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TOLAI AND TOK PISIN:  
THE INFLUENCE OF THE SUBSTRATUM ON THE DEVELOPMENT  
OF NEW GUINEA PIDGIN

by

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<i>page</i>
Acknowledgments	vii
List of Abbreviations	viii
<b>1. INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>2. PHONOLOGY</b>	<b>8</b>
2.1. Consonants	8
2.1.1. Stops	9
2.1.2. Fricatives	11
2.1.2.1. Bilabial and labiodental fricatives	12
2.1.2.2. Dental fricatives	13
2.1.2.3. Dental-alveolar fricatives	14
2.1.2.4. Palatal and velar fricatives	15
2.1.2.5. /h/	15
2.1.3. Affricatives	16
2.1.4. Nasals	16
2.1.5. /l/ and /r/	17
2.1.6. Consonant clusters	18
2.2. Vowels	19
2.2.1. Diphthongs	21
2.3. Conclusion	22
<b>3. LEXICON</b>	<b>23</b>
<b>4. WORD CLASSES</b>	<b>40</b>
4.1. Nouns	40
4.2. Verbs	40
4.2.1. Transitivity and intransitivity in Tok Pisin	40
4.2.2. Transitivity and intransitivity in Patpatar-Tolai languages	42
4.2.3. Tok Pisin and Tolai verbal classes compared	44
4.3. Adjectives	54
4.3.1. Tok Pisin adjectives	54

	<i>page</i>
4.3.2. Tok Pisin adjectives in comparison with Tolai adjectives	56
4.4. Personal pronouns	60
4.5. Numerals	61
4.5.1. Cardinal numerals	61
4.5.2. Distributive numerals	63
4.5.3. Ordinal numerals	64
5. DERIVATION IN TOK PISIN AND TOLAI	64
5.1. Multifunctionality	65
5.1.1. Introduction	65
5.1.2. Tok Pisin multifunctionality programs in comparison with Tolai	69
5.1.2.1. MF program 1	69
5.1.2.2. MF programs 2 and 3	71
5.1.2.3. MF program 4	72
5.1.2.4. MF program 5	73
5.1.2.5. MF program 6	73
5.1.2.6. MF program 7	74
5.1.2.7. MF program 8	75
5.1.2.8. MF program 9	75
5.1.2.9. MF program 10	76
5.1.2.10. MF program 11	77
5.1.2.11. MF program 12 and 13	77
5.1.2.12. MF program 14	77
5.1.2.13. MF program 15	77
5.1.2.14. MF program 16	78
5.1.2.15. MF program 17	79
5.1.2.16. MF program 18	79
5.1.2.17. MF program 19	80
5.1.2.18. MF program 20	80
5.1.2.19. MF program 21	81
5.1.2.20. MF program 22	81
5.1.2.21. MF program 23	82
5.1.2.22. Conclusion	83
5.2. Compounds and lexical phrases	83
5.2.1. Introduction	83
5.2.2. Nominal compounds and lexical phrases	83
5.2.2.1. CP program 1	84
5.2.2.2. CP programs 2 and 3	84
5.2.2.3. CP program 6	85



	<i>page</i>	
5.2.2.4.	CP programs 4, 5, 7-14	86
5.2.2.5.	Conclusion	90
5.2.3.	Verbal compounds and lexical phrases	90
5.2.3.1.	CP program 15	91
5.2.3.2.	CP program 16	91
5.2.3.3.	CP programs 17-21 (verbal chaining)	92
5.2.3.4.	Verbal chaining in Tolai	93
5.2.3.5.	CP program 17	94
5.2.3.6.	CP program 18	96
5.2.3.7.	CP program 19	97
5.2.3.8.	CP program 20	99
5.2.3.9.	CP program 21	99
5.2.3.10	Conclusion	100
5.3.	Reduplication	100
5.3.1.	Introduction	100
5.3.2.	Reduplication in Tolai	101
5.3.2.1.	Reduplication of verbs in Tolai	101
5.3.2.2.	Reduplication of nouns	104
5.3.2.3.	Reduplication of adjectives	104
5.3.2.4.	Reduplication of cardinal numbers	105
5.3.2.5.	Reduplication of adverbs	105
5.3.3.	The influence of Tolai on reduplication in Tok Pisin	106
5.3.3.1.	Reduplication of verbs	106
5.3.3.2.	Reduplication of nouns	109
5.3.3.3.	Reduplication of adjectives	110
5.3.3.4.	Reduplication of cardinal numerals	110
5.3.3.5.	Reduplication of adverbs	111
5.3.4.	Conclusion	111
6. PHRASE STRUCTURE		112
6.1.	Noun phrase	112
6.1.1.	The order of elements	112
6.1.2.	The expression of possession	114
6.1.3.	The expression of number	115
6.1.4.	The indication of sex	118
6.1.5.	Conclusion	120
6.2.	Verbal phrase	120
6.2.1.	The predicate marker	120
6.2.2.	The nucleus	122
6.2.3.	Negation	122

	<i>page</i>
6.2.4. Tense and aspect markers	123
6.2.5. Tok Pisin pinis and Tolai par, vapar	124
6.2.6. Voice	125
6.2.7. The use of so-called auxiliaries	126
6.2.8. Conclusion	126
<b>7. SENTENCE TYPES</b>	<b>127</b>
7.1. Declarative sentences	127
7.1.1. Non-verbal declarative sentences	127
7.1.1.1. Existential sentences	127
7.1.1.2. Equative sentences	128
7.1.1.3. Locational sentences	129
7.1.2. Verbal sentences	129
7.2. Interrogative sentences	132
7.3. Imperative sentences	134
7.4. Conclusion	134
<b>8. INDICES</b>	<b>135</b>
8.1. Index of languages other than Tolai and Tok Pisin	135
8.2. Grammatical index	136
8.3. Index of Tok Pisin words	139
Bibliography	142

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Cologne, 1980

Ulrike Mosel

## List of Abbreviations

C	connective particle	pm	predicate marker
D	determinative particle	Rak	dialect of Rakunai
exc	exclusive	Ral	dialect of Raluana
inc	inclusive	Rav	dialect of Ravat
Kl.	Kleintitschen 1927	sm	subject marker
Liv.	dialect of Livuan	TA	tense and aspect marker
M	Meier 1909	Tam	dialect of Tamanairiki
Nav.	dialect of Navunaram	Viv	dialect of Viviren
P	dialect of Papatava	2	dual
PART	emphatic particle	3	trial
Pl	plural marker	4	plural

# TOLAI AND TOK PISIN: THE INFLUENCE OF THE SUBSTRATUM ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF NEW GUINEA PIDGIN

## 1. INTRODUCTION

In numerous works about the origin of Tok Pisin, Tolai is referred to as an influential factor. Wurm (1971a:1009) writes that Tok Pisin

contains a considerable number of lexical elements from the local language, Tolai, and also some structural characteristics reflecting features of that language.

and Fry (1977:869):

Whatever its remote origins, Pidgin as a language developed much of its structure through use in the Rabaul region during the early period of the German administration, and Kuanua [i.e. Tolai] has probably had more influence on Pidgin than any other single New Guinea language...The structure of Pidgin is basically Austronesian, and Pidgin would appear to be as close in structure to Kuanua as to any other Austronesian language.

Salisbury (1967:46) speaks of a 'large Tolai component of Pidgin' and assumes that an already stabilised Pidgin came to the Bismarck Archipelago via traders and whalers and underwent significant changes through the influence of Tolai since 1884, when the Bismarck Archipelago was annexed by the Germans. Mühlhäusler (1975a:3), however, contradicts this hypothesis:

However the linguistic evidence does not support Salisbury's claim that many of the characteristics in NGP (i.e. New Guinea Pidgin) grammar were already developed by 1881 and the importance of speakers of Tolai in the formation of NGP is also debatable.

Mühlhäusler is able to prove, with a comparison of Samoan Plantation Pidgin and New Guinean Pidgin and an analysis of the economic connections between Samoa and New Guinea, that New Guinean Pidgin did not originate in New Guinea itself, but in Samoa and then spread to

New Guinea. There was already a stabilised Pidgin in Samoa in 1870, which was closely related to Bichelamar spoken in the New Hebrides. After 1879, when workers were recruited exclusively from the Bismarck Archipelago in order to work on the plantations in Samoa, Samoan Plantation Pidgin underwent a series of changes 'under the impact of the influx of large numbers of labourers from the New Britain and New Ireland area' (Mühlhäusler 1975a:4f.). Until 1914 altogether about 6000 workers were brought from German New Guinea to Samoa, from which 700-1000 were at any one time in Samoa. More than fifty percent of the workers came from New Ireland, approximately twenty percent from the Gazelle Peninsula, none from mainland New Guinea and less than one percent from the British Solomon Islands (Mühlhäusler 1975a:15). If Tolai and the closely related languages of the Duke of York Islands and southern New Ireland - henceforth called Patpatar-Tolai - played a part in the development of Tok Pisin, one would have to be able to prove their influence in Tok Pisin as well as in Samoan Plantation Pidgin. And that is the case, as shown in some words specified by Mühlhäusler (1975a:30f.):

First I shall list a number of lexical items which are not found in Pacific pidgins other than NGP and SPP. The origin of these items can be traced back to the area around the Duke of York Islands...

	SPP	NGP	Gloss
(1)	taberan	tambaran	<i>ghost, spirit</i>
(2)	muruk	muruk	<i>cassowary</i>
(3)	pukpuk	pukpuk	<i>crocodile</i>
(4)	kakaruk	kakaruk	<i>chicken, rooster</i>
(5)	matmat	matmat	<i>cemetery</i>
(6)	lotu	lotu	<i>church</i>

(this last item was brought to the Duke of York Islands and Blanche Bay area by Fijian missionaries).

The corresponding words in Tolai are:

(1) tabaran/ta<sup>m</sup>baran, (2) murup, (3) pukpuk, (4) kakaruk.

This does not mean, however, that these words were in every case borrowed from Tolai. Tambaran and pukpuk could just as well have come from another language closely related to Tolai. Muruk seems to be a distortion of murup, which is attested in the whole area.

Matmat is shortened from Duke of York tama na matmat or Tolai pia na matmat, both lit. *place for the dead*, which themselves were probably an invention by the foreign missionaries. The natives did not know

cemeteries before, and, though reduplication is a device to derive nouns from verbs, it is rather unlikely that *tama na matmat* and *pia na matmat* were invented by natives, because in both languages the noun derived from *mat to die* is *minat* meaning *death* and *corpse*. Thus one would expect *tama/pia na minat*, the latter of which is indeed attested in Tolai.

Most SPP words are derived from English words and correspond phonologically and semantically to the Tok Pisin forms. Mühlhäusler (1975a:27ff.) noted the following exceptions:

- (a) items of Samoan origin,
- (b) a number of words whose origin is not known and which are neither Samoan nor found in NGP,
- (c) some items which are found in older varieties of NGP, but since have been replaced by other items or more anglicised pronunciations,
- (d) items derived from English, which are not found in NGP,
- (e) surface reflexes, which are identical in SPP and NGP with differences in the semantic range of the items concerned.

(c), (d) and (e) are interesting for us, because they show that Patpatar-Tolai had a greater influence on the younger varieties of NGP than was the case with SPP and the older varieties of NGP. There are four words from Patpatar-Tolai from the seven new words cited under (c), and from the nine under (d) there are two:

(c)	SPP	present day NGP	gloss
	<i>bilinat</i>	<i>buai</i>	<i>betelnut</i>
	<i>gokabaut</i>	<i>wokabaut</i> <i>lilimbur</i>	<i>to walk, stroll</i>
	<i>lilebit</i>	<i>liklik</i>	<i>a little bit</i>
	<i>bresprut</i>	<i>kapiak</i>	<i>breadfruit</i>

The corresponding Patpatar-Tolai words are:

	<i>buai</i>	(Tolai, Label, Pala)	
	<i>lilimbur</i>	(Tolai)	
	<i>liklik</i>	(Duke of York)	
	<i>kapiaka</i>	(Tolai)	
(d)	SPP	present day NGP	gloss
	<i>laim</i>	<i>kambang</i>	<i>lime (for betelnut chewing)</i>
	<i>tri</i>	<i>diwai</i>	<i>tree</i>

The corresponding Patpatar-Tolai words are:

ka <sup>m</sup> bang	(Tolai, Mioko, Label)
divai	(Mioko)

Under (e) the exact same words in SPP and NGP are conspicuous:

SPP	gloss	NGP	gloss
han	<i>arm, hand</i>	han	<i>hand, arm, forelegs of an animal</i>
lek	<i>foot, leg, fore- and hindlegs of an animal, footprints</i>	lek	<i>leg, foot, hindlegs of an animal, footprints</i>

The fact that in NGP the same terms are used to describe the limbs of animals and the limbs of human beings (so that one automatically differentiates between front legs and back legs) corresponds to the Tolai usage of *lima hand, arm, front leg* and *kake leg, back leg*. In SPP however, *han* and *lek* act like the corresponding words in German and English: one differentiates between arm and leg only with human beings, whereas with animals all limbs are indiscriminately designated with the word for leg.

One can come to two conclusions from the material provided by Mühlhäusler (1975a), namely (1) as he mentions himself, that one can establish an influence of Patpatar-Tolai even on SPP, and beyond that, (2) the Pidgin brought from Samoa to New Guinea was influenced further by Patpatar-Tolai.

The percentages of recruited labourers from New Ireland (50%) and those recruited from the Gazelle (20%) need not necessarily determine to what extent the various New Ireland languages on the one hand and Tolai on the other had influenced the development of Tok Pisin. Firstly, the twenty percent of labourers recruited from the Gazelle only spoke one single language, whereas those from the Duke of York Islands and New Ireland came from various small speech communities. Secondly, it is not known whether there were different ranges of prestige among the natives brought to Samoa, but it may be assumed that the Tolais stuck together and thus formed the most numerous and influential group. And thirdly, Samoa was only the starting point of development.

Further development of Tok Pisin was determined by the socio-cultural setting on the Gazelle Peninsula, which was the political and economical centre until 1914. The labourers on the plantations there were mainly recruited from New Ireland and Buka, since the



Tolais did not like to work there for several reasons (for details see Mosel 1979). The German judge Schnee (1904:370) reports that

1893	1000 labourers
1898	1500 labourers
1901	2500 labourers
1902	3323 labourers
1903	3434 labourers

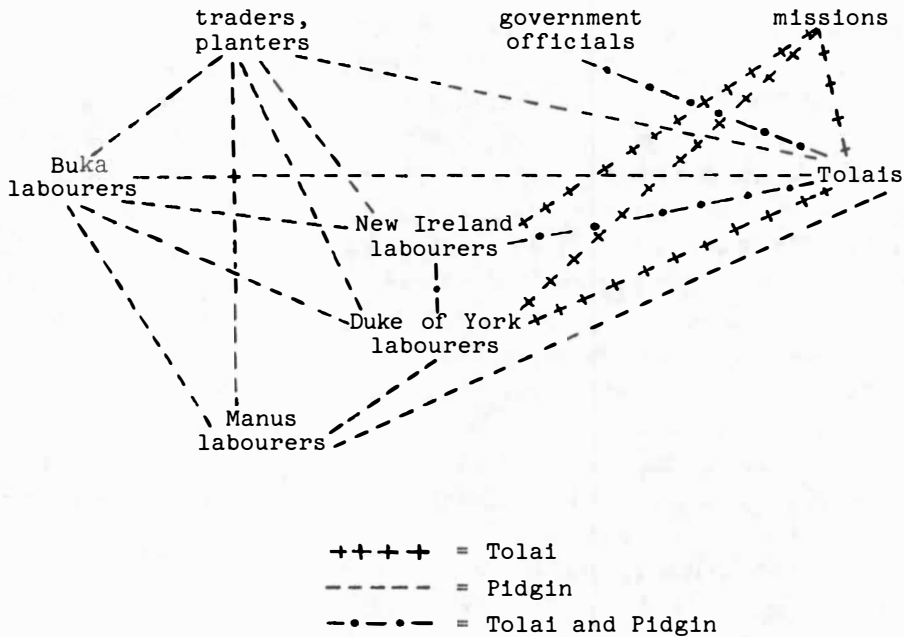
were recruited and employed in the Bismarck Archipelago itself, i.e. mainly on the Gazelle Peninsula.

The Tolais only did sophisticated jobs as interpreters, boat drivers, craftsmen, companions on expeditions and members of the police troop, which consisted of 70-100 natives from the Gazelle, New Ireland and Buka (Friederici 1911:95; Hesse-Wartegg 1902:105, 154, 155, 165; Schafroth 1916:86f.; Schnee 1904:15, 114, 131). They could make profit of their own land by selling copra and vegetables to the Europeans, who were responsible for the subsistence of the imported labourers. Consequently the number and size of the markets rapidly increased, so that nearly every day markets were held in different places (Blum 1900:30). Being the indigenous residents in the coastal area of the Gazelle Peninsula and trade partners of the Europeans, the Tolais played the leading role among the natives and certainly enjoyed high prestige.

The means of communication among the different groups now living on the Gazelle Peninsula, i.e. government officials, traders and planters, missionaries, imported labourers and Tolais, were rather complex (a discussion in detail is given in Mosel 1979):

1. The missionaries communicated with the Tolais in Tolai and made Tolai the mission lingua franca on the Duke of York Islands and New Ireland.
2. Consequently, labourers from the Duke of York Islands and at least southern New Ireland communicated with the Tolais in Tolai.
3. Other natives communicated with the Tolais in Pidgin.
4. The spread of Tolai as a lingua franca was first supported by some government officials, who themselves were fluent Tolai speakers (e.g. Schnee, Hahl) and regarded Pidgin English as a hindering factor to the Germanisation of the colony. But as the traders and planters resisted the introduction of Tolai as a lingua franca, Pidgin had to be accepted.

5. Planters and traders communicated both with Tolais and imported labourers in Pidgin.
6. Among themselves the imported labourers communicated in Pidgin.



The next stage of the development of Tok Pisin began when the activities of traders, planters and the German Government were more and more extended to Kaiser-Wilhelms-Land (the New Guinea mainland). Unfortunately it is not yet quite clear to what extent labourers from Buka, New Ireland and New Britain were recruited for the plantations in Kaiser-Wilhelms-Land.

Zöllner (1891:293) reports:

At the end of the year 1889 Mr Parkinson had recruited no less than 600 labourers from the Bismarck Archipelago, but only 100 remained at the station, whereas the others were sent to New Guinea.

The members of the police troop there mainly came from the archipelago. Schafroth (1916:87) reports that she met a government official with twenty policemen on the ship from Rabaul to Kaiser-Wilhelms-Land:

The police troops mainly consist of 'Miokesen'. Originally this name was applied to labourers recruited from the small island Mioko, which belongs to New-Lauenburg (i.e. Duke of York Islands). But then this name has been extended to all plantation workers and soliders who were recruited from New-Pommern (i.e. New Britain), Neu-Mecklenburg (i.e. New Ireland) and Buka.

(It is more probable that the name 'Miokesen' was given to people from the Bismarck Archipelago, because the labourers recruited for Samoa were first gathered in a transit camp on Mioko.) The relations between Tolais, other natives and Europeans, and the fact that the Tolais in contrast to all other natives formed a large speech community, suggest that Tolai may have influenced the development of Pidgin to a greater extent than the other languages involved. But unless the New Ireland languages (especially those near the Duke of York Islands) are better known, it is impossible to make any profound statements about the role the various languages played as substratum languages. It can easily be seen from the lexicon that it was not only Tolai, but several languages.

Since I have personal experience only with Tolai and since this language is by far the best documented one, the present investigation is mainly based on Tolai. Most examples are taken from the texts collected by Meier (1909) and Kleintitschen (1924), because nowadays Tolai is changing under the influence of Tok Pisin. Thus it would be difficult to decide which phenomenon shared by both languages is originally Tolai and which is a loan from Tok Pisin. If not indicated otherwise, lexical items are taken from Meyer (1961) *Worterbuch der Tuna-Sprache*, which was compiled in 1921.

The data of Molot (Duke of York Islands) are taken from Brown and Danks (1882), those of Label (New Ireland) from Peekel (1929-30) and those of Patpatar (=Pala) from Peekel (1909). The data of Mioko (Duke of York Islands) were collected by myself during a four days' stay in 1978.

In the following investigation I will attempt to show which characteristics of Tok Pisin possibly reflect substratum influence. It can only be stated that substratum influence 'may be possible', or that the structure of the substratum language 'may have reinforced' some phenomenon of Tok Pisin. This precaution is necessary, because both Tolai and Tok Pisin often show features that in the case of Tok Pisin can also be regarded as universals of pidgins, for instance the reduction of morphological complexity, the absence of copula, the loss of obligatory number, gender and case distinction. Other features, e.g. the use of a predicate marker, are also shared by

ancient Bichelamar and thus are to be interpreted as common Melanesian, if they cannot be ascribed to pidgin universals. Since the few data available for ancient Bichelamar are not very reliable, I will occasionally refer to modern Bichelamar and Cape York Creole, two descendants of ancient Bichelamar.

In general, each linguistic feature of Tok Pisin can be ascribed to at least one of the following sources:

1. the superstrat language English,
2. the substratum languages,
3. the predecessors of Tok Pisin,  
i.e. Samoan Plantation Pidgin,  
ancient Bichelamar,
4. the universals of pidgins,
5. independent development.

The greatest disadvantage of the following study is that due to the lack of sufficient old material, in most cases only present day standard Tok Pisin can be compared with Tolai. Hence it cannot be excluded, that certain phenomena in Tok Pisin, which appear to have resulted from Tolai influence, have developed only recently and thus cannot be ascribed to substratum influence. And, secondly, in most instances it cannot be taken into consideration that earlier varieties of Tok Pisin might have shown more Patpatar-Tolai features, which have disappeared in present day Tok Pisin.

Nevertheless, I think the comparison between Tolai and Tok Pisin will be useful, since it will show where in today's standard Tok Pisin substratum influence is probable and where it manifestly has to be excluded.

## 2. PHONOLOGY

### 2.1. Consonants

Tok Pisin					modern Bichelamar				
p	b	t	d	k g	p	b	t	k	
p	b (f v)	s		h	p	b (f v)	s	h	
	m		n	ŋ		m		n	ŋ
			r					r	
			l					l	
w			y		w			y	

Tolai, Molot, Mioko					Label					Pala (Patpatar)							
p	b	t	d	k	g	p	b	t	d	k	g	p	b	t	d	k	g
	b							s			h			s			h
	m		n		ŋ		m		n		ŋ		m		n		ŋ
			r						r						r		
			l						l						l		

(w)

Tolai and the Duke of York languages of Molot and Mioko exhibit the same phonemic system. In contrast to New Ireland languages they have neither /s/ nor /h/. The only fricative is /b/ (spelt v) which is absent in Pala and Label. Historically Tolai /b/ corresponds to Pala and Label /h/. Compare:

Tolai	Label	Pala	English
vudu	hun	hudu	<i>banana</i>
vana	han	han	<i>to go</i>
ivat	ihat	ihat	<i>four</i>

Apart from some marginal dialects, /s/ is totally lost in Tolai:

Tolai	Tolai, s-dialects	Label	Pala	English
ur	sur	sur	sur	<i>bone</i>
maur	masur	masur	(hahos)	<i>to be satisfied</i>
lama	lamas	lamas	lamas	<i>coconut</i>

In some instances, as for example lama, the loss of /s/ is compensated by vowel length in Tolai.

In the north coast dialects of Tolai, Mioko, Label and some other New Ireland languages like Lamassa and King (Stephan and Graebner 1907) the voiced stops are prenasalised, but not in the Kokopo dialects of Tolai, Molot and Pala.

According to Peekel (1929-30) Label has the semivowel /w/, which rather seems to be an allophon of /u/. The wordlists collected by Stephan and Graebner show /w/ for Label as well as for King and Lamassa, but these data are not very reliable.

### 2.1.1. Stops

Tok Pisin and modern Bichelamar differ in that Bichelamar lacks the stops /d/ and /g/, for example:

Tok Pisin	Bichelamar	English
digim	tikim	<i>to dig</i>
redi	reti	<i>ready</i>
givim	kivim	<i>give</i>

The absence of /d/ and /g/ in Bichelamar probably resulted from substratum influence. Many languages of the New Hebrides have only one series of stops or lack the distinction of /k/ and /g/ at least (Guy 1974a:7; Schütz 1969:13ff.; Voegelin 1964:52ff.).

In Tok Pisin the whole series of /b/, /d/ and /g/ is preserved and often prenasalised by native speakers. In the orthography, however, prenasalisation is only rendered, if it is used by both Melanesians and Europeans (Mihalic 1971:7). In other words, not when it is a variety due to the speakers' origin only, but when it is a stabilised and regular feature of Tok Pisin. There are only a very few English loanwords which fulfil this condition:

sindaun	<i>to sit down</i>
pundaun	<i>to fall down</i>
krungut /ŋg/	<i>crooked</i>
indai	<i>to die</i>

These items certainly reflect substratum influence. As can easily be seen from the lexicon, it was mainly the Tolai dialects and perhaps some closely related languages with prenasalised stops that played the leading part among the substratum languages, for voiced stops in Patpatar-Tolai loanwords are almost always prenasalised, e.g. *tambaran ghost, spirit, kundu hand drum, puinga (/ŋg/) fart*. The first item is already attested in Samoan Plantation Pidgin (Mühlhäusler 1975a), but without the /b/ being prenasalised: *tabaran*. But as it is the only item containing a voiced stop, it does not seem justified to draw any conclusion.

Some other English loanwords in Tok Pisin look very similar to *sindaun, pundaun* etc., for example:

sambai	<i>to stand by</i>
baimbai	(future marker)
Tunde	<i>Tuesday</i>
Trinde	<i>Wednesday</i>
Fonde	<i>Thursday</i>

but here the nasals preceding the voiced stops are of different origin. *Sambai to stand by* goes back to \**sanbai*, as the comparison with *sanap*

to *stand up* suggests, so that the /m/ in *sambai* has to be regarded as the result of assimilation. The same holds true for *baimbai*, which comes from English *by and by*. Since *baimbai* is already attested in Chinese Pidgin English (*my by'mby catchee he I will get it* - Schuchardt 1883:9/157), we may assume that *baimbai* belongs to the common stock of old Pacific pidgin words. In the weekday terms *Tunde*, *Trinde*, *Fonde* -nd- is probably not only the result of prenasalisation. *Tunde* has been formed on the analogy of *Sande Sunday*, *Mande Monday*, whereby at the same time *Tu-* has been identified with the number two, as *Tuesday* is the second day of the week. This then was the starting point for the formation of *Trinde* lit. *three-day* and *Fonde* lit. *four-day*. The analogy was certainly reinforced by the presence of prenasalisation in the substratum languages.

In the early Rabaul dialect of Tok Pisin the sequences of nasals plus homorganic voiced stops, for example /mb/, /nd/ and /ng/, varied with /b/, /d/ and /g/, since the Tolai speakers of the Kokopo dialects interpreted these sequences as north coast pronunciation. Even today some old people from Kokopo area realise *Mande* as *Made* or *Novemba* as *Noveba*.

In Tok Pisin the contrast between voiced and voiceless stops is neutralised in final position, for example *rap rub*, *hait hide*, *pik pig*. Since in Tolai voiced stops never occur in word-final position, the neutralisation in Tok Pisin apparently reflects substratum influence. Perhaps it was reinforced by the speech habits of the Germans who also had difficulties in pronouncing voiced stops in word-final position, where in German the contrast between voiced and voiceless stops is neutralised as well. This has already been pointed out by Hall (1966:38). But Hall's remarks about prenasalisation in Melanesian languages are not applicable for Tolai. /p, t, k/ are never voiced between vowels and the prenasalised voiced stops do not only occur between vowels, as maintained by Hall (1966:37), but also in word initial position. At the beginning of an utterance, however, the prenasalisation may be weakened, so that it is hardly heard.

### 2.1.2. Fricatives

In comparison with the superstrat language English, the consonant system of Tok Pisin is mainly reduced in its series of fricatives. Probably some reductions had already taken place in ancient Bichelamar. But unless we obtain more reliable data about South Pacific Pidgins, we can only state that with regard to the fricatives, Tok Pisin and

modern Bichelamar are very much alike. But it cannot be decided whether this is due to the fact that their different substratum languages resemble each other phonologically.

### 2.1.2.1. Bilabial and labiodental fricatives

The English labiodental fricative /f/ is almost always reflected by /p/ and in many instances alternatively by the bilabial fricative /p̄/, which is sometimes spelt as f, e.g. paul *fowl*, bipo *before*, naip *knife*, foa/poa *four* (for details see Laycock 1970:xv; Dutton 1973:18f.; Mihalic 1971:5).

The reflection of English /f/ as /p/ in Tok Pisin possibly reflects substratum influence, since /f/ is absent in the Patpatar-Tolai languages and - at least in Tolai - regularly substituted by /p/ in loanwords, for example kopi *coffee*.

The Tok Pisin reflection of the English voiced labiodental /v/ is somewhat more complicated than that of its voiceless counterpart /f/. In word-initial position it is reflected by /b/ (spelt as v) or by /b̄/, e.g. viniga/biniga *vinegar*, vot/bot *vote*, whereas between vowels it is reflected by /b/ (spelt as v) or the semi-vowel /w/, e.g. leva/lewa *liver*, hevi *heavy*, seven *seven* (for details see again Dutton, Laycock, Mihalic op. cit.). The various reflections of English /v/ exhibits some parallels to those of /b/ in Tolai and Duke of York loanwords. /b̄/ is not consistently reflected in Tok Pisin, for example:

	Tolai	Molot	Mioko	Tok Pisin	English
1.	/baira/	/baira/	/baira/	waira	<i>foreigner</i>
	/kababar/		/kamabar/	kawawar	<i>ginger root</i>
	/dabai/	/dibai/	/dibai/	diwai	<i>tree</i>
2.	/kabibi/		/kabibi/	kavivi	<i>hawk</i>
	/kabibi/		/mila/	kawiwi	<i>the wild betelnut</i>
3.	/bun/		/bunu/	vun/vut	<i>the derris root</i>
	/butun/	/utun/	/butun/	utun	<i>a coastal tree</i>
	/tabur/	/tauru/	/taburu/	taur	<i>the Triton's trumpet (Charonia tritonis)</i>
4.	/birua/		/birua/	birua/virua	<i>piece of human flesh, victim, enemy</i>



1. The change of /b/ to /w/ in *waira*, *kawawar* and *diwai* may have resulted from the fact that in Tolai the friction of /b/ is lessened, if /b/ is followed by /a/, so that it becomes similar to /w/, though the lips are never rounded. Possibly speakers of New Ireland languages which have /w/ identified this alternant of /b/ with /w/.

2. The different reflections of Tolai /b/ in Tok Pisin *kavivi hawk* and *kawiwi wild betelnut*, which provides a phonological contrast absent in Tolai, cannot be explained.

3. That Tolai /b/ is retained in *vun*, but not in *utun* and *taur* suggests that *utun* and *taur* were borrowed from Molot.

4. The Case of *birua/virua* is parallel to that of *biniga/viniga* insofar as a fricative has been changed into the corresponding stop in some varieties of Tok Pisin. If this change is regarded as the result of the New Irelanders' misinterpretation of /b/ as /v/, it remains unexplained why /b/ has been retained in *vun*. The realisation of Tolai *virua* as *birua* in Tok Pisin is also heard with Tolais speaking Tok Pisin.

In other South Pacific pidgins the same problems in the reproduction of English labiodentals are present. In modern Bichelamar 'f and v are often sounded with both lips touching... In many words confusion arises between p and f, or v and f:

<i>banis</i>	or	<i>fanis</i>	<i>fence</i>
<i>pis</i>	or	<i>fis</i>	<i>fish</i>
<i>mivala</i>	or	<i>mifala</i>	<i>we</i> '

(Guy 1974b:5 and 7).

In Cape York Creole the pairs of /f/ and /p/, /b/ and /v/ are confused. 'So, you should not be surprised to hear of people going to the "airfort in a behicle to ply in a flane to bisit the pamily in Vrisbane" ' (Crowley and Rigsby 1979:166).

#### 2.1.2.2. Dental fricatives

In Tok Pisin the English dental fricatives /ð/ and /θ/ are mostly reflected as /d/ and /t/ respectively, for example:

	Tok Pisin	borrowed from	English meaning
/ð/	<i>diskain</i>	<i>this kind</i>	<i>such</i>
	<i>dispela</i>	<i>this fellow</i>	<i>this, that</i>
/θ/	<i>tenkim</i>	<i>thank</i>	<i>to thank s.o.</i>
	<i>nating</i>	<i>nothing</i>	<i>nothing, useless</i>

Exceptions are

1. *tasol only, just, alone* (borrowed from *that's all*), *brata brother* and *olgeta all, altogether*, which should rather have /d/ instead of /t/.

2. Some instances where the dental fricative is rendered by a dental flap, e.g. *arakain different* (borrowed from *other kind*), *param fathom*.

3. *maus mouth* and *tis tooth*.

### 2.1.2.3. Dental-alveolar fricatives

All English dental-alveolar fricatives, i.e. /z/, /s/, /ʒ/ and /ʃ/, are reflected by /s/ in Tok Pisin. As mentioned above, /s/ is the only dental-alveolar fricative in Patpatar-Tolai. Examples:

	Tok Pisin	borrowed from	English meaning
/z/	<i>resa</i>	<i>razor</i>	<i>a razor</i>
	<i>dasan</i>	<i>dozen</i>	<i>dozen</i>
/s/	<i>sik</i>	<i>sick</i>	<i>sick</i>
	<i>askim</i>	<i>ask</i>	<i>to ask</i>
/ʒ/	<i>tresari</i>	<i>treasury</i>	<i>treasury</i>
/ʃ/	<i>sip</i>	<i>ship</i>	<i>ship</i>
	<i>bus</i>	<i>bush</i>	<i>bush</i>

Since /s/ is absent in Tolai, it was first substituted by /t/ in the Tolais' Pidgin. For the time between the wars we have evidence that Tolais speaking Pidgin freely mixed /s/ and /t/, and that they realised even original /t/ as /s/ as a result of hypercorrection. Thus /s/ was first introduced as an allophone of /t/, before it became a separate phoneme:

...the Blanche Bay natives invariably mix up the 't' and 's'. 'Me makem sea finish, now he no got tucker', is a common expression of the New Britain houseboy. (Rabaul Times, November 6 1925)

And the same native [i.e. a Tolai - U.M.] who invariably mixes his 'ts' and 'eses' talks of 'Mitis belong Mata' for 'Missus belong Master', and 'sea' for 'tea' and 'titima' for 'steamer' with at times puzzling effects. (Rabaul Times, March 13 1931)

Some Patpatar-Tolai loanwords in Tok Pisin show /s/ and hence must have been borrowed from an s-dialect of Tolai or a Southern New Ireland language, for example:

Tok Pisin	s-dialect of Tolai, Southern New-Ireland	Tolai	meaning
balus	balus	balu	<i>pigeon</i>
mosong	mosong	mong	<i>fuzz</i>
susu	susu	u	<i>breast, milk</i>
talis	talisa, talise	talía	<i>a tree</i> ( <i>Terminalia</i> <i>catappa</i> )

The reduction of the English dental-alveolar fricatives in Tok Pisin is the same as that in modern Bichelamar. Compare Bichelamar *resa razor, sip ship, bus bush*. Probably very common words like *sip* and *bus* already existed in this form, before Tok Pisin developed from the Samoan variety of ancient Bichelamar.

#### 2.1.2.4. Palatal and velar fricatives

The palatal fricative /ç/ of German loanwords is reflected as /s/ or /k/ in Tok Pisin. As the following examples show, the different reflections of /ç/ as /s/ or /k/ do not seem to be phonologically conditioned:

Tok Pisin	borrowed from	English meaning
tais	<i>Teich</i>	<i>pool</i>
milis	<i>Milch</i>	<i>milk</i>
baisten/baikten	<i>beichten</i>	<i>to confess</i>
tepik	<i>Teppich</i>	<i>carpet, rug</i>
reken	<i>Rechen</i>	<i>rake</i>
kelek	<i>Kelch</i>	<i>chalice</i>

German /x/ is reflected as /k/, e.g. *kuken cake*, borrowed from *Kuchen* (the items *baisten/baikten, reken, kelek* and *kuken* have been taken from Mühlhäusler 1979:183, 184, 189).

#### 2.1.2.5. /h/

/h/ occurs word initially in English and German loanwords, for example:

Tok Pisin	borrowed from	meaning
hambak	<i>humbug</i>	<i>to be boastful</i>
haus	<i>house</i>	<i>house</i>
haiden	<i>Heiden</i> (German)	<i>heathen</i>
hobel	<i>Hobel</i> (German)	<i>a carpenter's plane</i>

There are not any Patpatar-Tolai loanwords with /h/, though several Southern New Ireland languages show /h/ (e.g. Laur, Label, Pala), where Tolai and the Duke of York languages usually have /b/ (cf. p. 8). Today the realisation of /h/ is no problem to Tolais, but formerly /h/ was usually omitted in the Tolais' variety of Tok Pisin:

The varied pronunciation of many of the English words is due to the restricted use of letters of the different tribes speaking 'pidgin'. Thus, with a Blanche Bay native, to whom the letter 'h' is unknown in his own dialect, 'hammer' becomes 'ammer' and 'horse' 'orse'. (Rabaul Times, March 13 1931).

Other Melanesians omit /h/, too (Hall 1943:14), whereas some insert it at the beginning of words, where it is not found in English (Mihalic 1971:5). Probably this is due to hypercorrection with speakers whose native languages do not have /h/.

### 2.1.3. Affricatives

The affricates /ts/, /dʒ/ and /tʃ/ are reflected as /s/:

	Tok Pisin	borrowed from	meaning
/ts/	akas	Akazie (Germ.)	acacia
	swinge	Zwinge (Germ.)	clamp
/dʒ/	ensin	engine	engine
	saket	jacket	jacket
/tʃ/	tisa	teacher	teacher
	senis	change	change

In word initial position /dʒ/ is mostly retained in present day Pidgin, e.g. *jas judge, Japan Japan, Japanese*. Older varieties of *Japan*, recorded by myself in Rabaul, are *Tiapan, Siapan* and *Iapan*.

In modern Bichelamar /dʒ/ and /tʃ/ are both reflected as /ts/, e.g. *tsats judge, entsin engine, titsa teacher, tsen chain*.

### 2.1.4. Nasals

The only peculiarity to be mentioned about nasals is that Patpatar-Tolai /ŋ/ in word initial position is reflected as /n/ in the Tok Pisin word *natnat mosquito* (Tolai *ngatingat*, Pala *ngatngat*), while it is retained in *ngong deaf-mute, an ignorant person*, which according to Mihalic (1971:141) originates from a New Ireland language. The reason for these different reflections may be that *natnat* was frequently used by natives as well as by Europeans. The latter, being unable to pronounce the velar nasal in this position, were imitated

by the non-Patpatar-Tolai speakers because of their greater prestige. Ngong, however, is rather rare in everyday speech, so that the probably deviating European pronunciation did not prevail (you do not often talk about deaf-mutes, and for ignorant persons the word longlong is favoured).

#### 2.1.5. /l/ and /r/

In Tok Pisin /l/ and /r/ are flaps (Dutton 1973:19). Though the phonological data of Samoan Plantation Pidgin and other varieties of ancient Bichelamar are very poor, the realisation of /l/ and /r/ probably already originates in ancient Bichelamar, because they are realised as flaps, or in the case of /r/ also as a trill, throughout Melanesia.

Tok Pisin /r/ does not only reflect English /r/, but also (standard ! ) English dental stops and fricatives, e.g. *larim to let*, *wara water*, *kirap get up*, *sarap shut up*, *paura gun powder*, *arakain different* (borrowed from *other kind*), *param fathom*. This must certainly be attributed to the non-standard variety spoken by Europeans in contact with Melanesians, as for instance sailors and Australian traders. Consequently the same phenomenon is found in modern Bichelamar, e.g. *nara another*, *sarem to shut*, *krap to get up*. There is no evidence for any substratum influence in this respect, as in Patpatar-Tolai /l/ and /r/ and the dental stops are clearly kept apart.

In some Tolai loanwords /l/ and /r/ are confused, for example:

Tok Pisin	Tolai	meaning
marila/malira	malira	<i>love-spell</i>
purpur/pūlpul	purpur	<i>grass-skirt</i> (Dutton 1973:104)
karapua	kalapua	<i>a short banana</i>
tambirua	tabilua	<i>crab's foot yaws</i>

Dutton (1973:19) mentions that there is no difference between /l/ and /r/ for many Tok Pisin speakers. This is a widespread phenomenon of Melanesian languages (Codrington 1885:215) and subsequently of Oceanic Pidgin varieties, and can be observed already in ancient Bichelamar, e.g. in New Caledonia, *lice he no good the rice was not good* (Schuchardt 1883:7).

## 2.1.6. Consonant clusters

Word-initial consonant clusters are often broken up by the insertion of a vowel. Thus *stap to be* alternates with *sitap*, *srang locker*, *cupboard* (borrowed from German *Schrank*) with *sarang*, and *skruim to join* (borrowed from *screw*) with *sukruim*. In some instances the variant with the broken up cluster has become the standard form, e.g. *pilai to play*.

In word final position consonant clusters are reduced by the omission of the last consonant, for example:

	Tok Pisin	English
/st/	wes	west
/mp/	lam	lamp
/nd/	han	hand
/nt/	pen	paint
/ŋk/	beng	bank
/lt/	sol	salt

Exceptions are original /ks/ in *bokis box*, *akis axe*, *sikis six*, /ns/ in *danis dance*, /lk/ in *melek (coconut) milk*, /lç/ in *milis (coconut) milk* (borrowed from German *Milch*) and *kelek chalice* (borrowed from German *kelch*), and /rp/ in *sarip/sarep scythe, sickle*, which because of the /r/ is rather borrowed from German *scharf* than from English *sharp*, as Mihalic (1971:170) suggests.

At syllable boundaries within the word consonant clusters are retained, e.g. *askim to ask*, *antap on top*, etc. An exception is *guruken cucumbers* (borrowed from German *Gurken*).

Tolai allows consonant clusters neither in word-initial nor in word-final position, and within the word only at morpheme boundaries, e.g. *var-mari to love each other*. Consonant clusters in English or Tok Pisin loanwords are even more consequently reduced than in (present-day) Tok Pisin, for example:

	Tolai	Tok Pisin	English
/pl/	pelet	plet	plate
/tr/	tarautete	trausis	trousers (Bl. 154)
/gl/	galat	glas	glass
/st/	tito	stua	store
	bulititon	bluston	bluestone
/str/	torong	strong	strong
/sk/	patiket	bisnet	biscuit (M 258)

These Tok Pisin forms, however, have certainly developed from earlier forms which showed a syllable structure similar to that of Tolai. *The Sydney Morning Herald* from August 13 1949, quotes an article from the *Rabaul News* in which the following words are found:

palanti	=	planti	<i>plenty</i>
sitaret	=	stret	<i>straight</i>
туру	=	tru	<i>true</i>
karanki	=	kranki	<i>wrong, incorrect</i> (borrowed from German <i>krank</i> )

However, the fact that both in Tok Pisin and Tolai consonant clusters are reduced is not sufficient to prove direct substratum influence from Tolai, since this again is a common Melanesian feature. Some Pidgin words, e.g. bokis *box*, pelet *plate* probably belong to the common stock of South Pacific words and had already got a stabilised form, before Tok Pisin developed. Schuchardt (1883:12) mentions the same phenomenon in the ancient Bichelamar variety of New Caledonia:

Über das Phonetische lasse ich mich nicht weiter aus:

esterrong	=	<i>strong</i>
esseppoon	=	<i>spoon</i>
assausepen	=	<i>spoon</i>
pellate	=	<i>plate</i>
coverra	=	<i>cover</i>
millit	=	<i>milk</i>
bock-kiss	=	<i>box</i>

usw. erklären sich leicht aus melanesischer oder polynesischer Lautirung.

## 2.2. Vowels

Since I have not got any knowledge of the English variety spoken in the South Pacific towards the end of the last century, I do not feel competent to investigate the development of the Tok Pisin vowel system (this ignorance - I suppose - did not play such an important role in the investigation of the consonant system, because the consonants do not vary so much in the different varieties of English). Therefore the only thing to be done is to outline the main principles. Laycock (1970:xiiiif) recognised ten vowel distinctions in coastal varieties of Tok Pisin:

/i/		/u/
/ɪ/		/ʊ/
/e/		/o/
/ɛ/		/ɔ/
/a/	/a:/	

Examples:

/a/	hat	hot	/a:/	hat	hard
/e/	wet	wait	/ɛ/	bet	bench
/i/	nil	nail	/ɪ/	pis	fish
/o/	kol	cold	/ɒ/	dok	dog
/u/	susu	breast	/ʊ/	pul	paddle

Vowel length is only distinctive in the case of /a/ and /a:/. Mihalic (1971:4) distinguishes only nine different vowels. In opposition to Laycock his system has only one /a/.

Tolai has a six vowel system. In contrast to NGP vowel length is distinctive.

/i/, /i:/	/u/, /u:/
/e/, /e:/	/ɛ/, /ɛ:/
/o/, /o:/	/ɒ/, /ɒ:/
/a/, /a:/	

The existence of /e, e:/ is overlooked in all dictionaries and grammars except Lanyon-Orgill's *Dictionary of the Raluana Language* (1960:62), though his description is rather superficial and the distinction between /a, a:/ and /e, e:/ is not maintained throughout the dictionary. The treatment of Tolai phonology in Franklin et al. (1974:11ff.) is hardly based on careful fieldwork. They neither recognise vowel length as distinctive nor the existence of the mid-central vowel. My own analysis is based on the Rakunai dialect belonging to the north coast dialects and the Raluana dialect belonging to the Kokopo dialects.

Examples:

/a/	ta	in, on, about	/a:/	ta	sea
/e/	vue	to throw away	/e:/	vue	to throw it away
/i/	pil	to peel	/i:/	pil	to jump
/o/	pot	boat	/o:/	pot	to come
/u/	ubu	to kill, beat	/u:/	ubu	cooking hole
/ɛ/	barbar	to show off	/ɛ:/	ebar	enemy

That /a, a:/ and /e, e:/ are phonologically distinctive is proved by the following pairs:

/a/	kan	perhaps	/ɛ/	kan	away from
/a:/	bar, bari	perhaps	/ɛ:/	ebar	enemy



*Pil to peel* is not an English loanword, but a variant of *pila* (Meyer 1961:314).

*Pot boat* is a very old loanword and already mentioned in Bley (1912:147, 157). The initial consonant cannot be explained, as in other loanwords initial /b/ is retained, e.g. *bok box*. The vowel is short as in other loanwords borrowed from Tok Pisin, e.g. *bin bean*, *bek bag*, *tut shoot*, *vil wheel*.

If other languages of Patpatar-Tolai have a six- or five-vowel system is unclear, Peekel (1909:1) mentioned that in Pala a often sounds like the German ä, but this sound may also be an allophone of /a/. Vowel length is at least in Pala and Label distinctive. Label (Peekel 1929-30:104, 108, 110):

/a/	pas	taro	/a:/	pas	to step on, kick
	tasik	my brother		tasi	sea
/u/	ur	you (sg.) + affix denoting future tense	/u:/	ur	two

Pala (Peekel 1909:5):

/a/	tam	for you (sg.)	/a:/	tam	to pile up
/i/	hir	to weave	/i:/	hir	a kind of ficus
/u/	kut	to cut	/u:/	kut	to hang

Since in Tolai (and probably other Patpatar-Tolai languages) vowel length as a distinctive feature is not combined with different degrees of openness, it is impossible to explain the development of the Tok Pisin vowel system as a result of substratum influence from Patpatar-Tolai languages. It seems more likely that the Tok Pisin ten-vowel developed from a five-vowel system, which itself had resulted from impoverishment of the phonological features of the source languages.

### 2.2.1. Diphthongs

Tok Pisin and modern Bichelamar resemble each other in the reflection of English diphthongs. The three English diphthongs /ai/, /au/ and /oi/ are retained. Those phonemic sequences, which are represented in some English varieties as vowel plus /ə/ and in others as vowel plus /r/, are reflected as vowel plus /a/. Exceptions are /ɔ:a/ in English *more*, which has become *mo* in Bichelamar, whereas it is *moa* in Tok Pisin, and /ɛð/ in English *where*, which is monophthongised to /e/ in Tok Pisin, but alternatively /e/ or /ea/ in modern Bichelamar. The standard English diphthongs /ei/ and /ou/ are reflected by /e/ or /i/ and /o/ or /u/ respectively, standard English

/ɔ:/ corresponds to /ua/ and /oa/ in Tok Pisin and to /o/ in modern Bichelamar.

	English	Tok Pisin	modern Bichelamar
/ai/	<i>time</i>	taim	taem
/au/	<i>mouth</i>	maus	maot
/oi/	<i>boy</i>	boi	boe
/iə/	<i>spear</i>	spia	spia
/ɛ:ə/	<i>square</i>	skwea	skwea
/ei/	<i>wait</i>	wet	wet
	<i>nail</i>	nil	nil
/ou/	<i>cold</i>	kol	kol
	<i>nose</i>	nus	nus

There are no monophonemic diphthongs in Tolai, but only biphonemic sequences of different vowels. The biphonemic status of such sequences is proved by reduplications, e.g. *pait to do*, *papait doing*, *raut to root out*, *raraut to root out (intr)*, *boina good*, *boboina very good*. The sequences /e/ + /i/ and /o/ + /u/ do not occur within words. But as monophthongisation of English /ei/ and /ou/ is found in Samoan Plantation Pidgin (e.g. *snek snake*, *go to go*), in modern Bichelamar and Cape York Creole (Crowley and Rigsby 1979:175), it seems to be a common feature of South Pacific Pidgins, which may only have been reinforced by Tolai speakers.

### 2.3. Conclusion

1. The greatest difficulty in investigating substratum influence on Tok Pisin phonology lies in the fact, that we do not know which phonological reductions already had taken place in the Samoan variety of ancient Bichelamar, when Tok Pisin developed from Samoan Plantation Pidgin under the massive influence of Patpatar-Tolai speakers. The data of ancient Bichelamar are very poor and on the whole useless as far as phonology is concerned, because they are mostly written in English orthography.
2. The main features of Tok Pisin phonology, as the reduction of the English phoneme inventory, the insertion of epenthetic vowels into phoneme clusters and monophthongisation of /ei/ and /ou/, had already developed in its predecessor ancient Bichelamar. When this pidgin

became the means of communication on Samoan plantations among the labourers from the Gazelle Peninsula and adjacent areas and when it then was used on the plantations on the Gazelle Peninsula itself, its phonemic system was obviously stabilised on the basis of Patpatar-Tolai languages. Items like *sindaun* suggest that then prenasalisation was introduced, but, as present day Tok Pisin shows, it did not become a regular feature of voiced stops. The syllable structure of early Tok Pisin was similar to that of Patpatar-Tolai, but today many formerly reduced clusters have been restructured according to English phonology, e.g. *sitaret* → *stret*.

3. Tok Pisin phonology is not identical with Tolai phonology. Otherwise one would expect that Tolai loanwords have been retained in their original form and that English loanwords have been regularly adapted to Tolai phonology. But the Tolais' influence on the development of Tok Pisin was not as strong as to impose their phonology on Tok Pisin.

4. Furthermore, the Tok Pisin phoneme system is not so much reduced as to contain only those phonemes which are common to all substratum languages involved in its development; for the development of Tok Pisin has been and still is a constant process determined by mutual learning of its speakers from each other. Thus, for instance, the phoneme /s/, which is absent in Tolai, has been introduced as a separate phoneme in the Tolais' pidgin. Secondly, Tok Pisin exhibits the distinction between lax and tense vowels, which is absent in Patpatar-Tolai languages, whereas vowel length, which is distinctive in Patpatar-Tolai languages, is not distinctive in Tok Pisin.

### 3. LEXICON

According to Mihalic (1971:56) about fifteen percent of the Tok Pisin lexicon are loans from Tolai and related languages from New Ireland. The following list includes all items that according to Mihalic are found simultaneously in Tolai and some of the New Ireland languages, and additionally some items collected by Mühlhäusler. Due to the lack of sufficient data from all languages which were probably involved in the development of the Tok Pisin lexicon, we can only show the possible source language(s) and exclude others, but we cannot definitely state that any Tok Pisin word is exclusively borrowed from a specific Patpatar-Tolai language.

Several items listed by Mihalic as Tolai (Kuanua) words are not of Tolai origin. The well-known word *balus pigeon, aeroplane*, for

instance, has certainly not been introduced from Tolai, but from a southern New Ireland language. For, apart from some marginal dialects (Vunamarita, Vuatom), Tolai as well as the Duke of York languages lack the phoneme /s/. The Tolai word for pigeon is *balu*. Other words which cannot be originally Tolai because of their /s/ are *susu breast* (Tolai *u*) and *mosong* (Tolai *mong*). But on the other hand there are words that do not show /s/, where the /s/-dialects of Tolai and the /s/-languages of New Ireland have one, e.g. *kavivi hawk* (*kavisivisi*), *muli citrus fruit* (*mulis*) and *waira stranger* (*vasira*).

In most words of possible Tolai origin voiced stops are prenasalised. Hence the dialects of the north coast seem to have been of greater influence than the Blanche Bay (or Kokopo) dialects. An additional factor which may have been responsible for the predominance of prenasalised voiced stops in Tolai loanwords is that the recruited labourers who worked in the Gazelle Peninsula, were mostly speakers of New Ireland languages, in which to a great extent voiced stops are prenasalised as well (e.g. Label, King, North-Eastern Laur and Lamassa, but not Patpatar). Furthermore, the language of Mioko (Duke of York), where the transit camp was, also exhibits prenasalised voiced stops. Tok Pisin words with prenasalised stops are: *bembe butterfly*, *kambang lime*, *kindam crayfish*, *shrimp*, *kundar acolyte*, *to be an acolyte*, *kundu hand-drum*, *limlimbur to walk*, *a walk*, *malambur scad*, *a fish*, *pangal [ŋg] the sago palm leaf stalk*, *puinga [ŋg] to fart*, *a fart*, *tambaran the spirits of the ancestors*, *tambirua crab's foot yaws*, *tambu a taboo*, *to be taboo*, *tumbuan a wooden mask*, *a masked figure in a dance*, *umben net for fishing*. Only two words do not show prenasalised stops: *aibika a plant with edible leaves* and *taragau an eagle*. The *a-* of *aibika* is the Tolai determinative particle *a*. Other words that are introduced into Tok Pisin including this determinative particle are *ainanga white bait*, *small fish*, *aupa native spinach*, *atun a saltwater fish*, *the tuna or bonito*.

Apart from the above mentioned items *balus*, *mosong* and *susu*, the following ones are evidently not of Tolai origin: *abus a side dish*, *bombom flare*, *torch made of dry fronds*, *diwai tree*, *wood*, *liklik little*, *longlong to be stupid*, *drunk*, *crazy*, *malolo to rest*, *a rest*, *melisa the barracuda*, *mumut a large bush rat*, *talis a tree* (*Terminalia catappa*).

The origin of the following items is unclear: *abus a side-dish*, *aila a tree with edible fruit*, *arovar to steer around*, *karapa maize*, *melisa the barracuda*, *pui naked*.

If not indicated otherwise, the following references are used: Meyer (1961), Neuhaus (1966), Peekel (1909), Peekel (1929-30), Stephan and Graebner (1907), Brown and Danks (1882). The items from Mioko were collected by myself and all Tolai items were checked during fieldwork in 1978.

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
abus	Tolai: kirip	<i>a side dish [of meat, etc.], s.th. much liked</i>
aibika	Tolai: ibika Mioko: tuba	<i>a plant with edible leaves</i>
aila	?	<i>a tree with edible fruit</i>
ainanga	Tolai: inanga Mioko: inanga	<i>whitebait, small fish</i>
arovar	?	
atap	Tolai: etep Mioko: atip Pala: itah	<i>kunai grass thatch to thatch a house with grass</i>
atun	Tolai: tun Mioko: tun	<i>a saltwater fish, the tuna or bonito</i>
aupa	Tolai: upa Mioko: upa Pala: supo	<i>native spinach</i>
baira	Tolai: bair Mioko: lot Pala: uase	<i>a hoe a sharp stick for digging</i>
balus	Tolai: balu Mioko: kuvur Molot: kuuru Label: balus Laur: balus Lamassa: balus King: balus Pala: balus	<i>pigeon, aeroplane pigeon</i>

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English	
bembe	Tolai: bebe	<i>butterfly</i>	
	Mioko: toto		
	Molot: toto		
	Label: habe		
	Kalil: tot(o)		
	Laur: bebe		
	King: tanudu		
	Lamassa: bem		
	Pala: tota		
	tota bebe	<i>a big moth</i>	
bingim	Tolai: bing	<i>to squeeze, press</i>	
	Mioko: bing		
	Molot: bing		
birua	Tolai: virua	<i>piece of human flesh, enemy, accident</i>	
	Mioko: virua		
	Pala: hiruo		
bombom, bumbum	Tolai: ul	<i>flare, torch made of dry fronds</i>	
	Mioko: ulu		
	Label: bombom		
	Pala: bunulu		
buai	Tolai: buai	<i>betelnut</i>	
	Mioko: bue		
	Molot: bua		
	Label: buai		
	Kalil: buoi, bue		
	Laur: bu		
	King: pamos		
	Lamassa: buai		
	Pala: buei		
bukbuk		<i>a timber tree, species of dysoxylum</i>	
	Tolai: bukubuk		<i>tree, Illipe hollrungii</i>
	Pala: bukbuk		<i>Illipe hollrungii (Neuhaus 1962:443)</i>
bulit	Tolai: bulit	<i>the sticky sap of certain trees</i>	
	Mioko: bulit		
	Molot: bulit		

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
bung	Tolai: bung	<i>assembly, market, to meet day, market day, to hold market</i>
	Mioko: bung	<i>day</i>
	Molot: bung	<i>day</i>
	Pala: bung	<i>night, also: day (Neuhaus 1962:443)</i>
daka	Tolai: daka (N.C.) ier (Kokopo)	<i>the betelpepper vine</i>
	Mioko: daka	
	Molot: daka	
	Pala: sier	
diwai	Tolai: dawai	<i>wood, log, tree</i>
	Mioko: divai	
	Molot: divai	
	Label: rakai	
	Kalil: moma	
	Laur: kubau	
	King: duai	
	Lamassa: (b)iai	
	Pala: daha	
erima	Tolai: irima	<i>a tree, Octumeles sumatrana</i>
	Label: irimu	
	Pala: irime	
	Lamekot: ima	
galip	Tolai: galip	<i>a nut (Canarium polyphyllum)</i>
	Mioko: tamap	
	Molot: tamap	
garamut	Tolai: garamut	<i>native wooden signal</i>
	Mioko: garamut	
	Molot: garamut	
	Label: hik	
	Laur: hik	
	King: garamut	
Pala: garamut		
gorgor	Tolai: goragora	<i>a tall type of ginger</i>
	Mioko: tagu	
	Pala: goragora	
guma	Tolai: guman	<i>hermit crab</i>
	Pala: gumo	

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
guria	Tolai: guria	<i>earthquake</i>
	Mioko: guria	
	Molot: guria	
	Label: mamais	
	Kalil: kunakuner	
	Laur: kunkun	
	King: nguri	
kakaruk	Lamassa: kukule	
	Tolai kakaruk	<i>hen, chicken</i>
	Mioko: kereke	
	Molot: kareke	
	Label: kok	<i>hen, rooster</i>
	Laur: keke	
	Lamassa: mokson	
kalang	Pala: kareka	(Peekel 1909)
	kariaka	
kalang		<i>an earring, the long tail feather of a bird, the goldlip shell</i>
	Tolai: kalang	<i>shell, adornment made of mother-of-pearl</i>
	Molot: kalang na gado gado	<i>pearl of pearl-shell general name of shells</i>
	Pala: kalang	<i>earring made of mother-of-pearl</i>
kalangar	Tolai: kalangar	<i>parrot</i>
	Mioko: kalangar	
	Molot: kalangara	
	Label: kalangar	
	Pala: kalangar	
kambang	Tolai: kabang	<i>lime</i>
	Mioko: kabang	
	Molot: kabang	
	Label: kabang	
	Pala: kabus	
kanai	Tolai: kanai	<i>seagull</i>
	Mioko: kanai	
	Laur: kanai	
	King: kanal	
	Label: kanai	
	Lamassa: kanai	
	Pala: kanaia	



Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
kapiaka	Tolai: kapiaka	<i>breadfruit tree</i>  (Peekel 1929-30:93)
	Mioko: bare	
	Molot: bere	
	Label: bero	
	Pala: baran baren	
kapul	Tolai: kapul	<i>possum, tree wallaby</i>
	Mioko: kapul	
	Molot: kapul	
	others: kapul	
karapa	Tolai: ?	<i>a kind of wild maize</i> <i>maize</i> <i>koni, koan, padi</i> (loanwords)
	Tolai: tiia	
karapua	Tolai: kalapua	<i>a short banana</i>
	Mioko: tapal	
karava, karua	Tolai: karua	<i>a fish: sea mullet</i>
	Mioko: karua	
karavia		<i>a quarantine</i> <i>name of a village near</i> <i>which a quarantine was</i> <i>(Barrett 1953:43)</i>
	Tolai: Karavia	
katu	Tolai: katu	<i>a hermit crab</i>
	Molot: katu	
kaur	Tolai: kaur	<i>bamboo</i>
	Mioko: kaur	
	Molot: kauru	
	Label: kaur	
	Pala: kor	
kavivi	Tolai: kavivi	<i>hawk</i>
	Tolai: kavisivisi (Vm)	
	Mioko: kavivi	
kawawar	Tolai: kavavar	<i>ginger-root</i>
	Mioko: kamavar	
	Pala: kamahar	
kawiwi	Tolai: kavivi	<i>the wild betelnut</i>
	Mioko: mila	

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
kiau	Tolai: kiau	<i>egg</i>
	Mioko: kiau	
	Molot: kiau	
	Label: kotoi	
	King: keau	
	Lamassa: keau, kiau	(Friederici 1913:86)
		kiau
	Pala: talur	<i>egg</i>
		kiau
kibung/kivung	Tolai: kivung	<i>meeting, to hold a</i>
	Mioko: kivung	<i>meeting</i>
kilamo	Tolai: kilamu	<i>a cork, originally of</i>
	Mioko: kinong	<i>rolled-up leaves</i>
kina	Tolai: kina	<i>a clam, an oyster</i>
	Tolai: kinasi (Vm)	
	Mioko: pin	
kindam	Tolai: kidam	<i>crayfish, shrimp</i>
	Mioko: urungut	
	Molot: kidama	
	Pala: kidama	
kokomo	Tolai: kokomo	<i>hornbill</i>
	Mioko: kokomo	
	Pala: bangebeng	
kol		<i>herring</i>
	Tolai: kol	<i>a fish (Genyroe)</i>
	Mioko: ?	
kotkot	Tolai: kotkot	<i>raven</i>
	Mioko: kotkot	
	Molot: kotkot	
	Label: kaiko	
	Pala: kok	
krokkrok	see rokrok	
kuka	Tolai: kuka	<i>crab</i>
	Mioko: kuka	
	Molot: kuka	

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
	Label: kuka	
	King: kuku	
	Lamassa: kuk	
	Pala: kuko	
kukurai	Tolai: kukurai	<i>the chief of a tribe</i>
	Tolai: kukurai	<i>to judge, the judge</i>
	Pala: kukurai	<i>chief</i>
kulau	Tolai: kulau	<i>green coconut suitable</i>
	Mioko: kulau	<i>for drinking</i>
	Molot: kulau	
	Label: kulau	
kumu	Tolai: kumu	<i>taro leaves</i>
	Mioko: tube na pa	
	Pala: bie	<i>('Tarogemüse')</i>
	Tolai: kumusu (Vm)	
kumul	Tolai: kumul	<i>bird of paradise</i>
	Mioko: kumul	
kumurere	Tolai: kumurere	<i>the eucalyptus tree</i>
kunai	Tolai: kunai	<i>alang-alang grass</i>
	Mioko: kure	
	Molot: kura	
kundu	Tolai: kudu	<i>hand-drum</i>
	Mioko: kudu	
	Molot: kudu	
	Label: kautliku	
	Laur, King: kudu	
	Lamassa: kudu	
kurita	Tolai: urita	<i>octopus</i>
	Mioko: urita	
	Molot: urita	
	Label: urita	
	King: vurido	
	Lamassa: vurit	
laka	Tolai: laka	<i>is that not so?</i>

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
lala	Tolai: lala	<i>tailorfish</i>
	Mioko: lala	
lalai	Tolai: lalai	<i>trochus shell</i>
	Mioko: lalai	
	Pala: lala	<i>name of a shell from which armllets are made</i>
	Molot: lalai	
lang	Tolai: langa	<i>fly</i>
	Mioko: lang	
	Molot: lang	
	Label: lang	
	Laur: lang	
	King: lang	
	Lamassa: lang	
	Pala: langa	
laup	Tolai: laup	<i>the N.G. walnut tree, a timber tree</i>
	Mioko: laup	
liklik	Tolai: ikilik, ik	<i>little</i>
	Mioko: liklik	
	Molot: lik, liklik	
	Label: lik	
	Laur: hansik	
	Pala: hansik	
limlimbur	Tolai: limlibur	<i>to take a walk</i>
	Mioko: kabur	
	Molot: kaburu	
	Label: lagar	
	Pala: papaus, mamagu	
longlong	Tolai: bong, bongbong	<i>stupid, drunk, crazy</i>
	lunga, pepel	
	Mioko: longlong	
	Molot: longlong	
	Label: longlong	
luluai	Pala: longlong	<i>village tribal chief</i>
	Tolai: luluai	
makau	Tolai: makau	<i>the tilapia, a fish</i>
	Mioko: tadaru	

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
mal		<i>a bark loin covering or a breech-clout</i>
	Tolai: mal	<i>loin-cloth</i>
	Mioko: malu	
	Molot: malu	
	Label: mal	
	Pala: mal	
malambur	Tolai: malabur	<i>scad, a fish</i>
	Mioko: malabur	
malari		<i>poor fellow, shame to be poor, miserable</i>
	Tolai: malari	
maleo	Tolai: maleo	<i>eel</i>
	Mioko: maleo	
	Label: milo	
	Pala: maleua, malaua	
malira, marila	Tolai: malira	<i>love-spell</i>
	Mioko: malira	
	Molot: malira	
	Pala: pinir	(Peekel 1909:127)
malip	Tolai: malip	<i>small parrot</i>
	Mioko: malip	
malolo	Tolai: ngo	<i>to rest</i>
	Mioko: mana	
	Molot: mana	
	Pala: malolo	
malumalu, malmalum		<i>soft, tender, spongy, swampy</i>
	Tolai: malu, malmalu	<i>to be tired, exhausted</i>
	malmal, melmel	<i>soft</i>
	Mioko: melmel	<i>soft, feeble</i>
	Molot: malumalum	<i>weak, faint</i>
	Laur: malmalungana	<i>weak</i>
	Label: mala	
	Lamassa: mamalesa	
mami	Tolai: mami	<i>(very sweet) yams</i>
	Mioko: mami	

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
manangunai	Tolai: manigulai	<i>sea eagle</i>
	minigulai	
marimari, marmari	Mioko: manigulai	<i>pity, to pity</i>
	Tolai: marmari, mari	<i>to love, pity</i>
	Mioko: marmari	
	Molot: marimari, mari	
	Label: marmaris	
	Pala: marmaris	
marita	Tolai: marita	<i>pandanus</i>
	Mioko: marita	
	Pala: marite	
marmar	Tolai: marmar	<i>raintree, any of the Jacaranda type of trees</i>
	Mioko: marmar	
mata kiau		<i>blind</i>
	Tolai: mata	<i>1. eye 2. hole, opening</i>
	kiau	<i>egg</i>
	pula	<i>blind</i>
	Mioko: pula	
	Molot: pula	
	Label: kut	
	Laur: rava	
	King: pada	
Lamassa: takmatuk, kut		
matmat		<i>cemetery</i>
	Tolai: mat	<i>to die</i>
	pia na minat	<i>cemetery, (ground for death)</i>
Mioko: tama na matmat	<i>cemetery (see p. 2)</i>	
mau, maupela		<i>ripe, soft, rotten</i>
	Tolai: mao	<i>ripe, cooked</i>
	Molot: mo	
	Label: makos	<i>ripe (Stephan and Graebner)</i>
	miner	<i>ripe (Peekel 1929-30)</i>
	Laur: matuk	<i>ripe</i>
King: setaka	<i>ripe</i>	

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
	Lamassa: makos	<i>ripe</i>
	Pala: matuko	<i>ripe</i>
	masos	<i>cooked</i>
me, meme	Tolai: me	<i>goat (new sound imitating word)</i>
	Mioko: me	
	Pala: me	
melisa	?	<i>the barracuda</i>
mon	Tolai: mon	<i>high-prowed canoe without outrigger</i>
	Mioko: mon	
	Label: mon	
	King: mon	
	Lamassa: mon	
	Pala: mon	
mosong	Tolai: mong	<i>fuzz, the nap of cloth</i>
	Tolai: mosong (Vm)	
	Mioko: mong	
muli	Tolai: muli	<i>citrus fruit</i>
	Tolai: mulis (Vm)	
	Pala: mulis	
mumut	Tolai: mang	<i>a large bushrat</i>
	Mioko: momot	
muruk	Tolai: murup	<i>cassowary</i>
	Mioko: murup	
	Molot: murup	
natnat	Tolai: ngatingat	<i>mosquito</i>
	Mioko: namu	
	Label: mumus	
	Pala: ngatngat	
nok	Tolai: noko	<i>midrib of sago or coconut fronds</i>
	Mioko: noko	
	Label: noko	
	Pala: noko	
palai	Tolai: palai	<i>lizard, gecko</i>
	Mioko: kalamlam	

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
palpal, balbal	Tolai: balbal Mioko: balbal Label: balbal Pala: balbal	<i>coral tree (Erythrina indica)</i>
pangal (pang-gal)	Tolai: pagal Mioko: pagal Molot: pagal Pala: pagal	<i>the sago palm leaf stalk</i>
papait	Tolai: papait Mioko: papet	<i>sorcery</i>
par, var	Tolai: var Label: war King: var Lamassa: var Pala: har	<i>the stingray, roach</i>
pekpek	Tolai: peke, pekapeke Mioko: peke Molot: peke Label: pekpeke King: peke Lamassa: pek Pala: peka	<i>to excrete</i>
pipia	Tolai: pipia pia puputa Mioko: kurkur Molot: kurukuru	<i>dirt, rubbish sandy soil, dusty soil earth, soil rubbish</i>
pitpit	Tolai: pit	<i>type of wild sugar cane</i>
pui	Tolai: bia (pui)	<i>naked bush</i>
puinga	Tolai: puiga Tolai: pusinga (Vm) Mioko: pi	<i>to fart</i>



Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
pukpuk	Tolai: pukpuk	<i>crocodile</i>
	Mioko: vue	
	Duke of York: pukpuk, babai	(Zöllner 484) (Zöllner 484)
purpur	Tolai: purpur	<i>ornamental shrubs</i>
	Mioko: purpur	<i>grass-skirt</i>
rabun	?	<i>ridge of a house</i>
raring		<i>to pray</i>
	Tolai: aring (tr) araring (intr)	<i>to ask for, beg</i>
	Label: nung	
	King: saringui	
	Lamassa: katari	
	Pala: saring (tr) sarsaring (intr)	
rokrok	Tolai: rokrok	<i>frog</i>
	Mioko: rokrok	
	Label: rokrok	
	Laur: rokrok	
	King: rokrok	
	Lamassa: rokrok	
ruru	Tolai: ru, ruru	<i>to honour</i>
susu	Tolai: u	<i>milk, breast</i>
	Mioko: u	
	Label: susu	
	Laur: susu	
	King: sus	
	Lamassa: susu Pala: susu	
talai	Tolai: talai	<i>a sardine</i>
	Mioko: talai	
talis	Tolai: talia	<i>a tree (Terminalia catappa)</i>
	Tolai: talisa (Vm)	
	Pala: talise	

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
tambaran	Tolai: tabaran	<i>the spirits of the ancestors</i>
	Mioko: tebaran	
	Pala: tabaran	
tambirua	Tolai: tabilua	<i>crab's foot yaws</i>
	Mioko: papa	
tambu	Tolai: tabu	<i>forbidden, sacred</i>
	Mioko: tabu	
	Molot: tabu	
	Pala: tabu	
tanget	Tolai: tagete	<i>victory leaf (Cordyline terminalia)</i>
	Mioko: nair	
tangir		<i>a spanish mackerel and kingfish</i>
	Tolai: tangir	
	Mioko: tingir	
tapiok	Tolai: tapiok	<i>the maniok, cassava</i>
	Mioko: tapiok	
tarangu	Tolai: biavi	<i>miserable poor</i>
	Mioko: pudailik	
taragau	Tolai: taragau	<i>hawk, eagle</i>
	Mioko: taragau	
	Pala: taragau	
taur	Tolai: tavor	<i>the Triton's trumpet</i>
	Mioko: tavuru	
	Molot: tauru	
	Pala: tatur	
ton	Tolai: ton	<i>a tree with edible fruit (Pometia pinnata)</i>
	Mioko: tan	
	Molot: tan	
tultul		<i>the assistant village chief appointed by the government</i>
	Tolai: tultul	
	(tul	
Pala: tultul		

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
tumbuan	Tolai: tubuan	<i>a wooden mask, a masked figure in a dance</i>
	Mioko: tubuan	
tumbuna		<i>ancestors</i>
	Tolai: tubuna	<i>grandmother, grandfather grandchild</i>
	Mioko: tubuna	
	Pala: tubuna	
tuptup		<i>cover, lid, cork</i>
	Tolai: tuptup	<i>to be plugged up, ignorant</i>
	tubatuba	<i>cover</i>
umben	Tolai: ubene	<i>a net for fishing</i>
	Mioko: bene	
	Molot: bene	
	Label: bene	
	Laur: ben	
	King, Lamassa: bene	
	Pala: uben	
utun	Tolai: vutun	<i>a coastal tree (Barringtonia speciosa)</i>
	Mioko: vutun	
	Molot: utun	
virua		<i>death by violence, murder, homicide</i>
	Tolai: virua	<i>to be killed, victim</i>
	Mioko: virua	
	Pala: hiruo	
vut, vun	Tolai: vun	<i>the derris root</i>
	Mioko: vununu	
waira	Tolai: vaira	<i>foreigner, stranger</i>
	Tolai: vasira (Vm)	
	Mioko: vaira	
	Molot: valra	
wokurai		<i>to hold a conference to hold court</i>
	Tolai: varkurai	<i>to decide, judge</i>
	Mioko: varkurai	

Tok Pisin	Patpatar-Tolai	English
yet	Tolai: iat Molot: ut Pala: at, iat Label: ot	<i>self</i>

#### 4. WORD CLASSES

##### 4.1. Nouns

In contrast to English, Tok Pisin nouns do not have bound plural morphemes nor the so-called genitive 's', so that they are neutral in respect to number and case. Though this unmarkedness is found in Patpatar-Tolai as well, it cannot be regarded as the result of substratum influence, since the reduction of morphological complexity is a pidgin universal.

In some cases plurality can be expressed by reduplication (cf. p. 109), but mostly plurality is marked by additional unbound quantifiers preceding the noun, e.g. ol man (*the*) men. Therefore the expression of number will be dealt with in chapter 6.1.3 (cf. p. 115 ff.). A few nouns are 'cumulative' compounds (Mühlhäusler 1979:337f.), e.g. papamama *parents*, manmeri *people*. They express plurality, since their meaning is the sum of the meaning of their components (cf. p. 84). Sex and possession are expressed by adjuncts (cf. chap. 6.1.4, p. 118, and 6.1.2 p. 114).

Usually English loanwords are borrowed in the singular form. Exceptions are tit *tooth*, *teeth* (note that in modern Bichelamar it is tut), anis *ant(s)*, masis *match(es)*, bis *bead(s)* and hasis *hatch(es) of a ship*. 'These words refer to phenomena which are normally observed in quantities larger than one' (Mühlhäusler 1975c:23).

##### 4.2. Verbs

In Tok Pisin verbs are not marked by suffixes or stem alternations for different persons, numbers, tenses and aspects. This feature is shared by Patpatar-Tolai languages, but must be ascribed rather to impoverishment of morphological complexity than to substratum influence, because it is common to all pidgins.

##### 4.2.1. Transitivity and intransitivity in Tok Pisin

The only grammatical suffix found with Tok Pisin verbs is the so-called transitive marker -im, which is attached to transitive

verbs. Tok Pisin verbs can be classified into:

1. verbs which are only used intransitively and hence never take the transitive marker *-im*, for example:  
*go to go, kam to come, dai, indai to die, lap to laugh;*
2. verbs, which always have the transitive marker *-im*, for example:  
*askim to ask, bringim to bring, putim to put, salim to send;*
3. a few transitive verbs without the suffix *-im*, for example:  
*gat to have, pilai to play, save to know;*
4. verbs which have a transitive form with the suffix *-im* and an intransitive form without *-im*, for example:  

<i>bruk to break</i>	<i>brukim to break, tear</i>
<i>to be broken</i>	
<i>kuk to cook</i>	<i>kukim to cook something</i>
<i>wok to work, be busy</i>	<i>wokim to make s.th., build</i>

5. a limited class of verbs which have a transitive form with the suffix *-im* and a reduplicated intransitive form, for example:  

<i>wasim to wash s.th.</i>	<i>waswas to bathe, wash o.s.</i>
<i>lukim to see</i>	<i>lukluk to look</i>

For details see Dutton (1973:9f., 46f., 114f.), Laycock (1970:xxif.), Mihalic (1971:24ff.) and Wurm (1971b:26-31).

The transitive marker is already found in ancient Bichelamar, so that its origin cannot be ascribed to Patpatar-Tolai influence, for example:

<i>You make him some water he boil</i>	<i>Make some water hot</i>
<i>Me want him gun belong you, me like go bush shoot him pigeon</i>	<i>Give me your fowling piece, I will go in the bush and shoot pigeons (Schuchardt 1889:159).</i>

Perhaps *-im* originates in Chinese Pidgin English. Hall (1944:98) says about the CP (Chinese Pidgin) suffix *-əm*:

This suffix indicated transitive as opposed to intransitive (as in MP) in earlier CP, and even occasionally at present:

<i>koləm wən kuli</i>	<i>call one coolie</i>
<i>maj meki luzəm</i>	<i>I would lose them</i>

In ancient Bichelamar (Schuchardt 1883:155/7) and Samoan Plantation Pidgin the transitive marker *-im* was used with 'considerable variety' (Mühlhäusler 1975a:36), whereas today it has not only become regular in Tok Pisin, but also in modern Bichelamar and Cape York Creole

(Guy 1974b:15f.; Crowley and Rigsby 1979:188ff.). As I do not know the substratum languages of modern Bichelamar and Cape York Creole, the following investigation will only be concerned with the question whether the regular use of *-im* in Tok Pisin has been caused by substratum influence or if it is due to the fact that, in general, pidgins show a tendency toward regularity.

The contrast between reduplicated intransitive and simple transitive verbs is also found in Samoan Plantation Pidgin, but not in other descendants of ancient Bichelamar such as modern Bichelamar, Solomon Pidgin English and Cape York Creole. Mühlhäusler (1975a:36) quotes the two items *waswas to wash o.s.* and *lukluk to gaze* as examples for reduplicated intransitive verbs in Samoan Plantation Pidgin. Since in Patpatar-Tolai languages intransitive verbs are derived from simple transitive verbs by reduplication, substratum influence seems probable.

#### 4.2.2. Transitivity and Intransitivity in Patpatar-Tolai Languages

In Tolai transitive verbs are verbs which are obligatorily followed by an object, whereas intransitive verbs are never followed by an object, though the object may be understood from the context. In other words, the objects of transitive verbs cannot be omitted. If the object is not to be expressed, the intransitive counterpart of the transitive verb has to be used. The Tolai system of derivation of transitive verbs from intransitive verbs and intransitive verbs from transitive verbs is too complicated to be extensively described here, but the explanation of the main principles will suffice to show the relations between Tolai and Tok Pisin.

There are three classes of simple non-derived verbs:

1. Morphologically unmarked intransitive verbs, which can be made transitive by the suffixes (1) *-e*, (2) *-(a)ne* or (3) the causative prefix *va-*:

- (1) *-e/* is used with verbs of action indicating that the object following the verb refers to the goal of the action, for example:

<i>alir</i>	<i>to flow, float, swim</i>	<i>alire</i>	<i>to float, wash off s.th.</i>
<i>gumu</i>	<i>to dive, bathe</i>	<i>gumue</i>	<i>to dive for</i>
<i>momo</i>	<i>to drink</i>	<i>mome</i>	<i>to drink s.th.</i>
<i>tangi</i>	<i>to cry, weep</i>	<i>tangie</i>	<i>to mourn, deplore</i>

- (2) -(a)ne is used with intransitive stative verbs, especially those indicating some state of sickness or mood, to denote that the state expressed by the verbal base exists with regard to something or somebody, for example:

mait	to be sick	maitane	to be sick with
ngarau	to be afraid	ngarauane	to be afraid of
kankan	to be angry	kankanuane	to be angry with

- (3) The causative prefix *va-* is added to intransitive verbs of action and state (and besides that to resultative verbs, transitive verbs, adjectives, nouns and cardinal numbers), for example:

gumu	to dive	vagumu	to throw into the water
momo	to drink	vamomo	to give drink to
mait	to be sick	vamait	to make sick
kankan	to be angry	vakankan	to make angry

In some cases *va-* is combined with *-e*, for example:

alir	to flow, float	valire	to let swim
	<i>swim</i>		

The derived transitive verbs can be transformed into intransitive verbs again. Thus transitive verbs ending in *-e* can become intransitive by changing the suffix *-e* into *-ai*, e.g. *alirai* (intr.) *to float*, and the causative verbs by prefixing *var-*, e.g. *varvamomo* *to give to drink, water*. In some cases *var-* and *-ai* are combined, e.g. *varvalirai* (intr.) *to let swim*. A number of verbs do not have a simple form, but only transitives ending in *-e* and intransitives ending in *-ai*, for example:

mule (tr.), mulai (intr.)	to do again
vue (tr.), vuai (intr.)	to remove, throw away

2. Morphologically unmarked transitive verbs which can become intransitive by reduplication, for example:

kul (tr.)	to buy s.th.	kukul	to buy, trade
tumu	to write, paint s.th.	tutumu	to write, paint

(Note that there is another type of reduplication, namely the so-called full reduplication, which indicates imperfective aspect [cf. p. 84], e.g. *kukul* *to be buying, buy habitually s.th.* The imperfective

aspect of the intransitive form [e.g. kukul] is derived by further reduplication, e.g. kukukul [intr.] *to be buying, trading; to buy, trade habitually.*)

A few verbs do not undergo reduplication. Their intransitive counterparts are derived by the reciprocal prefix *var-*, for example:

<i>tovo</i>	<i>to teach s.o.</i>	<i>vartovo</i>	<i>to teach, learn</i>
<i>mari</i>	<i>to love (s.o.)</i>	<i>varmari</i>	<i>to love</i>

The prefix *var-* usually expresses reciprocity, e.g. *ubu* (tr.) *to hit s.o.*, *varubu* (intr.) *to hit each other, to fight.*

3. Verbs that are neutral in respect to transitivity and intransitivity, i.e. that can equally be used with and without objects, for example:

<i>ian</i>	<i>to eat (s.th.)</i>
<i>long</i>	<i>to steal</i>
<i>ki (ra ot)</i>	<i>to sit (on horseback)</i>
<i>vana (Rabaul)</i>	<i>to go (to Rabaul)</i>

The Duke of York and Southern New Ireland languages exhibit the same pattern as Tolai, insofar as simple intransitive verbs are made transitive by suffixes and simple transitive verbs are made intransitive by reduplication (Brown and Danks 1882:43ff.; Peekel 1909:99ff., Peekel 1929-30:25). As Tolai, all other Patpatar-Tolai languages have a causative and a reciprocal prefix.

#### 4.2.3. Tok Pisin and Tolai verbal classes compared

The main difference between Tolai and Tok Pisin is that, apart from a few exceptions (e.g. *gat*, *kaikai*, *save*), all Tok Pisin transitive verbs are marked by the transitive marker *-im* and that there is a large class of transitive verbs which do not have intransitive counterparts. In Tolai on the other hand, the two classes of non-derived intransitive and non-derived transitive verbs seem to be of equal size, and each transitive verb has an intransitive counterpart. Secondly, in Tolai many non-derived intransitive verbs have transitive counterparts, whereas their Tok Pisin equivalents cannot be transformed into transitives. If transitivity is to be expressed with these verbs, they are combined with the preposition *long* + noun, for example:

<i>krai long man i dai pinis</i>	<i>to mourn one deceased</i> (Mihalic 1971:115)
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The following comparison of Tok Pisin verb classes with Tolai verb classes shows that there are not many correspondences because Tok Pisin lacks a class of non-derived transitive verbs and does not have so many transitives derived from intransitives. Generally speaking, the divergencies result from Tok Pisin's greater simplicity.

1. Verbs which are used only intransitively in Tok Pisin in comparison with their Tolai correspondences:

Tok Pisin	Tolai	meaning
dai	mat	<i>to die</i>
kam	pot	<i>to come</i>
kibung	kivung	<i>to hold a meeting</i>
ran	vilau	<i>to run</i>
spik	tata	<i>to speak</i>

but:

go	vana (intr.)	<i>to go</i>
go long	vana (tr.)	<i>to go to</i>
sindaun	ki (intr.)	<i>to sit down</i>
sindaun	ki (tr.)	<i>to sit on</i>
(antap) long		
driman	ririvon (intr.)	<i>to dream</i>
driman long	ririvone (tr.)	<i>to dream of</i>
krai	tangi (intr.)	<i>to cry</i>
krai long	tangie (tr.)	<i>to mourn</i>
lap	nongon (intr.)	<i>to laugh</i>
lap long	nongone (tr.)	<i>to laugh at</i>
les	talanguan (intr.)	<i>to be tired</i>
les long	talanguane (tr.)	<i>to be tired of</i>

2. Tok Pisin verbs which always have the transitive marker -im in comparison with their Tolai correspondences:

Tok Pisin	Tolai	meaning
bekim	valilikun (tr.)	<i>to return</i>
	lilikon (intr.)	<i>to return</i>
harim	valongore (tr.)	<i>to hear</i>
	valongor (intr.)	<i>to hear</i>
pilim	kairane (tr.)	<i>to feel</i>
	kairanai (intr.)	<i>to feel</i>
salim	tulue	<i>to send</i>
	tuluai	<i>to send</i>

but:

askim	tir	to ask
baim	kul	to buy
bihainim	mur	to follow
bringim	kap tar	to bring
givim	tar, tabar	to give
kilim	doko	to kill
kisim	kap pa	to get
kolim	oro	to call
mekim	pait, mal	to make
putim	vung	to put

The construction of *givim to give* varies; in Highlands and Lowlands Pidgin its direct object refers to the thing given to someone, while in Islands Pidgin it refers to the person who is given something (Mühlhäusler 1979:332). The latter construction is the same as in Tolai:

mi givim buk long yu	<i>I gave you the book</i>
mi givim yu long buk	
iau tabar u ma ra buk	
<i>I give you with the book</i>	

3. According to Dutton (1973:46f.), the following transitive verbs are not marked by the transitive marker *-im*. Since *kaikai*, *dring*, *pekpek*, *pispis* and *pilai* are used intransitively as well, I would prefer to call them 'neutral' verbs in contrast to *save* and *gat* which are never used intransitively. The corresponding Tolai verbs show some divergencies:

Tok Pisin	Tolai	meaning
gat	-	to have
save	matote (tr., derived) matoto (intr.)	to know
kaikai (tr.,intr.)	ian (tr.,intr.)	to eat
dring (tr.,intr.)	mome (tr.,intr.) momo (intr.)	to drink
pekpek (tr.,intr.)	peka, pekapeke (intr.) peke (tr.)	to excrete
pispis (tr.,intr.)	mim (intr.)	to urinate
pilai (tr.,intr.)	- (pilai as loanword)	to play

There is no equivalent to *gat have* in Tolai. The notion of 'having something' is expressed by possessive pronouns:

Tok Pisin:        mi gat wampela haus        *I have a/one house*  
 Tolai:            kaugu tika na pal  
                     *my    one C house*

4. Verbs which have both a transitive form with -im and an intransitive form in Tok Pisin in comparison with the corresponding Tolai verbs.

The verbs listed by Mihalic (1971:27) can be classified into three semantic subclasses, which are not morphologically distinguished:

- I. Intransitive verbs of action and their transitive counterparts, whose objects refer to the goal of the action, for example:  
       kuk (intr.) *to cook*        kukim (tr.) *to cook s.th.*
- II. Intransitive verbs of action (mainly verbs of movement) and their transitive counterparts which are causatives denoting that the object referent is caused to do the action expressed by the verbal base, for example:  
       ran (intr.) *to run*        ranim (tr.) *to chase (lit. to make s.o. run)*
- III. Intransitive verbs of state and their transitive counterparts which are causatives denoting that the object referent is made to be in the state expressed by the verbal base, for example:  
       op (intr.) *to be opened*        opim (tr.) *to open s.th.*

In Tolai transitive verbs of action and causatives are morphologically distinguished. Transitive verbs of action are derived by suffixes, if it is not the intransitives that are derived by reduplication from their simple non-derived transitive counterparts and if they do not belong to the neutral verbs, whereas causatives are derived by the causative prefix *va-*. Compare:

	Tok Pisin		Tolai		meaning
	intr.	tr.	intr.	tr.	
I.	kaun	kaunim	luluk	luk	<i>to count</i>
	laik	laikim	mamaingai	mainge	<i>to like</i>
	rait	raitim	tutumu	tumu	<i>to write</i>
	stil	stilim	long	long	<i>to steal</i>
II.	hariap	hariapim	rurut	varut	<i>to hurry</i>
				(rut	<i>to do quickly)</i>
	raus	rausim	irop	vairop intr.:	<i>to get out</i>
				tr.:	<i>to remove, take out</i>
	surik	surikim	lilikon	valilikon	<i>to move back</i>
				(likon	<i>to bend, fold back)</i>
III.	bagarap	bagarapim	kaina	vakaina intr.:	<i>to be spoilt</i>
				tr.:	<i>to spoil</i>
	pret	pretim	burut	vaburut intr.:	<i>to be afraid</i>
				tr.:	<i>to frighten</i>
	pinis	pinisim	par	vapar intr.:	<i>to be finished</i>
				tr.:	<i>to finish</i>

Some linguists think that the existence of a transitive suffix in Tolai has been responsible for the development of *-im* as a regular feature in Tok Pisin. Fry (1977:870), for instance, says:

Besides the general Austronesian and AN2 type features which Pidgin has developed through the influence of Kuanua and other related languages, there are many features which are not so general in which Pidgin conforms to Kuanua. To cite a few examples:  
 1. ... 2. The transitive-intransitive distinction in verb use is an important feature of Pidgin, and a dominant feature around which Kuanua syntax is organised - and with this feature each language makes use of a suffix which transforms intransitive to transitive.

But the preceding comparison of the first four Tok Pisin verbal classes with their Tolai counterparts shows that the development of *-im* cannot be regarded as being nothing else but a reflection of a Tolai transitive suffix. Otherwise one would expect that the Tok Pisin transitives were only marked by *-im* where the corresponding Tolai verbs show a transitive suffix as well, and one could not explain that *-im* is already occasionally found in ancient Bichelamar.

An explanation of *-im* has to take three facts into account:

1. the existence of *-im* in Bichelamar;
2. the similarity of Tolai and Tok Pisin concerning the distinction of transitive and intransitive verbs in general, and
3. divergencies of Tolai and Tok Pisin in marking transitive and intransitive verbs.

These three facts suggest that after the transitive marker *-im* had occasionally occurred with transitive verbs in ancient Bichelamar, it was two more or less simultaneously operating forces that made it a regular feature in Tok Pisin:

- (1) the need felt by Patpatar-Tolai speakers to express the distinction between intransitives and transitives as in their native languages;
- (2) the tendency towards simplification and regularity in order to make communication as easy as possible.

Thus the transitive-intransitive distinction expressed by various means in Tolai and related languages is maintained in Tok Pisin, but expressed in a very simplified way.

The same process of simplification took place when causatives were derived from intransitives of state or action by the transitive marker *-im*, i.e. when Tok Pisin speakers gave *-im* an additional function instead of inventing a new device of expressing causative. Such a new device could have been compounds or circumlocations with *mekim*, as occasionally found in ancient Bichelamar, for example:

<i>you make him some water he boil</i>	<i>Make some water hot</i> (Schuchardt 1889:159)
<i>What for lamp you make him dead?</i>	<i>Why did you put out the lamp?</i>

The above stated rule, that transitive verbs must always be followed by an object, is less strictly applied in Tok Pisin than in Tolai. For in Tok Pisin the object may be left out, if it is the third person singular pronoun *em*, for example:

<i>mi kisim (em)</i>	<i>I took it.</i>
<i>mi lukim (em)</i>	<i>I saw him.</i>

But in Tolai it is expressed without exception, for example:

<i>iau kap ia</i>	<i>I took it.</i>
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If the verb ends in a vowel, *ia* is fused with that vowel, for example:

<i>iau girē</i>	<i>I saw him.</i>
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Since this Tok Pisin feature cannot be traced back to the superstrat language English, it has to be ascribed to independent development.

The last Tok Pisin verbal class to be discussed is the fifth one:

5. Verbs which have a transitive form with the transitive marker -im and a reduplicated intransitive form.

In contrast to Tolai (cf. p. 43), reduplication as a device to derive intransitives from transitives is not productive in Tok Pisin. According to Mühlhäusler (1979:268) this verbal class encloses only the following items:

wasim	to wash s.th.	waswas	to bathe, wash o.s.
tokim	to tell s.th., speak to	toktok	to talk, converse
singim	to sing s.th.	singsing	to dance, sing
lukim	to see s.th.	lukluk	to look
tingim	to remember, think of	tingting	to think, ponder
pusim	to make love to	puspus	to make love
lotuim	to worship s.o.	lotulotu	to go to church

Two facts suggest that this type of reduplication reflects substratum influence:

1. It is neither found in the superstrat language nor in other pidgins.
2. In Tolai and related languages intransitives are derived from transitives by reduplication.

However, if one looks a little bit closer, direct substratum influence seems rather improbable. For only one Tolai equivalent to these seven pairs follows a similar pattern, so that it could have served as a model. Furthermore, in Tok Pisin the entire verbal base is reduplicated, whereas in Tolai the so-called partial reduplication applied, which contrasts to the 'full' reduplication denoting imperfective aspect. The latter differs morphologically from the former one in that more phonemes are involved, for example:

Partial reduplication:

punang (tr.)	pupunang (intr.)	to bury
kul (tr.)	kukul (intr.)	to buy

Full reduplication:

punapunang (tr.)	to be burying, bury habitually
kulkul (tr.)	to be buying, buy habitually

Transitive verbs which were borrowed from English at the same time as Tok Pisin developed, strictly follow this pattern, e.g. *sut* (tr.), *susut* (intr.) *to shoot*.

(1) Tolai equivalents to *wasim*, *waswas* :

There is no correlation between the Tolai expressions for *to wash s.th.* and *to wash o.s.*, *bathe*, because these two notions are expressed by totally different verbs.

Simplex		Derived verb	
<i>puk</i> (tr.)	<i>to wash, wet</i>	<i>pupuk</i> (intr.)	<i>to be wet</i>
<i>gumu</i> (intr.)	<i>to dive, bathe, wash o.s.</i>	<i>gumugumu</i> (intr.)	<i>to be bathing, bathe habitually</i>
<i>iu</i> (intr.)	<i>to bathe</i> (N.C.)	<i>iuuu</i> (intr.)	<i>to be bathing, bathe habitually</i>

Thus *iu*, *iuuu* does not correspond to *wasim*, *waswas*, as Nevermann (1929:256) thinks:

*wash* is reduplicated like the native word *iu to wash*, so that it corresponds to *iuuu to bathe* as *washwash*.

Since washing with soap is a cultural innovation, two loanwords were introduced into Tolai. Both follow the Tolai pattern:

transitive		intransitive	
<i>sop</i>		<i>sosop</i>	<i>to wash with soap</i>
<i>vuas</i>	<i>to wash s.th.</i>	<i>vuvuas</i>	<i>to do the laundry</i>

That even *vuas*, *vuvuas*, which is borrowed from *wash*, does not correspond to *wasim*, *waswas* is a strong argument against direct substratum influence. The Tok Pisin equivalent to *vuvuas to do the laundry* is *wasim klos*.

(2) Tolai equivalents to *tokim*, *toktok* :

Some of the Tolai verbs corresponding to *tokim*, *toktok* are related to each other insofar as the intransitive verbs are derived from their transitive counterparts. However, they are not derived by reduplication, but by the suffix *-ai*, e.g. *ve*, *varve* (tr.), *varvai*, *varveai* (intr.) *to tell, inform*. Other verbs, e.g. *tata* (intr.) *to speak, talk*, *biti* (intr.) *say, think* and *tatike* (tr.) *to tell, say s.th.*, lack transitive and intransitive counterparts respectively. *Pir* (intr., tr.), *pirpir* (intr.) *to tell (a story)* cannot have served as a model either, because *pirpir* is both transitive and intransitive.

transitive verb		intransitive verb
ve	to tell, inform s.o.	
varve	to tell, inform s.o.	varveai to tell, inform
		varvai
		tata to talk
		tatata to talk, chat (imperfective asp.)
		biti to say, think
		bitbiti (imperfective asp.)
tatike	to tell, say s.th.	
pir	to tell	pir to tell
		pirpir (imperfective asp.)

ve corresponds to tokim, insofar as its object refers to the person spoken to:

iau ve u I told you  
mi tokim yu I told you

(3) Tolai equivalents to singim, singsing :

The notion of *to sing s.th.* is expressed by the transitive verb *kaile*, which, however, is mostly used in its reduplicated form denoting the imperfective aspect *kakaile*, as singing a song is an action which by nature is durative. In spite of *-e*, this form is also used intransitively besides the regular form *kakailai*, which is derived from *kakaile* by the substitution of *-ai* for *-e* (compare *varve*, *varvai*). The Tolai equivalent to *singsing* in the meaning of *to dance* is the intransitive verb *malagene*, which has no transitive counterpart.

transitive verb	intransitive verb
kaile	
kakaile	kakaile, kakailai
	malagene

*kaile* is derived from *kail* (tr., intr.) *to call out in a falsetto voice, as a native does when wounded.*

(4) Tolai equivalents to lukim, lukluk :

In this case the Tolai verbs *na* (tr.) and *gire* (tr.) may have served as a model for Tok Pisin:



transitive verb		intransitive verb
gire	<i>to see, to look at</i>	gigira
na	<i>to see</i>	nana

but:

bobe	<i>to look at, watch</i>	bobo
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(5) Tolai equivalents to *tingim, tingting* :

The Tolai equivalent to *tingim, tingting* is *nuk* which is used transitively as well as intransitively.

(6) Tolai equivalents to *pusim, puspup* :

The Tolai verbs for *to make love (to)* do not correspond to Tok Pisin *pusim, puspup*, as they do not show reduplication in their intransitive forms:

transitive verb		intransitive verb	
( <i>varia ta</i>	<i>to make love with</i>	<i>varia</i>	<i>to make love</i>
	<i>ta = preposition)</i>		
<i>putuk</i>	<i>to make love with</i>	<i>varputuk</i>	<i>to make love with one another</i>

(7) Tolai equivalents to *lotuim, lotulotu* :

Tok Pisin *lotuim, lotulotu* is derived from *lotu religious service, worship* which was introduced into Tok Pisin as well as into Tolai by Fijian missionaries. According to Mihalic (1971:124) *lotu* is also used as an intransitive verb, so that, if he is right, the pair *lotium, lotulotu* cannot be compared with the preceding items, because with these intransitivity is exclusively expressed by reduplicated forms.

In Tolai *lotu* is a noun as well as an intransitive verb:

<i>lotu (n)</i>	<i>religion, christianity, worship, service</i>
<i>lotu (intr.)</i>	<i>to go to church, worship, pray</i>

The notion *to worship s.o.* is expressed by *lotu tadav*. *Tadav* is a transitive verb meaning *to go to s.o.* Following another verb in a verbal chain, it denotes whom the action referred to by the preceding verb is directed to, for example:

*lotu tadav ra Kalou to worship God*

## Conclusion

Since direct substratum influence is rather unlikely, one could only argue, that it was only the existence of the pattern of simple transitive and partly reduplicated intransitive verbs that caused the development of pairs like *wasim*, *waswas*. If this argument is accepted, one must assume that these reduplicated verbs developed through a process of morphological simplification, as they exhibit the same structure as verbs that are reduplicated to express plurality, duration and intensity (cf. p. 106).

### 4.3. Adjectives

#### 4.3.1. Tok Pisin adjectives

There are four classes of Tok Pisin adjectives:

- I. Monosyllabic adjectives that end in the suffix *-pela* both in attributive and predicative position, for example:

*bikpela haus*            *the, a big house*  
*haus i bikpela*        *the house is big,*

and which precede their noun in attributive position.

- II. Monosyllabic adjectives that only show the suffix *-pela* in attributive, but not in predicative position, for example:

*hatpela wara*            *hot water*  
*wara i hat*              *the water is hot*

- III. Polysyllabic and monosyllabic adjectives that never end in *-pela* and follow the noun in attributive position, for example:

*ples tambu*              *forbidden place*  
*ples i tambu*            *the place is taboo*

- IV. Polysyllabic adjectives that never end in *-pela* and precede their noun in attributive position, for example:

*liklik haus*              *a small house*  
*haus i liklik*            *the house is small*

Since the Tok Pisin adjectives of the second class behave differently in attributive and predicative position, i.e. following the predicate marker, the question arises whether adjectives in predicative position are to be treated as adjectives or whether they have rather to be classified as intransitive verbals. The latter was done by Mühlhäusler (1979:365f. = MF Program 17). He treated 'the use of

adjective bases in predicative position as an instance of lexical derivation', because 'neither the morphological nor the semantic information of adjectives shifted to predicative position is fully predictable from their base information'.

I myself prefer to treat them as belonging to one and the same word class, as apparently Dutton (1973:98f.), Laycock (1970:xxv) and Wurm (1971b:53ff.) did. Why shouldn't one accept that items of the second class have two different forms determined by their position? There is, however, a small group of items whose interpretation seems to be problematic, as they have one form in attributive position, but two forms in predicative position, and it was obviously these adjectives which caused Mühlhäusler to interpret adjectives in predicative position as derived transitive verbs, for example:

in attributive position		in predicative position
draipela	<i>dry, large, fat</i>	i draipela <i>to be large, fat</i>
		i drai <i>to be dry</i>
strongpela	<i>strong, stubborn</i>	i strongpela <i>to be strong</i>
		i strong <i>to be stubborn</i>
stretpela	<i>straight, honest</i>	i stretpela <i>to be straight</i>
		i stret <i>to be honest</i>

According to Mühlhäusler the predicative forms, e.g. *strongpela* and *strong*, are different intransitive verbs which are both derived from the adjective *strongpela*. Due to this interpretation neither their form nor their meaning is fully predictable. But if one regards *strongpela strong* and *strongpela stubborn* as two different homonymous adjectives, the semantic information of the adjectives shifted to predicative position is fully predictable, and thus there won't be any reason not to regard them as adjectives.

Wurm (1971b:56) establishes a fifth subclass of adjectives 'which can be used only predicatively, though their English equivalents may be attributive adjectives', for example:

bagarap	<i>ruined</i>
hangiri	<i>hungry</i>
kros	<i>angry</i>
lait	<i>shiny, bright, etc.</i>

The same classification is found in Mihalic (1971:18, 5.1.2.2.4.). But since these items do not differ in any respect from intransitive verbs, they should be classified as such. The fact that they behave

differently from their English counterparts can perhaps be ascribed to substratum influence (see below).

As stated above, many Tok Pisin adjectives are marked by the suffix *-pela*, which is also used with the demonstrative pronoun *dispela this*, indefinite pronouns, e.g. *sampela some*, *narapela another*, personal plural pronouns, e.g. *mipela we* (exclusive) and cardinal numbers, e.g. *wanpela one*, *tupela two*. Though it evidently goes back to English *fellow*, its origin remains obscure. Since it is already found in ancient Bichelamar, Tolai substratum influence can be excluded, for example:

<i>Capsize that bigfellow pellate</i>	<i>Empty that big plate</i>
<i>and give master smallfellow pellate</i>	<i>and give a small plate to the</i> <i>master (Schuchardt 1883:7/155)</i>

#### 4.3.2. Tok Pisin adjectives in comparison with Tolai adjectives

The fact that Tok Pisin adjectives constitute different classes according to their position before or after the noun is regarded as a reflection of substratum influence by some authors. Wurm (1977: 515f.) writes:

The appearance of adjectives of different classes preceding or following the nouns which they determine attributively is a typical feature of the Austronesian Tolai which shows this phenomenon uniquely amongst New Guinea Austronesian languages (Capell 1969). It may well have entered Pidgin from this source.

But the following investigation of Tolai adjectives in comparison with Tok Pisin adjectives will show that this is not the case.

Tolai adjectives differ from their Tok Pisin counterparts in that they are not morphologically marked by an affix. Like Tok Pisin adjectives they can be separated into two classes according to their position:

- I. Adjectives which precede the modified noun and which are connected with it by the connective particle (abbr. C), for example:

<i>a ngala na pal</i>	<i>a big house</i>
<i>D big C house</i>	

- II. Adjectives which directly follow their nouns, for example:

<i>a pal pua</i>	<i>a white house</i>
<i>D house white</i>	

All adjectives may be used in predicative position following the subject marker, for example:

a pal i ngala      *the house is big*  
 a pal i pua        *the house is white*

In this position they do not differ from intransitive verbs. However, that adjectives and intransitive verbs do not form a single word class is shown by those items which can only function as predicates but not as noun modifiers, e.g. *mat to die, be dead*. you cannot say

\*a mat na tutana    *a dead man*  
 D            C    *man*

but only

a minat na tutana    *the corpse of a man*

where *minat* is a noun derived from *mat* by the infix *-in-*, or

(nina)ra tutana i tar mat    *lit. the man who has died*  
 DEM D man            he TA die

If Tolai had played any role as substratum language in the construction of Tok Pisin adjectives, one would expect that the Tolai adjectives of the second class and the Tok Pisin of the third class would correspond with each other. But they do not. Even some Tolai loan-words such as *mau ripe* differ from their models, for example:

Tolai, first class:	Tok Pisin, second class:
a mo na gamata (M 78 Rak)	banana mau
D ripe C apple	banana ripe
a ripe Malay apple	a ripe banana

a kaina magit, a kaina pakana	samting nogut, ples nogut
D bad (C) thing, D bad (C) place	something bad, place bad
something bad, a bad place	something bad, a bad place

a tabubur na paip	botol bruk
D broken C pipe	bottle broken
a broken pipe	a broken bottle

(Tolai *mo ripe* is a variant of *mao*. The connective particle *na* is left out, when the adjective as in *kaina bad* ends in *-na*.)

Tolai, second class:	Tok Pisin, first class:
a mal pua <i>white clothes</i>	wetpela klos
D cl. white	white clothes
a mal meme <i>red clothes</i>	retpela klos

All adjectives denoting colour belong to the second class in Tolai, but to the first class in Tok Pisin, as they are monosyllabic. They take the suffix *-pela* both in attributive and predicative position and precede the noun when used attributively. Thus in Tolai semantic features determine the class membership of colour adjectives, whereas in Tok Pisin it is phonological and morphological features.

Only adjectives indicating nationality, language and religious affiliation and the adjectives

tabu (Tolai) / tambu (Tok Pisin)	<i>sacred, forbidden, taboo</i>
tuna (Tolai) / tru (Tok Pisin)	<i>genuine, real</i>
vakuku (Tolai) / nating (Tok Pisin)	<i>useless, worthless</i>

belong to the second class in Tolai and the corresponding third class in Tok Pisin, for example:

Tolai, second class:	Tok Pisin, third class:
a tinata Baining <i>the Baining language</i>	tok Inglis <i>the English language</i>
a gunan tabu <i>sacred place</i>	ples tambu <i>sacred place</i>
a tutana tuna <i>real man (not a ghost)</i>	papa tru bilong mi <i>my real father</i>
a tutana vakuku <i>common, useless man</i>	kanaka nating <i>simple ordinary native</i>

Since these adjectives and the colour terms are the only adjectives in Tolai that follow the noun, the post nominal position of Tok Pisin adjectives other than *tambu*, *tru*, *nating*, *Inglis*, *Siaman German*, *Katolik Catholic*, etc. cannot be explained as a reflection of Tolai phrase structure.

Unfortunately, the data available from other Patpatar-Tolai languages are rather poor, but it seems that they also have not influenced the development of the third class of Tok Pisin adjectives.

In Pala nearly all adjectives, colour adjectives included, may both precede or follow the noun. If they precede, they are connected by a connective particle to the noun, for example:

a tahut na bulu, a bulu tahut	<i>a good boy</i>
a dardaran a mal, a mal dardaran	<i>a red dress</i>

The only adjectives which never precede the noun are *kasa single*, *tun real, genuine* (Tolai: *tuna*), *sik little* and *tabu sacred, forbidden*

(Peekel 1909:85ff.). Thus *tun* and *tabu* correspond to Tok Pisin *tru* and *tambu*, as Tolai *tuna* and *tabu* do.

As already mentioned above, some Tok Pisin items which have been borrowed from English adjectives can only be used in predicative position and thus have to be classified as intransitive verbs. If nouns have to be modified by these items, the modification has to be expressed by a relative clause, for example:

man i hangre/hangiri...     *the hungry man, lit. the man  
who is hungry*

Some of these intransitive verbs correspond to Tolai intransitive verbs:

a tutana i mulmulum...     *the hungry man, lit. the man  
who is hungry*

Other Tok Pisin verbs of this kind which correspond to Tolai verbs are:

Tok Pisin	Tolai	
doti	dur	<i>dirty</i>
pulap	buka	<i>full</i>

In these instances the different class membership of the corresponding English and Tok Pisin items may be explained as a reflection of substratum influence. But in other cases Tolai shows adjectives like English, where Tok Pisin has intransitive verbs, for example:

krum, krungut (V <sub>intr</sub> )	gege (Adj)	<i>crooked</i>
hevi (V <sub>intr</sub> )	mamat (Adj)	<i>heavy</i>

There is no Tok Pisin adjective corresponding to English *dead*. The notion of being dead is expressed by the intransitive verb *dai* + the aspect marker *pinis*, so that English 'dead' in attributive position has to be rendered by a relative clause in Tok Pisin (*dai* is borrowed from English 'to die'), for example

man i dai pinis...     *a dead man, lit. a man who has  
already died*

This exactly parallels with Tolai (cf. p. 57)):

a tutana i tar mat...  
D man     he TA die

#### Conclusion

The four classes of Tok Pisin adjectives have evidently developed independently to a great extent, as there are only a few instances where Tok Pisin adjectives whose position differs from their English

counterparts show the same construction as the corresponding Tolai items. These Tok Pisin adjectives are:

1. proper adjectives, e.g. *inglis English, Katolik Catholic*;
2. *tambu, tru, nating*.

The use of the suffix *-pela* does not go back to Tolai substratum influence.

In some cases the change of originally English adjectives to Tok Pisin intransitive verbs may possibly be ascribed to substratum influence.

#### 4.4. Personal pronouns

The personal pronoun system of Tok Pisin is evidently patterned after those of the substratum languages. In opposition to English, it distinguishes between singular, dual, trial and plural, and between first person inclusive and exclusive. Samoan Plantation Pidgin, the direct predecessor of Tok Pisin, lacks the dual and the trial, while modern Bichelamar and Cape York Creole have a dual, the development of which has been caused by their specific substratum languages. Samoan Plantation Pidgin, Tok Pisin, modern Bichelamar and Cape York Creole do not show gender and case distinction as English does (e.g. he, she, it, him, her):

	SPP	mod. Bich.	CYC	Tok Pisin
Sg 1	mi	mi	ai, mi	mi
2	yu	yu	yu	yu
3	em	em	i, im	em
Du 1 in	-	yumituvala	yumi, yumtu	yumitupela
1 ex	-	mituvala	mitu	mitupela
2	-	yutuvala	yutu(pela)	yutupela
3	-	tuvala	tupela	tupela
Tr 1 in	-	-	-	yumitripela
1 ex	-	-	-	mitripela
2	-	-	-	yutripela
3	-	-	-	tripela
Pl 1 in	yumi	yumi	mipela, wi	yumi
1 ex	miol	mivala	mitupela, wi	mipela
2	yuol	yuvava	yu(pela)	yupela
3	emol	ol	ol, dempela	ol



Now compare the personal pronouns in Tolai, Duke of York languages (Molot and Mioko), Label and Pala:

	Tolai	Molot	Mioko	Label	Pala
Sg 1	iau	iau	iau	e, ia, iau	iau, e
2	u	u	u	u, au	u, ugu, augu
3	ia	i	i	i	i, ie, aie
Du 1 in	dor	dar	dar	da	dar
1 ex	amir	mir	mir	mia	mir
2	amur	mur	mur	mu	mur
3	dir	diar	der	dia	dir
Tr 1 in	datal	datul	datul	datol	datal
1 ex	amital	mitul	mitul	mitol	metal
2	amutal	mutul	mutul	mutol	mutal
3	dital	ditul	ditul	ditol	dal
Pl 1 in	dat	dat	dat	dala	dahat
1 ex	avet	meat	met	mila	het (mem)
2	avat	moat	mot	mulo	uat, muat
3	diat	diet	det	la	diet

The dual, trial and plural pronouns show some relation to the numerals denoting 'two', 'three' and 'four', though a clear-cut segmentation as in Tok Pisin is not possible:

	Tolai	Molot	Mioko	Label	Pala
two:	ura	ruadi	rua	ur, iur	iruo
three:	utul	tuldi	tul	tol, itol	itul
four:	ivat	vatdi	vat	hat, ihat	ihat

#### 4.5. Numerals

##### 4.5.1. Cardinal numerals

The composed numerals above ten show the same structure in Tok Pisin and Patpatar-Tolai languages, whereas the numerals in Bichelamar are patterned after the English model. Compare:

	ten	eleven	twelve
Tok Pisin	ten/tenpela	wanpela ten wan	wanpela ten tu
Tolai	a vinun D <i>ten</i>	a vinun ma tikai D <i>ten and one</i>	a vinun ma urua D <i>ten and two</i>
Mioko	a noina D <i>ten</i>	a noina ma ra D <i>ten and one</i>	a noina ma rua D <i>ten and two</i>
Label	a bonotna D <i>ten</i>	a bonotna hapisir takai D <i>ten PART<sub>num</sub> one</i>	a bonotna hapisir na-ur D <i>ten PART<sub>num</sub> ? - two</i>
Pala	a sangahul D <i>ten</i>	a sangahul ma tika D <i>ten and one</i>	a sangahul ma iruo D <i>ten and two</i>
	twenty	thirty	fifty
Tok Pisin	tupela ten	tripela ten	faipela ten
Tolai	a ura vinun D <i>two ten</i>	a utul a vinun D <i>three C ten</i>	a ilima na vinun D <i>five C ten</i>
Mioko	a rua noina D <i>two ten</i>		a lima na noina D <i>five C ten</i>
Label	na ur a bonotna D <i>two ? ten</i>	na tol a bonotna D <i>three ? ten</i>	
Pala	a iruo sangahul D <i>two ten</i>	a itul a sangahul D <i>three C ten</i>	

	twenty-one
Tok Pisin	tupela ten wan
Tolai	a ura vinun ma tikai D <i>two ten and one</i>
Mioko	a rua noina ma ra D <i>two ten and one</i>
Pala	a iruo sangahul ma tika D <i>two ten and one</i>

In modern Bichelamar the corresponding numerals are:

ten *ten*, eleven/leven *eleven*, twelev *twelve*, twenti *twenty*, torti *thirty*, fifti *fifty*, twenti wan *twenty-one* (the numeral *torti* is formed in analogy to *forti forty*).

#### Conclusion

Though in Tok Pisin and the Patpatar-Tolai languages the system of the cardinal numbers is structured according to the same principle, one should be careful not to regard this as a convincing proof for substratum influence. For this kind of decimal system is so simple that one need not take substratum influence into account to explain its development.

#### 4.5.2. Distributive numerals

In Tok Pisin distribution is expressed by reduplication of the cardinal numerals both at word and phrase level, for example:

wanwan / wanpela wanpela	<i>one by one, each one</i>
tutu / tupela tupela	<i>two by two, in pairs</i>
Ol i takis long faivfaiv dola	<i>They paid \$5 tax each</i>

(compare Mühlhäusler 1975b:207).

In Tolai distributional numerals are derived from cardinal numerals by reduplication as well. However, it does not seem justifiable to establish substratum influence here, because repetition at phrase level or reduplication at word level is the simplest way to express the notion of *one by one*, *two by two* etc. The Tolai distributional numerals are:

tikatikai	<i>one by one</i>
evevut	<i>two by two (evut two, a pair)</i>
ututul	<i>three by three</i>
ivaivat	<i>four by four ...</i>

#### 4.5.3. Ordinal numerals

In Tok Pisin ordinal numerals are formed by *namba* plus cardinal numerals, for example:

<i>namba wan</i>	<i>first</i>
<i>namba tu</i>	<i>second</i>

In Tolai they are derived from causative verbs meaning *to do s.th.* *x times* by the nominalisation suffix *-ina*, whereas the causative verbs are derived from the cardinal numerals by the causative prefix *va-*:

<i>laptikai</i>	<i>six</i>
<i>valaptikai</i>	<i>to do s.th. six times</i>
<i>valaptikaina</i>	<i>the sixth</i>

## 5. DERIVATION IN TOK PISIN AND TOLAI

The following contrastive analysis of derivation in Tok Pisin and Tolai will be based in Mühlhäusler (1979) *Growth and Structure of the Lexicon of New Guinea Pidgin*, where a full account of derivation in Tok Pisin is given. Mühlhäusler distinguishes between functional shift of lexical bases, compounding and reduplication. The various types of functional shifts are subdivided in denominalisations, deadjectivalisations and deverbalisations. According to his generative transformational view of derivation Mühlhäusler calls the various types of derivation 'programs', i.e. 'multifunctionality (abbr. MF) program', 'compounding (abbr. CP) program' and 'reduplication (abbr. RD) program'. Without discussing his theoretical point of view, we will follow Mühlhäusler along the line and investigate which programs show an independent development of Tok Pisin and which can be traced back to the substratum languages.

As in many instances a word in Tolai corresponds to a phrase in Tok Pisin and vice versa, it is not possible to keep word and phrase level apart; e.g. the equivalent of *to roast* is a phrase in Tok Pisin, *kukim long paia*, lit. *to cook on fire*, but a single word in Tolai, *tun*, while the equivalent of *open sea, ocean* is a single word in Tok Pisin, *biksolwara* (borrowed from English *big saltwater*), but three

words in Tolai, *ngala na ta*, lit. *big sea*. The reason for these discrepancies is that on the one hand Tok Pisin often has to make use of a circumlocation in order to express an idea which can be rendered by a single word in Tolai and that, on the other hand, compounding is a productive type of derivation in Tok Pisin, whereas in Tolai it is not. Other discrepancies result from the fact that Patpatar-Tolai languages have more bound morphemes than Tok Pisin.

## 5.1. Multifunctionality

### 5.1.1. Introduction

Multifunctionality, i.e. multiple class membership, is a typical feature of Tok Pisin. Thus *strong* can function as:

1. noun: *strength*, e.g. *em i gat strong he has got strength*;
2. attributive adjective (+ *-pela*): *strongpela strong*,  
e.g. *strongpela man a strong man*;
3. adverb: *strongly*, e.g. *em i wokabout strong he walks strongly*;
4. intransitive verb: *to be strong*, e.g. *ol i ken i strong they will be strong*;
5. transitive verb (+ *-im*): *strengthen*, e.g. *mi strongim em I strengthen him* (Wurm 1971b:8).

Multifunctionality is a pidgin universal (for further examples see Mühlhäusler 1974:103ff.), but it is also found in many other languages.

It is a very widespread phenomenon and is dependent on a number of conditions... The most important condition is the loss of morphological categories... A second condition is that surface sequence is used to indicate grammatical function... A third condition is the absence of obligatory semantic information carried by certain parts of speech (e.g. tense and aspect in the English verb). (Mühlhäusler 1974:105f.)

These three conditions are also met by Tolai to a very high degree. Thus *dekdek*, for instance, is used in nearly the same way as its Tok Pisin counterpart *strong*:

- |    |                                          |                         |
|----|------------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. | a dekdek i ra Kalou<br>D strong of D God | <i>the power of God</i> |
| 2. | a dekdek na tutana<br>D strong C man     | <i>a strong man</i>     |
| 3. | al dekdek                                | <i>to pull hard</i>     |

- |                                 |                                                     |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------|
| 4. pa i dekdek<br>not it strong | <i>it is not hard, difficult</i>                    |
| 5. vadekdek                     | <i>to strengthen, intensify,<br/>make difficult</i> |

As already discussed above (p. 54f.), I prefer not to classify adjectives in predicative position as intransitive verbs, but to regard them as adjectives as well.

Since multifunctionality is typical for all pidgins, we must be careful not to assume substratum influence wherever correspondences are found between Tolai and Tok Pisin. They may be due to mere accident. But the divergencies found between these two languages will be very important, as they show in which case Tok Pisin developed independently from the substratum language. Therefore special attention will be drawn to the behaviour of Tolai loanwords in Tok Pisin.

According to Mühlhäusler (1979) the following multifunctionality programs are found in Tok Pisin:

No.	basic item	derived item	meaning	example	
1	N+ /N = tool	V <sub>tr</sub>	to use N	bro sim	<i>to brush</i>
2	N/N = professional status	V <sub>intr</sub>	to perform the work of	jas	<i>to be a judge</i>
3	N+im/N=professional status	V <sub>tr</sub>	to perform the work of N on s.o.	jasim	<i>to judge</i>
4	N+im/N = container	V <sub>tr</sub>	to put into N	bekim	<i>to put in bags</i>
5	N+im	V <sub>tr</sub>	to take away N	selim	<i>to remove the skin of a coffee bean</i>
6	N+im/N = message	V <sub>tr</sub>	to send N to	bro tkastim	<i>to send a broadcast to</i>
7	N+im	V <sub>tr</sub>	to make into N	hipim	<i>to pile up into a heap</i>
8	N/N = time	V <sub>intr</sub>	to do what is usually done at	bre kpas	<i>to have breakfast</i>
9	N/N = place	V <sub>intr</sub>	to do what is usually done at	market	<i>to hold market</i>
10	N/N = property	V <sub>intr</sub>	to have N	gris	<i>to be fat</i>
11	N+im	V <sub>tr</sub>	to put N on	nemim	<i>to give a name</i>
12	N	V <sub>intr</sub>	to be like N	suga	<i>to be like sugar - gentle</i>
13	N	V <sub>intr</sub>	to act like N	snek	<i>to wind</i>
14	Adj	N <sub>abstr</sub>	manner of being N	strong	<i>strength</i>

No.	basic item	derived item	meaning	example	
15	Adj	N <sub>concr</sub>	s.o./s.th. that is Adj	yelo	<i>yolk of an egg</i>
16	Adj + im	V <sub>tr</sub>	to cause to be Adj	bikim	<i>to make s.th. big</i>
17	Adj	V <sub>intr</sub>	to be Adj	bikpela	<i>to be big</i>
18	Adj	Adv <sub>manner</sub>		kranki	<i>wrongly</i>
19	V <sub>intr</sub>	N <sub>abstr</sub>		amamas	<i>gladness</i>
20	V <sub>intr</sub>	N <sub>concr</sub>	result of V <sub>intr</sub>	pispis	<i>urine</i>
21	V <sub>intr</sub> + im	V <sub>tr</sub>	to make s.th./s.o. do V <sub>intr</sub>	pundaunim	<i>to make s.th./s.o. fall down</i>
22	V <sub>intr</sub> + im	V <sub>tr</sub>		lapim	<i>to laugh at</i>
23	V <sub>tr</sub>	N <sub>abstr</sub>		helpim	<i>help</i>



### 5.1.2. Tok Pisin multifunctionality programs in comparison with Tolai

#### 5.1.2.1. MF program 1

In Tok Pisin nouns referring to instruments can be transformed into transitive verbs by adding the transitive marker *-im*, in order to express the action the instrument is used for. As the following Tok Pisin items and their English counterparts show, this type of derivation is also found in English, for example:

ain	<i>iron</i>	ainim	<i>to iron</i>
hama	<i>hammer</i>	hamarim	<i>to hammer</i>

But due to its tendency towards regularity, in Tok Pisin this type of derivation is more productive than in English, for example:

glas	<i>thermometer</i>	glasim	<i>to take one's temperature</i>
skel	<i>scales</i>	skelim	<i>to weigh</i>
huk	<i>hook</i>	hukim	<i>to catch with a hook</i>

Mühlhäusler (1979:262) already stated that Tolai shows similar pairs of nouns referring to instruments and verbs. But as he obviously had not got reliable data, his statement that

in both English and Tolai verbals can be derived from noun bases referring to instruments,

needs some correction.

In Tolai the process of derivation is usually the other way round. Nouns referring to instruments are derived from verbs by reduplication:

ak	(tr)	<i>to hammer</i>	akak	<i>hammer</i>
banu	(tr)	<i>to close</i>	banbanu	<i>door</i>

This type of derivation is also applied to two items quoted by Mühlhäusler, which he did not interpret correctly because of misprints.

1. *barbar drill* is derived from *bar* (tr) *to drill* by reduplication. The intransitive verb is *babar* (and not *barbar*). It is derived from *bar* (tr) by a different type of reduplication, namely the so-called partial reduplication.

bar	(V <sub>tr</sub> )	barbar	(N <sub>instr</sub> )
bar	(V <sub>tr</sub> )	babar	(V <sub>intr</sub> )

2. In the case of *apapur* (not *apupur*) (a) *sprayer*, (b) *to sprinkle water* (intr), both the noun and the intransitive verb are derived from the transitive verb *apur to sprinkle water on s.th.* They do not differ phonologically, since in this instance both types of reduplication result in the same phonological form:

<i>apur</i> (V <sub>tr</sub> )	<i>apapur</i> (N <sub>instr</sub> )
<i>apur</i> (V <sub>tr</sub> )	<i>apapur</i> (V <sub>intr</sub> )

Thus one cannot say that *apapur* (intr) is derived from *apapur* (N<sub>instr</sub>). While the derivation of transitive verbs from nomina instrumenti is very productive in Tok Pisin, there is only a limited class of lexical items in Tolai which function as nomina instrumenti or verbs according to their position within the sentence, for example:

<i>kip</i> (tr) <i>to carry s.th. on a pole between two persons</i>	<i>kip</i> (N) <i>a pole on which anything is carried by two persons</i>
<i>kono</i> (tr) <i>to knock fruit off the branches with a stick</i>	<i>kono</i> (N) <i>a barbed pole used for pulling off fruit</i>

This class also includes *bulit* and *bair*, which have been borrowed by Tok Pisin. But both items differ from their Tok Pisin counterparts in respect to transitivity and intransitivity:

Tolai:

<i>bulit</i> (tr,intr) <i>to glue</i>	<i>bulit</i> (N) <i>glue</i>
<i>bair</i> (intr) <i>to dig with a stick</i>	<i>bair</i> (N) <i>digging stick, hoe</i>

Tok Pisin:

<i>bulitim</i> (tr) <i>to glue</i>	<i>bulit</i> (N) <i>glue</i>
<i>bairaim</i> (tr) <i>to hoe s.th.</i>	<i>baira</i> (N) <i>hoe</i>

Apart from a very few items which will be discussed below, these verbs and nomina instrumenti show the same form. In contrast to Tok Pisin they are not derived by additional suffixes and it cannot be said that the verb is derived from the noun or vice versa. The only items which structurally correspond to the Tok Pisin derivations, insofar as they are derived by adding a transitive suffix, for example:

<i>baname</i> (tr) <i>to cut up</i>	<i>banam</i> (N) <i>knife</i>
<i>lane</i> (tr) <i>to boil or cook</i>	<i>la</i> (N) <i>pot</i>
<i>kabalane</i> (tr) <i>to cook</i>	<i>kabala</i> (N) <i>pot (originally half of a green coconut shell)</i>

do not have equivalents in Tok Pisin, because according to Mühlhäusler (1979:355), nouns denoting instruments for cutting are generally excluded from the process of derivation, and Tok Pisin *sospen pot*, *kettle*, *saucepan*, because polysyllabic lexical bases and nominal compounds cannot be transformed into transitive verbs.

There are only two verbs in Tok Pisin which can also be used intransitively 'without explicit mention of the object' (Mühlhäusler):

1. *bombom* (N) *torch*  
*bombomim* (tr) *to catch fish with a torch*  
*bombom* (intr) *to attract fish with a torch*
2. *huk* (N) *hook*  
*hukim* (tr) *to catch with a hook*  
*huk* (intr) *to catch fish with a hook*

*bombom* is originally a Southern New Ireland word meaning *torch or flare made of dry coconut leaves*. Whether there is a corresponding intransitive and transitive verb as in Tok Pisin, is not known. The Tolai equivalent to Tok Pisin *bombom* (N) is *ul torch made of dry coconut leaves*, which corresponds to a transitive verb *ul to scorch, burn (with the ul)* and thus is different from Tok Pisin *bombom*. The use of *huk*, however, may reflect substratum influence, since its Tolai equivalent is used as noun and intransitive and transitive verb:

- il* (N) *a fish hook*  
*il* (tr.,intr) *to fish with a hook*

#### 5.1.2.2. MF programs 2 and 3

In MF program 2 and 3 (Mühlhäusler 1979:356f.) nouns referring to persons of a certain professional or other status serve as base from which in MF program 2 intransitive and in MF program 3 transitive verbs are derived, for example:

noun		derived intr verb	derived tr. verb
<i>bos</i>	<i>boss</i>	<i>bos</i> <i>to be in charge</i>	<i>bosim</i> <i>to rule over</i>
<i>jas</i>	<i>judge</i>	<i>jas</i> <i>to be judge</i>	<i>jasim</i> <i>to judge</i>
<i>kundar</i>	<i>acolyte</i>	<i>kundar</i> <i>to be an a.</i>	
<i>tultul</i>	<i>messenger</i>	<i>tultul</i> <i>to be a m.</i>	

These types of derivation are not found in Tolai. In Tolai it is the nouns denoting a person of a certain professional or other status that are derived from the corresponding verbs. In most cases the

verbal noun of the verbs in question combines with *tena s.o. being proficient in s.th.* on phrase level, for example:

noun		verb
<i>tena varkurai</i>	<i>judge</i>	<i>kure (tr) to judge</i>
<i>tena vartovo</i>	<i>teacher</i>	<i>tovo (tr) to teach</i>

*tena* is very productive and used both with English loanwords as well as in recently invented circumlocations in order to meet the necessities of the modern world, for example:

<i>tena lukaut</i>	<i>overseer (in a plantation)</i>
<i>tena tutumu</i>	<i>s.o. who is proficient in writing, i.e. a secretary</i>

The above cited Tok Pisin items *kundar* and *tultul* are loans from Tolai. *kundar* is borrowed from Tolai *kudar* (intr) *to help, assist*, whose corresponding nomen agentis is *tena kundar* or *tena kudar*. *Tultul messenger* is a noun which is derived from the transitive verb *tul to send*. There are only a very few nouns of this kind in Tolai which are derived by reduplication like *tultul*, for example:

<i>lualua</i>	<i>chief, leader, boss</i>	<i>lua (intr) to be first</i>
<i>raprap</i>	<i>leader</i>	<i>rap (tr) to lead</i>

#### 5.1.2.3. MF program 4

Nouns denoting containers can become transitive verbs meaning *to put s.th. into the container referred to by the noun*, for example:

<i>bek</i>	<i>bag</i>	<i>bekim</i>	<i>to put into bags</i>
<i>kalabus</i>	<i>prison</i>	<i>kalabusim</i>	<i>to jail</i>
<i>umben</i>	<i>net</i>	<i>umbenim</i>	<i>to put into a net</i>

There is no such productive process of derivation in Tolai. Most of the ideas expressed by the derived transitive verbs in Tok Pisin are rendered by independent verbs or verbal phrases in Tolai, for example:

Tok Pisin		Tolai
<i>graun</i>	<i>ground, soil</i>	<i>pia</i>
<i>graunim</i>	<i>to bury</i>	<i>punang</i>
<i>bus</i>	<i>bush</i>	<i>pui</i>
<i>busim</i>	<i>to send to the bush, chase off</i>	<i>korot vaba vue ura ra pui chase/put-into-the-bush/put-away/ to/D/bush</i>

In other instances the Tolai noun is derived from the verb by reduplication:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
banis	<i>fence, bandage</i>	bait (tr)	<i>to weave round, make a fence round</i>
banisim	<i>to fence in</i>	babait	<i>fence, hedge</i>

The only item that is similar to these derived Tok Pisin verbs is *vabalada to protect by a barricade* which is derived by the causative prefix *va-* from *balada barricade*.

The Tolai words for *prison* and *to jail*, e.g. *karabut* and *vakarabut*, have to be interpreted differently, though they are borrowed from Tok Pisin. In Tolai *karabut* is a noun meaning *prison* as well as an intransitive verb meaning *to be imprisoned*. The transitive verb *vakarabut* is derived from this intransitive verb and literally means *to make s.o. be imprisoned*.

Though *umben* is a Tolai loanword, there is no equivalent to *umbenim* in Tolai.

#### 5.1.2.4. MF program 5

The derivation of deprivative verbs from noun bases such as Tok Pisin *selim* in *selim kopi to remove the skin of a coffee bean* is not found in Tolai. The notion of *to remove s.th.* is expressed by non-derived transitive verbs, e.g. *tak vue take away, kulit to peel off, bark, skin*.

#### 5.1.2.5. MF program 6

This program applies to 'noun bases referring to messages, material or specimens instrumental in conveying messages, or to spells' (Mühlhäusler 1979:357), which can become transitive verbs, for example:

brotkas	<i>broadcast</i>	brotkastim	<i>to send a broadcast to</i>
marila	<i>love spell</i>	marilaim	<i>to cast a love spell on</i>
papait	<i>sorcery</i>	papaitim	<i>to subject s.o. to sorcery</i>
tanget	<i>invitation</i>	tangetim	<i>to invite</i>

Whether the development of this program was influenced by Tolai or not is doubtful. There are no correspondences to items referring to messages, but the derivation of verbs concerning spells shows some similarity to that in Tolai. *Marila* is borrowed from Tolai *malira* and Tok Pisin *papait* from Tolai *papait*, which is a verbal noun derived

by reduplication from *pait* (tr) *to do; to cast a spell on*. But besides *pait* (tr), there is a transitive verb derived by *va-*, *vapapait*, which is derived from *papait* *incantation to cure in sickness*. For if it were derived from the intransitive verb *papait* *to use incantations* it would mean *to cause s.o. to use incantations*.

<i>malira</i> (N)	<i>love-spell</i>	<i>vamalira</i>	<i>to cast a love-spell on</i>
<i>papait</i> (N)	<i>incantation</i>	<i>pait</i> (tr)	<i>to cast a spell on</i>
		<i>vapapait</i> (tr)	

Tok Pisin *tanget invitation* is borrowed from Tolai *tagete sp. plant (Cordyline terminalia)*. The leaves of this plant are sent together with *tabu* (shellmoney) to a chief with the request to levy a fine, or to the parents of a woman with a request to be allowed to purchase. In contrast to Tok Pisin there is no verb derived from *tagete*. *To invite* and *invitation* is rendered by *ting* (tr) and its verbal noun *varting*.

#### 5.1.2.6. MF program 7

The transitive verbs derived from nouns in this program mean 'to make into what is referred to by the noun' (Mühlhäusler 1979:357). Among the examples presented by Mühlhäusler the most characteristic ones are:

<i>hap</i>	<i>piece, part</i>	<i>hapim</i>	<i>to reduce to parts</i>
<i>hip</i>	<i>heap</i>	<i>hipim</i>	<i>to pile up into a heap</i>
<i>meme</i>	<i>pulp, inedible part of the betel nut</i>	<i>memeim</i>	<i>to pulverise, chew up</i>

This program evidently developed independently from substratum influence. The Tolai equivalents to *hap piece, part*; *kut, kutuna small piece, lump*; *ngu, ngungu portion, part, small piece, end* and *pakana part, piece* cannot be transformed into verbs, whereas the equivalents to *hip* are derived from the corresponding verb *vung*:

<i>vung</i> (tr)	<i>to put, place</i>	<i>vungaina</i>	<i>heap</i>
		<i>vuvung</i>	<i>heap</i>
		<i>vuvunguna</i>	<i>heap</i>

Tok Pisin *meme* is a loanword from Tolai, but in Tolai *meme* *chewed pulp of betelnut* is derived by reduplication from the transitive verb *me* *to chew*.

## 5.1.2.7. MF program 8

'Noun bases referring to a point or period of time can become intransitive verbs expressing "to do what is normally done at such a time"' (Mühlhäusler (1979:357), for example:

potnait	<i>fortnight</i>	potnait	<i>to pool wages</i>
sande	<i>Sunday</i>	sande	<i>to pool wages on Sunday or spend Sunday</i>
limlimbur	<i>time of rest</i>	limlimbur	<i>to stroll</i>

This type of multifunctionality is not found in Tolai. Limlimbur was borrowed from Tolai limlibur *to be amusing oneself, be strolling*, the reduplicated form of libur *to amuse o.s., to stroll*, which indicates that the action referred to by the verbal base is durative. The noun nilibur *amusement, recreation* is derived from the verbal base libur by the nominalisation affix ni-.

## 5.1.2.8. MF program 9

'The program is similar to Program 8, the main difference being that locality instead of time is the focus of the action in the derived intransitive verbals' (Mühlhäusler 1976:465), for example:

opis	<i>office</i>	opis	<i>to work in an office</i>
bung	<i>gathering place</i>	bung	<i>to come together</i>
kivung	<i>gathering</i>	kivung	<i>to gather</i>
market	<i>market</i>	market	<i>to hold a market</i>

Mühlhäusler thinks that this program is found in Tolai as well (1979:260) and compares the following items:

Tolai	Tok Pisin	English
bung (N)	bung	<i>market, gathering place</i>
bung (intr)	bung	<i>to gather, meet</i>
lotu (N)	lotu	<i>church</i>
lotu (intr)	lotu	<i>to go to church, be in church</i>
misa (N), (intr)	misa	<i>mass; to go to mass, be at mass</i>
po (N)	haus	<i>a nest</i>
po (intr)	haus	<i>to nest</i>

However, the following discussion of bung, kivung, lotu and po will show that Mühlhäusler is wrong.

In Tolai bung means (1) *day, either a natural day of twelve hours or an astronomical day of twentyfour hours; a fixed day like a meeting day or a market day*; (2) *to come together, to hold market. Market*

*place* is rendered by *tavul a bung lit. place for market, coming together*. *bung* itself does not refer to the place, but to the time and the event, so that it would better fit into MF program 8, if one regards the verb as being derived from the noun. But since it is the only Tolai item which bears some similarity to the Tok Pisin items of MF program 8, it cannot serve as a proof for substratum influence in the development of that program.

Tolai *kivung* is an intransitive verb meaning *to sit together*, whose verbal noun shows the same form, i.e. *kivung sitting together, meeting*. Like *bung* it never refers to a place.

The same holds true for the Fijian loan-word *lotu*. It does not refer to the church as a building, but only to the church as an institution. As a noun *lotu* means *religion, christianity, worship, service, prayer* and as an intransitive verb *to worship, pray, go to church*. *Church (building)* is rendered by *pal na lotu house for service* in Tolai. Tolai *po* (intr) *to nest* and *po* (N) *nest* looks rather similar to the Tok Pisin items of this program, but as the precise meaning of *po* (intr) is *to build a nest*, this Tolai item could not have served as a model for the Tok Pisin items, for example:

l ga po ma ra pakar, a gi, a ivu na malip  
 he/TA/nest/with/D/pakar/D/gi/, /D/feather/C/malip/  
 He had built the nest with pakar-feathers, gi-feathers  
 and the feathers of the malip-bird (Kl.272 P.).

#### 5.1.2.9. MF program 10

'Noun bases referring to a number of alienable and inalienable properties can become intransitive verbals expressing *to have a certain property*' (Mühlhäusler 1979:359). This type of derivation is also found in Tolai:

Tok Pisin:

gris	fat	gris	to be fat
kambang	mould	kambang	to be mouldy
mosong	fluff	mosong	to be fluffy

Tolai:

bira	fat	bira	to be fat, have fat
kabang	lime	kabang	to be white like lime
limut	moss	limut	to be mossy, mos-green
tobon	dust	tobon	to be dusty

(Tok Pisin *kambang* is borrowed from Patpatar-Tolai *kabang* and means *lime* as well.)



## 5.1.2.10 MF program 11

Ornate verbals can be derived from nouns:

<i>bilas</i>	<i>adornment</i>	<i>bilasim</i>	<i>to adorn, decorate</i>
<i>nem</i>	<i>name</i>	<i>nemin</i>	<i>to give a name</i>

As far as I know, there is only one Tolai item that is similar to the Tok Pisin items of this program:

<i>iang</i>	<i>name</i>	<i>vaiang</i>	<i>to give a name</i>
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Other items which look similar are derived from intransitive verbs:

<i>mong (N)</i>	<i>decoration</i>		
<i>mong (intr)</i>	<i>to be decorated</i>	<i>vamong</i>	<i>to decorate (make s.o. being decorated)</i>
<i>mal (N)</i>	<i>dress, clothes</i>		
<i>mal (intr)</i>	<i>to put on clothes, to wear clothes</i>	<i>vamal</i>	<i>to clothe s.o.</i>

## 5.1.2.11 MF programs 12 and 13

Both programs deal with the derivation of verbals involving various kinds of metaphorical shifts which cannot be found in Tolai.

## 5.1.2.12 MF program 14

In this program abstract nominals are derived from adjectives, for example:

<i>strongpela</i>	<i>strong</i>	<i>strong</i>	<i>strength</i>
<i>longpela</i>	<i>long</i>	<i>long</i>	<i>length</i>

Tolai has the same type of derivation:

<i>dekdek</i>	<i>strong</i>	<i>dekdek</i>	<i>strength</i>
<i>lolovina</i>	<i>long</i>	<i>lolovina</i>	<i>length</i>

Other abstract nouns are derived by the nominalisation affix /ni-, -in-, -un-/, for example:

<i>mamat</i>	<i>heavy</i>	<i>minamat</i>	<i>weight</i>
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## 5.1.2.13 MF program 15

The deadjectivised nominals in this program denote a thing or a person having the property referred to by the adjective. Though comparable constructions are found in Tolai, substratum influence cannot be proven, because they are too common to prove anything.

In some instances the Tok Pisin item only corresponds to a Tolai expression in form but not in meaning, for example:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
liklik bilong mi	<i>my younger sibling</i>	natugu little-my	<i>my child</i>
bikpela bilong mi	<i>my older sibling</i>	ngalagu big-my	<i>my father</i>
tambu bilong mi	<i>a blood relative of mine</i>	tabugu taboo-my	<i>s.th. that is taboo for me</i>
yelo bilong kiau	<i>the yolk of an egg</i>	lapua na kiau yellow C egg	<i>the yolk of an egg</i>

Note that Tolai has another very productive means of deriving nouns from adjectives; the suffix *-ina/-una/-na* transforms adjectives into nouns denoting a person or a thing that has the property referred to by the adjective, e.g. *bilak bad*, *bilakina a bad person*.

#### 5.1.2.14 MF program 16

While in Tok Pisin only a restricted number of adjective bases can become causative verbs, in Tolai the derivation of such verbs is very productive, for example:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
bikpela	<i>big</i>	ngala	<i>big</i>
bikim	<i>to make s.th. big</i>	vangala	<i>to make s.th. big, to enlarge, to rear</i>
draipela	<i>dry</i>	deng, ge	<i>dry</i>
drain	<i>to dry</i>	vadeng, vage	<i>to dry</i>

There are Tolai equivalents not only for all Tok Pisin examples presented by Mühlhäusler (1979:364), but also for those which according to Mühlhäusler were rejected by his informants, though they seemed to be possible:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
*nuim	<i>to make new</i>	vakalamane	<i>to make new</i>
nupela	<i>new</i>	kalamana	<i>new</i>

No equivalent is found for Mühlhäusler's hypothetical form \*lapunim *to make old*, because the corresponding Tolai word *patuana aged, mature, old* does not denote a property that may be caused by someone, i.e. a person may become *patuana*, but nobody or nothing can make somebody else a *patuana*. In my opinion the same holds true for the Tok Pisin *lapun*, so that it is not justifiable to consider \*lapunim as a possible but non-existent form.

The correspondences between deadjectivised causatives in Tolai and Tok Pisin suggest that the development of Tok Pisin causatives was caused by substratum influence. But if this was the case, it is unclear why this type of derivation is not productive in Tok Pisin as in Tolai.

#### 5.1.2.15 MF program 17

Both in Tolai and Tok Pisin all adjectives may be used in predicative position:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
bikpela haus	<i>big house</i>	a ngala na pal	<i>big house</i>
		D <i>big</i> C <i>house</i>	
haus i bikpela	<i>the house is big</i>	a pal i ngala	<i>the house is big</i>

Though Tolai exhibits the same structure as Tok Pisin, the use of adjectives in predicative position in Tok Pisin cannot be ascribed to substratum influence, since it is already found in ancient Bichelamar and has obviously resulted from the loss of the copula, for example:

Master belong me he no good	<i>My master is not good</i>
	(Schuchardt 1889:159)

A full discussion of adjectives is given in 4.3.

#### 5.1.2.16 MF program 18

This program deals with the derivation of manner adverbials from adjective bases. Here again Tolai behaves differently. There are only a very few adjectives in Tolai which are used like adverbs to modify a verb, because verbs are usually modified by verb serialisation or by non-derived adverbs. In contrast to Pidgin the modifiers cannot be separated from the modified verb. In other cases the predicate is formed by the adjective + connective particle + verbal noun. Compare:

Tok Pisin	Tolai
ol i paitim em nogut	dia ga tata kakaina ka
<i>they hit him badly</i>	<i>they TA speak very-bad PART</i>
	<i>they spoke in a wrong way</i>
	(M 216 Rak)
em i winim susap kranki	pa iau valongore mal ia
<i>he played the jew's harp wrongly</i>	<i>not I hear do-well it</i>
	<i>I did not understand it well</i>
	(M 28 Rak)

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
ol plaua i luk moa naispela tru		dia ko na tinata	
		they good C speaking	
<i>the flowers look very nice</i>		they speak well, use good	
		language (K1 40 Viv)	

## 5.1.2.17 MF program 19

In Tok Pisin intransitive verbs can be transformed into abstract nominals without undergoing morphological changes, whereas in Tolai some verbs behave like their Tok Pisin equivalents while others must take the nominalisation affix /ni-, -in-, -un-/:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
amamas	<i>to be happy</i>	gugu	<i>to be happy</i>
amamas	<i>gladness, joy</i>	gugu	<i>gladness</i>
sori	<i>to be sorry</i>	ligur	<i>to be sorry</i>
sori	<i>sorrow</i>	niligur	<i>sorrow</i>
save	<i>to know</i>	matoto	<i>to understand</i>
save	<i>knowledge</i>	minatoto	<i>knowledge</i>

## 5.1.2.18 MF program 20

The nominals derived from intransitive verbals in this program 'describe the action itself rather than the manner in which it is carried out' (Mühlhäusler 1979:367). All the examples presented by Mühlhäusler belong to the semantic class of intransitive verbs denoting bodily actions. Though in Tolai it is just the semantic class of intransitive verbs denoting bodily actions that among a few others does not undergo any changes in the derivation of verbal nouns, this should not be over-estimated, as there are only a very few types of derivation in both languages, so that any could occur merely by chance. Compare:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
swet	<i>to sweat</i>	mangamangon	<i>to sweat</i>
	<i>sweat</i>		<i>sweat</i>
puinga	<i>to fart</i>	puiga	<i>to fart</i>
	<i>fart</i>		<i>fart</i>
pispis	<i>to urinate</i>	mim	<i>to urinate</i>
	<i>urine</i>		<i>urine</i>

But:

tok(tok)	<i>to talk</i>	tata	<i>to talk</i>
	<i>talk</i>	tinata	<i>talk</i>

## 5.1.2.19 MF program 21

This program deals with the derivation of causatives from intransitive verbs, which has already been discussed in 4.2.3. In Tok Pisin causative verbs are derived by the affixation of the transitive marker *-im*, and in Tolai by the causative prefix *va-* (in Pala and Label the causative prefix is *ha-*; in the Duke of York languages it is *va-* as in Tolai), for example:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
<i>pundaun</i>	<i>to fall</i>	<i>bura</i>	<i>to fall</i>
<i>pundaunim</i>	<i>to make s.o./s.th. fall down</i>	<i>vabura</i>	<i>to make s.o./s.th. fall down</i>

(More examples have been given on p. 48.)

It seems, however, to be more justifiable not to trace back any correspondences between Tok Pisin and Tolai to direct substratum influence for each lexical item, but to ascribe them to the fact that, in both cases, we are concerned with the derivation of causative verbals from intransitive verbs, which must naturally lead to at least similar results. It is only the fact that Tok Pisin has developed a very productive derivation of causatives (which is not found in English) which was probably influenced by the existence of causatives in the substratum languages.

There are examples of Tok Pisin derived causatives, the meanings of which differ from the corresponding Tolai items, although the meanings of the Tolai and the Tok Pisin intransitive verbal bases are the same:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
<i>sindaun</i>	<i>to sit; to live, stay</i>	<i>ki</i>	<i>to sit; to live, exist</i>
<i>sindaunim</i>	<i>to civilise, make s.o. behave</i>	<i>vaki</i>	<i>to cause to sit, place; to create</i>

## 5.1.2.20 MF program 22

'This program refers to those instances where certain intransitive verb bases become transitive verbals which are followed by nominal objects' (Mühlhäusler 1979:372).

Since the two classes of intransitive and transitive verbs do not coincide in Tolai and Tok Pisin (cf. p. 47f.), there are only a few items among those presented by Mühlhäusler which have analogs in Tolai. And these are only incidental, because of the aforementioned differences between Tolai and Tok Pisin, for example:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
lap (intr)	<i>to laugh</i>	nongon (intr)	<i>to laugh</i>
lapim (tr)	<i>to laugh at</i>	nongone (tr)	<i>to laugh at</i>

But:

pait (intr)	<i>to fight</i>	ubu (tr)	<i>to beat, kill</i>
paitim (tr)	<i>to beat, hit</i>	varubu (intr)	<i>to fight, beat each other</i>
wok (intr)	<i>to work</i>	palum (tr)	<i>to touch, handle</i>
wokim (tr)	<i>to make</i>	papalum (intr)	<i>to work</i>

In other instances the derived transitive verbals in Tolai and Tok Pisin have a different meaning though the intransitive verbal base has the same, a fact which leads to the conclusion that the derivation of the Tok Pisin transitive verbals has nothing to do with that of the Tolai ones, for example:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
kros	<i>to be angry</i>	kankan	<i>to be angry</i>
krosim	<i>to scold</i>	kankanuane	<i>to be angry because of, to be angry with</i>

#### 5.1.2.21 MF program 23

In this program transitive verbs are transformed into nouns denoting the fashion or activity referred to by the verb. Whereas Tok Pisin transitive verbs do not undergo any morphological changes, when transformed into nouns, Tolai verbal nouns are derived by the nominalisation affix /ni-, -in-, -un-/ or by reduplication in most instances, for example:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
askim	<i>to ask</i>	tir (tr)	<i>to ask</i>
askim	<i>question</i>	tinir	<i>question</i>

Tolai verbal nouns are never derived from derived transitive verbs, but from the intransitive counterparts of derived transitive verbs. If the intransitive counterpart of a derived transitive verb is derived by var- (as, for instance, the intransitive counterparts of causatives) the verbal noun shows the same form:

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
blesim	<i>to bless</i>	vadoan(e)	<i>to make fortunate,</i>
		doan	<i>to be fortunate</i>
blesim	<i>blessing</i>	varvadoan (intr)	<i>to bless</i>
		(N)	<i>blessing</i>

### 5.1.2.22 Conclusion

Though multifunctionality is found both in Tok Pisin and Tolai, these two languages show correspondences only in seven MF programs (MF program 10, 11, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21), which, however, does not mean that the development of these Tok Pisin programs was influenced by Tolai in all cases. The main difference between Tok Pisin and Tolai is that in Tok Pisin mostly verbs are derived from nouns (13 programs), whereas in Tolai only in two cases (MF program 10 and 11) nouns serve as the bases for the derivation of verbs. The reason for this difference is that until recently Tok Pisin was only learnt as a second language, and that it is mainly the nouns which a second languages speaker learns first.

## 5.2. Compounds and Lexical Phrases

### 5.2.1. Introduction

Compounding and the formation of lexical phrases developed in Tok Pisin as a very productive type of derivation, because it is the easiest way to enlarge the lexicon without introducing new elements. Though compounds and lexical phrases are of different size level, they will be dealt with together in those cases, where they express the same semantic content, e.g. muliwara and wara muli *lemonade*.

### 5.2.2 Nominal compounds and lexical phrases

Mühlhäusler (1979:377ff.) has established fourteen types of nominal compounds (in his terminology 'CP programs'):

No.	Compound	Lexical Phrase	Meaning
1	N+N      manmeri	-	<i>people</i>
2	Adj+N      biknait	bikpela san	<i>midnight</i> <i>heat</i>
3	Adj+N      bikhet	draipela bun	<i>stubborn person</i> <i>adult, strong person</i>
4	V <sub>intr</sub> +N      paitman	man bilong palt	<i>fighter</i>
5	N+N      bosboi		<i>bossboy</i>
6	V <sub>tr</sub> +N      opbotol	-	<i>bottle opener</i>
7	N+N      pepamani	paus pepa	<i>paper money</i> <i>paper bag</i>
8	N+N      sopis	pik susu	<i>sawfish</i> <i>pig with breasts</i>
9	N+N      pikgris	bun bilong pis	<i>pork fat, lard</i> <i>fish bone</i>

No.	Compound		Lexical Phrase	Meaning
10	N+N	renkot	kot ren	<i>rain coat</i>
11	V+N	washaus	haus kuk	<i>outbuilding for washing kitchen</i>
12	N+N	melbek	bek mel	<i>mail bag</i>
13	N+N	busman	paul bilong bus	<i>man living in the bush bush-hen</i>
14	N+N	buswin	sit paia	<i>offshore wind ashes</i>

#### 5.2.2.1 CP program 1

CP program 1 (Mühlhäusler 1979:377f.) deals with 'cumulative' compounds, i.e. compounds whose meanings are the sum of the meanings of their components, e.g. *papamama parents*, *manmeri people*. Some compounds of this type consist of components borrowed from Tolai, but the compounds themselves are not found in Tolai, e.g. *buaidaka all that is necessary for betelnutchewing*, lit. *betelnut-pepper*, *kambangdaka side-dishes for betelnut*, lit. *lime-pepper*, *luluitultul the people appointed by the government to look after village affairs*, lit. *the first and the second in charge of village*. Since this type of compounding is not found in English either, it seems to have been developed independently in Tok Pisin.

#### 5.2.2.2 CP programs 2 and 3

Both programs have in common that the resulting compounds consist of adjective + noun, and that the order of the components is the same at word and phrase level.

In CP program 2 the compound refers to a specific kind of what is expressed by the noun. At word level the adjectives drop the suffix *-pela*:

##### 1. Word level items

Tok Pisin	meaning of the components	meaning of the compound
<i>bikbus</i>	<i>big + bush</i>	<i>the deep jungle</i>
<i>gutnius</i>	<i>good + news</i>	<i>gospel</i>

##### 2. Phrase level items

<i>liklik rat</i>	<i>little + rat</i>	<i>mouse</i>
<i>bikpela hama</i>	<i>big + hammer</i>	<i>sledge hammer</i>



Adjectives which follow their noun do not occur in compounds, but only in lexical phrases:

buk tabu      *book + sacred*      *bible*

The meaning of the compound is 'almost always different from that of the two component elements, being transferred or extended meaning' (Hall 1943:22).

In contrast to Tok Pisin, Tolai has only lexical phrases, e.g. *tinata tuna Tolai language*, lit. *real, genuine language*, and thus could not have served as a model for the Tok Pisin compounds.

The compounds accounted for by CP program 3 are so-called *bahuvrihi* compounds, i.e. exocentric compounds which consist of an adjective and a noun, and refer to objects or persons having what is described by this adjective + noun, e.g. *blakskin native*, lit. *s.o. having a black skin*. This program is found in English as well, e.g. *redskin, blackshirt*, but in Tok Pisin it is much more productive, which has to be ascribed to independent development. For the only *bahuvrihi* compounds found in Tolai are formed by *tabi large, thick*. *Tabi*, which corresponds to *bik* in Tok Pisin compounds, is a bound form and occurs only as a component in compounds, for example:

Tok Pisin	Tolai	meaning
bikhet	tabiula	<i>stubborn person (big+head)</i>
bikmaus	tabingie	<i>impudent person (big+mouth)</i>
bikbel	tabibala	<i>fat person (big+belly)</i>

#### 5.2.2.3 CP program 6

The compounds of CP program 6 (Mühlhäusler 1979:388) consist of a transitive verb (whose transitive marker may be dropped) plus the nominal object of that verb. They are exocentric compounds denoting a person or a thing that does the action expressed by the verbal phrase, for example:

Tok Pisin	meaning of the components	meaning of the compound
tanimtok	<i>turn+talk</i>	<i>translator</i>
optin	<i>open+tin</i>	<i>tin opener</i>

According to Mühlhäusler, the program is of very low productivity. The same holds true for English, e.g. *lickspittle, pickpocket*, and Tolai, where the following items are found:

Tolai	components		meaning of compound
al-kilamu	al (tr)	<i>to draw, pull</i>	<i>corkscrew</i>
	kilamu	<i>cork</i>	
poko-virua	poko (tr)	<i>to cut up</i>	<i>seashell, originally used for dissecting human bodies</i>
	virua	<i>killed human body that is to be eaten</i>	

#### 5.2.2.4 CP programs 4, 5, 7-14

In compounds of these programs the order of components is the same as in English compounds and lexical phrases, as the modifier always precedes the modified head, for example:

No.	Tok Pisin	meaning
4	sutboi	<i>hunter (lit. 'shoot-boy', compare English <i>playboy</i>)</i>
5	devilman	<i>devilman</i>
7	pepamani	<i>paper money</i>
8	wilkar	<i>wheelbarrow</i>
9	pikgris	<i>pork fat</i>
10	pislain	<i>fishline</i>
11	washaus	<i>wash-house</i>
12	letabokis	<i>letter box</i>
13	saitlam	<i>side lamp (on a boat)</i>

In Tok Pisin lexical phrases, however, the word order of the phrase members is the other way round, i.e. the modifier follows the modified head, and thus it is different from the order of elements in English phrases, for example:

10	kot ren	<i>rain coat</i>
12	haus pik	<i>pig sty</i>

In those cases where both compounds and lexical phrases are found in Tok Pisin, the lexical phrases seem to be older than the corresponding compounds. Thus *lam wokabaut hurricane lamp* is used before 1947, whereas in present day Tok Pisin it is *wokabautlam* (Mühlhäusler 1979: 287).

Tolai has not got nominal compounds corresponding to those of these programs, but only phrases in which the order of head and modifier is the same as in Tok Pisin. The only difference is that head noun and modifier are connected by the connective particle *na*, whereas in Tok Pisin they are juxtaposed in most instances. The fact that in many

cases the Tok Pisin lexical phrases are older than the corresponding compounds and that they show an order of elements which is different to that of English, but the same as in Tolai nominal phrases makes substratum influence at least probable. Examples:

No.	Tok Pisin	Tolai	meaning
4	man bilong pait	tena vinarubu <i>expert fighting</i>	<i>fighter</i>
5	tok pipia <i>talk rubbish</i>	tinata na piriku <i>talk nonsense</i>	<i>worthless talk/ nonsensical talk</i>
7	haus kapa <i>sheet metal</i>	pal na kapa <i>house C sheet metal</i>	<i>house made of corrugated iron</i>
8	sip sel <i>ship sail</i>	parau na mal <i>ship C cloth</i>	<i>sailing boat (boat having a sail)</i>
9	bun bilong pis	ur na en <i>bone C fish</i>	<i>fish bone</i>
10	kot ren	mal na bata <i>clothes C rain</i>	<i>rain coat</i>
11	haus kuk	pal na kuk	<i>kitchen</i>
12	haus boi	pal na tarai <i>house C men</i>	<i>house for males</i>
13	kindam bilong solwara	kidam na ta <i>shrimp C sea</i>	<i>prawn</i>
14	taro kongkong	pa Baining <i>taro</i>	<i>Chinese/Baining taro</i>
	sit paia <i>remnants from fire</i>	(kabu)	<i>ashes</i>

Commentary:

CP program 4

The compounds and lexical phrases in CP program 4 consist of a verb and a noun - in most instances *man man* or *meri woman* - and denote someone (or something) whose habitual action is referred to by the verb, e.g. *paitman* or *man bilong pait fighter*. The lexical phrase has the structure N bilong V. Only in one instance, which is ascribed to Tolai influence, it is N+V: *man save knowledgeable person* (Mühlhäusler 1979:385).

In all instances the corresponding Tolai expressions are phrases consisting of *tena expert, skilled person* or *lup a person strongly inclined towards to s.th.* (*lup* never occurs in isolation and is directly followed by a noun or a verbal noun. In *tena* the conjunctive

particle is dropped, because it ends in -na). Compare:

Tok Pisin	Tolai	meaning
man save	tena minatoto understanding	knowledgeable person
man bilong kaikai	lup nian eating	glutton
man bilong tok	tena tinata talk	spokesman

#### CP program 5

In this program Mühlhäusler (1979:385) deals with 'equative' compounds and lexical phrases, for example:

haus stua	store, lit. a house that is a store
tok pipia	worthless talk, lit. talk that is rubbish

Most linguists (e.g. Mihalic 1971:19, Wurm 1971b:55) classify *giaman* in phrases like *tok giaman false talk, lie* as an adjective, because its meaning corresponds to that of English *false*. But since *giaman* also functions as a noun and the noun *tok* combines with nouns as in *tok pipia*, there is no reason to regard it as an adjective. If one classifies it as a noun (as I would do), the phrase *tok giaman* exactly corresponds to Tolai *tinata na vavaongo*. *Vavaongo* is the verbal noun of *vaongo to tell s.th. that is not true*.

*haus skul school house*, which according to Mühlhäusler belongs to CP program 5 as well, can also be classified as an item belonging to CP program 11, if one regards *skul* as a verb meaning *to learn, to go to school* (compare: *olgeta de mipela i skul* [Mihalic 1971:177]). In this case it would be similar to *haus kuk kitchen* and correspond to Tolai *pal na vartovo*, lit. *house for learning*.

#### CP program 10

Here the modifying noun indicated what the head-noun referent is used for. All the examples presented by Mühlhäusler denote cultural innovations, so that there are no direct genuine Tolai correspondences. But that this type of derivation also occurs in Tolai is shown by traditional expressions, for example:

tabu na en	tabu (shell-money) used for buying fish
tabu na boroi	tabu used for buying pigs

#### CP program 11

The lexical phrases of this program refer to objects and localities used for particular actions, especially houses and rooms. There are only a very few traditional Tolai expressions which show

the same structure, since the huts had not many functions that needed to be specified, for example:

pal	na	paraparau	house where the new bridegroom lives
house C	hiding		until the wedding day

But there are many items which have been introduced for European houses:

Tok Pisin	Tolai	meaning
rum kaikai	pal na nian	dining room
room eat	house C eating	
rum slip	pal na vava/nldiop	sleeping room

CP program 14

In this program the modifying nouns denote where the head-noun referents originate (Mühlhäusler 1979:396). Mühlhäusler's treatment of items like *naip meru paring knife*, lit. *knife which comes from Meru*, and *taro kongkong Chinese taro*, lit. *taro which comes from Hongkong*, together with *sit paia ashes* and *sit bilong binen honey* is problematic. Whether they should be classified under the same heading is questionable, as *meru* and *kongkong* are proper names and should be classified as adjectives which follow their nouns (compare *tok Inglis*). Since in Tolai a *pa baining Baining taro* has to be interpreted as N + Adj, Tok Pisin and Tolai exhibit the same phrasal structure in this case, i.e. N + Adj. Hence *taro kongkong* is lit. *taro Hongkong* and not *taro that comes from Hongkong*.

According to Mühlhäusler (1979:275), early varieties of Tok Pisin had a type of lexical phrase which did not survive, namely *man + N<sub>loc</sub>* such as *man Ingran Englishman*, *man bus bush dweller*, *man Manus Manus Islander*.

Present day NGP derives nominals referring to inhabitants of certain localities by means of a program involving the change of subcategorical status. Hence *Ingran England* or *an Englishman*, *Siapan Japan* or *a Japanese*, *bikbus the deep jungle* or *someone living in the deep jungle* (Mühlhäusler 1979:275).

Tolai has two devices to derive expressions like *man Ingran* or *Ingran Englishman*:

1. *te person belonging to + N<sub>loc</sub>*, e.g. *a te Raluana*  
*a native of Raluana*;
2. *a/ra + N<sub>loc</sub>*, e.g. *a Baining* *a native from the Baining area*, *a Baining*.

In contrast to *a/ra* + *N<sub>loc</sub>* denoting people from a certain locality, names of localities are never preceded by the determinative particle *a/ra*. *Te* + *N<sub>loc</sub>* exactly corresponds to Tok Pisin *man* + *N<sub>loc</sub>*, whereas the second type of derivation is similar to the type found in present day Tok Pisin. Since both types are found in old as well as in modern Tolai, substratum influence cannot be made responsible for the development of *man* + *N<sub>loc</sub>* and its later substitution.

#### 5.2.2.5 Conclusion

However similar the constructions in Tolai and Tok Pisin may be, the Tok Pisin word order may have another origin as well. The examples presented by Mühlhäusler (1975a:35) show that already in Samoan Plantation Pidgin the word order of such constructions is different from that in English and the same as in Tok Pisin, for example:

haus simen    *concrete building*            haus pepa    *office*  
 haus sik      *hospital*

Thus the Tok Pisin constructions may have their source in similar patterns of their predecessor Samoan Plantation Pidgin, and only the fact that they became a very productive means of expression was perhaps reinforced by Tolai.

#### 5.2.3 Verbal compounds and lexical phrases

Seven CP programs deal with verbal compounds and lexical phrases which consist of a noun and a verb or of two verbs, the latter perhaps better referred to as verbal chaining, concatenation or serialisation and often considered as strongly subjected to substratum influences. Mühlhäusler (1979:398) lists the following types of verbal compounds and phrases:

No.	basic item	derived item	example	meaning
15	<i>V<sub>tr</sub></i> + <i>N</i>	<i>V<sub>intr</sub></i>	kikbol	<i>to play soccer</i>
16	<i>N</i> + <i>V<sub>intr</sub></i>	<i>V<sub>intr</sub></i>	aislip <i>eye-sleep</i>	<i>to be very tired</i>
17	<i>V<sub>intr</sub></i> + <i>V<sub>intr</sub></i>	<i>V<sub>intr</sub></i>	lap indai <i>laugh-die</i>	<i>to die of laughter</i>
18	<i>V<sub>intr</sub></i> + <i>V<sub>tr</sub></i>	<i>V<sub>tr</sub></i>	tok hamarim <i>talk-hammer</i>	<i>to attack with words</i>
19	<i>V<sub>tr</sub></i> + <i>V<sub>tr</sub></i>	<i>V<sub>tr</sub></i>	harim save <i>hear know</i>	<i>to recognise from hearing</i>
20	<i>V<sub>tr</sub></i> + <i>V<sub>intr</sub></i>	<i>V<sub>tr</sub></i>	kilim indai <i>kill die</i>	<i>to kill</i>
21	<i>V</i> + bek	<i>V</i>	marit bek	<i>to be remarried</i>

## 5.2.3.1. CP program 15

The compounds of this program consist of a transitive verb and a noun, for example:

Tok Pisin	literal meaning	meaning of the compound
kikbol	<i>kick ball</i>	<i>to play soccer</i>
lukbuk	<i>look book</i>	<i>to read</i>
piniswok	<i>finish work</i>	<i>to finish one's contract</i>

In Tolai there are similar compounds consisting of a transitive verbal and a noun, for example:

dia	ga doko-kakaruk	<i>they killed chickens</i>
they(pl)	kill-chicken	(M 252 Rak)
al-oaga		<i>to take s.o.'s canoe in</i>
pull-canoe		<i>order to punish him</i>

Whereas in the Tok Pisin compounds the obligatory transitive marker is dropped, all Tolai compounds collected so far contain only transitive verbs which originally have no transitive marker. The Tolai compounds differ from related paraphrases in that the determinative of the noun is deleted, for example:

pait-pal	<i>to build houses</i>
pait ra pal	<i>to build the house(s)</i>

While the noun in verbal phrases like *pait ra pal* refers to a concrete individual object or objects, it is taken in a general more abstract sense in compounds like *pait-pal*. If this difference is to be expressed with verbs whose transitive form cannot be directly followed by the object, their intransitive form plus the connective particle *na* is used:

momo na tava	<i>to drink water,</i>
but mome ra tava	<i>to drink the water</i>

The deletion of the determinative in Tolai parallels with that of the article in English, which in both languages leads to juxtaposition, as the loss of *-im* in Tok Pisin does.

## 5.2.3.2 CP program 16

The compounds of CP program 16 are intransitive verbs which consist of a noun usually referring to a part of the body plus an intransitive verb denoting a state of that part of the body, e.g. *ainogut to have bad eyesight*, lit. *eye bad*. Some of these Tok Pisin compounds have Tolai counterparts.

Compare:

Tok Pisin	Tolai	meaning
aislip <i>eye-asleep</i>	mata-vuavua <i>eye-sleep</i>	<i>to be very tired/sleepy</i>
belkros <i>belly-cross</i>	bala-kadik <i>belly-pain</i>	<i>to be angry, upset</i>
	bala-dadar <i>belly-tremble</i>	<i>to be frightened</i>

#### 5.2.3.3 CP programs 17-21 (verbal chaining)

As in many other pidgins and creoles, verbal chaining is a very productive type of compounding in Tok Pisin. Since in only a few instances combinations of verb plus verb can be explained as the result of systematic loss of prepositions (Hall 1966:77), verbal chaining was considered a typical feature of pidgins and creoles reflecting substratum influences. Thus the Caribbean pidgins and creoles were regarded as being influenced by a common West African substratum (Hall 1966:77), while

South Seas pidgin expressions may have originated independently of those that have an undoubtedly African base; or they may have been introduced into the South Seas by sailors and traders who had picked them up directly or indirectly from African contacts (Hall 1966:78).

As verbal chaining is found in Tolai as well, one need not take African languages into consideration, but one should also be careful not to regard Tok Pisin verbal chaining as a phenomenon that in every respect can be traced back to Tolai. Mühlhäusler already pointed out that

a closer examination of the Tolai system of verbal chaining reveals that the present day NGP system is only partly reflected in this substratum language, and that many types recorded by the author are not found in Tolai at all (Mühlhäusler 1979:400-404).

It appears that direct substratum influence has played a significant role in such constructions, though supportive evidence from the analysis of the substratum languages in question needs to be adduced (Mühlhäusler 1979:400-404).

In order to find out which part of the Tok Pisin system of verbal chaining may be ascribed to Tolai influence and which must have been developed independently, the examples presented by Mühlhäusler will be discussed in detail in the following.



## 5.2.3.4 Verbal chaining in Tolai

In Tolai up to four verbs may be juxtaposed, for example

tumu-ba i la ko - mur ta ra vinau ma dir la tar  
 whenever he TA climb follow on D liana and they<sub>2</sub> TA TA

poko-kutu- vue- mule meme  
 cut- take to pieces-throw-away- do again him with-it  
 1 2 3 4

Whenever he climbed the liana following them, they cut it into pieces, so that he fell down with it again (M 182 Rak).

Verbal chains like ko-mur and poko-kutu-vue-mule are endocentric constructions the first verb ( $V_1$ ) being the head, the second ( $V_2$ ) a modifier of ( $V_1$ ), the third ( $V_3$ ) a modifier of ( $[V_1]V_2$ ) and the fourth a modifier of ( $[[V_1]V_2]V_3$ ). The last verb may, as in the case above, enter into fusion with the third person singular pronoun, which then belongs to the preceding verbs as a whole, i.e. to ( $[[[V_1]V_2]V_3]V_4$ ) and not only to the last one.

The last verb of the composition determines whether the composition as a whole is transitive or intransitive. Thus a composition consisting of an intransitive verb plus a transitive verb is transitive. The inverse order  $V_{tr}+V_{intr}$ , however, is not permitted; the last verb may be intransitive only if the preceding verb is intransitive as well. The only exception is al-dekdek to pull tightly, which consists of the transitive verb al to pull and the intransitive verb dekdek to be strong, tight (Meyer 1961:8), so that it seems to be more adequate to classify dekdek as an adverb in this case.

Examples:

1.  $V_{intr} + V_{intr} = VP_{intr}$

ma i pil-irop and it jumped down  
 and it jump-come down (M 96 Rak)

ma dir ga tar pil-gumu ta ra mareng  
 and they<sub>2</sub> TA TA jump-dive into D Mareng sea  
 and they had jumped into the Mareng sea (M 138 Rak),

2.  $V_{tr} + V_{tr} = VP_{tr}$

ma dia ga vue- vagumu diat and they threw them into  
 and they<sub>4</sub> TA throw-make dive them<sub>4</sub> the sea (M 278 Rak)

3.  $V_{intr} + V_{tr} = VP_{tr}$

dir pil- mur ia and they jumped following  
 they<sub>2</sub> jump-follow him after him (M 28 Rak)

## 5.2.3.5 CP program 17

The endocentric subordinative constructions resulting from this program consist of two intransitive verbs 'including *stil to be hidden*, *tok to speak*, *wok to be busy*, as well as those denoting location or movement which are followed by both basic and derived verbal lexical items' (Mühlhäusler 1979:400).

Mühlhäusler regards the intransitive verb bases *stil*, *tok* etc. as 'a kind of classifier of verbal actions' or correspondences to adverbials in English. He presents the following examples, which I will classify below:

<i>stil lukluk</i>	<i>to peep, look without being noticed</i>
<i>stil puspup</i>	<i>to have illicit sexual intercourse</i>
<i>stil pait</i>	<i>to attack without being seen</i>
<i>lap indai</i>	<i>to die of laughter</i>
<i>spak indai</i>	<i>to be dead drunk</i>
<i>slip indai</i>	<i>to sleep like a log</i>
<i>tok sori</i>	<i>to talk sadly, express sympathy</i>
<i>tok singsing</i>	<i>to recite in a singing voice</i>
<i>tok kros</i>	<i>to express one's anger in words</i>
<i>toktok resis</i>	<i>to dispute, have an argument</i>
<i>wok bung</i>	<i>to be cooperative</i>
<i>wok raun</i>	<i>to be an itinerant worker</i>
<i>go popaia</i>	<i>to miss the mark</i>
<i>ron spit</i>	<i>to run speedily</i>

There are five types of compositions to be distinguished:

1. *stil + V<sub>intr</sub>* *to perform an action or to be in a state without being seen*
2. *V<sub>intr</sub> + indai* *to do in an extreme manner, to be extremely*
3. *tok + V<sub>intr</sub>* *to talk in a manner referred to by V<sub>intr</sub>*
4. *wok + V<sub>intr</sub>* *to work in a manner referred to by V<sub>intr</sub>*
5. *go/ron + V<sub>intr</sub>* *to move in a manner referred to by V<sub>intr</sub>*

According to Mühlhäusler's interpretation that '*stil*, *tok*, etc. act either as a kind of classifier of verbal actions or correspond to adverbials in English', *stil* and *indai* 'correspond to English adverbials' whereas *tok*, *wok*, *go* and *ron* 'act...as a kind of classifier', in so far as all actions referred to are modes of talking,

working, going and running respectively. But a classifier in this sense is just the opposite to something that corresponds to English adverbials. Therefore I would prefer to say, that apart from the first type stil + V<sub>intr</sub>, all types have in common that the first verb is modified by the second verb. Thus, for instance, the characteristic feature of the second subclass is that all items have the modifier indai in common, while the items of the third subclass share the head tok, but have different modifiers. The first type is irregular, as stil precedes the head as a modifier in the sense of *secretly*. But as Mühlhäusler mentions in a footnote (1979:400), the expected form lukluk stil has also been recorded.

Apart from stil+V<sub>intr</sub>, all types of constructions have direct correspondences in Tolai. Compare the following examples which are partly enlarged by items found in Mihalic (1971):

Tok Pisin		Tolai	
1. stil lukluk	<i>to peep</i>	kiki parau sit be-hidden	<i>to sit in ambush</i> (M 90 Liv)
		a lur na bura ivaivai D tear/TA/fall/be-concealed/ ta ra matana from/D/eye-his a tear dropped from his eye without being noticed by the others (M 152 Rak)	
2. slip india	<i>to sleep like a log</i>	va mat sleep die	<i>to sleep deeply</i>
3. tok isi	<i>to speak softly to whisper</i>	tata varmaianao speak whisper	<i>to whisper</i>
tok isi isi	<i>to speak slowly</i>	tata vovovon speak be-slow	<i>to speak slowly</i>
4. wok bung	<i>to be co- operative</i>	papalum maravut work help	<i>to work to- gether, cooperate</i>
		papalum varurung work be-together	<i>to work together</i>
5. go popaia	<i>to miss the go-bypass mark</i>	vana pakit go go-past	<i>to go past</i>
ron spit	<i>to run quickly</i>	vana lulut go be-quick	<i>to go quickly</i>

Tok Pisin tok kros *to express one's anger in words* and toktok resis *to dispute* correspond to Tolai tata na kankan and tata na vinarubu respectively, where kankan *anger* and vinarubu *fighting* are verbal nouns from kankan *to be angry* and varubu *to fight*, connected by the connective particle na with the preceding intransitive verb.

## 5.2.3.6. CP program 18

According to Mühlhäusler the only difference between CP program 17 and CP program 18 is that in CP program 18 the second verbal is transitive, for example:

tok hapim	<i>to abbreviate, cut a speech short</i>
tok hamarim	<i>to attack with words</i>
tok nogutim	<i>to insult verbally</i>
hariap givim	<i>to give speedily</i>
giaman rausim	<i>to pretend to make</i>
giaman paitim	<i>to pretend to hit s.o.</i>
stil harim	<i>to eavesdrop</i>
stil lukim	<i>to spy on</i>
pilai raunim	<i>to fly around</i>
bruk lusim	<i>to secede from</i>
wokabaut brukim bus	<i>to walk through the bush</i>

As I cannot agree in all respects with Mühlhäusler that 'the interpretation of the first verb is *doing s.th. whilst engaged in V<sub>2tr</sub>*', the Tok Pisin examples have to be checked, before the question of possible Tolai influence can be answered.

The constructions consisting of tok plus transitive verbal suit Mühlhäusler's interpretation very well, for they can be interpreted as *talking whilst being engaged in abbreviating, attacking and insulting* respectively, i.e. V<sub>2tr</sub> modifies tok as talking by which the person spoken about abbreviates, attacks or insults s.th. or s.o. Though direct equivalents of these expressions could not be found in Tolai, structurally similar constructions like

tata mur	<i>to call after, repeat another's words</i>
<i>speak follow</i>	
tata vadoane	<i>to pronounce a blessing on</i>
<i>speak make-fortunate</i>	

suggest that Tolai may have served as a model in this case.

The next item hariap givim exhibits a different structure. Here it is not the second verbal that modifies the first one, but the first verbal hariap describes the manner of giving, as even Mühlhäusler's translation suggests. In the corresponding Tolai constructions the modified verbal comes first followed by the intransitive verbal lulut/rurut, if it is transitive, or by the transitive verbal valulut/varurut, if it is transitive, e.g. vana lulut *to go quickly*. Therefore the Tok Pisin construction cannot be traced back to the corresponding Tolai construction but must have developed independently.

giaman wokim *to pretend to make* and giaman paitim *to pretend to hit* resemble hariap givim *to give speedily* in so far as the modifier precedes the modified verb. For giaman modifies the action referred to by wokim and paitim as being done under false pretences. Giaman wokim and giaman paitim have probably developed (as may also be the case with hariap givim) through the loss of the preposition long. Compare em i giaman long mekim *he is not pretending to do it* (Mihalic 1971:87).

For stil harim *to eavesdrop* and stil lukim *to observe from a hidden position* the same holds true as for stil lukluk. I think they should be better interpreted as *hearing whilst being hidden* and *observing whilst being hidden* than as *being hidden whilst engaged in hearing* and *being hidden whilst engaged in observing*, because it is harim and lukim that are modified by stil and not the other way round. The Tolai equivalent of stil harim is valongore ive, which consists of the transitive verb valongore *to hear* and ive *to conceal, to do secretly*. As the whole composition is transitive, the transitive form ive has to be chosen instead of ivai. Compare:

To Karvuvu i pait ive                      ke na ra    garamut  
 To Karvuvu he make do-secretly only that D garamut

*To Karvuvu secretly made only a garamut-drum* (M 48 Rak).

In the last three examples 'the second verb is most readily translated as a preposition in English' (Mühlhäusler 1979:401). There are a lot of examples of this type in Tolai, so that substratum influence might be possible, for example:

dia ga kokor kikil ia                      they crowded round him (M 258 Rak)  
 they<sup>4</sup>/TA/crowd/surround/him

dir ga kiki valivuan                      na kadir tutana  
 they<sup>2</sup>/TA/sit/cause to be in the middle/that/their<sup>2</sup>/man  
 they sat near their husband, so that he sat in the middle (M 130 Rak)

Conclusion:

According to the reinterpretation of the examples presented by Mühlhäusler, only those items of CP program 19 may be traced back to Tolai influences, in which the modifying verbal follows the modified one, i.e. the items consisting of tok plus transitive verbal and the last three items.

#### 5.2.3.7. CP program 19

The compositions of this program consist of two transitive verbs which (in opposition to program 20) have the same subject and object.

Mühlhäusler (1979:402) has already mentioned that 'direct substratum influence has played a significant role' in these constructions, and recognised as instances which 'certainly have direct reflections in Tolai', for example:

Tok Pisin		Tolai
kaikai traime	<i>to try to eat</i>	en kilang <i>eat try</i>
holim pasim	<i>to hold and obstruct, arrest</i>	vatur vake
digim autim	<i>to dig out</i>	kal vairop

Apart from vatur vake, which literally means *to cause to stand and hold fast*, kinim vake, lit. *to hold/catch and hold fast* and tabe vake, lit. *to take and hold fast* can be regarded as equivalents of holim pasim, for example:

ma dia ga korokorot ia upi                      diat a kinim vake  
*and they<sup>4</sup> TA chase him in-order-to they<sup>4</sup> TA catch hold-fast-him*  
*And they chased him in order to catch him (M 248 Rak).*

ma i ga ti tabe vake                      ke ra limana  
*and he TA TA take hold-fast PART D hand-his*  
*And he took his hand (M 252 Rak).*

Other correspondences between Tolai and Tok Pisin are found with compositions that contain *save to know* and *givim to give*, for example:

Tok Pisin:

harim save	<i>to recognise from hearing</i>
smelim save	<i>to recognise from smelling</i>
yu yet i mas helpim givim mani long oi katekis	<i>you must support the catechists     with money (M.1979:402)</i>

Tolai:

valongore ilam	<i>to recognise from hearing</i>
angine ilam	<i>to recognise from smelling</i>
gire ilam, na ilam (Ral) ni ilam (P., Rav)	<i>to recognise from seeing</i>
bing ilam	<i>to recognise from pressing</i>
i ga ian ni ilam ia she TA eat see know it	<i>she ate it and recognised it</i>
i valir                      tar ia ura na ta he cause to swim give him down to sea	<i>and he let him swim in the sea     (M 58 Rak)</i>

Some Tok Pisin compositions have transitive verbs as their second component which are derived from adverbs, e.g. *apim to raise, lift* and *autim to take out*. As adverbs cannot be transformed in Tolai, there are no direct counterparts of this type in the substratum language.

But there are similar compositions which contain the causatives of verbs of motion instead, for example:

ba	to go down	vaba	to cause to go down, put down
irop	to go out, to come down	vairop	to cause to go out, put out to cause to come down, put down
ruk	to enter	varuk	to cause to enter, put in

ma i ga vue vaba nam ra ur i nam ra tutana  
*And she TA throw cause to go down that D bone of that D man*  
*And she threw down the bones of the man (M 128 Rak).*

#### 5.2.3.8 CP program 20

In verbal compositions of this program (Mühlhäusler 1979:403) the object of the first verb is identical with the subject of the second. This type is not found in Tolai, because there the subject and the object must be always the same for both verbs. Compare:

Tok Pisin:

brata	bilongen	i	kilim	indai	brata	bilongen	he killed his
brother	his		pm	kill	die	brother	his
							brother

Tolai:

iau	ter	rang	vamat	kapi	ra	voana	I have already
I	TA	scorch	cause	to	die	E D	scorched one to
							death (K1 66 P).

#### 5.2.3.9 CP program 21

This program only deals with compositions that contain *bek* as second component. According to Mühlhäusler 'the status of *bek* is in the process of changing from that of a verb to that of a verbal suffix, with an accompanying change of meaning from *to be back, come back to again*, and it frequently corresponds to the English prefix *re*' (1979:404). For example:

lukim	bek	to revisit
marit	bek	to be remarried

*Bek* in the meaning of *again* looks very much like Tolai *mule* (tr), *mulai* (intr) *to do again*. *Mule* is used with transitive verbs, *mulai* with intransitive verbs and in isolation in the meaning of *to return*, e.g. *na mule see again* in

una	ga	na	mule	tamam	ma	nam
you-TA	TA	see	do-again	father-your	and	mother-your
						You will see your father and mother again (M 98 Rak).

In opposition to *mule/mulai*, *bek* is not sensitive to transitivity or intransitivity of the preceding verbs. *bek* is used with both kinds of verbs, whereas the transitive *bekim* means *to give back, repay, reward* and does not seem to be used in such verbal chains at all. Though their single components look alike, many similar looking chains in Tolai and Tok Pisin differ semantically, for example:

Tolai		Tok Pisin
<i>vana mulai</i>	<i>to go (away) again</i>	<i>go bek to go back,</i>
<i>go do-again</i>	(M 104 Rak)	<i>return</i>
but		
<i>vut mulai</i>	<i>to come again, back,</i>	
<i>come do-again</i>	<i>return (M 236 Rak)</i>	
<i>biti mulai</i>	<i>to say again, repeat</i>	<i>tok bek to answer</i>
<i>say do-again</i>		

Therefore it must be assumed that this program was not influenced by Tolai.

#### 5.2.3.10 Conclusion

In many cases of verbal chaining substratum influence seems possible. Those Tok Pisin verbal chains, however, in which the modifying verb precedes the modified one, must have developed independently. Some of these like *giaman paitim to pretend to hit* seem to have resulted from the loss of a preposition. Other items must have developed independently for semantic reasons (CP program 21) or because they do not meet the condition that subject and object must be the same for each member of the verbal chain (CP program 20).

In general, compounding exhibits far more evidence for substratum influence than multifunctionality and reduplication.

### 5.3. Reduplication

#### 5.3.1. Introduction

In his paper 'Reduplication and Repetition in New Guinea Pidgin' (1975b:210) Mühlhäusler pointed out that

there are at least three possible answers to the question of where the reduplications in Pidgin originate. Firstly the patterns found in the native language which has influenced other parts of pidgin grammar and lexicon most, namely Kuanua, were taken over into Pidgin. This answer reflects the substratum theory. Secondly, reduplication is a universal feature of all pidgins and creoles and can be traced back to Portuguese Pidgin. This answer reflects the relexification theory. Thirdly, reduplication is a



universal of languages which is bound to appear wherever a pidgin language originates. This answer reflects the universals of pidgin theory.

According to the subject of our examination we will be concerned with the question how the data of Tok Pisin and Tolai could possibly fit into the substratum theory. The correspondences found between the two languages do not necessarily result from Tolai influence upon Tok Pisin; for very common types of reduplication, such as the reduplication expressing duration, could have well developed independently. But unless we have more data about pidgins and creoles, we cannot decide where to draw the borderline between those types of reduplication that are too common to prove anything, and those that evidently reflect substratum influence. The only thing to be done at this stage is to state which Tok Pisin types of reduplication cannot be traced back to Tolai (and thus must have developed independently) and which Tolai types of reduplication are not reflected in Tok Pisin.

### 5.3.2. Reduplication in Tolai

As far as morphology is concerned, the Tolai system of reduplication is more complicated than that of Tok Pisin, so that a rough survey of the main principles must suffice here. In Tolai reduplication is applied to verbs, nouns, adjectives, cardinal numbers and adverbs as a productive device of derivation.

#### 5.3.2.1. Reduplication of verbs in Tolai

In the case of verbs three types of reduplication can be distinguished:

I. Reduplication by which transitive verbs are made intransitive (cf. p. 43), for example:

punang (tr)	to bury	pupunang (intr)	to bury
kul (tr)	to buy	kukul (intr)	to buy, trade, go shopping

Usually the first two phonemes are reduplicated.

II. Reduplication that indicates some kind of imperfective aspect or intensity of the action or state referred to by the simplex. Imperfective aspect means that the action has not been completed for the subject spoken about but is still going on. By this definition reduplicated imperfective verbs in Tolai can express not only simultaneousness (as the corresponding English progressive form), but also durative, habitual and repeated action.

When applied to transitive verbs this type of reduplication usually differs from the first one in that more phonemes are involved, e.g. *punapunang to be burying, to bury habitually* etc. Therefore the first type is often called partial reduplication and the second type full reduplication (Bley 1912:102ff.).

The examples found in Meier (1909) and Kleintitschen (1924) suggest that the second type of reduplication is not strictly obligatory, for example

(1) Continuous action:

i ga valongore pa ra ura kotkot  
he TA hear E D two crow

*He heard two crows crying  
on their way (K1 300 P)*

dir ga tangtangi vanavana  
they2 TA cry go

to-ia u, u iaian kaugu vudu?  
who you, you eat my banana

*Who are you who is eating  
my bananas? (K1 382 P)*

(2) Habitual action:

ma nem ra umana beo dia tangtangi  
and DEM D PL bird they4 cry

*And these birds sang (sitting)  
on the potol-trees all day  
(K1 271 P)*

a ul a potol a bungbung parika  
D top C potol D days all

tika na tarai ami mal diat  
one C men we2inc make them

*We two have created a tribe  
of men who sleep in the bush.*

dia vava ra pupui...  
they4 sleep D bush

pa dia punapunang diat,  
not they4 bury them4

*They do not bury their dead  
people, they do not eat good  
food (K1 56 P).*

pa dia ian ta ko na magit  
not they4 eat some good C food

(Note that in the last sentence *ian* is not reduplicated, though it refers to an habitual action.)

'a Gugut, ava iaian rava? '  
a Gugut, you4 eat what?

*'A Gugut, what do you usually  
eat?'*

'o nina ka da iaian ia,  
DEM DEM PART we4inc eat it

*'That what we usually eat  
is only fern and ants'*

a pup uka ma a rumu ka '  
D fern only and D ant only

*(K1 134 P)*

(3) Durative action:

i ga tup dir a vinarubu, dir ga  
it TA tire them2 D fight, they2 TA

*When the fight had tired them,  
they stopped (fighting), and  
they sat down for a while  
(K1 292 P).*

ngo dir ga kiki ga  
stop they2 TA sit PART

## (4) Repeated action:

go par a bungbung na keake i ga  
 DEM all C days C sun he TA  
 long tan a lama, a pa  
 steal from-it, D coconut, D taro  
 ma ra vudu  
 and D banana

*Every day he stole from it,  
 (namely) coconuts, taro and  
 bananas. And each time they  
 said that this little old  
 woman had stolen (K1 318 P).*

ma dia bitbiti, ba nem uka ra  
 And they<sup>4</sup> say, that DEM PART D  
 tubuan ik i loalong  
 old-woman little she steal

(Note that long is not reduplicated in the first sentence.)

ma dia taktakun uka nem ra  
 And they<sup>4</sup> accuse PART DEM D  
 tubuan ik ba ia nem i  
 old-woman little that she DEM  
 loalong  
 she steal.

*And they always accused this  
 little old woman that  
 it was she who stole all  
 the time (K1 318 P)*

## (5) Intensive action and state

This type of reduplication is particularly found with stative verbs and adjectives in predicative position.

ma i vutvut  
 and he come  
 i kalakalami ka  
 it sweet PART  
 i ga puak pa ra rat i ga mamamat  
 he TA take E D basket it TA heavy  
 i ga doka, i ga kitakita  
 he TA kill-him, he TA hit

*And he hurried (M 146 Rak)  
 it tastes very well, lit.  
 it is very sweet (K1 220 Rav)  
 he took the basket, which  
 was very heavy (K1 67 P)  
 he killed him, he hit him  
 hard (K1 65 P)*

The last item kitakita, which Kleintitschen translated as *hit him hard* ('schlag fest auf ihn') may perhaps be interpreted as an instance of repeated action as well.

Intransitive verbs which are already derived by partial reduplication can be reduplicated for a second time, in order to express imperfective aspect, so that eventually the original transitive verb is triplicated. In this case only the first syllable of the derived intransitive verb is reduplicated. Compare:

V <sub>tr</sub>	V <sub>tr/impf</sub>	V <sub>intr</sub>	V <sub>intr/impf</sub>	meaning of V <sub>tr</sub>
kal	kalkal	kakal	kakakal	to dig
kap	kapkap	kakap	kakakap	to take
pakat	pakapakat	papakat	papapakat	to beat

tikai i vanavana ma i tuk tadap one he walk and he meet go-to	A man who was walking along his way, met somebody else
na i ga kakakal, a tung DEM he TA dig, D hole	who was digging, namely a hole (M 162 Rak)
...kan o ra en ta iga papapakat away-from DEM D fish PART it TA beat	away from that fish that was beating (around itself)
ma ra balana ta with D body-his PART	with its body (M 196 Rak)

111. Reduplication of verbs by which nouns are derived:

(1) Verbal nouns:

pait (tr) to do	papait doing
bali (tr) to repay, recompense	babali reward, retaliation

(2) Concrete nouns, often denoting the result of the action referred to by the verbal bases:

tumu (tr) to draw	tutumu drawing (M 13 Rak)
bait (tr) to make a fence round, fence in	babait fence (K1 49 P)
pulu (tr) to wrap up	pupulu parcel (M 32 Rak)

(3) Nouns denoting instruments:

lam (tr) to bait	lamlam bait (K1 296 Nav)
ki (tr/intr) to sit	kiki seat, residence (M 118 Rak)

#### 5.3.2.2. Reduplication of nouns

Nouns that are not derived from verbs by the nominalisation affix /ni-, -in-, -un-/ can be reduplicated in order to express the plurality of the object referred to by the simplex, for example:

barmana young man	barbarmana young men (K1 329 P)
gunan village	gunagunan villages (K1 33 P)
rat basket	rarat baskets (M 98 Rak)
uma garden	umauma gardens (K1 18 P)

#### 5.3.2.3. Reduplication of adjectives

The majority of Tolai adjectives precede the noun in attributive position and are connected with it by the connective particle *na*, for example:

a ko na gunan D good C village	a good village (K1 197 P)
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amana	<i>some time ago</i>	amanamana	<i>a very long time ago (Kl 403 P)</i>
vailik	<i>far off</i>	vavailik	<i>very far off (M 200 Rak)</i>
parika	<i>entirely, altogether</i>	parparika	<i>entirely (Kl 27 P)</i>

A different kind of reduplication occurs with adverbs of place that are derived by the prefix *ma-* *from*, for example:

maina, mamaina	<i>from there</i>
marama, mamarama	<i>from up there</i>
mati, mamati	<i>from here</i>

There seems to be no semantic difference between the simple and the reduplicated forms.

### 5.3.3. The influence of Tolai on reduplication in Tok Pisin

#### 5.3.3.1. Reduplication of verbs

I. The first type of reduplication, by which transitive verbs are transformed into intransitive ones, has already been discussed in 4.2.3.

II. As for the second type of verbal reduplication, which indicates intensive, repeated, durative, habitual and continuous action in Tolai, there seem to be more divergencies than correspondences between Tolai and Tok Pisin; for they only have in common that intensive and repeated action is expressed by reduplication.

#### (1) Intensive action

As in Tolai, Tok Pisin intransitive and transitive verbs can be reduplicated in order to express intensity (Mühlhäusler 1979:410f. = RP program 4 and 413f.=RD program 7), e.g. *switswit to be very pleasant*, derived from *swit (to be) sweet, attractive*, which exactly corresponds to Tolai *kalami, kalakalami* and *paitpaitim to beat up*, which parallels with Tolai *kitakita* (cf. p. 103).

#### (2) Repeated action

The reduplicated intransitive verbs presented by Mühlhäusler (1979:411) express 'some notion of plurality, indicating that a number of people are involved, or that such an action takes place in a number of different locations or that the action is repetitive'. The same holds true for transitive verbs, for example:

mipela olgeta i haithait nabaut	<i>we all hid at different places</i>
tok bilongen i brukbruk	<i>he is stammering</i>
dispela man i askaskim mi, i	<i>this man asked me many times</i>
askim mi planti taim	
ol i sutsutim dispela man nau	<i>they fired lots of shots at this man</i>

As can be seen from the Tolai examples already given (p. 102) and the following sentences, Mühlhäusler's statements prove right for Tolai as well, for example:

ma dia ga bubur pa ra davai	<i>And they broke off sticks</i>
and they <sup>4</sup> TA break off D stick	(K1 271 P; compare K1 120, 292 P)
i ga purpururung vurvurbit abara	<i>it flew from place to place there</i>
it TA fly everywhere there	
ra mamauvuna	<i>in the open air</i> (K1 281 Nav)
D atmosphere	
pa una bura. nem iau kokoe ke	<i>You will not fall down. I often</i>
not you-will fall. DEM I climb PART	<i>climbed that tree</i> (K1 226 P)

The only difference is that in Tolai texts no sentence can be found in which the reduplication of the verb is solely caused by plurality of the subject. Thus there are no correspondences to sentences like:

ol brata bilong mi indaiindai pinis	<i>My brothers are dead</i> (Mühlhäusler 1979:412)
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matmat, the reduplicated form of mat *to die*, means *to die usually, to be in the process of dying, to faint*, for example:

avet ra umana iniet ave matmat	<i>We iniet die from pork</i> (K1 333 Tam)
we <sup>4</sup> inc D PL iniet we <sup>4</sup> inc die	
ta ra boroi	
from D pig	
...tago ava matmat ma ra gap	<i>...for you all usually die</i>
for you <sup>4</sup> die with D blood	<i>because of the blood</i> (K1 45 P)
...i ga matmat ika ra matana	<i>...he became very sleepy</i>
it TA die PART D eye-his	(K1 137 P)

### (3) Durative action

While in Tolai duration can be expressed by reduplicated verbs, it is 'signalled by reduplication at phrase level', i.e. repetition of words or even whole phrases in Tok Pisin (Mühlhäusler 1979:412, 415 = RD programs 6 and 10):

em i go go go go go kamap	<i>he walked for a long time and finally arrived,</i>
em i kam i kam i kam kamap	<i>he arrived after a lengthy journey,</i>
ol i save tanim tanim hatwara	<i>they take a long time preparing soup.</i>

The repetition of the predicate marker is optional, but the transitive marker *-im* is obligatorily repeated with transitive verbs (otherwise you would have word level reduplication as in *askaskim*).

Phrase level repetition is a general phenomenon and probably found in all languages, and thus in Tolai as well, where the repeated words are often connected by *ma and*, for example:

<i>ma i vana ma i vana ma i vana ma</i>	<i>and she walked for a long</i>
<i>and she go and she go and she go and</i>	<i>time and finally stopped</i>
<i>i tur</i>	<i>(M 86 Rak)</i>
<i>she stand</i>	

(4) Habitual action

In contrast to Tolai, habitual action is not expressed by reduplication in Tok Pisin, but by the verb *save to do habitually* plus the verb that refers to the habitual action, for example:

<i>ol manmeri bilong Papua Niu Gini</i>	<i>Papua New Guineans eat sweet</i>
<i>i save kaikai kaukau</i>	<i>potatoes (Dutton 1973:64)</i>

(Since there is no *kai* in Tok Pisin, *kaikai to eat* is not to be regarded as a verb derived by reduplication, but as a simplex.)

(5) Continuous action

Continuous action is indicated by *i stap* following the verb, for example:

<i>em i wok i stap yet/em i wok yet</i>	<i>he is/was still working</i>
<i>i stap</i>	<i>(Dutton 1973:148)</i>
<i>taim em i wetim pasinda trak i stap</i>	<i>while he was waiting for the</i>
<i>yet em i ritim 'Wantok'</i>	<i>passenger truck, he was reading</i>
	<i>Wantok (Dutton 1973:155)</i>

In the Tok Pisin variety spoken in Rabaul, continuous action is expressed by *wok long* plus verb, for example:

<i>taim em i wok long wetim...</i>	<i>While he was waiting...</i>
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(6) Reciprocal action

In RD program 8 Mühlhäusler presents a type of reduplication at phrase level that is not found in Tolai, namely reduplicated transitive verbs signalling reciprocity, for example:

<i>tupela i paitim paitim</i>	<i>they two were hitting each other</i>
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In Tolai reciprocity is expressed by the prefix *var-*, e.g. *ubu to hit*, *varubu to hit each other, to fight*.



### III. Reduplication as a means to derive nouns from verbs

As already stated by Mühlhäusler (1975b:211), the third type of Tolai reduplication which serves as a device for deriving nouns from verbs is not found in Tok Pisin.

#### Conclusion

The divergencies between Tolai and Tok Pisin suggest that the general idea underlying reduplication in Tolai on the one hand and in Tok Pisin on the other is different. Apart from intensifying reduplication, in Tolai all instances of the second type of reduplication have in common that they express some kind of imperfective aspect, while in Tok Pisin the only function of word level reduplication is to signal some notion of plurality. For that very reason neither durative nor habitual nor continuous action (which cannot be understood as actions consisting of a number of similar actions) are expressed by reduplicated verbs in Tok Pisin. Both concepts are related and overlap insofar as they both include repeated action. Thus substratum influence of Tolai upon Tok Pisin can be excluded as far as verbal reduplication is concerned.

#### 5.3.3.2. Reduplication of nouns

'Word level reduplication of noun bases, and occasionally compound nominals, is used to express the idea that a considerable number of what is referred to by N are involved' (Mühlhäusler 1979:416f.), for example:

mi laikim dispela plasta i ga hulhul	<i>I like this plaster which has many holes</i>
em i wok long kukim kaikai long naitnait	<i>he cooks dinner every night</i>

This is exactly the function of reduplicated Tolai nouns, too (cf. p. 104). Compare:

ma To Purgo i ga vaki go ra and To Purgo he TA make-exist DEM D	<i>And To Purgo made all these holes here (K1 18 P)</i>
lavur tungtung parika various hole all-together	
a bungbung parika dir ga bung D day all they2 TA meet	<i>They met every day (K1 273 P)</i>

In RD program 12 Mühlhäusler (1979:417) presents sentences in which the idea of distribution is expressed by reduplicated nouns, for example:

gavman i putim manmeri long kalabuskalabus	<i>the government locks up people in various prisons</i>
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The same meaning is found with reduplicated nouns in Tolai as well:

ta umana bo dia mono ra some PL <i>still they</i> <sup>4</sup> stay D kubakubaivavat <i>hut-your</i> <sup>4</sup>	<i>Are there still some (cripples) staying in your various huts? (M 126 Rak)</i>
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The last RD program concerning nouns, however, is not attested in Tolai. There are only kinship terms involved, which in their reduplicated form denote 'some distant family relationship' (Mühlhäusler 1979:417), for example:

ol pikinipikini bilong en	<i>his children's children</i>
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#### 5.3.3.3. Reduplication of adjectives

Attributive adjectives may be reduplicated at phrase level in order to express intensity (Mühlhäusler 1979:409 = RD program 1), for example:

ol naispela naispela meri	<i>gorgeous girls</i>
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The only attested item at word level is *bikbikpela snek a hugh snake*. This type of reduplication cannot have been influenced by Tolai, because in Tolai the only attributive adjective that is reduplicated in order to signal intensity is *ikik very small*. Since *ikik* follows the noun in contrast to all reduplicated adjectives presented by Mühlhäusler (including *liklik liklik very little*), it could hardly have served as a model. On the other hand, those Tolai adjectives which precede their noun are only reduplicated in order to indicate the plurality of the whole noun phrase. Thus *a ngalangala na vui* does not mean *a hugh snake*, but *big snakes* (cf. p. 104f.).

#### 5.3.3.4. Reduplication of cardinal numerals

Both in Tolai (cf. p. 105) and Tok Pisin (Mühlhäusler 1979:409 = RD program 2) distributional numbers are derived by reduplication of cardinal numbers, e.g. Tok Pisin *faivfaiv dola five dollars each*, Tolai *a laplaptikai na gai six months each*.

### 5.3.3.5. Reduplication of adverbs

As in Tolai (cf. p. 105f.), in Tok Pisin adverbs can be reduplicated in order to express intensity (Mühlhäusler 1979:410) = RD program 3), for example:

...ol man i stap bipobipo tru	<i>the people who lived in days long gone</i>
em i stap insaitinsait long pukpuk	<i>he was deep inside the crocodile</i>

### 5.3.4. Conclusion

As shown in the table below, Tolai and Tok Pisin have only a very few types of reduplication in common. Since we have already found out that the types of verbal reduplication shared by both languages result from two different though related and partly overlapping concepts, there are only three other types of reduplication left which correspond to each other:

- (1) the reduplication of nouns denoting plurality;
- (2) the reduplication of cardinal numbers by which distributional numbers are derived;
- (3) the reduplication of adverbs denoting intensity.

But these types of reduplication are too common to prove substratum influence.

Grammatical category of the reduplicated item	meaning	this type of reduplication is productive in	
		Tolai	Tok Pisin
verb, tr.	intransitivity	yes	no
verb, tr., intr.	continuous action	yes	no
	habitual action	yes	no
	durative action	yes	no
	repeated action	yes	no
	intensity	yes	yes
	deverbal noun	yes	no
noun	reciprocal action	no	yes
	plurality	yes	yes
	distribution	yes	yes
	distant family relationship	no	yes
attributive adjective	plurality	yes	no
	intensity	no	yes

Grammatical category of the reduplicated item	meaning	this type of reduplication is productive in	
		Tolai	Tok Pisin
cardinal numeral	distributional numeral	yes	yes
adverb	intensity	yes	yes

## 6. PHRASE STRUCTURE

### 6.1. Noun phrase

Tok Pisin and Tolai noun phrases differ in many respects, and what they have in common is due rather to the typological similarity of Tolai and the superstrat language English than to substratum influence. In contrast to Tok Pisin, Tolai noun phrases are overtly marked off by a noun phrase marker, a kind of determinative particle which can be replaced by a possessive pronoun, *ta some* and *tika na one*, *a*.

Tok Pisin	Tolai	meaning
haus	a pal	<i>a/the house, (the) houses</i>
haus bilong mi	kaugu pal	<i>my house</i>
wanpela haus	tika na pla	<i>one/a house</i>
sampela hous	ta pal	<i>some houses</i>

#### 6.1.1. The order of elements

The modifiers of the head noun can be classified into (1) modifiers following and (2) modifiers preceding the head noun. These two classes coincide in Tok Pisin and Tolai in the following cases:

##### (1) head noun + modifier:

##### (i) noun + modifying noun / na + noun

Tok Pisin	Tolai	meaning
haus stua	a pal na kunukul D house C trading	<i>store</i>
haus kapa	a pal na kapa D house C sheet metal	<i>house made of corrugated iron</i>

##### (ii) head noun + bilong / kai + noun:

haus bilong man	a pal kai ra tutana D house of D man	<i>the house of the man</i>
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##### (iii) head noun + bilong / na + noun

haus bilong pisin	a po na beo D nest C bird	<i>a bird's nest</i>
wara bilong waswas	a tava na gunumu D water C bathing	<i>water for a bath</i>

- (iv) head noun + bilong + noun / head noun + modifying noun
- |                   |                        |                                                  |
|-------------------|------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
| man bilong kaikai | a lup nian<br>D eating | a glutton, heavy<br>eater (for lup<br>see p. 90) |
|-------------------|------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
- (v) head noun + relative clause
- |                                                                  |  |                                                                                               |
|------------------------------------------------------------------|--|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| mi lukim dok em i ranim pik<br>I see dog it pm chase pig         |  | I saw a dog that<br>chased my pig<br>(Dutton 1973:95)                                         |
| · bilong mi<br>of me                                             |  |                                                                                               |
| pikinini yu givim mani longen<br>child you give money to-it      |  | The child to whom<br>you gave the money is<br>over there<br>(Dutton 1973:120)                 |
| em i stap long hap<br>it pm is over there                        |  |                                                                                               |
| To Karvuvu i gire ra en<br>To Karvuvu he see D fish              |  | To Karvuvu saw the<br>fish which To Kabinana<br>brought (M 58 Rak)                            |
| To Kabinana i vut meme<br>To Kabinana he come with-it            |  |                                                                                               |
| nina ra tutana kana nem ra uma<br>DEM D man his DEM D garden     |  | The man who owns<br>that garden was<br>bitten into his leg<br>by a kedikpap-ant<br>(K1 340 P) |
| a kedikpap i ga karat ra kakene<br>D k.-ant it TA bite D leg-his |  |                                                                                               |

As you can see from the examples, both in Tok Pisin and Tolai relative clauses are embedded into the main clause without any conjunctive particle. The modified noun, i.e. (v, 1) dok, (v, 2) pikinini, (v, 3) en *fish*, (v, 4) tutana *man*, is referred to by a pronoun in the relative clause, namely em, long-en, meme *with it*, and kana *his* respectively. In modern Bichelamar relative clauses are introduced by the subordinating conjunction *we*, which 'can be omitted under no circumstances' (Guy 1964:39), for example:

ol pis we mi kasem long net...	<i>the fish which I caught with the net...</i>
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Cape York Creole exhibits the same construction (Crowley and Rigsby 1979:203):

dhet trokas wee ai bin fain-im ai kaikai pinis	<i>that trochus which I found, I have eaten it up</i>
---------------------------------------------------	-----------------------------------------------------------

If Tok Pisin is the only South Pacific pidgin whose relative clauses are not introduced by a subordinating particle, Tolai substratum influence seems probable. But unless we have more data about relative clauses in South Pacific pidgins and pidgins in general, any statements about substratum influence remain hypothetical.

## (2) modifier + noun:

## (i) numerals + noun

faipela haus                      a ilima na pal                      *five houses*  
                                                 D five C house

(Like adjectives that precede the noun the cardinal numerals are connected by the connective particle na with the noun in Tolai.)

## (ii) demonstrative + noun

dispela haus                      nam ra pal                      *this house*  
                                                 DEM D house

(Note that in Tolai the determinative particle is maintained, when the noun is modified by a demonstrative pronoun.)

Tolai and Tok Pisin noun phrases differ in the positioning of adjectives and possessive pronouns. As have already been shown in 4.3, the classes of adjectives, which precede and which follow the head noun, do not coincide in Tolai and Tok Pisin, so that substratum influence is to be excluded.

## 6.1.2. The expression of possession

The Tok Pisin possessive construction is very simple and exhibits the same sequence of elements, whether the possessor is indicated by a noun or a pronoun, for example:

papa bilong mi                      *my father*  
 papa bilong pikinini                      *the father of the child*

This construction is already found in ancient Bichelamar, for example:

house belong A.                      *A's house*  
 place belong me                      *my island* (Schuchardt 1888:159)

The Tolai possessive construction is much more complicated and depends on the class membership of the noun indicating the possessed object:

## (1) alienable nouns

kaugu pal, a pal kai ra                      *my house, the house of the man*  
                                                 tutana

## (2) inalienable nouns (terms for body parts, kinship terms)

a lima i ra tutana                      *the hand of the man*  
 D hand of D man  
 tama i ra bul                      *the father of the child*  
 father of D child

a limana  
D hand-his

his hand

tamana  
father-his

his father

- (3) nouns indicating objects that are determined for eating or, in some cases, for other use

a nian ai ra tutana  
ana nian

the food of/for the man  
his food

### 6.1.3. The expression of number

In Tok Pisin singular and plural are usually not distinguished in the form of the nouns (Dutton 1973:44), as they are obligatorily by plural suffixes in most English words. The only exceptions are noun bases that are reduplicated in order to indicate plurality (cf. p. 109). Usually Tok Pisin nouns are neutral as to number, which can be regarded as a pidgin universal (Mühlhäusler 1974:83). Thus, for example, *dok* in Pidgin means either *dog* or *dogs* (Dutton 1973:44). If the speech situation requires specification of the precise number of the things or persons spoken about, the numerals *wanpela one*, *tupela two*, *sampela some*, *planti many* etc. are used. Another means to distinguish between singular and plural is the numeral *wanpela* on the one hand and the pronoun *ol they* on the other, which is used in attributive position as a plural marker (Dutton 1973:44), for example:

<i>dok</i>	<i>a dog, dogs</i>
<i>wanpela dok</i>	<i>one, a dog</i>
<i>ol dok</i>	<i>(the) dogs</i>

According to Mühlhäusler (1975c:30), however, the plural marker *ol* 'is compulsory with animates, unless the nouns are collocated with quantifiers such as *sampela some* or *planti plenty* in which case it is optional.

<i>ol man i wok</i>	<i>(the) men are working</i>
<i>sampela (ol) masta i save</i>	<i>some European men get angry</i>
<i>kros kwiktaim</i>	<i>very quickly</i>

Unfortunately it is not known when the plural marker *ol* became compulsory for animates.

The Patpatar-Tolai languages resemble Tok Pisin in that plurality can only be expressed by reduplication at word level or by cardinal numerals, indefinite quantifiers or a plural marker at phrase level. In contrast to Tok Pisin the plural marker is not identical with the personal pronoun of the third person plural. Indefiniteness in the singular can be expressed by the cardinal numeral *one*, for example:

Tolai	Pala	
tika na bul one C boy	a tika bulu D one boy	a/one boy
a umana bul D PL boy	a bar bulu D PL boy	(the) boys

Tolai		
go ra lavur vavaguai DEM D various animal		all these various kinds of animals (M 52 Rak)
a mangoro na bul D many C boy		many boys

In Tolai the plural marker is only obligatory with nouns denoting human beings which are neither pluralia tantum nor reduplicated, for example:

a (umana) tarai, a (umana) varden	men, women
...ra bulabulavina	the young girls (K1 147 P)
koum barbarmana	your lads (K1 329 P)
...ra ngalangala	the adults (lit. (K1 224 Rav)
a umana tutana, a umana vavina	men, women

In Tok Pisin, however, reduplicated nouns denoting animates are compulsorily accompanied by the plural marker *ol*, for example:

<i>ol</i> kanaka kanaka nabaut long	the various uncivilised people in various places (Mühlhäusler 1975c:32)
<i>ol</i> geta ples	

The Tok Pisin plural marker *ol* is optional for inanimates. Mühlhäusler states (1975c:30f.):

It can be used to refer to entities which are non-discrete and whose extent is not well defined, i.e. the equivalents of English mass terms.

- 23) *I* no gat *ol* kopi na *ol* tabak long stua  
*There is no coffee and tobacco in the store*
- 24) *ol* wetskin *i* no save laikim *ol* brus  
*the white people do not like native tobacco*
- 25) *em* *i* go painim *ol* talinga long bus  
*he went mushrooming*

When referring to discrete entities in the plural, *ol* is not obligatory but is generally favoured if there is a possibility of misunderstanding.

- 26) *ol* *i* wokim (*ol*) nupela haus long ples  
*they are building new houses in the village*
- 27) *em* *i* man bilong katim (*ol*) diwai  
*he is a man that fells trees*



In Tolai the use of the plural marker *umana* is optional for non-human objects, as the Tok Pisin plural marker *ol* is optional for inanimates. But whether *umana* is used or not, is determined by a different concept. *Umana* is not used with nouns denoting things that usually occur in a certain amount and are not regarded as discrete entities as, for instance, fruits or fish, for example:

<i>akave ra galip?</i>	<i>where are the peanuts?</i>
<i>where D peanut</i>	(Kl 119 P)
<i>u ien ragu mao?</i>	<i>did you eat my bananas?</i>
<i>you eat my banana</i>	(Kl 124 P)
<i>...upi dir a ubu go ra</i>	<i>in order to kill these fish</i>
<i>in-order-to they-2 TA</i>	<i>with it (Kl 37 Tanak)</i>
<i>en me</i>	
<i>kill DEM D fish with-it</i>	

Therefore in Tolai translations of Mühlhäusler's examples 23) - 25) do not show the plural marker, for example:

<i>pata kopi ma pata tapeka ta</i>	<i>there is no coffee and</i>
<i>no coffee and no tobacco in</i>	<i>tobacco in the store</i>
<i>ra tito</i>	
<i>D store</i>	

In other instances *umana* is used only if the speaker wants to stress that he is speaking of a number of discrete entities. But if the discreteness of the entities is not to be stressed, *umana* is omitted, for example:

<i>dor a poko ta umana davai,</i>	<i>let's cut some sticks,</i>
<i>we2inc TA cut some PL stick</i>	<i>in order to make men (out of</i>
<i>upi dor a mal ta tarai</i>	<i>these sticks) (Kl 37 Tanak)</i>
<i>so-that we2inc make some men</i>	
<i>...i ga bubur a davai</i>	<i>he broke off sticks</i>
<i>he TA break D stick</i>	(Kl 120 P)

Both in Tolai and Tok Pisin, equivalents to English mass nouns are countable. If the object referred to by the noun occurs in specific quantities, the nouns are combined with cardinal numbers or the plural marker, for example:

<i>Tolai</i>	
<i>i ga pait ra voana kabang,</i>	<i>he cast a spell on (one</i>
<i>he TA cast-a-spell-on D one lime</i>	<i>portion of) the lime and</i>
<i>i ga putinge</i>	<i>blew it (over To Kabinana)</i>
<i>he TA blow-it</i>	(Kl 53 P)
<i>ma una bal ara, a pel tava</i>	<i>and you will stay where there</i>
<i>and you-TA stay there, D many water</i>	<i>are so many rivers and lakes</i>
	(Kl 33 P)

## Tok Pisin

em i pulimaplim wanpela graun  
long wanpela bilum

*she filled a specified quantity  
of earth into a stringbag  
(Mühlhäusler 1975c:35)*

## Conclusion

## Tolai

1. *umana* is obligatory with nouns denoting human beings, unless plurality is already expressed by reduplication.
2. *umana* is not used with nouns referring to objects which usually occur in a certain amount and are not regarded as discrete entities.
3. *umana* is used with nouns denoting non-human objects, if the plurality of discrete entities is to be expressed.
4. In both languages the equivalents to English mass nouns are combined with the plural marker or cardinal numerals, if a certain amount of specific quantities of the noun referent is to be expressed.

## Tok Pisin

- ol* is obligatory with nouns denoting animates, even if they are already reduplicated in order to express plurality.
- ol* is optional with nouns denoting entities 'which are non-discrete and whose extent is not well defined' (Mühlhäusler)
- ol* is generally favoured with nouns referring to discrete inanimates, if there is the possibility of misunderstanding.

Though both Tolai and Tok Pisin lack a bound plural suffix and use a plural marker instead, which precedes the noun, substratum influence cannot be proven. For the absence of a bound plural morpheme is an all too general phenomenon and the distribution of the plural markers *umana* and *ol* is different.

## 6.1.4. The indication of sex

If required by speech situation, in Tok Pisin the sex of persons or animals spoken about can be indicated by *man man* and *meri woman*, which follow the noun in question, for example:

pikinini man, pikinini meri	<i>boy, girl</i>
dok man, dok meri	<i>male dog, bitch</i>
pik man, pik meri	<i>boar, sow</i>

The same device of denoting sex is used in the substratum languages, wherever there is a lack of special words for male and female beings, for example:

Tolai

a bul tutana, a bul vavina	<i>boy, girl</i>
D <i>child man</i> D <i>child woman</i>	
a pap tutana, a pap vavina	<i>male dog, bitch</i>

Besides *tutana* and *vavina*, *tomotoina* *male* and *nana* or *tana* *female* are used in attributive or appositional position, for example:

a <i>tomotoina</i> pap	<i>male dog</i> (Bley 1912:15)
a <i>minot</i> a <i>tomotoina</i>	<i>tom cat</i> (Zwinge n.d.:10)

*Pala* works as *Tolai* does (cf. Peekel 1909:29); if necessary, sex can be indicated by *tunan* *man*, *tumatena* *male* or *hahin* *woman*, *pes* *female*, for example:

a pap a <i>pes</i> , a pap a <i>tumatena</i>	<i>bitch, male dog</i>
----------------------------------------------	------------------------

Because of its relatively small stock of lexical items, in *Tok Pisin* the need for such constructions is much greater than in the substratum languages. Thus *hen* and *cock* are rendered by *paul man* and *paul meri*, whereas *Tolai* has two different words at its disposal, e.g. *loko* *cock* and *kakaruk* *hen*.

Although *Tok Pisin* and the *Patpatar-Tolai* languages are very much alike in their devices for denoting sex, one should be careful in postulating substratum influence on *Tok Pisin*. For using the words for *man* and *woman* is obviously the easiest way at all to express the differences of sexes. In modern *Bichelamar* (Guy 1974b:19) the same construction is found, for example:

pikinini man, pikinini woman	<i>little boy, little girl</i>
pik man, pik woman	<i>boar, sow</i>

whereas in *Samoan Plantation Pidgin* (Mühlhäusler 1975a:35) the word order is the other way round, for example:

man hos, wumen hos	<i>stallion, mare</i>
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According to these data the selection of *man* and *meri* as a device to denote sex in *Tok Pisin* is probably not a result of substratum influence, but due to the common prehistory of Oceanic pidgins or a universal (i.e. wherever a pidgin arises, the difference of sexes is expressed by the means of the words for *man* and *woman*).

The different word order in *Samoan Plantation Pidgin* and *Tok Pisin* can be explained in two ways. The *Tok Pisin* word order noun + *man/meri*

may be a result of substratum influence or caused by a tendency to regularity, since already in Samoan Plantation Pidgin noun phrases show the structure head noun + modifying noun, for example:

haus simen	<i>concrete building</i>
haus pepa	<i>office</i>
haus sik	<i>hospital</i> (Mühlhäusler 1975a:35)

#### 6.1.5. Conclusion

Features common to Tok Pisin and the Patpatar-Tolai languages, but not shared by English are found with

1. the order of elements in the sequence head noun + modifying noun (e.g. *haus stua*);
2. the lack of a subordinating conjunction in relative clauses;
3. the expression of plurality by plural markers;
4. the indication of sex.

The last two items, however, cannot be regarded as proof for substratum influence, since the distribution of the plural markers is different in both languages, and the means to indicate sex are too general to prove anything.

Divergencies are found with

1. the position of adjectives;
2. the possessive construction;
3. the distribution of the plural marker.

Since the position of the adjectives and the possessive construction do not reflect the structure of the superstrat language English, independent development of Tok Pisin must be assumed.

## 6.2. Verbal phrase

### 6.2.1. The predicate marker

In Tok Pisin the verbal phrase is introduced by the predicate marker *i*, unless the pronoun *mi* or *yu* functions as subject, for example:

em *i* go, mi go, yu go    *he goes, I go, you (sg) go*

Though this predicate marker *i* obviously results from Melanesian substratum influence, it is certainly not of Tolai origin, because it

is already found in ancient Bichelamar and subsequently in its descendants modern Bichelamar and Cape York Creole (Guy 1974b:16f., Crowley and Rigsby 1979:185). The predicate marker is absent in Chinese Pidgin English (Hall 1944:101).

In ancient Bichelamar the use of the predicate marker is not stable yet:

boat he capsize, water he kaikai him	<i>the boat capsized and sank</i> (lit. <i>the water ate it</i> )
...and that fellow kaikai him	<i>and that (the fire) eats them</i> (Schuchardt 1883:6/154)

It is left out, when the verbal phrase is preceded by the personal pronoun him *he*, for example:

him fight him my finger	<i>it (the needle) stuck into</i> <i>my finger</i> (Schuchardt 1883: 7/155)
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But under the influence of native Melanesian speakers, i.e. speakers of New Hebridean languages in the case of modern Bichelamar and mainly Patpatar-Tolai speakers in the initial development of Tok Pisin, it became a regular grammatical device in modern Bichelamar and Tok Pisin. In Melanesian languages the verbal phrase is introduced by a shortened form of the personal pronoun, which concords with the subject, and hence is called subject marker. In Tolai the verbal phrase may constitute a sentence, for example:

a tarai dia vana	<i>the men went,</i>
D men sm=they <sup>4</sup> go	
diat dia vana, dia vana	<i>they went,</i>
they <sup>4</sup> sm=they <sup>4</sup> went sm=they <sup>4</sup> go	

(In the interlinear translation of Tolai sentences the subject marker is rendered by the English personal pronoun and thus not distinguished from the Tolai independent pronoun. The numbers 2, 3 and 4 indicate dual, trial and plural. Vana is translated by *went*, because the present is expressed by the reduplicated form *vanavana*.)

Being introduced by the predicate marker *i*, the Tok Pisin verbal phrase structurally resembles the Tolai verbal phrase, especially in the third person singular, because the subject marker of the third person singular is also *i*. So, using Tolai loanwords, you can construct Tok Pisin sentences which only differ from the corresponding Tolai sentences in that the Tolai noun phrase is preceded by a determinative, for example:

Tolai	Tok Pisin	
a tabaran i limlibur	tambaran i limlimbur	<i>the ghost took a walk</i>

### 6.2.2. The nucleus

Both in Tolai and Tok Pisin the nucleus of the verbal phrase is not necessarily formed by verbs as in *man i go*, a *tutana i vana the man went*. The Tok Pisin predicate marker and the Tolai subject marker may also precede a noun or a noun phrase. In Tok Pisin, predicate marker plus noun constitutes a verbal phrase meaning 'to be what is expressed by the noun', while the structurally corresponding expression in Tolai is found only in sentences referring to the past or future and mostly means 'to become what is expressed by the noun', for example:

Tok Pisin	
tispela pikinini i pikinini man	<i>this child is a boy</i>
ol i pren long mi	<i>they are my friends</i> (Laycock 1970: 25f.)

Tolai	
dital ga vat iga	<i>they became stones</i> (K1 442 P)
they-3 TA stone PART	
...ma i ga ngala na pa	<i>...and it (the little taro)</i>
and it TA big C taro	<i>became a big taro</i> (K1 404 Nav)

In Tok Pisin *to become s.th.* is expressed by *kamap*, *tanim long* or *go*:

wara i tanim long wain	<i>the water became wine</i> (Mihalic 1971:192)
pikinini bilong mi i kamap	<i>my child is becoming a doctor</i>
dokta nau	<i>now</i> (Dutton 1973:250)
pikinini i go bikpela man	<i>the baby is getting bigger</i>
	(Mihalic 1971:33)

In Tolai equative sentences referring to the present, the predicate is formed by a noun phrase. Compare:

To Purgo i ga mata na keake	<i>To Purgo became the sun</i> (K1 65 P)
To Purgo he TA face C sun	
iau a mata na keake	<i>I am the sun</i>
I D face C sun	

### 6.2.3. Negation

The position of the negative particle is different in Tok Pisin and Tolai. While in Tok Pisin the negative particle *no* follows the predicate marker *i*, the corresponding Tolai negative particle *pa*

precedes the subject marker, for example:

mi no go	<i>I do/did not go</i>
(iau) pa iau vana	<i>I did not go</i>
(I) not I go	

The position of the negative particle *no* is already found in ancient Bichelamar:

me no look him	<i>I have not seen him</i> (Schuchardt 1883:8/156)
----------------	----------------------------------------------------

#### 6.2.4. Tense and aspect markers

The tense and aspect marker system of Tok Pisin is related to that of modern Bichelamar and Cape York Creole, but does not show any particular similarity to that of Tolai, so that direct substratum influence can be excluded, for example:

Tok Pisin	tense, aspect	meaning
em i bin go	past tense	<i>he went</i>
bai mi go long taun	future tense	<i>I will go to town</i>
mi bai i go long taun		
em i go i stap	continuous action	<i>he is going (was/will be going)</i>
em i stap toktok		<i>he is talking (i.e. talking is what he is doing Wurm 1971b:39)</i>
em i go pinis	completed action	<i>he has/had/will have gone</i>
em i save go	habitual action	<i>he habitually goes</i>
Modern Bichelamar		
olketa ol i bin storyan	past tense	<i>they all told stories</i> (Guy 1974b:17)
bambae yumi kilim	future tense	<i>we'll kill it</i> (Guy 1974b:49)
mi tes finis ritim buk ya	completed action	<i>I have just finished reading this book</i> (Guy 1974b:18)
Apel i stap lukaot sipsip	habitual action	<i>Abel used to tend the sheep</i> (Guy 1974B:18)
Cape York Creole		
im bin kambek	past tense	<i>he has returned</i> (Crowley and Rigsby 1979:191, 192)
baimbai olmaan i go dai	distant future tense	<i>the old man will die sometime</i> (Crowley and Rigsby 1979:192)
i bin go pinis	completed action	<i>he has gone</i> (Crowley and Rigsby 1979:193)

While in Tok Pisin the tense and aspect markers occur in different positions, they always follow the subject marker in Tolai:

una vana <i>you-will go</i>	future tense	<i>you will go</i>
u ga vana	remote past tense	<i>you went (before yesterday)</i>
una ga vana	remote future tense	<i>you will go sometime</i>
u tar vana	resultative	<i>you have gone</i>
u ga tar vana	remote past tense + resultative	<i>you had gone</i>
una tar vana	future tense + resultative	<i>you will already have gone</i>
u la vana	habitual	<i>you usually go</i>

Past tense is expressed by *ga* which, however, is rather a remoteness marker. *Ga* indicates that the action has happened in the past before yesterday or, combined with the future tense marker, remoteness in the future. *Tar* is a resultative marker and can be combined with the remoteness and the future tense marker. Habitual action is expressed by the marker *la* in some dialects, whereas it is expressed by reduplication in others (cf. p. 102). Continuous action is always expressed by reduplication (cf. p. 102). There are numerous other markers following the subject marker as, for instance, *mama* indicating that the action is or was done in vain, or *manga* indicating intensity. As will be discussed in the next paragraph, only the expression of completed action in Tolai shows some similarity with that in Tok Pisin.

#### 6.2.5. Tok Pisin pinis and Tolai par, vapar

In Tolai completed action is often expressed by the intransitive verb *par* or its transitive counterpart *vapar to do (s.th.) completely* following an intransitive or transitive verb respectively. Their use is similar to that of *pinis* in Tok Pisin:

ma dir ian par ma a tutana <i>and they<sup>2</sup> eat finish and D man</i>	<i>They finished eating and the man said = When they had eaten, the man said (M 258 Rak)</i>
i biti <i>he say</i>	
mi kaikai pinis na mi laik i <i>go slip</i>	<i>I have finished eating and shall go to sleep (Laycock 1970:16)</i>
...ma i kikia, ma i kikia par, <i>and he grasp-with-tongs and he grasp-w.-t. do-completely</i>	<i>...and he got (it) out of the fire with tongs, and after he had got (it) out of the fire,</i>
ma i parapara <i>and he roast-between-hot-stones</i>	<i>he roasted it between hot stones (M 148 Rak)</i>



ol man bilong pait i kam long  
stesin kam pinis, ol i  
kirap pait

*The warriors came to the post,  
and after they had come they  
started to fight (Dutton 1973:  
238)*

But *par*, *vapar* differ from *pinis* in that they must not be separated from the preceding verb, while *pinis* may be separated by an object. Furthermore, *pinis* is used with both intransitive and transitive verbs, although the verb *pinis* has a transitive counterpart, namely *pinisim to finish*, for example:

mi sutim wanpela pik pinis  
mi sutim pinis wanpela pik

*I have shot a pig (Dutton 1973:  
150)*

In other words, while *par*, *vapar* are evidently verbs that constitute a verbal chain with the preceding verb (cf. p. 93) the classificatory status of *pinis* is less clear. Laycock calls it 'aspect marker' (1970:xxiii), thus avoiding any identification with traditional parts of speech.

According to its basic meaning, *to do s.th. completely*, *par* and *vapar* are also used in order to express that the action referred to by the preceding verb affects all persons or objects spoken about, for example:

dia ga mat par  
they<sup>4</sup> TA die finish

*they all died (K1 189 P)*

In Tok Pisin, however, this meaning is not expressed by *pinis* because of its different basic meaning. Compare

em i dai he fainted

as opposed to

em i dai pinis he died

In modern Bichelamar *finis* is used in the same sense: *em i tet he is unconscious*, *em i tet finis he is dead* (Guy 1974b:142). Thus we may conclude that the similarities between Tolai *par*, *vapar* and Tok Pisin *pinis* are merely accidental and cannot be explained as a result of Tolai substratum influence on Tok Pisin.

#### 6.2.6. Voice

While there is no particular device in Tok Pisin to denote passive voice, in Tolai a special subject marker, namely *di*, is used when the actor of an action is not to be expressed, for example:

ma di pulu ia  
and sm wrap-up it

*and it (the fish) was wrapped up  
(M 142 Rak)*

*Di* is similar to the German *man* or the French *on*.

## 6.2.7. The use of so-called auxiliaries

In Tok Pisin (1) wants, wishes and desires; (2) competence; (3) physical ability; (4) necessity and obligation and (5) permission are expressed by auxiliaries plus verb, for example:

- |     |                                         |                                                                                 |
|-----|-----------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| (1) | em i laik i wokim haus                  | <i>He wants to build a house</i><br>(Dutton 1973:23)                            |
|     | mi laik go nau                          | <i>I would like to go now</i><br>(Mihalic 1971:118)                             |
| (2) | mi save wasim ka                        | <i>I know how to wash a car</i><br>(Dutton 1973:75)                             |
| (3) | mi inap sanapim dispela pos             | <i>I can (am physically able to)<br/>stand up this post</i><br>(Dutton 1973:77) |
| (4) | ol i mas lukautim papamama<br>bilong ol | <i>They must/should look after<br/>their parents</i> (Dutton 1973:186)          |
| (5) | yu ken sutim dispela pik                | <i>You may shoot this pig</i><br>(Dutton 1973:110)                              |

There are no auxiliaries in Tolai. The notions of wish, competence, ability and obligation are expressed by full verbs plus noun or verbal noun, plus prepositional phrase or clause, for example:

- |     |                                                                           |                                                         |
|-----|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|
| (1) | iau mainge upi ina vana<br><i>I want that I-shall go</i>                  | <i>I want to go</i>                                     |
| (2) | dia ga nunure ra nialir<br><i>they<sup>4</sup> TA know D swimming</i>     | <i>They can (know how to) swim</i><br>(K1 113 P)        |
|     | iau la ta ra tinata Kuanua<br><i>I know PR D speaking Kuanua</i>          | <i>I know how to/can speak Kuanua</i>                   |
| (3) | iau ongor upi ra vinavan<br><i>I strong for D going</i>                   | <i>I can (am strong enough to) go</i><br>(Bley 1912:71) |
|     | pa i tale iau pi ina vana<br><i>not it suit me that I'll go</i>           | <i>I cannot go; it's not possible<br/>for me to go</i>  |
| (4) | i to pa u pi una vana<br><i>it be-suitable for you<br/>that you'll go</i> | <i>You must go</i>                                      |
| (5) | i tale pi una vana<br><i>it suit you that you'll go</i>                   | <i>You may go</i>                                       |
|     | di mulaot upi una vana<br><i>IND consent that you'll go</i>               | <i>You may go</i>                                       |

## 6.2.8. Conclusion

The only structural features shared by Tok Pisin and Tolai verbal phrases are:

1. the use of an introductory particle, i.e. the use of the predicate marker in Tok Pisin and the subject marker in Tolai;
2. the possibility of verbal chaining.

These similarities are rather marginal in comparison with the divergencies between Tolai and Tok Pisin, and since the use of the predicate marker in Tok Pisin can be traced back to ancient Bichelamar, it is only verbal chaining that may have resulted from substratum influence (cf. p. 92ff.).

Divergencies between Tok Pisin and Tolai are found in

1. the meaning of verbal phrases of the structure pm/sm + NP;
2. the position of the negative particle;
3. the tense and aspect marker system;
4. the expression of the passive voice;
5. the expression of the wish, competence, ability, obligation and permission.

## 7. SENTENCE TYPES

### 7.1. Declarative sentences

The following investigation of Tolai and Tok Pisin declarative sentences is based on Tolai sentences which are then compared with the corresponding modes of expression in Tok Pisin. In Tolai simple declarative sentences can be classified into verbal and non-verbal sentences on the basis of whether the predicate is a verbal phrase or not.

#### 7.1.1. Non-verbal declarative sentences

The main difference between Tolai and Tok Pisin is that, apart from one exception, in Tok Pisin the predicate is marked off by the predicate marker, and thus has to be classified as a verbal phrase (cf. p. 122), whereas there are three types of non-verbal sentences in Tolai:

1. existential sentences
2. equative sentences
3. locational sentences

##### 7.1.1.1. Existential sentences

Existential sentences in Tolai consist only of a noun phrase stating the existence of what is expressed by the noun phrase, for example:

a kilala na mulmulum D time C hunger	<i>There was famine</i> (K1 143 Gun)
ma amana a varden parika and formally D women altogether	<i>Formally there were only women</i> (M 92 Liv)
pata taina, a tava parika no salt D water altogether	<i>There was no salt, but only water (on it)</i> (M 106 Rak)

The corresponding Tok Pisin expressions are introduced by *i gat there is*, for example:

i no gat rais long heven	<i>There is no rice in heaven</i> (Dutton 1973:250)
i gat planti man long Niu Gini	<i>There are plenty of men in New Guinea</i> (Dutton 1973:250)

Modern Bichelamar exhibits the same structure, for example:

i kat wan olowala i save	<i>There is an oldster, who knows</i> (Guy 1974b:32)
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#### 7.1.1.2. Equative sentences

There are two types of equative sentences in Tolai. The first one consists of two juxtaposed noun phrases NP<sub>1</sub> + NP<sub>2</sub> expressing that 'NP<sub>1</sub> is NP<sub>2</sub>':

kamava tutana ava? your <sup>4</sup> man what	<i>What are your husbands?</i>
kamave tutana a umana pun our <sup>4</sup> ex man D PL turtle	<i>Our husbands are turtles.</i> (M 92 Liv)

The second type of equative sentence consists of a noun phrase plus a demonstrative pronoun expressing the identity of a person or object pointed at by the speaker, for example:

a vavina nam D woman that	<i>That is a woman</i> (K1 26 Nav)
pata ra guria tuna nam no D earthquake real that	<i>That's not a real earthquake</i> (K1 369 P)

In the Tok Pisin sentences corresponding to the first type of equative sentences in Tolai, the predicate is a verbal phrase, for example:

Dogare i man bilong Niu Gini	<i>Dogare is a New Guinean</i> (Dutton 1973:1)
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The only exception is found with sentences denoting the name of a person or object:

nem bilong tupela Asa na Elu	<i>The names of the two were Asa and Elu</i> (Dutton 1973:262)
------------------------------	--------------------------------------------------------------------

The Tok Pisin equivalents to the second type of equative sentences have a noun phrase as predicate as well, but they differ from the Tolai sentences in that the demonstrative pronoun *em* always precedes the noun phrase, for example:

em wanem? em wanpela snek	<i>What is that? That is a snake.</i>
em haus bilong husat?	<i>Whose house is that?</i>
em haus bilong dispela man	<i>That's this man's house</i> (Dutton 1973:26ff., 40)

In modern Bichelamar the same sentence type is found:

hemya wan yam	<i>This is a yam</i> (Guy 1974b:31)
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#### 7.1.1.3. Locational sentences

The predicate of Tolai locational sentences is a prepositional phrase or an adverb denoting the position or movement of the person or object spoken about, for example:

patana ta ra pal	<i>Nobody was in the house</i> (Kl 484 P)
iau mara ka Kadarok <i>I from-there PART Kadarok</i>	<i>I am coming from Kadarok</i> (Kl 335 P)
iau mamati Raluana <i>I from-here Raluana</i>	<i>I am coming from Raluana here</i>
iau mamati	<i>I am from here</i>

In Tok Pisin and modern Bichelamar such ideas are expressed by verbal phrases containing *i stap to be* and *i kam to come*, for example:

pikinini i stap long stua	<i>The child is in the store.</i>
em i kam long Mosbi	<i>He comes from Moresby.</i>

Bichelamar:

em i stap long bus	<i>He lives in the bush.</i>
mi i kam long karen	<i>I come from the garden</i> (Guy 1974b:34)

#### 7.1.2. Verbal sentences

There are six types of verbal sentences in Tolai:

sentence type	basic word order
(1) stative sentence	sm + V <sub>st</sub> + (NP <sub>sub</sub> )
(2) intransitive sentence	(NP <sub>sub</sub> ) + sm + V <sub>intr</sub>
(3) transitive sentence	(NP <sub>sub</sub> ) + sm + V <sub>tr</sub> + NP <sub>obj</sub>

- (4) descriptive sentence (NP<sub>sub</sub>) + sm + Adj  
 (5) equative sentence (NP<sub>sub</sub>) + sm + NP  
 (6) subjectless sentence - sm + V<sub>intr</sub>

In verbal sentences the subject noun phrase is optional. All verbal sentences except the stative sentences have the basic word order S + V + (O), stative sentences have V + S. If a word or phrase is focalised, it is shifted to sentence-initial position. Focalised noun phrases, other than the subject of stative sentences, must be referred to by personal pronouns in their normal positions.

(1) Stative sentences:

i ga buka ra evu rat Two baskets were filled  
 it TA full D two basket (K1 498 P)

The basic word order of Tok Pisin sentences corresponding to Tolai stative sentences is S + V and thus does not differ from that of intransitive sentences, for example:

ples i pulap long pukpuk the place abounds in crocodiles  
 (Mihalic 1971:161)

(2) - (4) Intransitive, transitive and descriptive sentences:

In all three sentence types Tok Pisin shows the same structure as Tolai:

Tolai	Tok Pisin	meaning
a pap i pot D dog it came	dok i kam	the dog came
iau gire ra pap	mi lukim dok	I saw the dog
a pap i ngala	dok i bikpela	the dog is big

(5) Equative sentences:

As already mentioned above (cf. p. 122), the non-verbal equative sentences in Tolai consist of two juxtaposed noun phrases NP<sub>1</sub> + NP<sub>2</sub> meaning 'NP<sub>1</sub> is NP<sub>2</sub>', whereas the verbal equative sentence has the structure NP<sub>1</sub> + sm + (TA) + NP<sub>2</sub> meaning 'NP<sub>1</sub> was/will be/became/will become NP<sub>2</sub>', for example:

dia vat ika mua They became stones (M 154 Rak)  
 they<sup>4</sup> stone PART PART

a kaliku i ga boroi lua The snake was first a pig  
 D snake it TA pig first (M 218 An)

una moar iau ina tutana You will become a cockatoo and I  
 you'll cockatoo, I I'll man a real man (K1 438 P)

tuna ka  
 real PART

In contrast to Tolai, the Tok Pisin equative sentences are verbal sentences in all tenses and never mean 'to become what is expressed by the NP used as nucleus of the verbal phrase'. The meaning of *to become* has to be expressed by verbs like *tanim long*, *kamap* or *go* (cf. p. 122), for example:

<i>em i kamap kiap</i>	<i>he became District Officer</i>
<i>tispela kanu pastaim i wail limbun</i>	<i>this canoe was a black palm tree</i> (Wurm 1971b:117)

Thus the only type of equative sentences shared by both Tolai and Tok Pisin is that expressing equation in the past and the future tense.

	Tolai	Tok Pisin
equation present tense	NP <sub>1</sub> + NP <sub>2</sub> NP + DEM	NP <sub>1</sub> + i + NP <sub>2</sub> DEM + NP
equation in past and future tense	NP <sub>1</sub> + sm + (TA) + NP <sub>2</sub>	NP <sub>1</sub> + i + NP <sub>2</sub>
<i>to become</i>	NP <sub>1</sub> + sm + (TA) + NP <sub>2</sub>	NP <sub>1</sub> + i + <i>tanim long</i> <i>kamap</i> + NP <sub>2</sub> <i>go</i>

The development of Tok Pisin equative sentences has probably not been influenced by Tolai; for otherwise one would expect that the predicate marker is omitted in the present tense. The occurrence of the predicate marker in equative sentences may have been caused by the tendency of Tok Pisin towards regularity and simplicity (i.e. all predicates have one and the same structure) and the presence of a copula in the superstrat language English. This assumption, however, does not explain why the predicate marker is not found in deictic equative sentences.

(6) Subjectless sentences:

Tolai subjectless sentences consist only of a verbal phrase introduced by the 3rd pers. sg. subject marker. They refer to natural events or daytime, for example:

<i>i ga guria, i ga labur ma i ga</i> <i>it TA quake, it TA storm and it TA</i>	<i>The earth quaked, it stormed</i> <i>and thundered (K1 59 P)</i>
<i>pipi</i> <i>thunder</i>	
<i>i ga bata, na keake</i> <i>it TA rain it-will sun</i>	<i>It rained (M 42 Rak), the sun</i> <i>will shine</i>
<i>i ga malana, nem ra tutan i</i> <i>it TA morning, DEM D man he</i>	<i>In the morning the man went</i> <i>off (K1 67 P; lit. it became/</i> <i>was morning...)</i>
<i>go vana</i> <i>TA go</i>	

(Compare: ...tago a bata ka iat      ...because there was rainy weather  
 because D rain PART PART      (lit. rain) for a long time  
 (K1 80 P))

While in Tolai this sentence type is productive, there are only a very few items in Tok Pisin which do not have a subject, for example:

i tudak pinis      *It is already dark*  
 yu kamap bai i tudak long yu      *You will reach there after dark*  
 you arrive FUT pm dark for you      (Mihalic 1971:46, 198)

but

ren i kam daun      *The rain comes down, it rains*  
 san i lait      *The sun shines* (Mihalic 1971:  
 164, 169)

The Tok Pisin verb *gat*, which is used without subject in the meaning of *there is*, e.g. *i gat san to be sunny* (Mihalic 1971:169), has no equivalent in Tolai (cf. p. 128).

## 7.2. Interrogative sentences

In contrast to English, Tok Pisin questions show the same sequence of elements as declarative sentences. Yes-no questions are distinguished from declarative sentences by intonation or by using the tags *a* or *o* *nogat* or *not* (Dutton 1973:41), for example:

yu lukim em a ?      *You see him, don't you?*  
 yu lukim em o nagat ?      *Do you see him or not?*

In word questions the interrogative word or phrase holds the same position as the word asked for in the corresponding answer, for example:

yutupela i laik kisim wanem ?      *What do you want to get?*  
 mitupela i laik kisim kaikai      *We want to get food* (Dutton  
 1973:17)

Only *haumas* tends to stand at the beginning of the sentence when functioning as a noun object (Wurm 1971:63), for example:

haumas yu kisim pinis ?      *How much did you get?*

Tolai interrogative sentences exhibit the same structure, for example:

u gire ? u gire, laka ?      *Did you see him? You saw him,  
 didn't you?*

(*laka* is also used in Tok Pisin, e.g.

nating em i mekim olsem, laka ?      *He did it this way didn't he?*  
 (Mihalic 1971:119) )



Tolai	Tok Pisin	meaning
u pait ra ava? <i>you do D what</i>	yu mekim wanem?	<i>What did you do?</i>
u van' uve? <i>you go where-to</i>	yu go we?	<i>Where did you go?</i>
u kankanta ra ava? <i>you be-angry because- of what</i>	yu kros long wanem samting?	<i>Why are you angry?</i>

If the interrogative is focalised it is shifted to the beginning of the sentence, for example:

ma ava u enen ia <i>and what you eat it</i>	<i>What did you eat in the meantime?</i> (M 100 Rak)
ava nam u iaian ia? <i>what DEM you eat it</i>	<i>What is it that you are eating?</i> (K1 220 Rav)

The Tok Pisin interrogatives occur in sentence initial position as well and it seems to me that this positioning is also due to focalisation, for example:

wonem samting yu lukim?	<i>What is it you see?</i>
yu lukim wonem samting?	<i>What is it you see?</i> (Laycock 1970:xxix)

Since Tok Pisin questions are very similar to Tolai questions, substratum influence seems possible. But the word order in Tok Pisin questions (which is the same as in declarative sentences) probably did not only result from substratum influence, but also from simplification of the word order of the superstrat language, which led to the same word order in all types of sentences.

In ancient Bichelamar texts collected by Schuchardt interrogatives are placed at the beginning of the sentence, whereas in modern Bichelamar questions show the same structure as in Tok Pisin. In Cape York Creole, however, the interrogatives are placed at the beginning of the sentence as in ancient Bichelamar and English (Crowley and Rigsby 1979:197).

what kaikai me make him?	<i>What shall I make for dinner?</i> (Schuchardt 1889:159)
what man you give him stick?	<i>Whom did you give the stick?</i> (Schuchardt 1883:8/156)

Modern Bichelamar:

yuvala i ko?	<i>Did you go?</i> (Guy 1974b:38)
i stap we?	<i>Where is he?</i> (Guy 1974b:166)
yu wantem wanem?	<i>What do you want?</i> (Guy 1974b:13)

### 7.3. Imperative sentences

In Tok Pisin imperative sentences usually the person to whom the command is addressed is indicated by the 2nd person pronoun, so that imperative sentences are distinguished from declarative sentences by intonation only, e.g. *yu go!*, and optionally *go!*. Tolai exhibits a similar structure; the only difference is that the future tense has to be used, which in contrast to Tok Pisin is obligatory in declarative sentences referring to the future as well, for example:

*una vana! go!*  
*you'll go*

But since in most pidgins the structure of imperative sentences is identical with that of declarative sentences, it seems that in Tok Pisin the structure of imperative sentences is rather due to simplification than due to substratum influence.

### 7.4. Conclusion

As shown in the table below, there are only a few types of sentences which show the same structure both in Tok Pisin and Tolai.

Sentence type:

#### 1. Non-verbal declarative sentences

- |                           |   |
|---------------------------|---|
| (1) existential sentences | - |
| (2) equative sentences    | - |
| (3) locational sentences  | - |

#### Verbal declarative sentences

- |                            |      |
|----------------------------|------|
| (1) stative sentences      | -    |
| (2) intransitive sentences | +    |
| (3) transitive sentences   | +    |
| (4) descriptive sentences  | +    |
| (5) equative sentences     | -(+) |
| (6) subjectless sentences  | -    |

#### 2. Interrogative sentences

+

#### 3. Imperative sentences

+

- |      |                                                                                         |
|------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| -    | = This sentence type has not the same structure in Tolai and Tok Pisin.                 |
| +    | = This sentence type has the same structure in Tolai and Tok Pisin.                     |
| -(+) | = This sentence type has the same structure in Tolai and Tok Pisin in a very few cases. |

The few cases in which Tolai and Tok Pisin sentence structure coincide cannot serve as a proof of substratum influence. For the structure of interrogative and imperative sentences in Tok Pisin can also be explained as the result of simplification of English sentence structure; and the structure of intransitive, transitive and descriptive sentences is similar to that of the corresponding English sentences as well.

## 8. INDICES

### 8.1. Index of languages other than Tolai and Tok Pisin

Bichelamar, ancient	1, 8, 15, 17, 19, 22, 41, 42, 48ff., 56, 114, 121, 123, 133.
Bichelamar, modern	8, 10, 14, 15, 16, 17, 21, 22, 42, 58, 60, 63, 113, 119, 121, 123, 125, 129, 133.
Cape York Creole	8, 13, 22, 42, 58, 113, 121, 123, 133.
Chinese Pidgin	41, 121.
Duke of York	37
Highlands and Lowlands Pidgin	46
Islands Pidgin	46
Kalil	26ff.
King	9, 24, 25ff.
Label	7, 9, 16, 21, 24, 25ff., 60ff., 81.
Lamassa	9, 24, 25.
Lamekot	27
Laur	16, 24, 25ff.
Mioko	7, 9, 25ff., 60ff.
Molot	7, 9, 13, 25ff., 60ff.
Pala	7, 9, 16, 21, 25ff., 58, 60ff., 81, 116, 119.
Samoan Plantation Pidgin	1ff., 17, 22, 41, 42, 58, 119, 120.
Solomon Pidgin English	42

## 8.2. Grammatical index

action, completed	123, 124
continuous	101, 102, 108, 123
durative	102, 107
habitual	102, 108, 123
intensive	103, 106
reciprocal	108
repeated	103, 106
resultative	124
adjective	54ff., 77-79, 84, 104, 110
adverb	79, 94, 99, 105, 111
affricates	16
aspect	40, 101, 103, 123, 125
auxiliaries	126
case	40
causative	42, 43, 47, 64, 78, 81, 82
compounds	83ff.
compounds, bahuvrihi	85
cumulative	40, 84
equative	88
exocentric	85
consonants	8ff.
copula	79
derivation	64ff.
diphthongs	21
distribution	110
dual	60
exclusive	60
flaps	17
fricatives	11ff.
future tense	123, 124
imperfective	103
inclusive	60

loanwords	23ff.
multifunctionality	65ff., 69ff.
nasals	16
negation	122ff.
noun	40, 104, 109
noun, abstract	77, 80
nomen agentis	72
instrumenti	69-71
loci	88
noun, verbal	82, 104
noun phrase	112
noun phrase marker	112
number	40, 115
numeral	114
numeral, cardinal	61, 105, 110, 115
distributional	63, 105, 110
ordinal	64
object	46, 91
passive	125
past tense.	123, 124
person	40
plurality	40, 104-6, 109-10, 115
plural marker	116ff.
possession	114
predicate marker	120, 127ff., 131
prenasalization	9ff., 24
pronoun, demonstrative	114, 129
interrogative	132
personal	60
possessive	114
quantifier	115
question	132
reciprocity	44, 108

reduplication	41, 44ff., 70, 72-74, 82, 100, 115
relative clause	113
sentence, declarative	127ff.
descriptive	130
equative	122, 128, 130
existential	127
imperative	134
interrogative	132
intransitive	130
locational	125
non-verbal	127
stative	130
subjectless	131
transitive	130
verbal	129
sex	128
stops	9ff.
subject	130
subject marker	122, 124
tense	40, 123
trial	60
triplication	103
verb	40
verb, intransitive	40, 54, 75-76, 101, 103
stative	43, 103
transitive	40, 69, 71-74, 77
verbal chaining	92ff.
verbal nouns	82, 104
verbal phrase	120
voice	125
vowels	19ff.

## 8.3. Index of Tok Pisin words

abus	25	gat	41, 46ff., 132
aibika	25	givim	46
aila	25	gorgor	27
ainanga	25	guma	27
arovar	25	guria	28
atap	25	han	4
atun	25	haus	75
aupa	25	-im	40
bai	123	inap	126
baimbai	10	kakaruk	2, 28
baira(im)	25, 70	kalang	28
balus	15, 24, 25	kalangar	28
bek	99	kamap	131
bembe	24, 26	kambang	3, 24, 28, 76
bilong	112, 122	kanai	28
bin	123	kapiaka	3, 29
bingim	26	kapul	29
birua, virua	12, 26	karapa	24, 29
bombom(im)	24, 26, 71	karapua	17, 29
buai	3, 26	karava	29
buidaka	84	karavia	29
bukbuk	26	katu	29
bulit(im)	26, 70	kaur	29
bung	27, 75	kavivi	13, 24, 29
dai	59, 125	kawawar	13, 29
daka	27	kawiwi	13, 29
diwai	3, 13, 24, 27	kiau	30
erima	27	kibung, kivung	30, 75
galip	27	kilamo	30
garamut	27	kina	30

kindam	24, 30	malambur	24, 33
kokomo	30	malari	33
kol	30	maleo	33
kotkot	30	malira, marila(im)	17, 33, 73
krokkrok	30	malip	33
krungut	10	malolo	24, 33
kuka	30	malumalu	33
kukurai	31	mami	33
kulau	31	manangunai	34
kumu	31	marila cf. malira	33
kumul	31	marimari	34
kumurere	31	marmar	34
kunai	31	mas	126
kundar	24, 71	matakiau	34
kundu	10, 24, 31	matmat	2, 34
kurita	31	mau, maupela	34, 57
laik	126	me, meme	35
laka	31, 132	melisa	35
lala	32	mon	35
lalai	32	mosong	15, 24, 35, 76
lang	32	muli	24, 35
laup	32	mumut	24, 35
leva, lewa	12	muruk	2, 35
liklik	3, 24, 32	nating	58
limlimbur	3, 26, 32, 75	natnat	16, 35
longlong	24, 32	ngong	16
lotu	2, 75	no	123
luluai	32	nok	35
luluaitultul	84	ol	115
makau	32	palai	35
mal	33	palpal	36



pangal	24, 36	tambirua	17, 24, 38
papait	36, 73	tambu	24, 38, 58
par, var	36	tanget(im)	38, 73
pekpek	36	tangir	38
-pela	56	tapiok	38
pinis	59, 123, 124	taragau	24, 38
pipia	36	tarangu	38
pitpit	36	taur	12, 38
pui	24, 36	ton	38
puinga	10, 24, 36	Trinde	10
pukpuk	2, 37	tru	58
pundaun	10	tultul	38
purpur, pulpul	17, 37	tumbuan	39
rabung	37	tumbuna	39
raring	37	tuptup	39
rokrok	37	umben(im)	24, 39, 73
ruru	37	utun	39
sambai	10	vinega, binega	12
save	108, 123, 126	virua, birua	12, 39
sindaun	10	vot, bot	12
stap	108, 123, 133	vut, vun	12, 39
susu	15, 24, 37	waira	13, 24, 39
talai	37	wokabaut	3
talis	15, 37	wokurai	39
tambaran	2, 10f., 24, 38	yet	40

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