misak and 3:s-seq-go Lenakel} \]
\[ \text{'Tom spoke to Misak and then he (Misak) went to Lenakel'} \]

The prefix \( m- \) may not, however, be used within a subordinate clause, and so this method of pronominalisation may not be employed there. Consider first the following examples:

(55) a. Tom r-imavrein tahan kapra kam Misak le nian r-imamatemalu.  
\[ \text{Tom r-\text{-im-avra-in taha-n kapra kam Misak le nian} } \]
\[ \text{Tom 3:s-past-sell-trans poss-3:s oopra dat Misak loc time} \]
\[ \text{r-\text{-im-am-atemalu} } \]
\[ \text{3:s-past-cont-young} \]
\[ \text{'Tom used to sell his oopra to Misak when he (Tom) was still young'} \]

b. Tom r-imavrein tahan kapra kam Misak le nian Misak r-imamatemalu.  
\[ \text{Tom r-\text{-im-avra-in taha-n kapra kam Misak le nian} } \]
\[ \text{Tom 3:s-past-sell-trans poss-3:s oopra dat Misak loc time} \]
\[ \text{Misak r-\text{-im-am-atemalu} } \]
\[ \text{Misak 3:s-past-cont-young} \]
\[ \text{'Tom used to sell his oopra to Misak when he (Misak) was still young'} \]
It appears from these examples that, if two nouns of the same person and number occur in a sentence, and if the first of these occurs in a subsequent part of the sentence, then it may be replaced by a pronominal element, as in (55a); but if the second noun occurs again, it may not be pronominalised, but must appear again, as in (55b).

As well as being replaced by pronominal elements, a pronominalised NP may also be replaced by a quantifier (as in (56a, b)) or a possessive-morpheme-plus-pronominal-suffix (as in (56c, d)):

(56) a. Uus mil aan tanleii; nian miin ker rivin maamh ker.
   uus mil aan ta-n-iel; nian miin ker r-v'in m-aamh ker
   man dual that poss-3:s-friend; day pl one 3:s-go and-see one
   'Those two men are friends; every day one goes and sees the other'

b. Kamlar arvin, merou kiu am tukuarik.
   kami-ar ar-v'in, merou kiu am t-k-ak-u-arik
   you:ns-pl pl-go, but two just fut-3:ns-conc-d-stay
   'All of you go, but two should stay behind'

c. Tiakofina nau tahak; iakoikelike taham.
   t-i-ak-ofina nau taha-k;
   fut-l:exc-conc-give:to:adressee knife poss-l:s;
   i-ak-ikelike taha-m
   l:exc-conc-want poss-2:s
   'I'll give you (s.) my knife; I want yours'

d. Ofa nikok!
   ofa n'k-k
   give:to:speaker poss:to:eat-1:s
   'Give (s.) me something to eat!'
appropriate tense-prefix. In fact, if the time/tense can be shown otherwise — e.g., by a temporal phrase — it is not necessary even for the first verb to show a tense-prefix.

These two facts should be borne in mind when the texts in the next chapter are examined.
CHAPTER 6
TEXTS

Two illustrative texts are given below. Both were told to me by Tom Hiua, of Lenmi. In presenting these texts, the whole story in continuous Lenakel is given first. This is followed by a morpheme-by-morpheme rendering of the text with interlinear morpheme glosses, and this in turn is followed by a free English translation. Notes to the text are given at the end; the numbers in the notes refer to the line-numbers in the morpheme-by-morpheme rendering of the text.

6.1. MWATIKTÍK AND TERAMSUMAS


Kani uus ker, netgin ka Mwatıkтик, rakava am ka mierpa maamh ilar kamalvîkil le nouankoupwa. Rímwa, 'E!' Rímwa, 'Neta un nakamarol?'.

Kani kamwa, 'Iakamalvîkil. Rîpímar apwan rakavin tîregísîn nîkîmar ker nar'.

Rîmwa, 'Aah! Pwah iakîni to kamiar mamwa ramîvhiatîn kamiar. Trîkin petímw neram apîn rol nauniîn, kani ka mîva míkin kamiar nauniîn'.

Kamwa, 'Auee! Rîmpîmar, toko iakaitol marier? Rînlakîs'.

'Ah! Akîmw!'  Rami nîkôm ka mami apus.
Kani am ka Teramsumas rakavîn makavîn makavîn mîva le niel, merou kînari'ka.  Rîmwa, 'Nîkôk ker nar miîn kîmarva mînetuarmvîn?'.
Kani am ka rîmwa, 'Namwipwîk, nîmaitol marvîn aan?'.
'Iemarat le netpîmar'.
Rofîn netpîn merou natîrauai ate.  Rîmwa, 'Nakamareîûa'.
Rîmwa, 'Iemarat le nîmwataamar'.
Rîlîfîn nîmwataan merou rînamauai ate.  Rîmwa, 'E!  Nakamareîûa, namwipwîk'.
Rîmwa, 'Iemarat le noulîmar'.
Rîlîfîn noulîn merou rînamauaiasîsin.  Rîmwa, 'E!  Nakamareîûa, namwipwîk'.

'Auee!  Nîkôk ker nar miîn, nîmaitol maikîmw marva ikîn uk?'.
Kani am ka Mwatiktîk rhoakru toula le kîpaas, kani am ka rîlîs Teramsumas mîvîn rautîn mownapwîn masupwopwom.  Kani ka rhalîpîn menuk miîn petîmw, kani ker rîvîn kani ka mai le nelîn maroatis tenkapwa mîlelîg mîva.  Rarhapîk, merou rîmwa, 'Ouahâ, rînîmis'.
Kani ka rhalî lita mun ker, rîvîn ka mai am le netpîn mîvîn mier le tenkapwa.  Kani ka mîva raráhapîk, merou rîmwa, 'Ouahâ, rînîmis'.
Menuk miîn petîmw.  Kani ka rhalîpîn tîkiskîsîk.  Tîkiskîsîk rîvîn malikoalli am uk ills, mîlelîg mîva.  Rarhapîk, rîmwa, 'Rînîmis'.
Kani rîmhalîpîn kolametameta, rîvîn ka, maulupîn le nîkutîn, mîva mier le nîpwagnouan.  Mîva ka, kani ka repîmwa, 'E!  Namwa, lemvîn le nîkutîn mier le nîpwagnouan'.  Kani rîni nîpwîrhienaan lan.
Kani kaitite marva ka, Mwatiktîk rîtîk netpîn le kîpaas, menuk miîn kîmarvinîn, pukas miîn kaisak, mamarvîn, neramîm miîn kîmarvinîn mamarvîn.
Kani ka rol naunlin.
19 'auee! ai-ami apus huahue nifikom!'. m-ai-ami
'auee! pl-urinate extinguished quick fire!'. and-pl-urinate
20 m-ai-ami merou kapwa, to nifikom r-is-apus-aan. 'ah!
and-pl-urinate but no, dat fire 3:s-neg-extinguished-neg. 'ah!
21 ai-akimw!'. r-ami nifikom ka m-ami apus.
pl-go:away!'. 3:s-urinate fire that and-urinate extinguished.
22 kani ka merou Teramumas r-n-va luok:t. kani am ka r-vi
and that but Teramumas 3:s-perf-come near. and just that 3:s-pull
23 lis le nĩm, kani ka k-ar-vin apwa ikin r-harig tosig.
core loc breadfruit, and that 3:ns-pl-go loc place 3:s-close blocked.
24 Teramumas r-va, r-egis m-am-avin m-am-avin, merou am
Teramumas 3:s-come, 3:s-look:out and-cont-go and-cont-go, but just
n-ńka, kani am ka r-vin apwa isou. kani am ka r-vi
nom-not:to:be, and just that 3:s-go loc far. and just that 3:s-pull
25 lis le nĩm, kani am ka k-ar-ier. r-ipk il-ar,
core loc breadfruit, and just that 3:ns-pl-go:out. 3:s-lead they-pl,
m-am-ar-avin m-am-ar-avin m-ar-avin m-ai-aroatis niel ka, kani
and-cont-pl-go and-cont-pl-go and-pl-go and-pl-arrive oak that, and
26 amka m-ar-it. m-ar-it m-ar-it apwa ilis, m-am-ai-awta.
just that and-pl-go:up. and-pl-go:up and-pl-go:up loc high, and-cont-pl-ńit
27 kani am ka Teramumas r-akavin m-akavin m-akavin m-va le niel,
and just that Teramumas 3:s-go and-go and-go and-come loc oak,
28 merou k-n-ar-ńka. r-ńma, 'ńńk-k ker nar miin
but 3:ns-perf-pl-not:to:be. 3:s-say, 'poss:to:eat-1:s one thing pl
29 k-ńm-ar-va m-n-etu-ar-vin?'. kani am ka Mwatiktik
3:ns-past-pl-come and-perf-ńtr-pl-go?'. and just that Mwatiktik
30 r-awta apwa ilis, kani am ka m-klukiu mwa-apwa-le-n le
3:s-sit loc high, and just that and-shake:head like-that-loc-3:s ins
kaio taha menuk. kani am ka Teramumas r-ńm-ńpck tehe
tail:feather poss bird. and just that Teramumas 3:s-past-take sea
31 m-leliŋ m-va. kani r-arįk m-klukiu mwa-aan-le-n,
and-return and-come. and-3:s-stay and-shake:head like-that-loc-3:s,
r-ńm-ńpck tehe, m-leliŋ m-va. kani am ka r-ńmwa,
3:s-past-take sea, and-return and-come. and just that 3:s-say,
32 'e! kam-ar apwa i-ak-am-ai-awta'. kani am ka r-ńmwa,
'hey! we:exc-pl loc 1:exc-conc-cont-pl-sit'. and just that 3:s-say,
'na-mwipw-k, n-im-ai-atol m-ar-vín aan?'. 'pl-grandchild-1:s, 2-past-pl-do:what and-pl-go that?'.

'i-im-ar-it le netp-m-ar'. r-ofín netp-n merou
'l:exc-past-pl-go:up ins belly-1:exc-pl'. 3:s-give belly-3:s but

na-t-r-aul ate. r-imwa, 'n-ak-am-ar-elúa'.
int-fut-3:s-scratch broken. 3:s-say, '2-conc-cont-pl-tell:lie'.

merou r-n-am-aul ate. r-imwa, 'e! n-ak-am-ar-elúa,
but 3:s-perf-cont-scratch broken. 3:s-say, 'hey! 2-conc-cont-pl-tell:lie,'.

na-mwipw-k'. r-imwa, 'i-im-ar-it le noul-m-ar'.
pl-grandchild-1:s. 3:s-say, 'l:exc-past-pl-go:up ins knee-1:exc-pl'.

r-lífín noul-n merou r-n-am-aul-asísín. r-imwa,
3:s-give knee-3:s but 3:s-perf-cont-scratch-tatter. 3:s-say,

'e! n-ak-am-ar-elúa, na-mwipw-k'. kani r-imwa,
'hey! 2-conc-cont-pl-tell:lie, pl-grandchild-1:s'. and 3:s-say,

'nar hua in hua, i-im-ar-it le-n', m-alak-hiaav-ín
'thing this it this, 1:exc-past-pl-go:up ins-3:s'. and-throw-down-trans
toula. kani am ka Teramsumas r-akil aan le-n ka,
rope. and just that Teramsumas 3:s-climb that ins-3:s that,

m-akil-akil m-it m-akavin m-akava iuokit r-hiapítín sapwag.
and-climb-climb and-go:up and-go and-go and-come near 3:s-hold branch.

'auee! ník-k ker nar miin, n-im-ai-atol m-ai-akímw
'auee! poss:to:eat-1:s one thing pl, 2-past-pl-do:what and-pl-run:away
m-ar-va ikin uk?'. kani am ka Mwatiitík r-hoakru toula
and-pl-come place this?'. and just that Mwatiitík 3:s-chop rope

le kípaas, kani am ka r-lís Teramsumas m-vín r-autfn
ins axe, and just that 3:s-take Teramsumas and-go 3:s-fall

m-awnapwín m-asupwopwom. kani ka r-hali-pn menuk miin
and-kill:by:falling and-oapise. and that 3:s-send-there bird pl

petímw, kani ker r-vín kani ka m-ai le nelk-n m-aroatis te-n-kapwa
all, and one 3:s-go and that and-run loc leg-3:s and-reach poss-3:s-head

m-leliq m-va. r-arhapík, merou r-imwa, 'ouaah, r-n-mís'.
and-return and-come. 3:s-ask, but 3:s-say, 'yes, 3:s-perf-die'.

kani ka r-hali íta mun ker, r-vín ka m-ai am le
and that 3:s-send already again one, 3:s-go that and-run just loc
There was once a big devil who ate all the people around Tanna, and his name was Teramsumas. And he ate up all the people and pigs and birds - he ate the lot of them. He took white men, and fenced them in, and kept on eating up people. But he kept watch on the white people to see if they went away.

And there was a man called Mwatiktik, who came upon this place and saw them playing inside the fence. And he said, 'Hey!', said he, 'what are you doing?'.

And they replied, 'We are playing. Our grandfather has gone to look for some food for us'.

But he said, 'Aah! Let me tell you that he is deceiving you. He's going to eat up all the black people, and he'll come and eat up the lot of you too'.

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And there was a man called Mwatiktik, who came upon this place and saw them playing inside the fence. And he said, 'Hey!', said he, 'what are you doing?'.

And they replied, 'We are playing. Our grandfather has gone to look for some food for us'.

But he said, 'Aah! Let me tell you that he is deceiving you. He's going to eat up all the black people, and he'll come and eat up the lot of you too'.
And they cried, 'Auee! Father, how then might we get away? It's difficult'.

He took an axe and chopped down the fence and they got out. He led them away and they travelled on until they felt hungry. So they picked breadfruit and roasted it, and when they were roasting it they felt the wind of Teramsumas' coming. 'Auee! Piss on the fire quickly and put it out!' They pissed and pissed but it was no use; the fire wouldn't go out.

'Ah! Go away!', said Mwatiktik, who pissed on the fire and put it out.

But Teramsumas had come closer. So Mwatiktik pulled the core of a breadfruit, and they went inside and he closed it up. Teramsumas came, searched and searched, but there was no-one, so he went away. Then Mwatiktik pulled out the core of the breadfruit, and they came out. He led them off, and they went on until they came to an oak-tree, and they climbed it. They climbed to the top, and sat there.

Teramsumas went on and on until he came to the oak-tree, but there was no-one there. And he said, 'My dinner came here but where have they gone to?'.

Then Mwatiktik, who was sitting up above, shook his head like that with the tail-feather of a bird in his hair. Teramsumas went to the sea (to investigate the shadow moving), and came back. And Mwatiktik shook his head like this, and Teramsumas went to the sea and came back. Then Mwatiktik said, 'Hey! We're sitting up here'.

The other replied, 'My grandchildren, how did you get there?'.

'We climbed up on our bellies'.

So he put his belly to the tree, but it began to get all scratched. So he said, 'You're lying'.

So Mwatiktik said, 'We climbed up on our backs'.

He put his back to the tree, but it became scratched. So he said, 'Hey! You're lying, my grandchildren'.

So Mwatiktik said, 'We climbed up on our knees'.

He put his knees to the tree, but they got torn to shreds. And again he said, 'Hey! You're lying, my grandchildren'.

So Mwatiktik said, 'See this thing? We climbed up on it', and he threw down a rope. And Teramsumas grabbed hold of it and climbed hand over hand until he came close, and then he grabbed a branch.

'Auee! My dinner, why did you run away and come here?'.

Then Mwatiktik chopped the rope with an axe, and it took Teramsumas down and he fell and was killed. And Mwatiktik sent all the birds down there, and one of them went and ran from his feet to his head, and came back. Mwatiktik questioned him, and he replied, 'Yes, he's dead'.
All the birds went. And he sent the Tikiskisik bird. The Tikiskisik went to and fro on top of him, and came back. And when questioned he replied, 'He's dead'.

And he sent the Koiametameta bird, who went and entered his anus and went on until he came out of his mouth. And he came back, and said, 'Hey! Well, I went into his anus and came out his mouth'. And he said that it was true.

So they all came down, and Mwatiktik speared Teramsumas' belly with the axe, and all the birds cried, and the pigs called out, and the people too called out.

And that's the end.

Notes
3,4 I am unable to explain the reference to 'white men'.
4 nouan-koupwa: a fence made out of the koupwa tree.
6 Mwatiktik seems to be the Polynesian Mauitikitiki.
8 imwa 'to say', is a quotative verb, used only to introduce a direct quotation.
9 'grandparent' refers here to Teramsumas.
13 'father' refers here to Mwatiktik.
15 nouan-kulu: a fence made out of the kulu tree. The story-teller has obviously made a slight change from the type of fence described in line 4.
20 I am unable to explain the function of to.
27 niel: a tree like an oak.
33 ïpk tehe: an idiom meaning to collect salt, and used usually of inland people coming down to the sea for this purpose. Thus here we have Teramsumas going down to the sea to investigate the shadow made by Mwatiktik.
47 sapwag usually refers to the lowest branches of a tree, although apparently the reference is not so specific here.
57 tikiskisik is a small black bird with a long tail.
59 koiametameta is a black bird with red markings on its front and back.
64,65 These are the birds, pigs, and people whom Teramsumas had eaten and who are now released from his stomach.
6.2. NAU


Rarhapîk mhîwa, 'Kamaalhie?'.

Merou am kamwa, 'Iinal, Ienkwenekalhla'.

Kai iliukok takrin merou am ka nîlhieelhaan. Rîmwa, 'Kamaalhie?'.

Merou am kamwa, 'Kamaalh Ienkwenekalhla'.


Kamwa, 'In apwa rînauiellel'.


1 uus Nîmîtautumîne le nlan taha nîkovlaar t-k-ak-ol apwa
man Nîmîtautumîne loc time poss nîkovlaar fut-3:ns-conc-make loc

2 Lenauhia. kani ka il-ar k-n-am-ar-vîn le nîkovlaar.
Lenauhia. and that they-pl 3:ns-perf-cont-pl-go loc nîkovlaar.

3 kani merou pera-vîn ker, pera-vîn ietik, netgin ka Vertam - merou uus and but woman one, woman from:here, name-3:s that Vertam - but man

4 ka netgin ka Nau. il-ar ka k-n-am-ar-vîn apwa le
that name-3:s that Nau. they-pl that 3:ns-perf-cont-pl-go loc loc
nîkovlaar Lenauhia. kîm-ar-vîn ka le suatu, merou kîmî lhleelh.
nîkovlaar Lenauhia. 3:ns-past-pl-go that loc road, but 3:ns-past-laugh.

5 r-arhapîk m-iwma, 'kamaalhie?'. Merou am k-a-iwma,
3:s-ask and-say, 'they:laugh:where?'. but just 3:ns-pl-say,

6 'iinal, Ienkwenekalhia'. ka-aliuuk takrin merou am ka
'here, Ienkwenekalhia'. 3:ns-pl-walk a:bit but just that

7 'kamaalh Ienkwenekalhia'. merou am k-a-iwma,
nom-laugh-nom. 3:s-say, 'they:laugh:where?'. but just 3:ns-pl-say,

8 'kamaalh Ienkwenekalhia'. kani ka kîm-ar-vîn m-am-ar-vîn
'they:laugh Ienkwenekalhia'. and that 3:ns-past-pl-go and-cont-pl-go
There was a man from Nëmitautumine at the time that they were holding a nikoviar at Lenauhia. And people began going to the nikoviar. But there was also a woman, a woman from here, and she was called Vertam - the man's name was Nau. They were all setting off to the nikoviar at Lenauhia. They were going along the road when someone laughed. And Nau asked, 'Where is that laughter?'.

But the others replied, 'Here, at Ienkwenekalhia'.

They walked a bit further, and the laughter sounded again. And Nau said, 'Where is that laughter?'. And they replied, 'The laughter is from Ienkwenekalhia'.

And they went on until they reached the road which leads north to Lenauhia, at Lenouaamm'm. And they stood there and threw their kavhas, threw them all around, and then came out into the nakamal at Lenauhia.
And they stood there and looked back, but Nau wasn't there. So Vertam said, 'Hey! Where has Nau got to?'.

And they replied, 'He went and drowned himself'.

He had drowned himself and floated here to this place, because his heart was set on that woman, Vertam. And Vertam sits out there to the west in the deep water. And that's the end.

Now this Nau was from this area. If you break any customary laws, he will make you sick. If someone knows the medicine for it, then he can cure you. But if he doesn't, you will die. And that's the end.

Notes
1 Nimitautumine is the name of a 'tribe' near Bethel.
2 Nkoviier: the most important dance-ceremony on Tanna.
3 Lenaunia is a village on the Melbourne Road.
6 Nau asks this question because he thinks it is Vertam and another man laughing together.
6-9 All the pieces of direct speech in these lines are in the Nivhaal language.
7 Ienkwenekahlia: location not known.
11 Lenouammim: location not known.
12 Kavha: a long pole used in some dances, especially the nkoviier.
12 Iimmwaimm = Bislama nakamal, which in Tanna refers to a cleared area, dominated by a large banyan, which is used for dances and for the men's daily kava-drinking.
16-18 Both Nau and Vertam went into the sea and drowned, both turning into stones. The reference to 'here' in line 16 is explained by the fact that these stones are found in the area where the story was told to me.
18 Narietik: literally, 'something from here'.
19 Io: from English 'law'.
19 Oi: in this context, means to cause someone to become ill.
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